

Tourism, Hospitality & Event Management

Sue Beeton · Alison Morrison *Editors*

The Study of Food, Tourism, Hospitality and Events

21st-Century Approaches

 Springer

Tourism, Hospitality & Event Management

This book series covers all topics relevant in the tourism, hospitality and event industries. It includes destination management and related aspects of the travel and mobility industries as well as effects from developments in the information and communication technologies. "Tourism, Hospitality & Event Management" embraces books both for professionals and scholars, and explicitly includes undergraduate and advanced texts for students. In this setting the book series reflects the close connection between research, teaching and practice in tourism research and tourism management and the related fields.

More information about this series at <http://www.springer.com/series/15444>

Sue Beeton · Alison Morrison
Editors

The Study of Food, Tourism, Hospitality and Events

21st-Century Approaches

 Springer

Editors

Sue Beeton
William Angliss Institute
Melbourne, VIC
Australia

Alison Morrison
William Angliss Institute
Melbourne, VIC
Australia

ISSN 2510-4993 ISSN 2510-5000 (electronic)
Tourism, Hospitality & Event Management
ISBN 978-981-13-0637-2 ISBN 978-981-13-0638-9 (eBook)
<https://doi.org/10.1007/978-981-13-0638-9>

Library of Congress Control Number: 2018941997

© Springer Nature Singapore Pte Ltd. 2019

This work is subject to copyright. All rights are reserved by the Publisher, whether the whole or part of the material is concerned, specifically the rights of translation, reprinting, reuse of illustrations, recitation, broadcasting, reproduction on microfilms or in any other physical way, and transmission or information storage and retrieval, electronic adaptation, computer software, or by similar or dissimilar methodology now known or hereafter developed.

The use of general descriptive names, registered names, trademarks, service marks, etc. in this publication does not imply, even in the absence of a specific statement, that such names are exempt from the relevant protective laws and regulations and therefore free for general use.

The publisher, the authors and the editors are safe to assume that the advice and information in this book are believed to be true and accurate at the date of publication. Neither the publisher nor the authors or the editors give a warranty, express or implied, with respect to the material contained herein or for any errors or omissions that may have been made. The publisher remains neutral with regard to jurisdictional claims in published maps and institutional affiliations.

Printed on acid-free paper

This Springer imprint is published by the registered company Springer Nature Singapore Pte Ltd. part of Springer Nature
The registered company address is: 152 Beach Road, #21-01/04 Gateway East, Singapore 189721, Singapore

Foreword

This book offers a contemporary major case study showing comprehensively and in detail how a forward looking institution in the field of food, tourism, hospitality and events gradually develops and secures new practices and programs which effectively cater for student needs and industry priorities in changing times. The many contributors from within the institution demonstrate, from their quite varied perspectives and roles, how a well-regarded and established vocational institute can reinvent itself in staged and progressive steps to respond to three big challenges: a shift in the balance in student preferences towards higher education and away from, or alongside, traditional vocational courses; the need for a responsive institution to focus more on the needs of learners by carefully measuring, documenting and researching their achievements; and in a world where employment opportunities are changing rapidly, ensuring staff and students is increasingly connected with industry, aware of the changing circumstances and actively participating in work-integrated learning.

These three challenges form the basis of moving what was the first Australian trade college for the food industry, the William Angliss Food Trade School of the 1940s, through its evolution as Australia's largest provider of vocational and higher education for the foods, tourism and hospitality industry, to grappling today with harmonising its VET and higher education programs into a cohesive set of offerings based on unified principles and philosophy across the entire institute, gaining the authority to self-accredit its courses and so in time to become recognised as a specialist university in its defined field of study.

Looking at the many widely drawn separate contributions from institute staff which constitute the four major sections of the book gives me confidence that the goal is achievable and that the institute will succeed in the turnaround it has set itself, but due to the scale and complexity of the external challenges, the road ahead is unlikely to be simple and straightforward. My confidence stems also from the Introduction and Conclusion chapters which bookend these central specific detailed chapters.

In the beginning and end chapters, the corporate and strategic leaders show they respect their institution's own evolving history and they build on this rather than dismantle it, they have anticipated the changes in both the education landscape and the industry landscape and so have sought to best position the institution through seizing opportunities as well as coping with the downsides, and importantly, they have chosen well in bringing to the daily leadership of the institute knowledgeable and future-oriented people who will sustain the strategic direction and not be deterred by the inevitable roadblocks that will arise.

But leaders alone are not enough. As more than 20 individual staff contributors show across different and diverse topics, there exists a cohesive level of shared understanding that should result in confident resolve and collaborative effort when needed for the attaining of major goals.

Thanks also to the key design role of the editors who are associated with the institute in advisory capacities, the completion of this book is a significant milestone on the road ahead. I hope the book excites interest and is read in parallel institutions around the world. It describes an institution honestly and openly taking a confident stand to create its own future in the midst of local and global changes of context.

Melbourne, Australia

Professor Kwong Lee Dow
University of Melbourne
kwong.leedow@unimelb.edu.au

Kwong Lee Dow AO has run two universities and conducted at least 17 education-related reviews. He has advised governments and chaired or contributed to more than a dozen councils and boards in Australia, Hong Kong, Singapore, New Zealand and Saudi Arabia. Among others, he is a member of the Academic Board of William Angliss Institute.

Contents

Part I Introduction

- 1 Introduction** 3
Alison Morrison and Sue Beeton
- 2 Framing Scholarly Practice** 13
Melanie Williams

Part II The Study of Food, Tourism, Hospitality and Events: Past, Present and Future

- 3 Tourism and Food: Necessity or Experience?** 27
Oswin Maurer
- 4 Event Studies: Progression and Future in the Field** 37
Leonie Lockstone-Binney and Faith Ong
- 5 The Australian Qualifications Framework and Lifelong
Learning: An Educator's Perspective** 47
Robert Broggian
- 6 Cooking the Books** 59
David Gilligan
- 7 An Indigenous Journey** 71
Karon Hepner and Liz Lotter

Part III From Vocational to Higher Education: A Continuing Journey or Full Stop?

- 8 Curricular Reform in Food Programs** 89
Ken Albala

9	Supporting Scholarship: Reshaping a Vocational Educational Library for Higher Education	95
	Paul Kloppenborg	
10	Better Together: Negotiating the Tension Between Liberal and Practical Knowledge in Event Management Curriculum Design	107
	Jeffrey Wrathall and Lynn Richardson	
11	Mobility as the Teacher: Experience Based Learning	121
	John O'Donnell and Laurin Fortune	
12	Student Learning and Employability: Immersion in Live Events	133
	Garth Lategan and Melanie Williams	
13	Designing and Running Overseas Study Tours	143
	Effie Lagos, Andrew Dolphin and Fran Kerlin	
Part IV Research Informed Teaching		
14	Bridging the Gap: Making Research ‘Useful’ in Food, Tourism, Hospitality and Events—The Role of Research Impact	157
	Tom Baum	
15	Participatory Action Research as Development Tool for Industry Training: Artisan Gelato	167
	Angela Tsimiklis	
16	Outside the Classroom Walls: Understanding War and Peace on the Western Front	181
	Caroline Winter	
17	Student Leadership Development	191
	Marcela Fang and Faith Ong	
18	International Students as Tourists: Implications for Educators	203
	Natasha Hobbs	
19	Through the Camera Lens: Utilising Visual Imagery with Short Study Tours Abroad	213
	Kim Marianne Williams	
Part V Pushing the Boundaries of Scholarship		
20	Fueling a Praxis-Exegesis Cyclical Model	227
	Susan Sykes Hendee	

21 Context Specific Language: Critical to Student Learning 235
Ian Frost and Emma Gronow

22 Simulated Pedagogies and Autoethnographic Reflections 245
Madelene McWha

Part VI Conclusions: Into the 21st Century

**23 Plausible Futures: Transforming Ourselves, Transforming
Our Industry 257**
Melanie Williams

24 Conclusion: Studying Scholarship in Changing Times... 269
Sue Beeton and Alison Morrison

Editors and Contributors

About the Editors

Sue Beeton is the Foundation Chair of the College of Eminent Professors at William Angliss Institute, and has held academic and management positions at La Trobe University. She is Vice President of the Travel and Tourism Research Association and founded the Asia-Pacific Chapter. She has published widely in the areas of film tourism, ecotourism, land management and community development.

Alison Morrison is an Eminent Professor at William Angliss Institute. She has held professorial posts at the Universities of Strathclyde, Surrey, and Victoria in Melbourne. She has widely published in her areas of academic expertise including hospitality and entrepreneurship.

Contributors

Ken Albala is Professor of History at the University of the Pacific in Stockton, California and Chair of the Food Studies M.A. program in San Francisco. He is the author or editor of 24 books on food including academic monographs, encyclopaedias, handbooks, cookbooks and popular food histories. He was co-editor of the journal *Food, Culture and Society*, and now edits Rowman and Littlefield Studies in Food and Gastronomy. Ken is a member of the College of Eminent Professors at William Angliss Institute.

Tom Baum is a Professor and Head of the Department of Human Resource Management in the Strathclyde Business School, University of Strathclyde in Glasgow and a specialist in the study of employment, education and training in the context of the international tourism and hospitality industry. He has over 35 years' experience in vocational and higher education and has published ten books and over 175 scientific papers in the context of vocational education and training. He is a member of the College of Eminent Professors at William Angliss Institute.

Robert Broggian has an extensive background in curriculum design and development in the tourism and hospitality sector. Prior to joining William Angliss Institute as the Senior Educator in Quality and Curriculum, he was the Academic Director at Ashton College and has also served as the Hospitality Coordinator at the Melbourne Institute of Tourism and Hospitality.

Andrew Dolphin is Associate Dean (Higher Education Operations) at William Angliss Institute. His expertise includes Adult Education, Comparative Education and Curriculum Theory. Andrew moved to education from a long hotel and restaurant management background including the design and development of a purpose built training restaurant for disadvantaged and underprivileged community groups. He has developed and delivered curriculum for industry, vocational and higher education settings.

Marcela Fang's research focus is on leadership, and leadership development and evaluation programs. She is Lecturer in Management at William Angliss Institute where she lectures in strategic management, innovation and marketing. Her previous academic positions include lecturing at Victoria University.

Laurin Fortune is Head of Academic Operations, the Hotel School, Melbourne. Prior to her appointment to the Hotel School, she was a Lecturer in Finance at William Angliss Institute.

Ian Frost is a Lecturer in Hospitality Operations in the Faculty of Higher Education programs at William Angliss Institute. His particular subject area is wine studies although this extends to food and beverage operations. He has worked in VET and HE and has a wealth of restaurant and hotel management experience in Australia and the UK. Ian initiated and ran the Victorian TAFE Barista competition for some years to help promote collaboration between TAFE institutes and to improve the skills of all associated students.

David Gilligan has been as an Executive Chef at the Victorian Arts Centre, operated his own café/food business and represented Australia twice at the Culinary Olympics receiving three gold medals. He is now Chef/Industry Trainer, William Angliss Institute His research interests include food and travel.

Emma Gronow is a Lecturer at William Angliss Institute in the areas of Accounting and Revenue Management. She also supports the Faculty in governance and curriculum development. Particular areas of interest are governance, the student learning experience and hotel data analytics. She is currently the only CHIA (Certificate of Hotel Industry Analytics) certified instructor in Australia.

Susan Sykes Hendee is based in the US and is an Eminent Professor at William Angliss Institute. Her research is in “emotional intelligence” and computerization. She is certified by the American Culinary Federation as a Certified Culinary Educator and awarded fellow of The American Academy of Chefs. She teaches hospitality, foods and culinary management with emphasis on gastronomy and cultural foods.

Karon Hepner has over 30 years' experience in the Hospitality, Events, Foods and Education industries with positions held in the Human Resources and Learning and Development sectors with the following organisations, Compass Group (Australia) P/L; Delaware North (Australia); Royal Automobile Club Victoria (RACV); Australian Venue Services; Tourism Training Victoria; Hilton Hotels and RMIT. She is the National Training Manager at William Angliss Institute, including all Indigenous delivery Australia wide.

Natasha Hobbs is a long term tutor and lecturer at William Angliss Institute and has variously worked at a range of other educational organisations. Her industry experience spans over 10 years at a managerial level in the leisure and corporate travel fields as well as business development within the tourism and hospitality industries.

Fran Kerlin is the Manager, City Activation, Strategic Partnerships at the City of Melbourne. She is responsible for leading, managing and developing the City Activation and Strategic Partnership direction for the Business and Tourism branch at City of Melbourne.

Paul Kloppenborg is the Manager of Learning and Information Services at William Angliss Institute and is currently completing his Ph.D. At the core of the study is the move by Technical and Further Education (TAFE) institutions into Higher Education (HE), and the role of TAFE libraries in supporting that move.

Effie Lagos is a Lecturer in Event Management at William Angliss Institute. Effie has over 20 years of industry experience having worked with tourism operators as a tour leader and as an event coordinator in a range of events including sporting, educational and business events. Key research areas: branding transformative experiences. She is currently completing her Ph.D. on the consumption of pilgrimage tourism.

Garth Lategan has extensive industry experience in running nightclubs, festivals and events. Garth is the Event Producer for World Vegan Day Melbourne which is now the 3rd largest vegan festival in the world. He is a Trainer and Assessor in the Tourism and Event Department at William Angliss Institute.

Leonie Lockstone-Binney is Associate Dean (Research) at William Angliss Institute, joining the organisation in June 2015. Previously, Leonie was employed at Victoria University as Associate Professor of Event Management and Discipline Head of Tourism, Hospitality and Events. Building on her Ph.D. study of the management of volunteers and paid staff in the cultural tourism sector, Leonie's main area of research expertise since 2000 relates to volunteering, specifically in event and tourism settings.

Liz Lotter is a Hospitality Trainer and Program developer at William Angliss Institute. She has over 20 years hospitality industry experience in the front of house, develops and trains for Angliss National and International industry projects. She lived at Ayers Rock Resort for 3 years to implement the Indigenous traineeship program in 2011 and continues to facilitate such programs and other initiatives at the Institute.

Oswin Maurer is an innovative academic with extensive international experience in key roles such as the implementation of internationally-accredited undergraduate, graduate and postgraduate programmes. His areas of interest and expertise include strategic market management, international business, food industry management, internationalisation, and tourism management/economics. He has authored/co-authored a wide range of publications and is a member of the College of Eminent Professors at William Angliss Institute.

Madelene McWha has received numerous teaching awards, focusing on the use of new and engaging educational technologies. She is a Tourism Lecturer at William Angliss Institute and a recipient of an Australian Postgraduate Award. She is passionate about her research and has published in top-tier academic tourism journals. Her current key academic interests include tourism and the media, digitalism and sustainability and ethics in travel.

John O'Donnell has 40 years working within the hospitality and tourism industry, from casual footman at Government House and assistant manager at the Botanical Hotel, to catering to film crews, working as a wine waiter at Stephanie's Restaurant and even as a flight attendant with Qantas International, and a guide/driver for wine tours. He is the RPL Coordinator Tourism, Events and Hospitality and Lecturer in Wine Tourism, Sustainability at William Angliss Institute.

Faith Ong is a specialist in volunteer tourism in the Faculty of Higher Education at William Angliss Institute. In addition to publishing within the areas of tourism and leisure, Faith has taught research methods, sustainable operations, and tourism, hospitality and event management at a tertiary level. With previous experience in corporate events and hospitality, she has incorporated industry experience into her teaching and research.

Lynn Richardson is Non-Executive Chair of the Environmental Group Ltd. and Director of Sustain: The Australian Food Network. She is a lecturer at William Angliss Institute, where she led the development of the Bachelor of Resort and Hotel Management program.

Angela Tsimiklis' current research surrounds traditional Italian gelato. She has been involved in the Hospitality industry for over 26 years and has worked with some highly regarded chefs in the United Kingdom and in China. She is the Program Leader for Patisserie and Bakery programs at William Angliss Institute, leading a team of 30 Patisserie and Bakery chefs that provide innovative training programs through currency and sustainability of skills development.

Kim Marianne Williams is a Lecturer in the Faculty of Higher Education at William Angliss Institute. She lectures in event management and human resources. Her research background is diverse but tends to focus on human resources issues, with a prime emphasis on professional development and training.

Melanie Williams Prior to joining William Angliss Institute as Associate Dean (Scholarship), Melanie Williams was employed as Senior Advisor, Learning and Teaching in the College of Design and Social Context at RMIT University. Melanie's doctoral studies investigated worldview transformation through engagement in scenario learning. She continues to build on this work through employing a transformative and futures-oriented approach to academic development and scholarly practice.

Caroline Winter is Lecturer at William Angliss Institute. She has worked at the University of Southern Queensland, La Trobe University, Charles Sturt University and Federation University where she taught tourism, management and research methods. Caroline is interested in the natural environment and sustainability. Dr. Winter's current and primary research focus concerns the First World War (1914–1918), and the way in which social memory and remembrance are formed through tourist activities.

Jeffrey Wrathall is a Lecturer in the Faculty of Higher Education and Course Co-ordinator of the Bachelor of Event Management at William Angliss Institute. He previously worked at Monash University for 18 years. He holds a Ph.D. in Education which examined alternative designs for the content and delivery of M.B.A. programs offered by Western Universities in China. Jeff has also worked as the Director of Australia-China Executive Training and has managed a range of training and team-building events for Chinese executives in Australia and China. He has published widely in these areas.

Part I
Introduction

Chapter 1

Introduction



Alison Morrison and Sue Beeton

Abstract This chapter sets the scene for the content of the book. It places it within the international vocational and higher education environment, examines key drivers of change generally and within the context of the food, tourism, hospitality and events fields of study. Macro trends are identified and discussed including the changing nature of the world of education, the pervasive nature of technology both in the educational and professional arenas, transformations in the workplace, and global citizenry for a sustainable future. Conclusions are drawn relative to the future of education in the respective fields of study, and appropriate 21st century approaches for teaching, research, scholarship.

Keywords Pedagogies · Vocational education · Higher education · Scholarship

The content of this book is an amalgam of contributions authored by educators, and eminent experts involved in the food, tourism, hospitality and events fields of study. The key objective is to push the boundaries of understanding relative to scholarly and innovative ways to teach trades, craft skills, and applied knowledge. Further, it embraces strong engagement with industry, and civil society in the co-creation of learning and knowledge. The context is a specialist educational centre for food, tourism, hospitality and events which has a 75-year history of offering trades qualifications, and in more recent times has moved to offer Bachelor level qualifications. Its ambition is to become Australia's University of Specialisation for Tourism, Hospitality, Foods and Events. Thus, the content of this book represents one strand of activity in transforming an organisational culture and workforce towards realising that ambition, as Chapter 23 elaborates. It has engaged authors in discussing, reflecting and critiquing 21st century approaches to scholarship and research in the trades and applied professions using case examples of innovative practise from across William Angliss Institute. Importantly in a dual vocational education and training (VET) and higher education (HE) environment, it drew together a representative and supported community as outlined in Chapter 2. The following provides a 21st century

A. Morrison (✉) · S. Beeton
William Angliss Institute, Melbourne, Australia
e-mail: alison@hamlethill.co.uk

© Springer Nature Singapore Pte Ltd. 2019
S. Beeton and A. Morrison (eds.), *The Study of Food, Tourism, Hospitality, and Events*,
Tourism, Hospitality & Event Management,
https://doi.org/10.1007/978-981-13-0638-9_1

context within which to locate the chapter contributions, discussion of VET and HE in general, and specific to the food, tourism, hospitality and events fields of study.

The first two decades of this century have been characterised by rapidity in terms of turbulence, creative destruction, and renewal that confront, blur boundaries, and impact local, national and global environments. Such transformational forces raise the question of how universities and other institutions concerned with VET and HE are evolving and addressing contemporary challenges and positioning within an unknowable future. Furthermore, as the respective domains become increasingly seamless, discourse and practice need to embrace the opportunities of the VET/HE nexus, reconceptualising research and scholarship strategies fit for the 21st century. This is supported Davis (2017) who advocates that Universities, colleges, TAFEs, and on-line providers all have much to share with students, and it should be possible for consumers to move seamlessly through different modes of institution. Further, Barnett (2005) hints of new relationships between research, scholarship, and teaching. He questions if there are spaces for present activities to be practised anew, or even for new activities. However, Barnett also ponders as to the extent these activities are pulling apart from each other, or whether they might be brought together in more illuminating ways. This observation is all the more pertinent within the context of VET and HE domains that may offer opportunities of new spaces at their intersections. However, a key challenge is recognised as to how best to nurture appropriate organisational cultures and behaviours. For example, Simmons and Lea (2013) provide some insight from a research perspective, proposing that it is unlikely in the foreseeable future that dominantly VET institutes would make much headway in competing with HE on the production of original research. They advocate that it may be preferable to engage in a wide range of scholarship more suited to the VET context. Furthermore, they found a clear pattern of engagement in scholarly activity within a mixed VET/HE context that contributed to strengthening links with employers, and its ability to enhance the curriculum offer to students. In addition, a growing confidence was identified in not wishing to emulate the type of research being undertaken by many university academics, but to stay more focused on producing scholarly outputs, which will have more immediate and local impacts. These findings emphasise the importance of 'provider context' and how it offers scope to promote forms of scholarly activity more suited to the strategic position of an institute in its' given policy context.

So how may VET and HE intersect? According to the Australian Government, VET is designed to deliver workplace-specific skills and knowledge; it covers a wide range of careers and industries, including trade and office work, retail, hospitality and technology. In terms of HE, there appears to be a consensual vision of it as the pursuit of higher order cognitive capabilities in the context of disciplinary knowledge, and that the nature and scope will be determined by the economic and political concerns of current decades (British Council 2012; Gibb and Haskins 2013). Furthermore, according to Barnett (1990: 155) a genuine higher learning is: subversive in the sense of subverting the student's taken-for-granted world; unsettling and disturbing as the student comes to see that things could always be other than they are, and there are no final answers.

Thus, it can be suggested that the VET/HE intersection is the symbiotic relationship between professional technical skills and knowledge, alongside the pursuit of higher order cognitive capabilities in the context of disciplinary knowledge. This transcends traditional boundaries with the aim to educate and future proof students in a rapidly changing world. Furthermore, the intersections are not just about the content of curricula space, it also encompasses VET/HE positioning in society. Thus, Gibb and Haskins (2013) suggest that the hybridisation of elements from educational institutes, industry and government will generate new organisational and social formats of production, transfer, and application of knowledge. Moreover, this vision encompasses not only the creative destruction that appears as a natural innovation dynamic (Schumpeter 1942), but also the creative renewal that arises within each of institution, industry and government, as well as at their intersections. Thus, across the tertiary educational sector, key impacts are driving organisational and workforce transformations as identified and examined in works, such as, Ernst and Young (2012), Lacy et al. (2017), Davis (2017), Arnett (2018). Mention is made of funding driven by accountability and performance metrics, adoption of marketing management principles, alignment to broader national political and economic objectives, and application of neoliberal economic management principles. They sit alongside other dynamic drivers of change, many of which are triggered by technological development, that impact on: organisational structures and business models; pedagogies and student engagement; the evolving role and skill set of academic teachers; and macro trends within the industries represented in the food, tourism, hospitality and events fields of study.

Organisational Structures and Business Models

A move towards blended hybrid business models of collaboration is evident (Ernst and Young 2012). This has been stimulated by the massification, digitisation, and commodification of education through the prevalence of platform based Massive Open Online Course (MOOC) provision (King and Sen 2013). Many take the form of organisational structures that involve strategic partnerships between non-profit, for-profit, and traditional entities. For example, pioneers in the fields of tourism and hospitality are Cornell University, University of Queensland, and Hong Kong Poly University, in partnership with edX an online learning destination and MOOC provider founded by Harvard University and MIT. The stated vision is to offer all students a personalised learning experience with premium digital engagement. Information technologies and social media are supporting these new business models, and innovative approaches to enhance teaching and learning (Benckendorff and Zehrer 2017).

This alters both the interaction with students and the nature of the education system, requiring significant rethinking of roles and the ways in which knowledge is generated, disseminated and applied (Lacy et al 2017). Further, Hundrieser (2017) talks of the ‘unbundling’ of education, as students compile their own learning at their own pace, gaining a portfolio of micro-credentials, from more than one provider.

Pedagogies and Student Engagement

Thus, student access to VET and HE education has broadened, drawing in multi-cultural participants located around the globe, as well as those residing within the home educational institution (Universities UK 2017). This emphasises the importance of understanding the diversity of student profile, biographies, ‘unorthodox’ behaviours and motivations in engaging with the educational experience across lifetimes (Ernst and Young 2012). The challenge for educators is sustaining engagement of the ‘modern’ student, shaped by technology, Internet access, mobile devices, and socially mediated communications. It requires them to ‘step into’ and connect with the student’s world, contextualising learning in their lived experience, and immersing them in real-life, augmented and virtual reality pedagogies.

Traditional forms of such experiential learning, for example, learning laboratories, study abroad tours, internships, and communities of learning are now joined by the likes of virtual work integrated learning, computerised ‘games’, and digitised business simulations (Wiltshire and Rawlinson 2017). Starks and Carroll (2018) summarise that three enduring challenges for educators remain how to: intertwine traditional learning related to theories and concepts with an appreciation for the complexities of applying them in today’s real world; convey the current use and application of performance metrics in today’s business environment; and capture and keep learner engagement. This includes classroom and remote, outside the classroom for education in the classroom, the flipped classroom model, and remote learning where knowledge is gained online and interactively with a mix of internet-based content. It represents a transformation from classroom-based knowledge reporting; to students themselves directly experience having a hand in co-creating knowledge (King and Sen 2013).

Academics and Teachers Role and Skill Sets

Other trends impacting traditional teaching, research and scholarship roles include: increasing managerial pressures on delivery against performance metrics expectations and culture; curricula reform to achieve pedagogic ‘efficiencies’ and economies of scale through deployment of technologies; and the growing role of contingent workers particularly in teaching students, replacing the originator of knowledge interface (Nelson and Strohl 2013; Lugosi and Jamieson 2017; Benckendorff and Zehrer

2017). These are influencing VET and HE workforce transformations. In particular, it suggests a redefinition of competencies, processes, and activities within a techno-context, as organisations re-shape and renew (Gibb and Haskins 2013). For instance, social media is embedded in activities to increase research impact or course delivery, reaching out to wider audiences through YouTube clips or podcasts of lectures, with today's students preferring to access their information via internet-connected mobile platforms. This moves beyond the concept of student/lecturer interaction in a shared and static physical space, with curated knowledge being translated into the communication media of the day for audiences that are perhaps less skilled in listening than previous generations (Lugosi and Jamieson 2017). However, Hackley (2014) counters that, while there is no turning back the tide of education digitisation, the integrity of the process demands the presence and authority of the academic. He argues that the media will obliterate the message, unless there is room in the digital university for the reassuring voice of the academic author and their skills of argument, inspiration, content curation and creation.

Trends Within Fields of Study

The fields of study represented in this book have been the subject of study and pedagogical consideration in a range of recent publications informed by mainly Australian, European, New Zealand, and United States perspectives (for example, Chon et al. 2013; Prebezac et al. 2014; Dredge et al. 2014; Benckendorff and Zehrer 2017; Lashley 2017; Oskam et al. 2018; Mair 2018). In their respective texts, they identify macro trends in educational change, innovation and renewal. Many of these live within the institutional walls, while the habitat for others is the external environment. Of significance is the exponential speed and complexity of change that is creating discontinuities, volatility, ambiguity, and complexity. It demands for students to be educated to be spontaneous, imaginative, and creative in an increasingly unknowable future world of work, and society (Hindley and Wilson-Wunsch 2018). Further, it requires education and commerce redefinition to adopt innovative and disruptive approaches to continuous improvement and relevance within a 21st century professional context (Oskam et al. 2018). This emphasises that education is broader than training professional proficiency, to include understanding of how the profession is evolving in the changing macro environment, and what may warrant embedding in curricula. For example, some of the dominant, and intrinsically intertwined, macro trends impacting the industries associated with the food, tourism, hospitality and events fields of study are technology, workforce profile, and global citizenship.

- The profession is being profoundly transformed by technological advancements, pervading every aspect of contemporary industry operation and management (facial recognition, biometrics, digital payment platforms, big data analytics), employee and customer social behaviours (multiple social media platforms, service-service, privacy issues, photograph mediated experience), service pro-

cesses (add value to customer experience, efficiencies, convenience), business models (gig economy, peer-to-peer, platform based), and culinary production (molecular gastronomy, 3D food printers).

- Workforce profile is changing as technology increasingly enables the automation of production and service (artificial intelligence, robotics, drones) that replaces humanoids with androids. Back of house repetitive, and customer-facing roles can function efficiently without human presence, delivered by ‘robotic service employees’. As a consequence, the space for hospitableness, as defined by direct guest/host interaction, narrows. Thus, some job profiles will become redundant, while new roles will evolve to include, for example, technology engineers, data analysts, chief technology officer, as new technology embeds in the value chain.
- Global citizenship is concerned with social responsibility, global awareness, and civic engagement. It aims to nurture understanding, cultural competencies, and engagement with the ‘wicked problems’ in the world, many of which exhibit strong links to food, tourism, hospitality, and events activities. These include the likes of climate change and global warming, sustainability, carbon offsetting, food miles, social justice, modern slavery labour, social responsibility, inequalities in the distribution of resources. This line of thought is reflected within the work of the Tourism Education Futures Initiative (Sheldon and Fesenmaier 2015), arguing for responsible stewardship of tourism destinations that calls out for a new paradigm of values based tourism education. In this respect, there has been support for incorporation of a blended liberal, professional, vocational education to ensure students are intellectually able to engage in complex issues and their solution, and develop broader view as global citizens (Stoner et al. 2014). This has been referred to as a philosophic turn to multiple ways of knowing subject matter (Tribe 2002; Dredge et al. 2012).

The foregoing provides illustrative example of the need for a fundamental re-think and redesign of curricula. From a technology perspective, by the time students graduate they will be applying for jobs that do not even exist today, and much of what they are currently taught will be obsolete (Sheldon and Fesenmaier 2015). Furthermore, since technology is poised to take the place of many technical tasks in the workforce, graduates skilled in communication and innovative thinking will become increasingly vital (Hundrieser 2017). In addition, it challenges traditional disciplinary boundaries as students are educated to solve post-disciplinary scenarios, building their competencies through a blend of the liberal and vocational, exegesis and praxis. As Benckendorff and Zehrer (2017) emphasise it is not a position of polarity, for as educators continue to develop the curriculum, many hybrid models are likely to emerge. Also of import, in an increasingly globalised knowledge economy it is important to attend to the competencies, dispositions and different cultural contexts of learners (Oxford University 2015). Further, management of cultural diversity in professional and personal contexts, abroad and at home, is a required competency in a globalised industry, involving soft skills, such as, inter-cultural communication (Hoefnagels and Schoemakers 2018).

In terms of the future, Dredge et al. (2013) identify significant scope for institutions to create a competitive advantage in the marketplace through program differentiation and quality, within a framework agreed by the subject community (Quality Assurance Agency, 2016; Whitelaw et al., 2015), and national regulators. Furthermore, Airey and Benckendorff (2017) emphasise that standards and benchmarking activities should balance the need for quality assurance, and the need for differentiation and innovation, empowering educators to innovate and improve the outcomes of teaching and learning. Finally, Dredge et al. (2014: 547) conclude:

We must allow ourselves to dream of new possibilities in a post-industrial age, where there is high student and educator mobility, the education experience can be bundled in different ways, and artificial boundaries imposed on learning are dissolved. In this future, curriculum content will still matter, but the experience of learning, the deep, intimate connections between knowledge and daily life, and the capacity to develop critical, mindful and reflexive practice must be foregrounded if tourism, hospitality and events education is to make a difference.

Book Structure

Against this ‘big picture’ backdrop confronting all stakeholders involved in VET and HE education globally stands the contributions in this book. They represent honest, ‘raw’, critical reflections of a reality experienced by front line educators, actively engaged in the research/teaching nexus in the specific context of food, tourism, hospitality, and events. Furthermore, it is within the context of an institute edging towards the distinct status of University of Specialisation.

Collectively, the individual chapters give insight into how innovative educational 21st century approaches evolve, informed by research, pedagogy, first-hand experience, technological advances, and novel ways of knowing and structuring discipline and subject materials. In addition, the content illustrates how an education provider’s context has been able to produce something distinctive within the regulatory and accreditation frameworks of relevance.

The book commences with two introductory chapters relative to the changing landscape of education and framing scholarly activities. Thereafter, it is structured into four sub-sections that are broadly arranged in a chronological setting, from earlier studies and approaches, through the shift from vocational to more academic studies and research, finishing with a more forward-looking perspective, as follows:

1. The study of food, tourism, hospitality and events
2. From Vocational to Higher Education
3. Research informed teaching
4. Pushing the boundaries of scholarship.

Each section commences with the intellectually provoking international deliberations of one Eminent Professor in the field of food, tourism, hospitality and/or events, reflecting 21st Century challenges and concerns. Respectively they address:

- Regional, sustainable food experiences as a means of tourism offering differentiation and positioning;
- Ideal curricular design for a future integrated academic and vocational program focusing on food;
- Making research ‘useful’ in terms of enhancing practical value and impact for stakeholders; and
- How to fuel a praxis-exegesis cyclical model within the context of a life-long learning environment.

While the sections and their concomitant chapters build on each other, presenting a cohesive yet complex story, they also stand-alone. Each chapter can be studied in its own right, contributing to their associated fields as well as overall scholarly study. We trust that they inform, inspire and challenge the reader, and look forward to further engagement with the wider scholarly community.

References

- Airey, D., & Benckendorff, P. (2017). Standards, benchmarks, and assurance of learning. In P. Benckendorff & A. Zehrer (Eds.), *Handbook of teaching and learning in tourism* (pp. 521–536). Cheltenham: Edward Edgar Publishing.
- Arnett, A. A. (2018). *5 Trends poised to shake up higher education in 2018*, Education Dive. <https://www.educationdive.com/news/5-trends-poised-to-shake-up-higher-education-in-2018/513772/>. Accessed 16 January 2018.
- Barnett, R. (1990). *The idea of higher education* (p. 156). Buckingham: Open University Press and SRHE.
- Barnett, R. (Ed.) (2005). *Reshaping the University: New relationships between research, scholarship and teaching*. https://www.researchgate.net/publication/44835370_Reshaping_the_university_new_relationships_between_research_scholarship_and_teaching. Accessed 9 January 2018.
- Benckendorff, P., & Zehrer, A. (2017). The future of teaching and learning in tourism. In P. Benckendorff & A. Zehrer (Eds.), *Handbook of teaching and learning in tourism* (pp. 609–625). Cheltenham: Edward Edgar Publishing.
- British Council. (2012). *The shape of things to come: Higher education global trends and emerging opportunities to 2020*. <http://www.britishcouncil.org/ihe/educationintelligence>. Accessed 7 March 2018.
- Chon, K. S., Barrows, C. W., & Bosselman, R. H. (2013). *Hospitality management education*. Abingdon: Routledge.
- Davis, G. (2017). *The Australian idea of a University*. Melbourne: Melbourne University Press.
- Dredge, D., Airey, D., & Gross, M. (2014). *Routledge handbook of tourism and hospitality education*. Abingdon: Routledge.
- Dredge, D., Benckendorff, P., Day, M., Gross, M. J., Walo, M., Weeks, P., et al. (2012). The philosophic practitioner and the curriculum space. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 39(4), 2154–2176.
- Dredge, D., Benckendorff, P., Day, M., Gross, M. J., Walo, M., Weeks, P., et al. (2013). Drivers of change in tourism, hospitality, and event management education: An Australian perspective. *Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Education*, 25(2), 89–102.

- Ernst & Young. (2012). *University of the future: A thousand year old industry on the cusp of profound change*. Australia: Ernst & Young.
- Gibb, A. A., & Haskins, G. (2013). The university of the future: an entrepreneurial stakeholder learning organisation? In A. Fayolle & D. T. Redford (Eds.), *Handbook on the entrepreneurial University* (pp. 25–63). Cheltenham: Edward Elgar Publishing.
- Hackley, C. (2014). Does the age of online education herald the death of academics? *The Conversation*, 10 October. <https://www.theconversation.com>. Accessed 16 January 2018.
- Hindley, C., & Wilson-Wunsch, B. (2018). Expertise: The theory of experiments. In J. A. Oskam, D. M. Dekker, & K. Wiegerink (Eds.), *Innovation in hospitality education: Anticipating the educational needs of a changing profession* (pp. 51–64). Cham, Switzerland: Springer International Publishing.
- Hoefnagels, A., & Schoenmakers, S. (2018). Developing the intercultural competence of twenty-first-century learners with blogging during a work placement abroad. In J. A. Oskam, D. M. Dekker, & K. Wiegerink (Eds.), *Innovation in hospitality education: Anticipating the educational needs of a changing profession* (pp. 123–142). Cham, Switzerland: Springer International Publishing.
- Hundrieser, J. (2017). 4 trends shaping higher ed in 2017, 16 March. <https://www.eab.com/daily-briefing>. Accessed 26 February 2018.
- King, G., & Sen, M. (2013). The troubled future of colleges and Universities. *PS: Political Science and Politics*, 46(1), 83–88.
- Lacy, W. B., Croucher, G., Brett, A., & Mueller, R. (2017). *Australian Universities at a crossroads: Insights from their leaders and implications for the future*. Melbourne Centre for the Study of Higher Education, Berkeley Center for Studies in Higher Education.
- Lashley, C. (Ed.). (2017). *The Routledge handbook of hospitality studies*. Abingdon: Routledge.
- Lugosi, P., & Jameson, S. (2017). Challenges in hospitality management education: Perspective from the United Kingdom. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Management*, 31, 163–172.
- Mair, J. (2018). *The Routledge handbook of festivals*. Abingdon: Routledge.
- Nelson, A., & Strohl, N. (Eds.). (2013). Universities 2030: Learning from the past to anticipate the future. *Global higher education and research project*. Worldwide Universities Network. <http://wun.ac.uk>. Accessed 7 March 2018.
- Oskam, J. A., Dekker, D. M., & Wiegerink, K. (Eds.). (2018). *Innovation in hospitality education: Anticipating the educational needs of a changing profession*. Cham, Switzerland: Springer International Publishing.
- Oxford University. (2015). *International trends in higher education*. Oxford.
- Prebezac, D., Schott, C., & Sheldon, P. (2014). *The tourism education futures initiative*. Abingdon: Routledge.
- Quality Assurance Agency for Higher Education. (2016). *Subject benchmark statement: Events, hospitality, leisure, sport and tourism*. Gloucester: Quality Assurance Agency.
- Schumpeter, J. A. (1942). *Capitalism, socialism and democracy*. New York: Harper & Brothers.
- Sheldon, P. J., & Fesenmaier, D. R. (2015). Tourism education futures initiative: Current and future curriculum influences. In D. Dredge, D. Airey, & M. J. Gross (Eds.), *Routledge handbook of tourism and hospitality education* (pp. 155–170). Abingdon: Routledge.
- Simmons, J., & Lea, J. (2013). *Capturing an HE ethos in college higher education practice*. Gloucester: Quality Assurance Agency.
- Starks, P., & Carroll, W. (2018). Hospitality business simulations today: New generation simulations for new generation students in a new generation market place. In J. A. Oskam, D. M. Dekker, & K. Wiegerink (Eds.), *Innovation in hospitality education: Anticipating the educational needs of a changing profession* (pp. 181–193). Cham, Switzerland: Springer International Publishing.
- Stoner, K., Tarrant, M., Perry, L., Stoner, L., Wearing, S., & Lyons, K. (2014). Global citizenship as a learning outcome of educational travel. *Journal of Teaching in Travel and Tourism*, 14(2), 149–163.
- Tribe, J. (2002). The philosophic practitioner. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 29(2), 338–357.
- Universities UK. (2017). *Patterns and trends in UK higher education 2017*. London.

- Whitelaw, P., Benckendorff, P., Gross, M. J., Mair, J., & Jose, P. (2015). *Tourism, hospitality and events learning and teaching academic standards*. Sydney: Office for Learning and Teaching, Department of Education and Training.
- Wiltshire, P., & Rawlinson, S. (2017). Student and practitioner experience from learning laboratories. In P. Benckendorff & A. Zehrer (Eds.), *Handbook of teaching and learning in tourism* (pp. 276–289). Cheltenham: Edward Edgar Publishing.

Chapter 2

Framing Scholarly Practice



Melanie Williams

Abstract William Angliss Institute (WAI) is introducing a framework to guide understandings and practices of scholarship for both vocational and higher education teachers. This chapter explains the impetus for this initiative and outlines the development of the institute's approach to scholarship with reference to the literature. A case study is presented, which investigates how the WAI Framework for Scholarly Practice was used to guide the authors in writing their chapters of this book. Based on their monthly reflections on their research and writing processes, the study explores how the authors engaged with the framework, how it facilitated their awareness and learning about scholarly practice, and the role that other forms of support played in assisting them to approach their research and writing in a scholarly manner. The study appears to indicate evidence of development in knowledge and practices of scholarship and a correlation between this development and the various forms of support offered to authors. The chapter concludes with observations about the framework's potential for transformation in the vocational education and training (VET) sector workforce more broadly.

Keywords Scholarship · Scholarly practice · Scholarship of teaching and learning · Reflective practice · Co-creation

Introduction

The impetus for WAI seeking to introduce a systematic approach to scholarship is its intention to pursue University of Specialisation status as the institution matures on its journey of providing education and training in the fields of food, hospitality, tourism and events. Under the Higher Education Standards Framework (Threshold Standards) 2015 legislation, the term 'University of Specialisation' designates a university that offers undergraduate and postgraduate programs, including masters and doctoral

M. Williams (✉)
William Angliss Institute, Melbourne, Australia
e-mail: Melanie.Williams@angliss.edu.au

© Springer Nature Singapore Pte Ltd. 2019
S. Beeton and A. Morrison (eds.), *The Study of Food, Tourism, Hospitality, and Events*,
Tourism, Hospitality & Event Management,
https://doi.org/10.1007/978-981-13-0638-9_2

degrees by research, in only one or two broad fields of study (Commonwealth of Australia 2015). WAI delivers both vocational and higher education qualifications, all of which fall under the broad fields of food and hospitality or tourism. University of Specialisation status will pertain to the institution as a whole, embracing both sectoral offerings.

There are no satisfactory Australian models to follow in seeking to understand what ‘University of Specialisation’ might look like for WAI. There is currently only one such institution in Australia, the University of Divinity, which came into being as what may be described as a federation of previously existing Christian denominational colleges. Nor does the Australian dual-sector university model offer a suitable template. The dual-sector public universities tend to be dominated by higher education with a ‘hard divide’ between the sectors. The different regulatory frameworks, industrial instruments, funding regimes, histories and missions all contribute to frustrating attempted convergence between the sectors.

While WAI must also wrestle with the same structural constraints as its counterparts, it seeks mechanisms by which to create a more unified culture that enables students to experience learning as a sequenced continuum up the Australian Qualifications Framework and produces graduates who bear a common hallmark of their study at WAI. A universal framework for scholarly practice is one such mechanism, which can simultaneously serve to facilitate improvements in the quality of learning and teaching across the institution.

Background to the Framework

In his seminal work *Scholarship Reconsidered*, Boyer (1990) advocated for broadening the restricted view of basic research as the primary form of scholarly activity. He proposed a more comprehensive and dynamic understanding of scholarship as four separate, yet overlapping functions that account for the full range of academic work: the scholarship of discovery (basic research), the scholarship of application (applied research)—subsequently known as the scholarship of engagement (Boyer 1996; Rice 2002), the scholarship of integration (making cross-disciplinary and contextual connections) and the scholarship of teaching. For the first time, teaching was elevated to a form of scholarship, equal in status with research.

While ground-breaking, Boyer’s conception of the scholarship of teaching is nonetheless aligned primarily with what Barr and Tagg (1995) call the ‘instruction paradigm’. In this paradigm, the focus is on what the teacher does as the source of knowledge. These authors argue that learning is a much more complex activity than simply making meaning out of transmitted knowledge and advocate for a ‘learning paradigm’, in which learners are seen as ‘the co-creators of learning’ (Barr and Tagg 1995: 15). The expanded notion of the Scholarship of Teaching and Learning (SoTL) captured this broadened focus. The shift in emphasis from what the teacher does to what the learner does has only increased in subsequent years (Biggs and Tang 2011).

Developing Boyer's work further, Glassick et al. (1997) identified six standards by which the quality of scholarship can be measured across all four forms of scholarship. These standards were based on the analysis of hundreds of documents outlining criteria used to guide academic hiring, tenure and promotion; evaluation of funding grants; acceptance of manuscripts for publication in scholarly journals; and evaluation of teaching by students and faculty peers. The authors claimed that any work of scholarship is characterised by six standards of scholarship: clear goals, adequate preparation, appropriate methods, outstanding results, effective communication and reflective critique.

Despite raising questions as to whether Glassick and his colleagues' scholarly standards may encourage too conservative a notion of research and scholarship, Badley (2003) suggests that these standards may be a key mechanism for improving the quality of teaching and learning. Despite his reservations, he concludes that their saving grace is their emphasis on reflective critique. As he points out, it is through reflective critique that we improve our own scholarship and contribute to the building of a scholarly community.

However, the standards were developed in the American university context. More recent Australian research investigated the applicability of this approach to the Australian tertiary sector. Its particular focus was informing understandings of scholarship in TAFE institutes delivering HE qualifications—in which, the authors claimed, the norms, cultures, structures and industrial conditions that prevail in universities do not apply (Williams et al. 2013).

This research involved Australia-wide consultation and analysis of case studies of the Scholarship of Teaching and Learning in VET, higher education delivered in institutes of Technical and Further Education (HE-in-TAFE) and university contexts. It revealed significant overlap, as well as differences in understandings and practices in the three settings. The result was to expand the original six American university standards of scholarship. Aspects of what Australian VET and HE-in-TAFE representatives deemed to be essential features of scholarly work were incorporated. These did not appear explicitly in the original standards since they are tacit in university understandings and practices of scholarship. It was felt that these additional elements would help to tease out what is expected in the scholarly work of VET and HE-in-TAFE practitioners (Williams et al. 2013).

The outcomes of this research were operationalised in a pilot study led by this author at RMIT University in 2015. There, a framework was developed that was specifically tied to the requirement of VET teachers who were delivering associate degrees to maintain the currency of their vocational skills. The framework scaffolded these activities to ensure that they were approached in a scholarly manner. The key enablers of success in this pilot were found to be the framework's guidance in how to conduct scholarly work, institutional support in the form of mentoring, and a small grant for paid time release from teaching (Everingham et al. 2017).

The RMIT pilot in turn informed the development of WAI's Framework for Scholarly Practice laid out in Table 2.1. The eight features of scholarly work in the WAI framework—the indicators of scholarly quality—were synthesised from the Australian research. However, they were broadened from RMIT's exclusive application

to maintaining vocational currency to guide a range of scholarly practices at WAI. In addition, RMIT staff delivering associate degrees were degree qualified. In contrast, the intent at WAI was to introduce scholarship into the practices of all teaching staff, including those with sub-degree qualifications. The language of the framework—though not its intent—was modified accordingly.

The WAI Framework for Scholarly Practice is designed to guide the institute's understanding, approach and practices of scholarship. What is distinctive about it is that scholarship is not understood in the conventional sense of activities (Brew 2010), such as conference attendance, engaging in professional practice or keeping abreast of the literature. Rather, in common with its antecedents (Williams et al. 2013; Glassick et al. 1997; Everingham et al. 2017), the framework identifies the features that characterise any scholarly work. It provides guidance on how to take a scholarly approach to investigating any aspect of vocational, professional, pedagogical or academic practice—with the outcomes being used to inform and improve learning and teaching. Thus, while the framework may be applied in different contexts, the approach is the same.

Regardless of the context, scholarship at WAI is framed as scholarly inquiry that ultimately informs learning and teaching. In keeping with the institute's applied and vocational orientation, the framework focuses on the practices associated with taking a planned, rigorous and reflective approach to investigating practice. This orientation is captured in the term 'scholarly practice'.

The framework will be supported at an institutional level through the availability of mentoring by the Associate Dean (Scholarship), small grants to defray any incidental costs associated with engaging in scholarship and by the introduction of an awards scheme which recognises and rewards scholarly practice. The awards are based on the submission of a teaching portfolio accompanied by a brief exegesis explaining how the portfolio addresses the indicators of scholarly practice set out in the framework.

The WAI Framework for Scholarly Practice is set out in Table 2.1. The left-hand column articulates the features that characterise scholarly work—the indicators of scholarly practice. The prompt questions in the right-hand column guide the scholar-practitioner in how to demonstrate those features.

Piloting the Framework

An opportunity arose to pilot the use of the framework to guide WAI staff who volunteered to contribute to the writing of this book. The intention of the book was to capture a broad spectrum of good practice across the Institute in the practitioners' own voices. Hence, an invitation was extended to all staff to contribute to the book, to which 24 staff responded. Although highly experienced and competent teachers, the challenge lay in how to produce a research-informed, scholarly book when some of its contributing authors were neither trained nor experienced in scholarly research and writing.

Table 2.1 Framework for scholarly practice

Features of scholarly work (Indicators of scholarly practice)	In your investigation, do you ...
Clear goals—outlining at the start what you plan to achieve	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Explain the project clearly and identify important questions in the field? ● Define a clear purpose and achievable objectives for your work?
Adequate preparation—relating your work to what is already known about the topic and gathering the resources needed for the job	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Locate your work in the context of current and emerging industry/disciplinary/pedagogical knowledge/practice/research in your field? ● Bring together the resources and skills necessary to move the work forward?
Appropriate methods—choosing and applying the best way to achieve your goals and keeping records of progress	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Use a systematic and planned approach that is appropriate to the goals? ● Apply the methods selected in a rigorous and ethical manner that is responsive to changing circumstances? ● Maintain records of process and outcomes?
Collaboration – working and learning with others	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Engage with a range of stakeholders? ● Draw on specialist expertise and advice? ● Engage in shared reflection?
Critical analysis and synthesis—questioning what is going on and bringing things together to make sense of them	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Challenge existing knowledge, assumptions and ideas? ● Bring together your findings to draw conclusions within a theoretical framework? ● Support your claims with evidence and sound argument?
Significant results—making a difference	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Contribute new knowledge, the new application of knowledge or improved practice in the field? ● Offer students the opportunity for innovative engagement with their future profession? ● Open up additional areas for further exploration?
Making knowledge public—sharing new knowledge with others so that it can be critiqued, built upon and improved	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Open your practice to peer review and stakeholder feedback? ● Communicate your message clearly through teaching, presentation, publication or exhibition?
Reflective critique—reflecting on the strengths, weaknesses and limits of your work in order to do better next time	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Identify the influences and assumptions that you bring to the work? ● Reflect on both the processes and outcomes? ● Bring a breadth of evidence to the review of your work? ● Use critical evaluation to improve the quality of future work?

The editors of this publication and senior staff believed that this would be possible with the aid of appropriate support and guidance. The Framework for Scholarly Practice would provide the scholarly scaffolding; author guidelines would provide a template for the structure of the chapters and case studies therein; a 'Book Club', run as an Action Learning Set would provide a forum for group reflection, discussion of issues, peer learning and collaboration; and the Institute's College of Eminent Professors would provide individual mentor support to each author. Collaboration and co-authorship between higher education and vocational teaching staff was encouraged.

The Framework for Scholarly Practice was customised to provide specific guidance on the task of researching and writing for the book. For example, the prompt questions for the 'Clear Goals' were: 'What specific area of innovative training/industry practice, technology or issue do you plan to write about? What key questions or issues do you seek to address?' The questions for 'Adequate Preparation' read: 'What is already known about your topic—i.e. what have other people already written about it? What theories or pedagogical approaches did they use? What are the gaps that you plan to address in your piece? Are there any particular resources and skills that you will need to complete your piece successfully—e.g. do you need to ask a liaison librarian for help in finding appropriate literature?' The prompt questions for the remainder of the indicators of scholarly practice were modified in a similar way.

The Book Club met monthly over a seven-month period, following the action learning cycles of planning, action and reflection. The same online reflective questions were posted each month prior to the meetings to guide reflection and prompt discussion. These online questions tracked writing progress, feelings, issues and support needs and invited reflection on the development of scholarly skills. Participation in the meetings and the online questions was voluntary and fluid over the seven-month writing period.

The Study

While the online questions were primarily intended to encourage the authors' reflective practice, ethics approval was sought and granted to use the responses from consenting authors for this study. This provided some basis for evaluating how effective the model was in fostering scholarly practice.

The specific aims of the study were to explore: (1) how the authors used the Framework for Scholarly Practice; (2) how the framework facilitated authors' learning and awareness of scholarly practice; and (3) what role the other forms of support played in assisting authors to approach their research and writing tasks in a scholarly way. The findings of this pilot were intended to inform the implementation of the framework across the Institute.

There were seven opportunities to record reflections. While 24 responses were received from ten authors, only five agreed to allow their data to be used. Of these

Table 2.2 Distribution of responses to questions for reflection

Respondent	Gender	Research/publication experience	No. of responses
R1	Female	Yes	3
R2	Male	Yes	4
R3	Female	Yes	3
R4	Male	No	3
R5	Male	No	3
Total responses			16

five, three had previous research and publication experience, while two did not. A total of 16 responses were received from these five respondents. The distribution of responses is shown in Table 2.2.

The responses were analysed using grounded theory. They were coded and categorised to identify common themes of relevance to the research aims. The broad themes included use of the framework; learning about scholarship, under which a strong sub-theme of feelings emerged; and other forms of support.

Findings and Discussion

The primary use of the scholarly framework was to structure thinking and to plan the research and writing. Some treated the framework as a template to ‘expand upon’ (R4). Others used the framework to gain overall perspective. For instance, R1 commented:

The questions made me really think about what I want to do in this project, why the research is needed and how I’m going to go about it. It made me think about my strengths (e.g. what I can do with confidence) but also the limitations (e.g. the skills that I don’t have or the resources that I will need).

Similarly, with R3: ‘I started with the clear goals, using this to focus on what I wanted to say in my chapter and understand the approach to the methods’. Reflecting back on her use of the framework at the end of the project, R3 went on to say, ‘I found using the indicators of scholarly practice provided a foundation to use and reflect upon. Getting started and having the clear goals gave me the direction to start with a positive process in my writing.’

Indeed, clear goals were the most frequently cited indicator, providing both initial direction and ongoing focus. However, for some the goals changed as they progressed. For instance, R1 had initially intended to extend the boundaries of her usual area of research but was unable to source a valid and credible tool to measure the new topic of interest. Based on her literature review, she decided to set new goals and returned to the framework to redesign her research accordingly. For R4 also, the clarity of the goals was refined as he progressed. These examples resonate with the literature.

Glassick et al. (1997) suggest that selecting appropriate methods entails adapting as circumstances change, while Badley (2003: 308) critiqued the insistence on starting with clear goals as possibly resulting in scholarship that is ‘too bounded, too closed, too pat, too measured’.

Reflective critique was also in evidence. For example, R3 reported using the framework to reflect upon and critique her work, in particular considering the strengths and weaknesses of her writing and reviewing the cohesion of her argument. This reflective critique was forward-looking as well: ‘I will reflect on this experience as building blocks to a larger project. It has given me thoughts to consider completing a larger piece of academic scholarly work.’ Similarly, R1 planned to ‘reflect on the different stages of the writing process and aim to do everything better the next time’.

In addition to singling out how particular indicators of scholarly practice guided her work, R1 also brought the framework together in an integrated way: ‘As I was reviewing the literature and writing it up I needed to think carefully about how I could use the same information (theories and models) later on to support our findings, conclusion and recommendations’. She went on to comment on how much easier it made the writing process when the ‘big picture’ is clear and there is an understanding of how the different ideas fit together.

Concerns and learning about academic writing were commonly expressed, not only amongst those who had no prior publication experience. For instance, R2 observed that he had learnt that academic writing is ‘drier and needs to be stripped of most adjectives’. R3 expanded on this theme. Initially she was aware that she needed to remove emotive comments from her writing, saying that she found this hard to do because she felt that vocational culinary training is about senses and emotion. R4 also expressed concern that his topic would be difficult to write about in a scholarly manner. It is unclear whether these ideas about what constitutes academic writing were the authors’ own expectations or whether they arose from feedback on their work from their mentors.

R2’s doubts about her writing persisted. In a later response she wrote, ‘I feel my writing style may not be as academic as I would like it to be, I sometimes write as I speak and this can be long winded at times. It can be challenging trying to refine information into a clear dialogue.’ However, she recognised improvements in her writing over the course of the project. In her penultimate response she felt that she was able to write more succinctly, providing greater clarity through continuing to reflect on the purpose and outcomes of the chapter.

While several of the respondents reported some degree of apprehension about their capacity to write academically, R5 experienced strong feelings, about which he wrote very candidly. He reported initially ‘freaking out’ and making every excuse to avoid the task, including avoiding attending the Book Club meeting. He then reported feeling guilt and shame about this behaviour, feeling intimidated by being around others whom he perceived to be more skilful in this field of endeavour, feeling self-doubt about doing something he had never done before and a sense of ‘who am I to be writing an such a book, what do I have to offer that is of worth?’ He worked through his anxieties, with help from his mentor to become more organised and focused. He reported using his fear of ‘wasting other people’s time’ and ‘letting people down’ as

his motivation to start. R5 next reported feeling surprised by the feedback from his mentor that what he had produced was on track. This triggered deep reflection: ‘... a feeling of sadness also came over me as I have all this doubt and negative self-talk that can really bring me down when it does not need to. I then think what other areas of my life am I giving negative self-talk that I’m not aware of yet?’

Others also recognised the self-development opportunity presented by participating in the project. For instance, R3 observed that the writing process helped her to acknowledge her weaknesses in her writing ‘but provides a wonderful experience allowing me to grow and develop’—and further, ‘the learning allows me to question and reflect’.

Some authors recognised their skill development over the course of the project and how they might apply it in the future. R1 observed, ‘I think my scholarly skills are of a basic nature. However, as I’m currently completing my [doctorate] I do seem to have a good idea of what I need to do first and what I have to do then. I’ve developed some tricks and knowledge that I can build on here.’ Similarly, R5 recognised that the opportunity to reflect and analyse his teaching practice would lead to improvements in his class delivery. And R3 commented on how much she enjoyed broadening her thoughts and considering alternative understandings through exploring others’ research, observing that the foundation of professional knowledge that she built through her research can be used in practical vocational kitchens. However, she acknowledged that it is hard to develop scholarly skills in a vocational context.

Yet others reported learning about their own needs and processes in undertaking scholarly work. Learning to build a regular time into the week worked best for some while for others, setting a daily word count target was helpful. Identifying the need for feedback to spur action was a revelation for one respondent, while another recognised the necessity for tackling unknowns head on instead of allowing himself to be distracted. Feelings of excitement, enjoyment, confidence, relief and satisfaction were reported as authors were able to meet the challenges they encountered, be they personal or logistical.

These feelings, attributes and the journey of self-discovery itself are important because, while the Framework for Scholarly Practice focuses on the *processes* involved in scholarly practice, there is also an affective and attitudinal dimension to scholarship. For instance, Kreber (2013: 72) suggests that scholarship is underpinned by the scholarly dispositions of being curious, reflective and having a desire to continually deepen one’s knowledge base. Support is needed for novice scholars, not just in developing their scholarly knowledge and skills, but also to encourage them through the challenges they face and to help them develop a scholarly disposition.

As already mentioned, several forms of support were made available to authors. The first of these was the monthly Book Club meetings. Authors reported finding these to be helpful in providing guidance, support and motivation, both in terms of peer learning and mentor advice. For instance, R4 used the meetings to help to clarify his goals, to fine tune the direction of his chapter and to seek advice about how to analyse his data. In the course of this latter discussion it became apparent that others were also struggling in this area, so a workshop on qualitative data analysis was arranged. This just-in-time training was reportedly very useful.

All five authors made mention of the value of the mentor support from the WAI Eminent Professors. As the majority of the professors are located internationally, feedback was given via email and online meetings, although face to face meetings were also arranged with those mentors who happened to be visiting the campus during the writing of the book.

Receiving feedback on their writing was sufficient for some authors to gain confidence that they were on the right track, while for others, the mentor played a more crucial role. As R5 commented, ‘...with the right mentor I can move through my belief that I cannot write anything meaningful’. The mentors were variously reported as assisting in the refinement of the topics and approach, opening up ideas not previously considered, assisting with alignment of assumptions using a clear evidence base, helping to reframe the work when the author was stuck, triggering the author’s own critique of their approach and style, and clarifying the next steps.

Other support was provided by library staff who assisted authors with finding appropriate literature and providing training in the referencing system. Transcription services for interviews were also made available, which greatly assisted authors to meet the tight timelines of the project.

Thus, within the limitations of self-reporting, the study does appear to show evidence of development in the authors’ knowledge and practices of scholarship and scholarly writing. There seems to be a correlation between this development and the various forms of support offered to assist in the writing of the book: in particular, the guidance of the scholarly framework, the Book Club meetings, the mentor support, the just-in-time training and the assistance from library staff. Ultimately the evidence of the extent to which the authors were able to execute a piece of scholarly research and writing is contained in the chapters of this book.

Conclusion

The WAI Framework for Scholarly Practice is innovative in that it is an eminently practical approach that can be applied to transform any aspect of the work of teaching staff into scholarship. This elevates scholarship into the heart of the everyday practices of teachers, instead of its conventional standing as a discrete activity which all too often takes a low priority for overworked educators. Through its application to vocational and professional practice, the framework creates a nexus between practice, theory and reflection, generating a praxis that is robust and evidence informed.

Furthermore, with appropriate support, the framework can enable VET teachers and others who are not research trained to participate in scholarship, providing an entrée into a set of cultural practices and self-concept which have not formerly been available without going through the rigours of attaining higher education qualifications. The transformative potential of this for individuals is evident in this study.

While the approach set out in the framework is not new, its application in the VET sector is nascent. Australia's VET sector Training Packages with their atomised and highly contextualised competency-based training leave little room for the development and expression of scholarship, as attested by one of the respondents in the current study. While Training Packages are a fixed feature of the current VET landscape, the way that the training is approached can be opened up to scholarly reflection and inquiry. These are the capabilities that are needed to participate in an increasingly complex and uncertain 21st Century. The routine application of the Framework for Scholarly Practice, with appropriate attendant support at individual, institutional and sectoral levels, holds forth the possibility of transforming the practices and culture of the VET teaching workforce over the longer term.

Acknowledgements This chapter was developed from a working paper originally prepared for presentation at THE-ICE International Panel of Experts (IPoE) 2017. A sketch outline of this research was also presented in a working paper at CAUTHE 2018 Conference.

References

- Badley, G. (2003). Improving the scholarship of teaching and learning. *Innovations in Education and Teaching International*, 40(3), 303–310.
- Barr, R., & Tagg, J. (1995). From teaching to learning: a new paradigm for undergraduate education. *Change*, 27(6), 12–25.
- Biggs, J., & Tang, C. (2011). *Teaching for quality learning at university*. Maidenhead: McGraw-Hill/Society for Research into Higher Education/Open University Press.
- Boyer, E. L. (1990). *Scholarship reconsidered: Priorities of the professoriate*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Boyer, E. L. (1996). The scholarship of engagement. *Bulletin of the American Academy of Arts and Sciences*, 49(7).
- Brew, A. (2010). Transforming academic practice through scholarship. *International Journal for Academic Development*, 15(2), 105–116.
- Commonwealth of Australia. (2015). *Higher education standards framework (Threshold standards) 2015*. Canberra.
- Everingham, N., McLean, D., Mancini, J., Mitton, A., & Williams, M. (2017). Addressing the challenge of scholarship and industry currency in vocational education: A pilot. *International Journal of Training Research*, 16.
- Glassick, C. E., Huber, M. T., & Maeroff, G. I. (1997). *Scholarship assessed: Evaluation of the professoriate*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Kreber, C. (2013). *Authenticity in and through teaching in higher education: The transformative potential of the scholarship of teaching*. New York: Routledge.

- Rice, R. E. (2002). Beyond scholarship considered: Toward an enlarged vision of the scholarly work of faculty members. *New Directions for Teaching and Learning*, 2002(90), 7–18.
- Williams, M., Goulding, F., & Seddon, T. (2013). *Towards a culture of scholarly practice in mixed-sector institutions*. Adelaide: NCVET.

Part II
The Study of Food, Tourism,
Hospitality and Events: Past,
Present and Future

Chapter 3

Tourism and Food: Necessity or Experience?



Oswin Maurer

Abstract The relationship between tourism and food is explored relative to opportunities for experiencing food are used as points of differentiation in tourism destinations world-wide. It focuses on the concept of food tourism, investigating the relationship between touristic activities and food consumption, along with trends that are driving sustained and growing interest in this concept. In addition, the construct of authenticity is examined, as is its application to food tourism as a means of gaining a competitive advantage in the contemporary market place. From an educational perspective, it is argued that a closer curricular combination of academic learning and food and tourism practical training would be beneficial, especially given societal developments and trends. It calls for a holistic education that acknowledges the value of knowledge and skills ‘beyond the plate’.

Keywords Food tourism · Authenticity · Differentiation · Sustainability

Introduction

Over the last decades, tourism markets have been constantly growing as well as maturing. Despite the fact, that new and additional groups of tourists have appeared on the global landscape, touristic destinations are under permanent pressure to differentiate products, services and experiences in order to escape the commoditisation trap.

Regional food, gastronomic offerings, culinary experiences, tastings, and many other formats and opportunities of experiencing food are being increasingly introduced as differentiation points in destinations world-wide. There are various terms used to describe the phenomenon of food tourism, including the terms gastronomic tourism, culinary tourism, agritourism, food experiences, etc. According to McKercher et al. (2008), the term food tourism is used in the following to describe any

O. Maurer (✉)

Faculty of Economics and Management, University of Bozen-Bolzano, Bozen-Bolzano, Italy
e-mail: Oswin.Maurer@unibz.it

touristic activity in which food is a vital component of the overall tourism experience. Hence, it refers to travel in which local food and cuisine play an important role and can be viewed as ‘the pursuit of enjoyment of unique and memorable food experiences, far and near’ (World Food Travel Association 2018: 7).

Nowadays, substantial efforts are undertaken by national governments, regional enterprises, cities, local Destination Management Organisations, and specialised associations to promote food tourism. Some recent examples are Thailand’s Government sponsored ‘Thai Fest’, Tourism Australia’s ‘Restaurant Australia’ initiative which has focused on the country’s food scene and agriculture, Croatia’s ‘Full of Passion’ strategy, the European Commission’s EDEN (European Destinations of Excellence) project which supports rural, cultural and gastronomy tourism, the World Food Travel Association, or The Ontario Culinary Tourism Alliance. All those initiatives attempt to differentiate and position tourism offerings based on regional, sustainable food experiences, but also aim at bridging the gap between the travel, food, entertainment and leisure industries.

Chicken or Egg Travelling?

Touristic activities and food consumption have always been connected to each other due to their complimentary nature. However, following the literature on food and tourism (for example, Robinson and Getz 2016; Sidali et al. 2015; Ontario Culinary Tourism Alliance 2015), it appears that food tourism is something new and deserves to be developed by all means. That may hold true from an individual business and a consumer point of view, but touristic activities have always been accompanied by more or less enjoyable food consumption. It is undisputed that travellers need to eat, but the decisive question whether food consumption is a result of tourism, or is travel resulting from the interest in food experiences, has not been asked nor answered in most contributions. In many aspects, the discussion about food tourism appears to be artificial. As McKercher et al. (2008: 137) note: ‘food tourism seems to be the latest special interest (SI) tourism fad ... the true significance of food tourism is still to be determined’.

In practice, the food tourism agenda is to some extent driven by tourism consultants and associations who rather often find a grateful audience in (tourism) policy makers. The critique of McKercher et al. (2008) on the deficiencies of research into food tourism, characterised by a wrong calibration of the magnitude of this kind of special interest tourism and a biased interpretation of the underlying phenomena, is still valid. These shortcomings appear to be hampering the development of practical and sustainable approaches to capture opportunities in this market.

World Food Traveller (2017) estimates that travellers approximately spend 25% of their travel budget on food and beverages and it can get as high as 35% in expensive destinations. Similarly, Robinson and Getz (2016) report that 25–35% of tourists’ total expenditure can be attributed to food consumption during travel. Interpreting all food consumption during travel as a potential for food tourism is certainly not

a reasonable approach and the figures found in the literature seem to be grossly overestimated. However, the general interest in food, its specific attributes, origins, preparation methods, tastes, textures and flavours has risen substantially over the last years and is best documented in the huge number of television formats, social media content, specialised magazines, books, public show-cooking on offer. Accordingly, destination choice based on food experience offerings is growing, and it is becoming a tourism trend which opens new niche market opportunities that could be valorised for the benefit of tourists, the tourism industry and local communities.

Apart from media, the growth in food tourism is currently driven by a number of factors, including:

- The consistent growth of international travel, as for instance the 7% growth in 2017, resulting in a total of 1.32 billion tourists in 2017, and expected to continue at a 4% rate in the next 10 years (UNWTO 2018);
- Changing demographics, with millennials being the group tourism experts need to focus on. Within the next 10 years, they will be the core customers when it comes to travel and experiences. ‘While millennials are on the rise, baby boomers are actually the most travelled generation to date and have more disposable income to be able to travel’ (World Economic Forum 2017: 25). However, age and gender of tourists are becoming less important for tourism and food consumption than income, behavioural and attitudinal aspects;
- Growth of disposable income, particularly in Asia and Africa, which drives the rise of a new middle-class and hence the emergence of ‘a new traveller class that will spend a growing portion of its household income on cross-border travel (Forestell and Best 2017: 51). World Economic Forum (2017) estimates the global growth of the middle-class at about one billion people until 2030, mainly people from emerging markets such as China and India, who will increasingly engage in international travel and seeking new experiences;
- Increased mobility of people around the world, due to lower travel cost, the removal of travel restrictions in many countries and the improved connectivity achieved by the expansion of airline networks around the world;
- The digital revolution which provides advantages for tourists, destinations and products. The widespread access to the internet and the surge of social media and innovative online travel tools have made it much easier for a local product to have a regional or global impact (De la Madrid Cordero 2017). Instagram, Facebook, WhatsApp and other social platforms have significantly changed the way people communicate and share their experiences. They are able to do this on a peer-to-peer and real time basis, and hence increasingly influence opinions and attitudes about places, activities and experiences;
- Food and beverages are widely perceived as valuable and desirable experiences, not just products, and this is even much more the case when food consumption is part of a holiday experience;
- Seeking experiences has become mainstream and in tourism, ranging from experiencing adventure to experiencing solitude, but increasingly also the experiencing sensory moments (taste, smell, texture, sight). According to Food Alert (2013),

“eating out is not only about the way food tastes, but a wider experience bringing together one’s different senses”;

- Tourists, as consumers in general, are more concerning and more discriminating than in the past, they extend their lifestyle to their holidays and ‘me’ is at the forefront of many leisure activities;
- Many sectors in tourism, from airlines to hotels, from tour operators to restaurants are increasingly viewing food quality and experiences as a principal component of their offering. These experiences are often not built on quality traits that are physically attached to the product or meal, but on so called “credence” attributes (Darby and Karny 1973) which are intangible food and product properties such as organic, locally sourced, harvested at a certain point in time, prepared by a particular chef, etc.;
- Storytelling is human and in many industries stories behind or about a product have become as important as the product itself. This applies to a large extent to food and beverages, since food can always tell a story, it allows for experiences and is hence a reflection of peoples’ lifestyles and history (Ontario Culinary Tourism Alliance 2015).

All those trends are driving the sustained and growing interest in food tourism. As a result, new and highly differentiated food experience formats are constantly developing on a local, regional and international scale, providing for a great variety of experience spaces for tourists.

Authenticity: Reloaded with Food

As discussed, food tourism refers to travel activities in which local food and gastronomy plays a pivotal role. Cohen and Avieli (2004) were the first to point at the fact that local food may be more than just a tourist attraction. According to CBI (2017), ‘most culinary travellers are interested in food culture, rather than gourmet’, and ‘local cuisine gives travellers a direct and authentic connection with their destination, they experience local heritage, culture and people through food and drink. Most of the recent academic and applied literature on food and tourism is in agreement with this statement (see for example World Food Travel Association 2018; UNWTO 2017; Robinson and Getz 2016; Ontario Culinary Tourism Alliance 2015; Sidali et al. 2015).

Regional, local, speciality, gourmet food offerings are numerous and can be found in any city, in the countryside, in hotels, at farms, on the streets, etc. Modern examples of providing opportunities for the creation of authentic and direct connections with the destination, or to be at the essence of local food culture, are the internet platforms Eatwith and Withlocals which are by now operating on a global scale promoting the ‘eat with locals at their place’ idea. Probably the first commercial peer to peer food and travel concept of that kind was Homefood, now trading as Cesarine, established

in Italy in 2004. Initially it was launched as a project to preserve Italian food culture and heritage and has now become a tourism attraction.

All food producers, chefs, gourmets and food travellers do have one thing in common: the search for authenticity. Food is often termed to be authentic, if it is specific to a region, is prepared in a certain way, makes use of traditional preparation methods, combines and/or recombines new with traditional ingredients, is prepared by a certain person. Consequently, destination managers and scholars have made attempts to profile and group food tourists into standardised clusters to be able to develop and market offerings for “calibrated food tourists”.

Since not all travellers, and particularly not all food travellers, are alike, the most recent approach used in practice to identify specific segments of food travellers is PsychoCulinary profiling, promoted by the World Food Traveller (2017) as an essential tool to explain how people make food purchase decisions while travelling. This type of profiling follows the rationale that specific food tourist sub-segments can be identified and targeted according to the behaviour and attitudes of travellers. With 13 major categories of food travellers assumed to be relevant for profiling food travellers, the approach appears to be rather overcomplicated for the use in businesses. The practical use and benefit of PsychoCulinary profiling may further be hampered by the fact that consumers can have up to 3 major profiles at the same time (World Food Travel Association 2017) which reflects the fact that consumers are discerning and discriminating, since they exercise variety through many options.

Some years ago, Tourism Australia (2018) has changed its approach of segmenting and positioning from demographic to psycho-graphic profiling, trying to capture a global behavioural and attitudinal driven target audience of High Value Travelers (HVT). However, with regard to food tourists, this positioning is mainly aimed at gourmet travelers, a group that comprises only about 5–10% of travelers interested in food world-wide (World Food Travel Association 2017). Whereas this is consistent with the overall High Value Traveler strategy of Tourism Australia, positioning Australian food travel predominantly in the gourmet segment may not be appealing to travelers seeking authentic and local experiences, and hence may not provide for the 90% of travelers who are interested in food, but not in a gourmet food experience, and who particularly include many of those who travel to Australia to experience nature, adventure and down-under lifestyle.

In comparison to the HVT strategy in food tourism, the success story of the Australian wine industry has the potential to provide a valuable analogy. Whereas other countries were mainly targeting wine drinkers and wine connoisseurs, with the latter group having an important and undisputed role as ambassadors of wine, the most essential group initially targeted by the Australian wine campaign has been the group of non-wine drinkers. They comprised more than 80% of the world population at the time Australian wine started its internationalisation efforts, and hence have been the most attractive, but very overlooked target group.

Hence, for targeting food travellers, a less sophisticated and more pragmatic segmentation approach than PsychoCulinary profiling may provide for the essential insights needed to position for travellers seeking authentic food experiences. CBI (2017) suggests segmenting the market along three types of food travellers only: the

deliberate, the opportunistic and the accidental culinary tourist. Deliberate culinary tourists comprise about 50% of all travellers who are interested in food. Food culture is a main attraction to them, they are characterised by a high propensity to learn about and to experience local food and cuisine. Opportunistic culinary tourists, who comprise approximately one quarter of food travellers, also actively seek and enjoy local and authentic food experiences. However, their primary reason to travel is not motivated by food. The accidental culinary tourist does not actively seek food experiences but takes part in them because such offerings are available. All three segments require different targeting and positioning strategies, whereas the first segment is obviously the most attractive one for providers of authentic food experiences.

Over the last years, authenticity has rapidly gained importance in any industry sector world-wide and there is merely no product/service sector which is not trying to exploit this construct to gain advantages in the market. Consequently, as a basis for achieving comparative, and more considerably competitive advantage, authenticity has also earned significant attention from tourism managers and tourism scholars (see for example Mac Cannel 2018; Osti 2017; Paulauskaite et al. 2017; Kirillova et al. 2017; Brida et al. 2012).

This is due to substantial shifts in consumer perceptions and behaviour, all of which are determined by post-modernism and which are currently portrayed as a highly sophisticated experience economy, with its conflicting sets of values and diverse modes of value assessment as concrete and business relevant representations of post-modern lifestyles (Maurer 2017). Hence, authenticity is a complex concept, reflecting its multiform history and societal embeddedness and is often misunderstood.

In tourism, authenticity has now undoubtedly become mainstream, particularly with regard to food experiences of travellers. UNWTO (2017), in its Second Global Report on Gastronomy Tourism, has documented a variety of successful cases and initiatives in many parts of the world, from regional initiatives to individual business cases and reports authenticity as the common and most important baseline for developing and sustaining a successful food tourism agenda.

According to Wang (1999: 351), 'the complex nature of authenticity in tourism is exhibited in the fact that it can be classified into objective, constructive, and existential authenticity'. Objective authenticity depends on an act of (re-) production and it is the past that must be adopted as a model of the original. Authenticity in the present must therefore pay tribute to the origins. Thus, the past preserves the original version and the current model, to be considered authentic, must live up to the past. This concept fits very well with historical artefacts, works of art, and historical and archaeological sites, but poses difficulties with the tourism phenomenon, which includes interactions between tourists and residents and a priority by residents to keep their cultural identity unrevealed in the intercultural exchange with tourists (Wang 1999). However, with regard to food tourism, objective authentic food would need to be prepared in a region, according to traditional recipes and products of that region.

Consequently, constructive authenticity, or more popularly known as 'staged authenticity' has been introduced by Mac Cannel (2018) into the discussion of authenticity in tourism. He points at the fact that host communities do not allow

tourists to live an authentic experience, as they protect their culture, their customs and traditions through a double identity: there exists a frontstage interpretation of their culture to satisfy the tourists' needs and expectations, and a backstage culture that is protected by and shared only among the members of the community. With food, staged authenticity can hardly be achieved, since it does usually not allow for double identity. However, the adjustment of original flavours and ingredients (down-spicing, substituting certain meats, etc.) to better suit the palates of foreign tourists may fall into that category.

Existential authenticity as a concept that has only been introduced into the tourism discussion recently. It is closely linked to philosophical backgrounds. Existential authenticity is not centred around associations with an object but is based on the search for the '(inner-) self'. It refers to a potential existential state of being, that is activated by tourism activities, 'and can have nothing to do with the authenticity of toured objects' (Wang 1999). The search of travellers for the inner-self (existential authenticity) is an important part of post-modern life and lifestyles. Hence, it has become an essential driver shaping opportunities for the creation of authentic food offerings in connection with travel.

Educating for Experience Markets

The travel and tourism sector accounts for 30% of export services world-wide, for 10% of global employment, and 'for every 30 tourists a new job is created' (World Economic Forum 2017: 26). Changes in the way how people travel and increasingly augment their holidays with special experiences allowing for the development of their 'inner-self', has a direct and growing impact on the tourism and travel sector and requires new talent sufficiently prepared and competent to make the most out of these opportunities.

Tourism is a massive generator of employment, but the sector is inefficient in attracting top talent for either, technical or managerial positions. According to recent studies this is due to inadequate education supply and a lack of practice and training on the job (UNWTO 2017; WTTC 2015). The problem has mainly been treated in quantitative terms, as expected talent gaps and structural deficiencies. However, quantitative evaluations do not address the real issue. Societal, attitudinal, behavioural and lifestyle changes which are taking place on a global scale are leading to an increased and continued growth of demand for unique and authentic experiences in tourism and food consumption. In turn, this requires new competence levels from tourism and gastronomic entrepreneurs and employees, since catering to a discerning and discriminating audience in search for authenticity differs substantially from traditional tourism products and service approaches.

Capturing authenticity, and particularly creating offerings in the sphere of existential authenticity, requires knowledge, skills, capabilities and competences. This includes technical and managerial skills, or even better a combination of both, but also creativity, foresight, enthusiasm and knowledge about societal developments

and, in the area of food, awareness and understanding of agricultural and industrial production processes, of raw materials and food products. This calls for a ‘new roadmap in tourism and food’. Currently, most universities and technical colleges are mainly focusing on either education (academic), or skills development and training (practical). Considering the societal developments and the tourism trends outlined above, it appears to be reasonable to move forward to a combined curriculum integrating academic education and practical training in tourism and food. Experiential education may be a way to shape new talent for the new lifestyle economy and the creation of authentic experiences.

Achieving learning and experience across institutional, societal and industry boundaries along a pathway of holistic education that acknowledges the importance of knowledge and skills ‘beyond the plate’, may call for a specific institutional setting, a university of specialisation in tourism.

Let’s call this the Age of Authenticity (Charles Taylor, *A Secular Age*)

References

- Alliance, Ontario Culinary Tourism. (2015). *The rise of food tourism*. Ontario Culinary Tourism Alliance and Skift Travel IQ: Special Report. Toronto.
- Brida, J. G., Disegna, M., & Osti, L. (2012). From cultural events to sport events: A case study of cultural authenticity. *Current Issues in Tourism*, 16(3), 266–285.
- CBI. (2017). What are the opportunities for culinary tourism from Europe? Ministry of Foreign Affairs, The Hague, Netherlands. <https://www.cbi.eu/node/2536/pdf>. Accessed 7 December 2017.
- Cohen, E., & Avieli, N. (2004). Food in tourism: Attraction and impediment. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 31(4), 755–778.
- Darby, M. R., & Karni, E. (1973). Free competition and the optimal amount of fraud. *Journal of Law and Economics*, 16(1), 67–88.
- De la Madrid Cordero, E. (2017). Do more with less: The power of innovation and technology. In World Economic Forum, *The Travel & Tourism Competitiveness Report 2017: Paving the way for a more sustainable and inclusive future*, Geneva.
- Food Alert (2013). *How our senses affect the way we experience food*. <https://www.foodalert.com/news-views/how-our-senses-affect-way-we-experience-food>. Accessed 27 December 2017.
- Forestell, J., & Best, W. (2017). Boomers to the rescue. In World Economic Forum *The travel and tourism competitiveness report 2017: Paving the way for a more sustainable and inclusive future*, Geneva.
- Kirillova, K., Lehto, X. Y., & Cai, L. (2017). Existential authenticity and anxiety as outcomes: The tourist in the experience economy. *International Journal of Tourism Research*, 19, 13–26.
- Mac Cannel, D. (2018). Staged authenticity: Arrangements of social space in tourist settings. In S. B. Gmelch & A. Kaul (Eds.), *Tourists and tourism: A reader* (3rd ed.). Long Grove, Illinois: Waveland Press.
- Maurer, O. (2017). Prefazione. In L. Osti (Ed.), *L'autenticità nel turismo montano* (pp. 11–13). Rome: Aracne Editrice.
- McKercher, B., Okumus, F., & Okumus, B. (2008). Food tourism as a viable market segment: It’s all how you cook the numbers! *Journal of Travel and Tourism Marketing*, 25, 137–148.
- Osti, L. (2017). *L'autenticità Nel Turismo Montano*. Rome: Aracne Editrice.

- Paulauskaite, D., Powell, R., Coca-Stefaniak, J. A., & Morrison, A. M. (2017). Living like a local: Authentic tourism experiences and the sharing economy. *International Journal of Tourism Research*, 19, 619–628.
- Robinson, R. N. S., & Getz, D. (2016). Food enthusiasts and tourism: Exploring food involvement dimensions. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Research*, 40(4), 432–455.
- Sidali, K. L., Kastenholz, E., & Bianchi, R. (2015). Food tourism, niche markets and products in rural tourism: Combining the intimacy model and the experience economy as a rural development strategy. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 23(8–9), 1179–1197.
- Tourism Australia. (2018). Consumer research: High value traveller (HVT) segment. <http://www.tourism.australia.com/en/markets-and-research/consumer-research.html>. Accessed 8 January 2018.
- UNWTO. (2017). *World Tourism Organization, Affiliate Members Report, 16*. Second Global Report on Gastronomy Tourism, Madrid: UNWTO.
- UNWTO. (2018). *World tourism organization world tourism barometer, 16—advance release 2018*. Madrid: UNWTO.
- Wang, N. (1999). Rethinking authenticity in tourism experience. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 26(2), 349–370.
- World Economic Forum. (2017). *The travel and tourism competitiveness report 2017: Paving the way for a more sustainable and inclusive future*, Geneva.
- World Food Travel Association. (2017). *PsychoCulinary Profiling*. Not all food lovers are the same. <https://www.worldfoodtravel.org/cpages/psychoculinary-profiling>. Accessed 5 December 2017.
- World Food Travel Association. (2018). *State of the food tourism industry 2018 Annual Report*. <https://www.worldfoodtravel.org/cpages/state-of-the-food-tourism-industry>. Accessed 22 January 2018.
- World Food Traveller. (2017). What is food tourism? <https://www.worldfoodtravel.org/cpages/what-is-food-tourism>. Accessed 6 December 2017.
- WTTC. (2015). *Global talent trends and issues for the travel and tourism sector*. London: World Travel and Tourism Council.

Chapter 4

Event Studies: Progression and Future in the Field



Leonie Lockstone-Binney and Faith Ong

Abstract Interest in events is unquestionably at an all-time high, fueled by the profile of major cultural, religious and sporting occasions that are subject to increased commodification and, consequently, growing media coverage. Capitalising on this interest, event studies has emerged in recent decades as the new kid on the block, an addition to the leisure, tourism and hospitality fields of study. The growth path of event studies has been documented in a number of reviews and summations of the extant literature (Harris et al. 2001; Getz 2000, 2008, 2010, 2012; Kim et al. 2013; Lee and Back 2005; Mair 2012; Mair and Whitford 2013; Yoo and Weber 2005). These reviews, whilst invaluable in identifying the scope of event studies and gaps in current knowledge, have yet to be explored in relation to their contribution to future event studies and education. With greater freedom to test the waters compared to an empirical paper, this conceptual piece provides an opportunity for some much needed critical introspection (Thomas and Bowdin 2012) as to progress in the field.

Keywords Events · Future · Critical studies · Events education

Introduction

Spurred by unprecedented global growth in events and global media coverage, event studies has increasingly become a popular field of study. Since its introduction as a field of study in the mid-2000s, owing to its conceptualisation by Getz (2008) as the study of planned events, event studies has undergone a decade of rapid growth in exploration and understanding. As a result of its relative youth compared to other related areas of study such as tourism and leisure, the interest in and growth of event studies heralds a promising era. However, as interest increases, so does the need for more holistic and critical examinations of the functions and legacies of planned events and their impact on events education. A number of publications have

L. Lockstone-Binney (✉) · F. Ong
William Angliss Institute, Melbourne, Australia
e-mail: Leonie.Lockstone-Binney@angliss.edu.au

© Springer Nature Singapore Pte Ltd. 2019
S. Beeton and A. Morrison (eds.), *The Study of Food, Tourism, Hospitality, and Events*,
Tourism, Hospitality & Event Management,
https://doi.org/10.1007/978-981-13-0638-9_4

summed and reviewed the extant literature in event studies (Harris et al. 2001; Getz 2000, 2008, 2010, 2012; Kim et al. 2013; Lee and Back 2005; Mair 2012; Mair and Whitford 2013; Yoo and Weber 2005), identifying scope and gaps in relation to the field. However, far fewer have cast a critical eye on this literature to progress the future of this field (Baum et al. 2013), especially not in relation to their implications for future studies and education.

This chapter discusses some of the key developments within the event studies field over the past 5 years, discussing thematic foci and areas of growth. It will draw upon the most recent reviews of the area, environmental scans and other secondary data in forming an informative overview of event studies thus far.

Developments in Event Studies

Since its development as an area of study in the early 2000s, the surge of popularity enjoyed by events studies has been noticeable. Owing to Getz's (2007) seminal work, education in this area has taken on three key forms. Forming the basis of this trio is event design and production, primarily concerned with applied, practical knowledge. This is followed by event management, which incorporates the concerns of event design and production while also encompassing the broader perspectives of experience and cohesion. At the pinnacle of these three levels is event studies, which Getz considers to be the highest level of event education, and concerned with theoretical and conceptual discourses incorporating social, cultural, environmental and economic phenomena.

While this rapid growth suggests event studies is on a similar trajectory to the expansion of tourism research and education during the 1980s and 1990s (Getz and Page 2016), it is helped by the everyday relatability of events to the general populace. Events are, by their nature, short-term. They generally make use of existing infrastructure, and are often boosted by temporary, purpose-built structures. With planned events forming an increasingly frequent part of everyday life while utilising public space and structures, the importance of proper management is emphasised. This familiarity and emphasis on effective management has facilitated bridging of the gap between applied event knowledge and event studies. Nevertheless, event studies and its more applied counterparts suffer from less savoury outcomes regarding their youth: the lack of acceptance as a recognised field of study (Baum et al. 2013).

The study of planned events initially grew with impact assessments relating to economics and finance (Kim et al. 2013). These facilitated interest in the organisational aspects of event management, encouraging studies to extend beyond examining financial impact to exploration into marketing, operations, trends and forecasts (Park and Park 2016). Later on, the focus shifted to examine attendees and their experiences, particularly in the areas of motivation, expectations, satisfaction and other behavioural and experiential dimensions (Kim et al. 2013).

The increased academic interest in the area is evidenced by the growth of event related publications. Not only are there an increased number of event-related journals publishing a greater number of articles, so too, are the number of events-related articles published in leisure, sport and tourism journals (Park and Park 2016). In their thematic analysis of event management research published between 1998 and 2013, Park and Park (2017) found several themes that dominated the field in both events and tourism journals. Destination, management and marketing themes were the focus of an overwhelming majority of these publications, totalling nearly 70% of all publications in their sample. The total number of event publications in selected journals also rose from 150 in the 5-year period between 1998 and 2003 to 337 papers between 2008 and 2013 (Park and Park 2017).

With increased interest and an ever-broadening range of topics within the area to be explored, the remainder of this chapter will eschew detailed discussion of established topics in favour of developing topics within the event studies field that may address previous research gaps and also provide an agenda for future study. This discussion will include the aspects of event studies that are garnering increasing interest, the growth in critical event studies in response to early positive claims, and theoretical developments that may contribute to its status as a field of its own standing.

Situating Event Studies

The instrumentality of events has always been a focus for research in this area (Kim et al. 2013). These have usually involved discussion of the roles events play in destination marketing (Knott et al. 2017; Sant et al. 2013; Werner et al. 2016), providing memorable experiences (Beard and Russ 2017) and its impacts (Michellini et al. 2017; Testa and Metter 2017). These continue to be discussed within the events literature as a broader range of events become subjects for study. Other areas have also gained prominence, extending the breadth and depth of event studies.

In particular, an area that has attracted particular researcher attention in recent years has been the study of sport and mega-events. As established mega-events such as the Summer and Winter Olympic Games continue to attract live spectators and home viewers alike, the significance and impacts of such events have come under increasing scrutiny (Sant et al. 2013). While such mega-events were once considered a prestige for host cities, the pursuit of one-upmanship is increasing the onus on host cities to provide ever more unique experiences, which has resulted in greater criticism of mega-events as a significant waste of resources. This has led to community action blocking cities' bids for sporting mega-events, such as in the case of Hamburg and its withdrawal from the 2024 Olympic host bid, and merely two candidate cities left in contention for hosting the 2024 and 2028 Olympic Games (Bender 2017). In response to this scrutiny, researchers have explored other means of assessing event impacts as justification. Amongst these justifications is the leveraging of events, positioning such events as seed capital that can be used to support and develop longer-term initiatives for the benefit of host cities and countries (Smith 2014). Indeed, event leveraging has

moved beyond initial frameworks encompassing event visitation, trade and media impacts (Chalip 2004) to broader model encompassing social benefits (Chalip 2006; O'Brien and Chalip 2007).

One of the means by which mega-events can be justified and leveraged are through their legacies. Legacies are what events leave behind for the longer term, beyond the event itself, and these have become central to the bidding process for mega events (Leopkey and Parent 2017). This trend has been acknowledged in a number of research publications examining different aspects of legacy, including typologies and key definitions (Dickson et al. 2011; Preuss 2007). These have ranged from examining legacy delivery outcomes, to ensuring equal distribution of benefits from hosting (Lienhard and Preuss 2014; Parent and Smith-Swan 2013). Beyond description of legacies, other researchers have extended studies into the mechanisms and governance systems essential to generate effective event legacies, an area which has been rightly criticised as insufficiently developed in relation to the scale of mega-events (Lockstone-Binney et al. 2016; Smith 2014).

This focus on legacies is also related to another area which has received greater attention in recent years—event sustainability. As a result of this focus on sustainability, local communities and other event stakeholders' perceptions and evaluations of events have been more thoroughly explored (Holmes et al. 2015). Because planned events are often situated in spaces within or adjacent to existing communities, greater emphasis than ever before has been placed on environmental sustainability (Heck and Terret 2016). Aside from the physical environment, socio-cultural elements of sustainability have also gained prominence (Holmes et al. 2015). Consequently, stakeholders' perspectives are taken into greater consideration in the research pertaining to events (Hanrahan and Maguire 2016). In particular, the social sustainability principles of access and inclusion has seen a rise in examinations of volunteering in the event context. Studies such as those from Lockstone-Binney et al. (2016) and Kim and Cuskelly (2017) examine not just the importance of volunteering as essential to events, but also their legacies. The legacies left in events' wakes include host communities' sense of inclusivity and transferable skills learnt from event volunteering experiences (Holmes et al. 2015). Legacy-related studies have also prompted the development of a major events assessment framework, which remains descriptive and procedural in its current iteration (Sadd et al. 2017).

With smartphones and internet access becoming ubiquitous around the world, the role of technology in events has not been neglected. While technology may be used to help attendees co-create their event experiences, it may also change the means by which attendees experience events (Robertson et al. 2015). Currently, the domination of social media as a marketing tool has enhanced event awareness and participation, but can also be flipped to become a tool for event and festival organisers to enhance their suite of services with attendees' social media posts (Pasanen and Konu 2016). Other, more futuristic, means may include concepts such as wearable technology, virtual reality enhancements, visual and physiological enhancement, and personalised content (Robertson et al. 2015). The use of technology is not merely restricted to that of attendees' experience; it has also been proposed as a tool for education institutions to train future event managers (Fotiadis and Sigala 2015).

Such education tools are intended to provide students with a simulated experience assuming the responsibilities as event managers, barring opportunities to work in the industry. This focus on practical skills has also been highlighted in terms of the body of scholarship relating to event management education. While higher education event management courses represent a mix of practical and theoretical knowledge, the industry that employs event management graduates have often expressed preference for those who possess practical experience relating to particular types of event (Ryan 2016). This has led event educators to consciously incorporate industry contact and elements into their design of events management curriculum (Robertson et al. 2012). Such initiatives have taken the form of industry immersion or internships, incorporation of industry speakers into lecture sessions, engagement with event industry associations, and development of technical skills, especially in software commonly used by practitioners (Robertson et al. 2012). The incorporation of industry players into events education serves multiple purposes: allowing industry input into how future employees are educated, providing students with an idea of what is required of them in the industry, while serving as a stage for the most up-to-date industry knowledge to be impressed upon students (Junek et al. 2009).

Event management education has also been supported by the publication of books aimed at different qualification levels and focused on different aspects of event studies. Those that are more industry-focused were presented in the form of guides to terminology and market segmentation (Page and Connell 2012; Schwägermann et al. 2016). There are also others that present in-depth information on particular typologies or aspects of events, such as managing sport events (Greenwell et al. 2014), winning events from a venue perspective (Davidson and Hade 2014), sustainable event management (Jones and Jones 2014) and events sponsorship (McDonnell and Moir 2013).

Previous Criticism

Two key criticisms of event studies that have persisted throughout its surge in popularity have been the lack of theoretical standing and critical examination (Baum et al. 2013; Kim et al. 2013). It is timely to re-examine these criticisms in light of the number of book and journal publications in this area since Baum et al.'s last critical review.

The development of basic theories grounded in the event experience have yet to eventuate, despite cognisance that such development would be instrumental in cementing event studies's status as a disciplinary field (Baum et al. 2013; Getz 2000; Getz and Page 2016). This lack of development, however, has not been for want of trying. While no basic theories have yet to gain precedence, researchers have developed frameworks that could lay the foundation for future theories. Notably, Holmes and Ali-Knight (2017) have developed an event and festival life cycle model based on Butler's (1980) Tourism Area Life Cycle (TALC). Holmes and Ali-Knight's model extends the TALC to the temporal context of festival and events to provide a template

for evaluating the failings and future developments of events. While potentially useful for event managers as a framework for identification of development, it remains empirically untested (Holmes and Ali-Knight 2017).

Getz (2012) conceptualised a framework for types and functions of planned events based on convergence and exchange theories, on the basis that all planned events are predicated on some form of exchange—economic, social, cultural or familial. He made use of personal and symbolic dimensions to ascribe the value of meanings in events, while convergence within the framework signified levels of personal participation; this model also remains empirically untested.

Therefore even as event studies advance towards event-specific theory development, the existing frameworks are small steps towards this goal. Perhaps in referencing the related field of hospitality, which has seen a largely fruitless 30-year search for theoretical development (Baum et al. 2013), the field of event studies may yet have a long wait to achieve this goal.

Another key critique of event studies has been its lack of critical examination, particularly in the early stages of its ascent as a field of study (Baum et al. 2013). It is evident from Park and Park (2016), who evaluated the topic trends of event management research from 1998 to 2013, that instrumentality dominates the study of events. Often, such studies are concerned with the immediate value of events to its allied sectors (Baum et al. 2013; Getz 2012), rather than the study of event's intrinsic value. In addition, much of this instrumentality has been viewed positively, without sufficient reflection and critical study (Rojek 2014). Recent publications in the field have, however, indicated the rise of critical event studies. It follows the urgings of Tribe (2008) to resist the positivist agenda in tourism by engaging in critical research to set an agenda for ethical management, governance and co-existence with the wider world.

At least two books have been published recently in the area of critical event studies. While Lamond and Platt (2016) edited a collection of research studies applying critical approaches to various types of planned events, Spracklen and Lamond (2016) adopt a conceptual exploration of criticality in events, discussing various forms of critical study in relation to events. The timeliness of critical event studies is also exemplified by an upcoming special issue in *Events Management Journal*, which received abstract submissions from researchers covering a diversity of topics within event management, and spread across a wide geographical area. The interest in this area is a direction that promises growth, challenging the established positivism in the field. It also signifies a move towards creating evaluation and governance structures that will be better equipped to advocate for ethical practices in event management.

Conclusion

In light of global growth in events, event managers have to create ever more enticing experiences to remain both relevant and competitive. In this chapter, we reviewed the current research foci in the field of events, identifying the areas that are widely explored and those that could bear greater scrutiny. This review contributes to understanding of the current landscape in regard to event studies, which has implications for the future of events education.

As technology becomes increasingly embedded within the event experience (Pasanen and Konu 2016), it creates a feedback loop that informs greater expectations for event attendees while allowing event managers to create more relevant events through attendees' interactions with event technologies. It underscores the importance of incorporating technological aids into events education, so as to become comfortable with technological advancements while encouraging innovation. While theoretical competence is encouraged, as with any field of higher education, the need for practical experience is expected from both employers and students. Hence, the integration of practical, hands-on experiences must constitute an important part of events education.

This chapter also emphasised the importance of sustainability, vis-à-vis legacies and other temporally extended frames of impact that must be considered for future events. In light of criticisms of the functions and resource use of mega-events, consideration of sustainability has never been more important. Events education must therefore take into account these concerns while striking a balance with innovation that would ensure positive relationships between planned events and their stakeholders, especially host communities. As the spotlight turns to sustainability, so too, must the knowledge event educators impart to students, who will be the future leaders of the industry. The continued development of critical event studies will provide the knowledge base to advance this cause, while events education must complement it with encouragement for students to become critical practitioners.

References

- Baum, T., Lockstone-Binney, L., & Robertson, M. (2013). Event studies: Finding fool's gold at the rainbow's end? *International Journal of Event and Festival Management*, 4(3), 179–185.
- Beard, C., & Russ, W. (2017). Event evaluation and design: Human experience mapping. *Event Management*, 21(3), 365–374.
- Bender, A. (2017). Paris and Los Angeles will score Summer Olympics 2024 and 2028. <https://www.forbes.com/sites/andrewbender/2017/06/12/paris-and-los-angeles-will-score-summer-olympics-2024-and-2028/#3bbad77950a2>. Accessed 21 July 2017.
- Butler, R. (1980). The concept of a tourist area life cycle of evolution. *Canadian Geographer*, 24, 5–12.

- Chalip, L. (2004). Beyond impact: A general model for sport event leverage. In B. W. Ritchie & D. Adair (Eds.), *Sport tourism: interrelationships, impacts and issues* (pp. 226–252). Clevedon: Channel View Publications.
- Chalip, L. (2006). Towards social leverage of sport events. *Journal of Sport and Tourism*, 11(2), 109–127.
- Davidson, R., & Hade, A. (2014). *Winning meetings and events for your venue*. Oxford: Goodfellow Publishers Ltd.
- Dickson, T. J., Benson, A. M., & Blackman, D. A. (2011). Developing a framework for evaluating Olympic and Paralympic legacies. *Journal of Sport and Tourism*, 16(4), 285–302.
- Fotiadis, A. K., & Sigala, M. (2015). Developing a framework for designing an events management training simulation (EMTS). *Journal of Hospitality, Leisure, Sport and Tourism Education*, 16, 59–71.
- Getz, D. (2000). Developing a research agenda for the event management field. In J. Allen, R. Harris, L. K. Jago, & A. J. Veal (Eds.), *Events beyond: Setting the Agenda. Proceedings of Conference on Event Evaluation, Research and Education* (pp. 10–21). Sydney, Australia: Australian Centre for Event Management.
- Getz, D. (2007). *Event studies: Theory, research and policy for planned events*. London: Elsevier Butterworth-Heinemann.
- Getz, D. (2008). Event tourism: Definition, evolution, and research. *Tourism Management*, 29(3), 403–428.
- Getz, D. (2010). The nature and scope of festival studies. *International Journal of Event Management Research*, 5(1), 1–47.
- Getz, D. (2012). *Event studies*. Florence: Taylor and Francis.
- Getz, D., & Page, S. J. (2016). *Event Studies: Theory, research and policy for planned events*. London: Routledge.
- Greenwell, T. C., Danzey-Bussell, L. A., & Shonk, D. J. (2014). *Managing sport events*. Champaign: Human Kinetics.
- Hanrahan, J., & Maguire, K. (2016). Local authority planning provision for event management in Ireland: A socio-cultural perspective. *Journal of Convention and Event Tourism*, 17(2), 129–158.
- Harris, R., Jago, L., Allen, J., & Huyskens, M. (2001). Towards an Australian event research agenda: First steps. *Event Management*, 6(4), 213–221.
- Heck, S., & Terret, T. (2016). Nature conservation versus event organisation: ‘Madmen’s Diagonals’ on Reunion Island (1989–2014). *Journal of Policy Research in Tourism, Leisure and Events*, 8(1), 18–32.
- Holmes, K., & Ali-Knight, J. (2017). The event and festival life cycle: Developing a new model for a new context. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 29(3), 986–1004.
- Holmes, K., Hughes, M., Mair, J., & Carlsen, J. (2015). *Events and sustainability*. Florence: Taylor and Francis.
- Jones, M. L., & Jones, M. (2014). *Sustainable event management: A practical guide* (2nd ed.). Florence: Taylor and Francis.
- Junek, O., Lockstone, L., & Mair, J. (2009). Two perspectives on event management employment: Student and employer insights into the skills required to get the job done! *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Management*, 16(1), 120–129.
- Kim, J., Boo, S., & Kim, Y. (2013). Patterns and trends in event tourism study topics over 30 years. *International Journal of Event and Festival Management*, 4(1), 66–83.
- Kim, E., & Cuskelly, G. (2017). A systematic quantitative review of volunteer management in events. *Event Management*, 21(1), 83–100.
- Knott, B., Fyall, A., & Jones, I. (2017). Sport mega-events and nation branding: Unique characteristics of the 2010 FIFA World Cup, South Africa. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 29(3), 900–923.

- Lamond, I. R., & Platt, L. (2016). *Critical event studies: Approaches to research*. London: Palgrave Macmillan.
- Lee, M. J., & Back, K.-J. (2005). A review of convention and meeting management research 1990–2003: Identification of statistical methods and subject areas. *Journal of Convention and Event Tourism*, 7(2), 1–20.
- Leopkey, B., & Parent, M. M. (2017). The governance of Olympic legacy: Process, actors and mechanisms. *Leisure Studies*, 36(3), 438–451.
- Lienhard, P., & Preuss, H. (2014). *Legacy, sustainability and CSR at mega sport events: An analysis of the UEFA EURO 2008 in Switzerland*. Wiesbaden: Springer Gabler.
- Lockstone-Binney, L., Holmes, K., Shipway, R., & Smith, K. (2016). *Evaluating the volunteering infrastructure legacy of the olympic games: Sydney 2000 and London 2012*. Lausanne: IOC.
- Mair, J. (2012). A review of business events literature. *Event Management*, 16(2), 133–141.
- Mair, J., & Whitford, M. (2013). An exploration of events research: Event topics, themes and emerging trends. *International Journal of Event and Festival Management*, 4(1), 6–30.
- McDonnell, I., & Moir, M. (2013). *Events sponsorship*. Hoboken: Taylor and Francis.
- Michelini, L., Iasevoli, G., & Theodoraki, E. (2017). Event venue satisfaction and its impact on sponsorship outcomes. *Event Management*, 21(3), 319–331.
- O'Brien, D., & Chalip, L. (2007). Sport event and strategic leveraging: Pushing towards the triple bottom line. In A. G. Woodside & D. Martin (Eds.), *Tourism Management: Analysis, behaviour and strategy* (pp. 318–338). Oxfordshire: CABI.
- Page, S. J., & Connell, J. (2012). *The routledge handbook of events*. Hoboken: Taylor and Francis.
- Parent, M. M., & Smith-Swan, S. (2013). *Managing major sports events: Theory and practice*. Abingdon: Routledge.
- Park, K., & Park, S. (2016). Topic trend of event management research. *Event Management*, 20(1), 109–115.
- Park, S. B., & Park, K. (2017). Thematic trends in event management research. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 29(3), 848–861.
- Pasanen, K., & Konu, H. (2016). Use of social media for new service development by Finnish event and festival organizers. *Event Management*, 20(3), 313–325.
- Preuss, H. (2007). The conceptualisation and measurement of mega sport event legacies. *Journal of Sport and Tourism*, 12(3–4), 207–228.
- Robertson, M., Junek, O., & Lockstone-Binney, L. (2012). Is this for real? Authentic learning for the challenging events environment. *Journal of Teaching in Travel and Tourism*, 12(3), 225–241.
- Robertson, M., Yeoman, I., Smith, K. A., & McMahon-Beattie, U. (2015). Technology, society, and visioning the future of music festivals. *Event Management*, 19(4), 567–587.
- Rojek, C. (2014). Global event management: A critique. *Leisure Studies*, 33(1), 32–47.
- Ryan, W. G. (2016). How do you “do” event management education (EME)? A case study of event management higher education awards. *Event Management*, 20(1), 69–80.
- Sadd, D., Fyall, A., & Wardrop, K. (2017). Evaluative event frameworks: A learning destination perspective. *International Journal of Tourism Research*, 19(3), 339–348.
- Sant, S.-L., Mason, D. S., & Hinch, T. D. (2013). Conceptualising Olympic tourism legacy: Destination marketing organisations and Vancouver 2010. *Journal of Sport and Tourism*, 18(4), 287–312.
- Schwägermann, H., Mayer, P., & Yi, D. (2016). *Handbook event market China*. Berlin: De Gruyter Oldenbourg.
- Smith, A. (2014). Leveraging sport mega-events: New model or convenient justification? *Journal of Policy Research in Tourism, Leisure and Events*, 6(1), 15–30.
- Spracklen, K., & Lamond, I. R. (2016). *Critical event studies*. Abingdon: Taylor and Francis.
- Testa, M. R., & Metter, M. (2017). Assessing economic impact as a means for event efficacy: A proposed model and case study. *Event Management*, 21(1), 61–70.
- Thomas, R., & Bowdin, G. (2012). Events management: State of the art. Selected papers from the Global Events Congress IV, Leeds, England, UK, 14–16 July 2010. *Event Management*, 16(2), 103–187.
- Tribe, J. (2008). Tourism: A critical business. *Journal of Travel Research*, 46(3), 245–255.

- Werner, K., Dickson, G., & Hyde, K. F. (2016). Mega-events and increased collaborative capacity of tourism destinations: The case of the 2011 Rugby World Cup. *Journal of Destination Marketing and Management*, 5, 227–238.
- Yoo, J. J.-E., & Weber, K. (2005). Progress in convention tourism research. *Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Research*, 29(2), 194–222.

Chapter 5

The Australian Qualifications Framework and Lifelong Learning: An Educator's Perspective



Robert Broggian

Abstract This chapter explores the role of the Australian Qualifications framework (AQF) in Australian society. It provides the framework for qualifications within the various Australian education sectors. It identifies the learning outcomes and supports and provides a structure to foster and promote lifelong learning in formal education. Lifelong learning is a journey we all undertake. Whether it is the skills and knowledge we gather by participating in our communities and workplaces or formally through accredited training and education. There are many factors that shape this engagement which will be explored in this chapter. Citizenship and community is the cornerstone of any society. It encompasses making a positive contribution to the world we live in. It embraces respect and value for not only other people but also the planet. William Angliss Institute as a Specialist Centre for hospitality, tourism and culinary arts training and education is well positioned to provide a valuable service and contribution to society through the various qualifications it offers.

Keywords AQF · Lifelong learning

Introduction

Lifelong learning is an activity that we all inevitably do as individuals. It assists us to navigate through the myriad of challenges we face as humans. Many individuals engage in lifelong learning through formal education. Kiel (1999) explores Maslow's hierarchy of needs and the need for self-actualisation as being never ending, with research indicating that non-traditional aged students place real importance on continuing to evolve and flourish through measurable achievements.

This auto ethnography will explore a journey through the Australian Qualifications Framework (AQF) of a hospitality professional and educator working within the vocational education and training sector (VET). It will explore the motivation and

R. Broggian (✉)
William Angliss Institute, Melbourne, Australia
e-mail: Robert.Broggian@angliss.edu.au

drivers of lifelong learning especially within the formal structure of the AQF and explore if the AQF is embraced as a cosmology or viewed as a static paradigm. Are the various levels of the AQF viewed as silos to gain the skills and knowledge required at a specific point in time, or as a continuing pathway for personal growth and accessing better employment opportunities?

The AQF ([Appendix](#)) is the national policy for qualifications within the Australian education sector (Australian Qualification Framework Council 2013). It was established in 1995 and provides a framework of 10 AQF levels detailing qualifications from Certificate 1 to Doctoral Degree. The AQF is designed to “improve student pathways both within and between the education sectors and the workplace, enhance the mobility of graduates through increase recognition of the value of Australian qualifications and enable Australian qualifications to be mapped against those of other countries” (Dawkins 2010:17).

The AQF is not promoted as a pathway. More can be done to promote life-long learning or lifelong education, with the qualification levels existing as silos and focused on developing competence rather than capability (Fraser and Greenhalgh 2001). This may serve the immediate need of industry but with an ageing population innovation can be born from formal learning. The nature of work is constantly changing, and many will embark and engage in many different careers that will require new skills. Rolland (2005) identifies that the skills and learning gathered prior to engagement in the workforce will no longer sustain an individual’s engagement in continuing employment without the uptake of further education.

Education can provide a catalyst for transformational change. The AQF provides the framework if considered by the prospective student in its entirety rather than the achievement of a specific level. Life-long learning now becomes life-long education. Life-long education becomes systemic and intentional and the learning, as defined by Findsen and Formosa (2011) having the following 3 dimensions—the cognitive, emotional and social terrains. The three dimensions support the transformation from deriving outcomes that reflect competence to outcomes that build on capability. If the AQF is embraced, then as highlighted by Fraser and Greenhalgh (2001) we develop “the ability to adapt to change, generate new knowledge and continuously improve performance”.

Review of Literature

The AQF ([Appendix](#)) was established in 1995 to embody the range of post-secondary qualifications from the VET and HE sectors. Wheelahan (2011) describes it as a weak framework which has been the focus of continuing reform to ensure Australia positions itself as a nation of well-educated individuals. Keating (2003) concurs but further states that a weaker framework may be an advantage that allows for the customisation of courses and qualifications clients from industry or specific enterprises. Dawkins (2010) considers the AQF as world class because of the pathway and connectivity between qualifications.

The AQF is structured around learning outcomes. “The learning outcomes are constructed as a taxonomy of what graduates are expected to know, understand and be able to do as a result of learning” (Australian Qualification Framework Council 2013). This systematic arrangement identifies a hierarchy or progression through levels commencing at AQF level 1 up to 10. Wheelahan (2015) identifies that the AQF has many strengths and weaknesses. “It is often portrayed as a good example of a relatively ‘weak’ or ‘loose’ qualifications framework because it does not have a direct role in accrediting qualifications or in quality assurance” (Wheelahan 2011: 323).

The AQF can be viewed as a static paradigm. Although it provides for a pathway for lifelong learning in formal education, this journey is not entrenched in the student mindset. Of greatest concern is identified by Stanwick (2005). The majority of students completing lower level qualifications at Certificate I and Certificate II are less likely to continue with further study. Of those aged between 20 and 24, only 20% engage in further education. A proportion also highlight to the fact that there was no perceivable job outcome after 6 months. This supports the findings that a motivation for undertaking these qualifications was self interest. That being the case, does the AQF fail this cohort by not ‘lighting a fire in their belly’? Should qualifications at this lower level serve to motivate and inspire students to consider a journey of lifelong learning?

McNaught (2013: 234) explores the absence of specific AQF policy guidelines to assist any pedagogical (general teaching and learning approaches) or andragogical (adult learning approaches) review. His research that some universities allow entry into undergraduate programs with the completion of AQF level 4 qualification is concerning in that at this level the student is not prepared for the rigour of reading and writing tasks associated at AQF level 7. At AQF level 7 the student must build capacity to undertake functions that include the ability to critically review and synthesise knowledge, apply critical thinking and judgement and clearly present and communicate knowledge and ideas (Australian Qualifications Framework Council 2013).

The importance of the AQF as a progression over a lifetime should not be overlooked. It can serve to support us as globalisation forces rapid change. Connell et al. (2013) highlights that due to the lack of entry level jobs for secondary school leavers, engagement with formal education, particularly Higher Education becomes more palatable. Hinton-Smith (2012: 3) acknowledges that widening participation in higher education is a key contemporary social issue. Perhaps participation can be widened if the VET and HE sectors collaborated to promote students undertaking a pathway from VET to HE.

Lifelong Learning

Lifelong learning can often fall into many categories and include: adult education, lifelong education, vocational education, higher education and continuing professional development (O’Grady 2013). Tuijnman (1996) detailed that the Organisation

for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) proposed a framework for lifelong learning that encompassed a systemic view of learning, the centrality of the learner, the motivation to learn and the multiple objectives of education policy. Hodgson (2012) identifies that the term ‘lifelong education’ first appeared in literature in the 1920s’ yet most of the categories previously cited gave way to the term ‘adult education’ in the 1980s.

What is a clear definition of learning? Learning is a process which can be measured by an output, that is, the application of a knowledge or skill. Smith and Spurling (1999: 4) define that “this can take the form of the ability to do something which could not be done before; or a new understanding about the world or about something of spiritual, emotional or aesthetic significance”.

Ingleby et al. (2010) explore the work of humanist theorists to explain how learning best occurs. In particular, the work of Benjamin Bloom is explored that focuses on higher order learning rather than the dissemination of information often assessed by the ability of the student to recall information. Bloom’s taxonomy identifies six levels learners need to master in order to achieve a higher level of thinking; knowledge, comprehension, application, analysis, synthesis and evaluation. Jarvis (2001) explores the progression from rote learning to ‘learning as reflection’. “Knowledge has now become the narrative and even discourse and it has to be treated as such; it has to be considered, criticised, reflected upon in order to ascertain the extent to which it contains any truth” (Jarvis 2001: 9).

Engaging in formal education is all about making a contribution to society. Within the VET sector training packages outline the national curriculum that dictate the learning outcomes successful candidates must be able to demonstrate within the workforce. The ‘core skills for work’ (previously known as employability skills) further define the personal attributes candidates must have to fully engage in the workplace; communication, team work, problem solving, initiative and enterprise, planning and organising, self-management, learning skills and technology skills (Smith and Keating 2003). These are characteristics that are transferable between any job role and lead to making a positive contribution to society.

Citizenship and Community

Usher et al. (1997) discuss the role of adult learning for citizenship. Political, cultural and economic elements affect this narrative, yet in the post-modern moment experiential learning can situate one in the social self. Approaches to adult learning must not only address the individual needs but instil a sense of citizenship to make the learning more meaningful. It needs to link wider social aspects with the self and lead to ongoing critical reflection. Over the last few decades Hinton-Smith (2012) highlights that increasing participation in higher education has been a focus for many governments over many decades to support economic and social stability and growth. At the highest level engaging with a research degree as a professional can lead to making a positive impact on the workplace or organisation, and in making a significant

contribution to a body of knowledge. The skills and practices form the workplace can be adapted to an educational setting that engages with other researchers in the same field (Powell 2008).

The studies of foods, tourism, hospitality and events can cross many boundaries and is interdisciplinary—it can include geography, anthropology, history and sociology. Flowers and Swan (2012) highlight the studies of food transcends learning from the classroom or lecture theatre into everyday existence which embellished lifelong learning. Cecil (2012) explores the role of tourism and hospitality management programs in creating socially responsible citizens who can make a positive contribution to society. The nature of these vocations, their interaction with people and the environment serves to address the needs of community. I believe tapping into this psyche can foster lifelong learning in this space, and an awareness of the pathways in formal education can lead to being ‘situated’ in the role of citizenship and community.

“Knowing who made your food and where it hails from is seen as a political and moral citizenship imperative” (Flowers and Swan 2012: 422). This awareness in the study of food can represent a lifelong journey in formal education. From cookery student in a vocational setting to undergraduate studies in HE to researcher making a positive contribution to society and adding to a body of knowledge. Lashley (2007) describes hospitality studies as a social phenomenon and a complex set of interactions creating obligations from all stakeholders. The foods, tourism, hospitality and events industry provides an engaging environment for experiential learning. This encourages a more meaningful experience for the learner leading to a deeper understanding and ability for immersive reflection (Ruhanen 2005). An examination of the programs offered by WAI presents an outstanding example of a specialist centre engaged in the studies of foods, tourism, hospitality and events. It delivers programs within the VET and HE sectors, but also engages in delivering VET programs within senior secondary schools. It offers programs nationally and internationally, specifically in its engagement with the Association of South East Asian nations (ASEAN). It also provides trades recognition services for cookery professionals approved by Trades Recognition Australia. Qualification levels being delivered from the AQF range from lower level certificates in hospitality to Master level programs (William Angliss Institute 2016). The study of foods, hospitality and events has the power to engage with varied organisations and individuals. In the case of the Bachelor of Food Studies program at WAI ‘the career pathways it offers are diverse—research, media, policy, business and entrepreneurship, tourism, hospitality, events, the community food sector or in a professional setting’ (Mitchell 2016). Lashley (2007) explores the varied dimensions that studying hospitality effect, in particular community engagement and social imperatives.

Case Study

An Autoethnographic Approach

My perspective (as a student and subsequently an educator) in the studies of foods, tourism, hospitality and events is based on a journey spanning 25 years. The completion of an Advanced Diploma in Hospitality Management at William Angliss Institute (WAI) was pivotal as a springboard from VET to Higher Education (HE). Recognition of this qualification allowed for the pathway into HE that led to the attainment of a degree and post graduate qualifications leading to secure employment and higher rates of pay (Dawson 2010). My engagement in a Bachelor of Hospitality Management developed a greater understanding of the workplace dynamics, and an appreciation that many workplace problems can be solved by examining the research of others. As an educator, the completion of a Certificate IV in Training and Assessment led to yearning for a deeper understanding within this setting and I subsequently completed a Post Graduate Certificate in VET and am currently engaging in a Master of Education. At the completion of my various qualifications there has never been any follow up by the respective education providers to coax me with options for continuing study. Rather I have had to take the initiative and research and consider possible pathways.

My personal and professional experiences have led to the view that engaging in lifelong learning is not embraced as extensively as it should be. Discussions and mentoring roles I have undertaken with my peer's leads me to conclude that although value is perceived in engaging in lifelong learning through formal avenues the uptake is low. Instilling in individuals that learning is a journey and engaging with them at the end of a course of study to continue does not occur. This has been the case with my experience as an adult learner, that once the product had been consumed the respective educational institution did not do any follow up to entice me to continue with further study.

“Neoliberalism is a policy model of social studies and economics that transfers control of economic factors to the private sector from the public sector” (Investopedia 2017). Neoliberalism in Australia has shaped the educational landscape. Connell et al. (2013) defines neo-liberalism as “a philosophy in which social policy is dominated by market principles, privatisation, free trade and deregulation, and individualism (individual responsibility)”. This has led to increased participation within the vocational education and training (VET) sector and higher education by local and International students, but it has come at an economic and social cost. Unscrupulous providers ‘chasing the dollar’ has led to the recent exploitation of students (Leahy 2015). Reform should have created a vibrant sector for students to engage with in lifelong learning.

According to Smith and Keating (2003) a more competitive marketplace leading to greater user choice would result in improved quality and increased engagement. Within the VET sector training packages (of which there are about 80) provide the standards industry expects of its workforce. The focus on competency-based

training as an outcome rather than a process serves to view AQF qualifications as standalone products rather than being considered or promoted as a pathway. Leahy (2015:1) contends “outcomes-based education that does not recognise development and growth and is stripped of the knowledge we need for employment and citizenship”.

Stanwick (2005) identifies that those engaging with lower level qualifications only do so for employment outcomes rather than as a pathway for further education. Could this be as a result of teaching methods? Ingleby and Joyce (Ingleby et al. 2010) explore the work of Carl Rogers (1902–1987) that focuses on a humanistic approach to education whereby the learning is experiential. This empowers the learner to take responsibility for their learning with the teacher facilitating this journey. The work of Knowles (leading humanist theorist) also highlights andragogy (adult learning principles) that reorients “adult educators from ‘educating people’ to ‘helping them learn’ ...with the structure of learning experiences” (Ingleby et al. 2010: 73).

WAI delivers qualifications that fall within both the VET and HE realm and recently celebrated its 75th year of operation. It is on a path towards becoming a ‘university of specialisation’ due to its consolidated offerings and its extensive engagement with industry. It has an opportunity to coax the student from higher level VET qualifications into HE programs in foods, tourism, hospitality and events. Dawkins (2010) highlights that Diploma and Advanced diploma level qualifications are imperative in being the connection between VET and HE.

I have worked as a trainer and assessor in the VET sector delivering qualifications up to an Advanced Diploma level. I have embraced lifelong learning through formal education using the AQF as a pathway to completing various qualifications that supported my vocational and educational competencies. I have engaged in formal education as a form of ongoing professional development although Tyler and Dymock (2017) identify that the most preferred professional development activities VET practitioners engage with are trade events, reading trade periodicals and engaging in networks.

The VET and higher education space has endured many years of turmoil. A decrease in government funding and greater emphasis on fee for service clients has transformed the education landscape as previously highlighted. A competitive training and education market pits providers against each other for short term results. Perhaps industry can drive lifelong learning. “Investing into employee’s education on average is five times better than investing in equipment” (Nikolic as cited Rakicevik et al. 2008: 108). The benefits to a lifelong learner can also be realised. “Postgraduate study leading to formal qualifications is a pathway to not only increase knowledge, but also opportunities for promotion and careers in education beyond schools” (Churchill et al. 2011: 523).

Conclusion

The benefit of lifelong learning in formal education impacts an individual's personal development and citizenship (Tuijnman 1996). The AQF as a framework supports lifelong learning in formal education, but further awareness of embedding the properties of the AQF into this journey is required. Foster et al. (2007) explore a range of industries where higher level VET qualifications lead to engagement with further study into HE programs.

Lifelong learning and continuing formal education at a higher level is met with many challenges by prospective students. Watson (2008) identifies work and family commitments can impinge on ones resolve. A combination of blended learning can be a solution. Fraser and Ryan (2013) suggest a 'massive open online course' (MOOC) can guide and nurture engagement with HE courses and be a vehicle for lifelong learning. Some universities are active in this online space, and considering WAI reach, further consideration of these platforms is warranted. Anecdotal evidence suggests that younger learners today actively engage with their mobile devices in learning, and therefore an approach that entwines the technology into lifelong learning needs to be further explored.

William Angliss Institute is on a continuing journey towards becoming a 'University of Specialisation'. Its unique position in the marketplace and its engagement with industry leading to the development of specialist degrees creates a beautiful cosmology of discovery (Moodie et al. 2009) for its practitioners and students. It is an environment that can engage with professionals in the foods, tourism, hospitality and events industries throughout a lifetime. How it chooses to engage and marry the various level of the AQF with a student's journey requires further consideration. Tyler and Dymock (2017: 8) highlight the challenge is in "finding ways to better integrate continuing education...into the ongoing individual and collective practice of individuals". Embracing lifelong learning through formal education leads to a society of engaged individuals who possess sense of community and citizenship—the cornerstone of a world we want our future generations to live in.

Appendix

The following identifies the 10 AQF levels, covering qualifications from Certificate 1 to Doctoral Degree, the volume of learning requirements for each qualification and the particular education sector the qualifications are delivered in (Studies in Australia, 2017):

Ten AQF levels

AQF level	Qualification type
Level 1	Certificate I
Level 2	Certificate II
Level 3	Certificate III
Level 4	Certificate IV
Level 5	Diploma
Level 6	Advanced diploma Associate degree
Level 7	Bachelor degree
Level 8	Bachelor honours degree Vocational graduate certificate Vocational graduate diploma Graduate certificate Graduate diploma
Level 9	Masters degree
Level 10	Doctoral degree

AQF qualifications by education sector

Schools sector	Vocational education and Training (VET) sector	Higher education sector
Senior Secondary Certificate of Education (2 years)	Vocational graduate diploma (1–2 years)	Doctoral degree (3–4 years)
	Vocational graduate certificate (0.5–1 year)	Masters degree (1–2 years)
	Advanced diploma (1.5–2 years)	Graduate diploma (1–2 years)
	Diploma (1–2 years)	Graduate certificate (0.5–1 year)
	Certificate IV (0.5–2 years)	Bachelor degree (honours) (1 year)
	Certificate III (1–2 years)	Bachelor degree (3–4 years)
	Certificate II (0.5–1 year)	Associate degree (1.5–2 years)
	Certificate I (0.5–1 year)	Diploma (1–2 years)

References

- Australian Qualifications Framework Council. (2013). *Australian Qualifications Framework*. <https://www.aqf.edu.au/>. Accessed 15 April 2017.
- Cecil, A. (2012). A framework for service learning in hospitality and tourism management education. *Journal of Teaching in Travel and Tourism*, 12(4), 313.
- Churchill, R., Ferguson, P., Godinho, S., Johnson, N. F., Keddie, A., Letts, W., et al. (2011). *Teaching: Making a difference*. Milton: Wiley.

- Connell, R., Welch, T., Vickers, M., Foley, D., Bagnall, N., Hayes, D., et al. (2013). *Education, change and society*. South Melbourne: Oxford University Press.
- Dawkins, J. (2010). The way forward for the Australian qualifications framework. *Australian TAFE Teacher*, 44(1), 16.
- Findsen, B., & Formosa, M. (2011). *Lifelong learning in later life: A handbook on older adult learning*. Rotterdam; Boston: Sense Publishers.
- Flowers, R., & Swan, E. (2012). Introduction: Why food? Why pedagogy? Why adult education? *Australian Journal of Adult Learning*, 52(3), 419–433.
- Foster, S. Bateman, A., Delaney, B., Dyson, C., & National Centre for Vocational Education Research. (2007). *Higher-level vocational education and training qualifications: Their importance in today's training market*. Adelaide: NCVER.
- Fraser, K., & Ryan, Y. (2013). Could MOOCs answer the problems of teaching AQF-required skills in Australian tertiary programmes? *Australian Universities' Review*, 55(2), 93–98.
- Fraser, S. W., & Greenhalgh, T. (2001). Complexity science: Coping with complexity: Educating for capability. *BMJ British Medical Journal*, 331, 799.
- Hinton-Smith, T. (2012). *Widening participation in higher education: casting the net wide?*. Basingstoke: Palgrave Macmillan.
- Hodgson, A. (2012). *Policies, politics and the future of lifelong learning*. London: Kogan Page.
- Ingleby, E., Joyce, D., & Powell, S. (2010). *Learning to teach in the lifelong learning sector*. New York: Continuum International Publishing Group.
- Investopedia. (2017). Neoliberalism. <http://www.investopedia.com/corp/privacypolicy.aspx>. Accessed 15 June 2017.
- Jarvis, P. (2001). *Twentieth century thinkers in adult and continuing education*. London: Kogan Page.
- Kiel, J. M. (1999). Reshaping Maslow's hierarchy of needs to reflect today's educational and managerial philosophies. *Journal of Instructional Psychology*, 26(3), 167.
- Keating, J. (2003). Qualifications frameworks in Australia. *Journal of Education and Work*, 16(3), 271.
- Lashley, C. (2007). *Studying hospitality: Beyond the envelope*. Bradford: Emerald Group Publishing.
- Leahy, M. (2015). Reforming vocational education: It's time to end the exploitation of vulnerable people. <http://theconversation.com/reforming-vocational-education-its-time-to-end-the-exploitation-of-vulnerable-people-51396>. Accessed 14 June 2017.
- McNaught, K. (2013). Implementing an intervention to assist Certificate IV students to transition successfully to undergraduate study within an AQF contextualisation: A case study. *International Journal of Training Research*, 11(3), 234–245.
- Mitchell, J. (2016). Food for thought. *TAFE. Futures*, 2, 8.
- Moodie, G., Wheelahan, L., Billett, S., Kelly, A., & National Centre for Vocational Education Research. (2009). *Higher education in TAFE: An issues paper*. Adelaide: NCVER.
- O'Grady, A. (2013). *Lifelong learning in the UK: An introductory guide for education studies*. New York: Routledge.
- Powell, S. (2008). *Returning to study for a research degree*. Maidenhead: Open University Press.
- Rakicevik, G., Miladinovski, S., & Strezoska, J. (2008). Lifelong learning in the restaurant business. *Tourism and Hospitality Management*, 14(1), 105.
- Rolland, L. (2005). Introduction: The drivers for and imperative of lifelong learning. *Growth*, 56, 8.
- Ruhanen, L. (2005). Bridging the divide between theory and practice: Experiential learning approaches for tourism and hospitality management education. *Journal of Teaching in Travel and Tourism*, 5(4).
- Smith, E., & Keating, J. (2003). *From training reform to training packages*. Tuggerah: Social Science Press.
- Smith, J., & Spurling, A. (1999). *Lifelong learning: riding the tiger*. London: Cassell.
- Stanwick, J. (2005). *Australian qualifications framework: Lower-level qualifications—pathways to where for young people?*. Adelaide: NCVER.

- Tuijnman, A. (1996). Lifelong learning for all. *Meeting of the education committee at ministerial level, 16–17 January 1996*. Paris: Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development.
- Tyler, M., & Dymock, D. (2017). *Continuing professional development for a diverse practitioner workforce*. Adelaide: NCVET.
- Usher, R., Bryant, I., & Johnston, R. (1997). *Adult education and the postmodern challenge: learning beyond the limits*. London: Routledge.
- Watson, L. (2008). Improving the experience of TAFE award-holders in higher education. *International Journal of Training Research*, (2), 40.
- William Angliss Institute. (2016). *Annual Report 2016*. <https://www.angliss.edu.au/about/publications?highlight=WyJhbm5lYWwiLCJyZXBvcnQiLJyZXBvcnQncyIsImFubnVhbCBByZXBvcnQiXQ>. Accessed 16 May 2017.
- Wheelahan, L. (2011). From old to new: The Australian Qualifications Framework. *Journal of Education and Work*, 24(3–4), 323–342. (2011). <https://doi.org/10.1080/13639080.2011.584689>.
- Wheelahan, L. (2015). The future of Australian vocational education qualifications depends on a new social settlement. *Journal of Education and Work*, 28(2), 126–146.

Chapter 6

Cooking the Books



David Gilligan

Abstract This chapter provides unique insight into the workings of a cookery department in a leading Australian institute that has been at the forefront of culinary education for over 75 years. In addition, it explores Australia's vocational education and training system which is built on a strong relationship with industry who play a crucial role in guiding the system's curriculum. Successes and challenges of delivering contemporary culinary education are examined. The chapter also reflects on the importance of building relationships with industry, and considers the possibilities for culinary education in the future. The author has included extracts from interviews with current culinary teachers, industry based alumni and culinary department management. The importance of setting down a strong foundation in classical cooking technique is discussed, along with examining the benefits of teaching contemporary techniques and methods such as molecular gastronomy. The Chapter also includes a case study which investigates the Institute's highly successful Great Chefs Program.

Keywords Culinary education · Culinary · Gastronomy

Introduction

This chapter provides unique insight into the workings of a cookery department in a leading Australian institute that has been at the forefront of culinary education for over 75 years. In addition, it explores Australia's vocational education and training system which is built on a strong relationship with industry who play a crucial role in guiding the system's curriculum. Successes and challenges of delivering contemporary culinary education are examined. The chapter also reflects on the importance of building relationships with industry, and considers the possibilities for culinary education in the future.

D. Gilligan (✉)
William Angliss Institute, Melbourne, Australia
e-mail: davidg@angliss.edu.au

© Springer Nature Singapore Pte Ltd. 2019
S. Beeton and A. Morrison (eds.), *The Study of Food, Tourism, Hospitality, and Events*,
Tourism, Hospitality & Event Management,
https://doi.org/10.1007/978-981-13-0638-9_6

The author used qualitative research methodology. It draws on participant observation during a 30-year relationship with his host Institute as a student, instructor, international culinary team member, guest speaker and guest chef. After 30 years in industry he returned to work as a Chef Instructor in 2013. Furthermore, data was gathered through interviews with current students, current faculty, the head of foods department, and industry-based alumni.

The Faculty and Delivery

During the past 70 years the Melbourne foodscape has blossomed from within a conservative Anglo—Saxon society that has grown to be open, thoughtful and creative. Immigrants from all over the world have also stamped their cultural influences on the food of the city. William Angliss Institute (WAI) has provided training for the chefs who have played an integral part in the development of a vibrant, world renowned, food community.

In 1945, a young man named John Miller became the first WAI cookery apprentice, John was employed by the Commercial Travellers Club in Melbourne (Nunn 1990). He spent each Tuesday completing his formal training and went on to become the first dux of the cookery department. On the completion of his training, he travelled and worked in London, Hong Kong and Egypt, finally returning to Melbourne to play an important role in the development of the cookery department at what was then known as William Angliss College. Now, over 70 years later, John's name still resounds strongly through the corridors of WAI where one of the main teaching kitchens has been named in his honour.

Chefs are often journeymen and women (Chefpedia 2011). It is expected that you move around and work with different chefs to broaden your experience; this often involves travel to new countries. The 1956 Olympic Games attracted many European chefs to Australia. The Melbourne food scene and WAI have benefitted from this travelling tradition. Chefs from all over the world have passed through the department over the years and left their mark with recipes, techniques and resources, some of which are still a part of the department curriculum. The cookery department's culture is built around pride in the cookery profession and a desire to pass on the knowledge the department has developed over its 75-year history.

In 1984, Ael Bailey one of the founding members of the Australian Guild of Professional Cooks wrote a letter to his friend British chef Keith Byron (Chefpedia 2011). Ael talked about an early meeting he held with other founding members Cyril Butler, Anton Surwald, Dave Sanders and Alex Chenevier. At this meeting, the setting up of the first guild of professional Chefs in Australia was discussed.

It was agreed that it would be difficult (to set up the guild) with little help from outside and there would be a measure of prejudice from both inside and outside the trade. However, they supported the idea of forming a guild.

I couldn't understand - why prejudice? From outside the trade it was to be expected. In those days, the Australian professional cook's image (quite erroneously) was that of a cranky, booze artist, tucker basher. But prejudice from within the trade?

It was explained to me that in Australia, which was still a young country, many professional cooks did not have the opportunity to serve an apprenticeship, nor had there been trade schools available for them to attend. The William Angliss College had not been founded until 1940 and no cookery students attended until quite some time later. Thus, it was felt that the formation of a "professional" organisation for members where formal qualifications would be an advantage could cause anti-feeling and even insecurity. This proved to be quite correct during the first year of the guild's existence.

In 1960, the combined enrolments in cookery, pastry cooking and bakery were 781 students (Chefpedia 2011). In 2016, total enrolments for the WAI were 20,605 (William Angliss Institute 2016). The attitude to chefs has changed significantly during that period and the training provided by the cookery department has been fundamental in the recognition of cooking as a trade in Australia.

When asked "what makes a good cookery teacher?" a senior long-term WAI cookery teacher had this to say,

You can be the best chef in the world but if you can't share that information with your students and engage them it counts for nothing.

During the interviews to gather the data for this chapter, one strong theme has been the quality of the teaching. This theme is particularly prominent in the feedback from overseas students. Many of these students are separating themselves from family and friends for up to two years to study at WAI, English in most cases is a second language—it is a courageous step. The students feel welcomed by the cooking faculty. The disciplines of the kitchen such as hygiene, food safety and knife skills are instilled from the first day, but the teachers also provide a supportive environment for growth and learning. Balancing the discipline and focus required in the management of a busy kitchen with the human needs of students is a constant challenge for the teaching team.

The faculty has a broad range of Australian and international experience. This experience is reflected in the skills, recipes and techniques taught. The current team have experience in France, Germany, Switzerland, England, India and Japan to name just a few countries. The breadth of experience ranges from Michelin starred restaurants to Convention and Event catering. This broad range of experience ensures that WAI students are exposed to learning from every aspect of the industry.

Student chefs receive a solid grounding in classical cooking technique. These basic techniques have a long history and tradition and many are still broadly used throughout the industry. This knowledge creates a platform for graduates to move out into industry and explore more complex techniques and preparations.

This is highlighted by a graduate who is now a successful chef/restaurateur.

I think across the three years of the schooling, the other positive is that I did feel that I was schooled in all the basic principles of cooking in a sequential manner; that made actual learning on the job better. I could always refer back to that basic education that I got at William Angliss that stood me in very good stead.

The cooking curriculum in Australia is national and its direction is set by the Australian Industry and Skills Committee who are advised by Industry Reference Committees. The format for training is competency based. Students work through a range of units of competency to achieve a final qualification. WAI cookery students are working toward a Certificate 3 or 4 in Commercial Cookery. Students may choose a 3-year apprenticeship, attending school one day a week while employed, or study full time at the Institute completing Certificate 3 in 2 semesters or Certificate 4 in 3 semesters.

In 2017 the implementation of the SITH 16 training packages for cookery has led to a complete review of the curriculum to meet standards set by industry (ASQA 2015). Compliance with these guidelines is closely regulated by the Australian Skills Quality Authority. The role of ASQA is to ensure that graduates are completing their training with the promised skill set and that standards are maintained throughout the Vocational Education Training sector.

Although there are compliant training templates available, the cookery department has taken on the development of its own templates. WAI has appointed ‘compliance champions’ who are responsible for the development of guidelines for each department. This has been, and continues to be, a significant undertaking. However, the pride the department takes in being seen as a leading cookery education provider guides its desire to provide the best quality training possible while reflecting the department values built over 75 years of history. The completion of this work in 2018 will be a significant achievement.

The department still maintains strong culinary traditions, such as, the chefs uniform. Crisp white jackets, aprons, white skull caps, and check trousers are still expected of chefs in training. Chef instructors wear the traditional tall white toque. In 1972, the head of the cookery department, Dave Sanders, introduced the black necktie for Chef instructors so that management could differentiate between staff and students (Nunn 1990).

The classical basics of cooking are important but it is also important that students are exposed to innovations in the workplace. In recent years techniques such as, sous vide, and many of the techniques that have developed with molecular gastronomy are now common in the workplace. The cookery department faculty, particularly those in the training restaurants, has championed the use of these specialist ingredients and techniques. In many cases, these new innovations have been introduced to WAI through guest chefs visiting for the Great Chefs Program which is outlined in the case study that follows.

Case Study—The Great Chefs Program

One of WAI’s greatest successes in building industry relationships has been the ‘Great Chefs’ program. The program has been running for over 20 years, and has also developed into an outstanding learning experience for the students. For example, a current Certificate Three cookery student said, “*one of the main factors that I chose*

this school is that you have the Great Chef's program, that you allow students to participate with the Chef”.

The program brings many of Melbourne's most successful chefs into the WAI kitchens. Initially, in advance of their restaurant service, the chefs hold a demonstration and explain the dishes they will be presenting, this is an important session as the students are introduced to the guest chefs' philosophy, recipes and the techniques involved. The chefs then spend one or two services in the Angliss restaurant with the students, working on menus which reflect their own personal style and the style of their establishment. Students are not only exposed to their cooking styles but also their kitchen management styles. Requests for more speed or a certain ingredient are sometimes laced with choice expletives aimed at developing the sense of urgency required to survive in busy professional kitchens.

A great sense of camaraderie also develops between the students and guest chefs. The author, reflecting on his experience as a great chef in 1996, and also working on the program as an instructor in 2016, had this to say:

For the chefs, the title of Great Chef brings with it a certain amount of pressure. This pressure, married with the task of working with a young, inexperienced team creates a challenging environment - a team needs to be built quickly. With the help of the WAI restaurant instructors, the enthusiasm of the students and the innate pride these industry leaders bring to their work, this sense of camaraderie is quickly created. Often at the end of service the guest chefs and the students can be seen gathering, talking, laughing, eating and celebrating the success of their team effort.

Up to 20 industry chefs a year are involved in the program. They bring with them a focus and edge that is crucial in the student's development. The faculty also benefit from constant exposure to different cooking styles and techniques. Many of the dishes from the program find more permanent places on the WAI restaurant menus. The success of this program stems from a commitment to building and maintaining relationships with industry leaders and also the generosity of the chefs who give their time and energy to work with the students. The common aim of the current faculty is to deliver culinary training that respects classical techniques while at the same time exploring contemporary recipes, ingredients and cooking methods. Recently, with the help of Victorian State Government funding, WAI has purchased a range of new equipment. These include a wood fired pizza oven, combination steam convection ovens, provers, blast chillers, circulators and dehydrators. Along with the purchase of this new equipment, funding has also been made available for the re-fitting of some of the demonstration kitchens. This injection of new technology and equipment re-invigorates the faculty and students and keeps WAI at the forefront of culinary education in Victoria, and indeed in Australia.

Industry Connections

Although current VET training packages are directed by industry, WAI has always maintained strong industry connections. These connections have ensured both parties understand and appreciate the role they play in the development of the students who will be the industry's future (Nunn 1990). Graduates need to be able to hit the ground running when they move out into their working lives. For trainee cooks, it is important that they are exposed to the equipment, recipes and techniques their employers will expect them to understand when they arrive in their kitchens. Equally, it is important for industry to understand that a strong grounding in the practical basics, and a solid understanding of the important theory subjects, builds a solid foundation for the students and the future of the industry.

In the midst of the pressure of running a business, the development of this knowledge can seem unimportant, but vocational training is assisting industry in providing the knowledge it has less and less time to impart. Unfortunately, skills are being lost in the workplace as it is cheaper to buy many ingredients pre-prepared.

Working in liaison with a number of Melbourne's leading hospitality operators the WAI industry placement program also gives students the opportunity to complete their restaurant training working in a successful hospitality operation. As a part of their stage two training non-apprentice students must complete a semester working in an actual restaurant situation. Most will do their training in the Institutes' restaurants but each semester 15 industry positions are released. There are many more applicants than positions and these placements are highly prized. The opportunity to experience a real-life kitchen situation is invaluable for the students and helps to further strengthen the bond between the industry and WAI.

The importance of gaining as much 'hands on' experience as possible during schooling and post schooling is emphasised by a recent Indonesian Certificate IV graduate. *"I think if I want to run my business (in Indonesia) more effectively, I still have to have experience in a real kitchen"* The graduate also embraced the 'real-life' experience of being asked to manage the food for an internal institute function *"when we did the function, we had to sit and plan it by ourselves. We have full control but we also have the full responsibility for what we are doing. We can build more confidence."*

The head of the Foods Department is a chef by trade who believes in maintaining strong industry connections. He sees the WAI as not only being aware of industries needs but helping to set the standards for the industry in the future. *"I think from a training point of view, we're not only teaching students how to cook, we're teaching them how to be good role models within the industry, becoming that next generation of chefs and leaders"*. He also sees more opportunity to expose the students to successful industry chefs during training, and that they can become strong role models for the students.

It is also argued that industry must take responsibility for training. The earlier quoted chef/restaurateur had this to say on the subject, *"I think that one of the down sides of what's happening with training at the moment is that we're giving a lot of*

people a lot of certificates but there's not people out there to look after them and train them in the workplace. I think it is a problem". WAI seems to have weathered the storm brought on by changes in government legislation over recent years but the effects still remain. Balancing funding and delivery needs is an enduring challenge. In industry, it is a constant battle for a decreasing share of the market; wages are every operator's largest expense. Finding the funds and time for training is difficult. The chef/restaurateur again, "It's got to come back to finances and government support. It's the Holy Grail really, isn't it? More money from the government and more support from the government to encourage training, and then we shift the employment focus as well."

The Future

The head of the Foods Department is confident about the future. He would like to see the cookery department continue to forge and maintain its industry connections. He would also like to see WAI continue to expand its international reputation and overseas training network. It currently delivers international training programs and operates joint venture campuses in China, Singapore, Kuala Lumpur, Bangkok and Sri Lanka. He also sits on the scholarships committee and is keen to see this area continue to expand. Currently, there are two former WAI cookery apprentices working at the renowned St. John's restaurant in London. This scholarship developed as a result of a relationship that has grown between WAI and the restaurant. The William Angliss foundation currently manages a number of scholarships which provide support for a diverse range of cookery students (William Angliss Institute 2017).

The need for a strong focus on the teaching of the important basics will never change. All of the interviewees for this chapter saw the continued quality delivery of the basic cookery skills as fundamental to future success. The ideal is that students leave their training as industry relevant as possible, with skills, values and knowledge that hold strong as they come up against the difficulties they will face in their workplace. A current senior teacher believes that teaching the basics well plays an important role in setting standards for industry.

The ideas in the industry kitchens are changing rapidly and we have to try and keep up with that and watch what's happening. But also, we've got to continue to teach the basics of cooking and give those students a good grounding in cookery and not just be influenced by what's happening in industry.

Furthermore, not all graduates pursue careers in fine dining restaurants. Graduates also find their way into hotels, cafes, hospitals, convention centres and institutional catering. Aged care is a growing industry and the demands of this area are becoming more sophisticated. Large scale catering for venues and convention centres is also increasing in complexity as customer needs become more demanding. All of these streams have a different focus but the foundation skills remain common.

Linked with this is the importance of developing a new wave of culinary instructors with fresh ideas. Ideally, they will be building on the wisdom and experience of the current faculty, many of whom have played an important role in the development of the department. Students are looking for well organised teachers with strong cooking and communication skills. Over its history, the department has developed a style of delivery which is underpinned by these skills. It is vital that they are maintained and built upon. Culinary teaching is an important role for the future of the industry. It is crucial that chefs with a strong industry background and an interest in education are encouraged to pursue teaching as a career path.

Related to this, the Institute is about to embark on a scholarly practice program which will encourage all faculty to analyse and report on specific aspects of their teaching. Mastering the two very different roles of tradesperson and professional teacher is a juggling act but the ability to spend time reflecting on how to manage these two roles and thrive in them will improve the quality of teaching.

One of the interesting aspects of the food industry is that even with technological developments in equipment, storage, transporting and cooking techniques, the job of the chef does not become simpler, but more complex. The pressures on chefs are increasing. Today's restaurant customers have a voracious appetite for the food media, and rapidly growing food knowledge. Social media can affect a restaurant's business overnight, both positively and negatively (Cody 2017). The plethora of food photographs available sets high standards for chefs but also increases pressure. There is a constant awareness of what the competition is doing. Today, the Melbourne food industry is fiercely competitive. This inspires creativity and innovation but also places pressures on chefs as they fight for ever shrinking portions of the pie. It is no longer good enough to simply produce good food.

There are opportunities to teach students how to manage the pressures of industry; this is most obvious with apprentice chefs. The author sees the results of long kitchen hours with students often barely being able to stay awake in the classroom. Diet and health also suffer. These comments again from the interviewed chef/restaurateur,

I also think in this modern day and age there does need to be at least part of the course, and most of them won't listen, but somebody who's in trouble may listen, about the effect of working these sort of hours, working antisocial hours, what can happen in kitchens, what's right, what's wrong.

The increasing awareness in the community of the connection between food production and the environment increases the pressures on chefs to be able to reflect these changing values in their food, and in how they run their kitchens. Ethically produced ingredients, sustainability, and provenance are all areas chefs will need to be aware of as they move into their careers. The WAI higher education department currently offers a Bachelor of Culinary Management and a Bachelor of Food Studies which address many of these areas. In the future, there may be opportunities to link this knowledge more directly with the cookery department.

During 2015–2017 there have been significant increases in state government funding which have flowed through to the department in the form of new equipment. This brings with it the opportunity to explore new techniques. Chef David Campbell from

the State University of New York says, (American Culinary Federation 2017) *“I find that using molecular gastronomy and technology is a great hook. They (the students) are absolutely fascinated by the subject matter. The credibility gained by demonstrating modern techniques pays dividends when discussing more traditional techniques later.”* The goal for the cookery department is to stay in close touch with new developments and where possible lead the way in the use of new technology in the kitchen.

In this respect, every teacher, as a part of government compliance, must be able to demonstrate industry currency. To quote from the VET teacher’s qualifications and competency policy (ASQA 2015): *“to ensure that their training and assessment is based on current industry practices and meets the needs of industry.”* The previously mentioned funding increases will also provide opportunities for cookery department faculty to spend time in practical professional development to keep abreast of current industry trends.

The study of Gastronomy is defined as the art of choosing, cooking and eating good food. Technique and skill are crucial in the development of a chef but they are lessened if the chef does not understand gastronomy. The art of the table is crucial in the training of chefs. They need to understand what happens when their food leaves the kitchen - how will it affect the senses, is the portion size correct for the situation? Tasting a dish in the heat and rush of a kitchen situation is very different to sitting in a comfortable dining room. A small taste of a dish may be a very different experience to eating a whole portion. Teaching our future cooks how to eat is as crucial as teaching them how to cook, they will then be able to better understand the needs of their customers and adjust their cooking to a variety of situations, guests and budgets.

The author spent a short time working as a volunteer with the Kitchen Garden Foundation in Melbourne *“There is an opportunity to learn from this program. Primary school students pick the food from a garden they have helped to manage and then prepare a meal from the ingredients they have chosen. Finally, they sit together and enjoy their meal discussing what they have learned.”* In the future, perhaps there is an opportunity to give WAI students the opportunity to grow and manage some of their own produce? The connection between farm and table has become a significant part of food culture in Australia and internationally.

Conclusion

The role of culinary education in the 21st century is complex. Food has become a vehicle for self-expression in a world where we are told to follow our passion. The preparation of good food is innately positive. It is connected with nature, creative and challenging. These things speak to the culinary students of today. The role of the culinary educator is to instil strong foundation cooking skills, but at the same time, the challenge is to keep culinary teaching fresh and relevant, and create an environment that stimulates and appeals to the needs of the next generation of chefs.

Technology, communication, ease of travel and a community focused on all aspects of food make this an exciting time to be a chef. Professional chefs play an increasingly important role in directing the attitude of our community to food. Culinary students need to be able to cook well but they also need to be taught to respect food, its provenance and the importance of their role in the direction of food culture globally.

The future success of professional culinary training relies on mutual understanding and co-operation between industry and education. A vital and effective culinary education system offers the opportunity to build sound technical skills and deeper theory knowledge. Graduates entering industry with a strong set of skills and values immediately raise standards. Industry involvement in education ensures that education remains current and relevant; it also ensures chefs in training are exposed to positive role models, current thinking and contemporary techniques.

Appendix

Stage 1: certificate III & IV cookery subjects

Unit code	Unit name
SITHCCC001	Use food preparation equipment
SITHCCC005	Prepare dishes using basic methods of cookery
SITHCCC007	Prepare stocks, sauces and soups
SITHCCC006	Prepare appetisers and salads
SITHCCC008	Prepare vegetable, fruit, egg and farinaceous dishes
SITHCCC019	Produce cakes, pastries and breads
SITHCCC012	Prepare poultry dishes
SITHCCC013	Prepare seafood dishes
SITHCCC014	Prepare meat dishes
SITXFSA001	Use hygienic practices for food safety
SITXWHS001	Participate in safe work practices
BSBWOR203	Work effectively with others
SITHKOP001	Clean kitchen premises and equipment
SITXHRM001	Coach others in job skills
SITXINV002	Maintain the quality of perishable items
SITXCOM005	Manage conflict

Stage 2: certificate III & IV cookery subjects

Unit code	Unit name
SITHCCC018	Prepare food to meet special dietary requirements
SITHKOP002	Plan and cost basic menus
SITHPAT006	Produce desserts
BSBSUS201	Participate in environmentally sustainable work practices
SITXFSA002	Participate in safe food handling practices
SITHCCC020	Work effectively as a cook
SITHCCC021	Prepare specialised food items
FDFST4010A	Apply sensory analysis to food processing
SITHCCC015	Produce and serve food for buffets

Stage 3: certificate IV only cookery subjects

Unit code	Unit name
SITXFIN003	Manage finances within a budget
BSBDIV501	Manage diversity in the workplace
SITHCCC018	Develop menus for special dietary needs
SITXHRM003	Lead and manage people
SITXMGT001	Monitor work operations
BSBSUS401	Implement and monitor environmentally sustainable work practices
SITHKOP005	Coordinate cooking operations
SITXWHS003	Implement and monitor work health and safety practices
SITHCCC009	Produce cook-chill and cook-freeze foods

References

- American Culinary Federation. (2017). *The crossroad of science and food*. <https://wearechefs.com/2016/02/24/the-crossroad-of-science-and-food/>. Accessed June 1, 2017.
- Australian Skills Quality Authority. (2015). *About ASQA*. <https://www.asqa.gov.au/about>. Accessed June 22, 2017.
- Chefpedia. (2011). *Birth of associations in Australia: History of cooks and chefs guilds and associations in Australia*. http://chefpedia.org/wiki/index.php?title=Chefs_Associations. Accessed May 14, 2017.
- Cody, G. (2017). *Is social media killing our chefs?* <http://www.goodfood.com.au/eat-out/news/the-social-apocalypse-20170403-gvc7dn>. Accessed August 2, 2017.
- Nunn, K. (1990). *William Angliss College: The first fifty years* (1st ed.). North Melbourne: Hargreen Publishing Company.
- William Angliss Institute. (2016). *William Angliss Institute 2016 annual report*. https://www.angliss.edu.au/images/publications/AnnualReport_2016.pdf. Accessed July 2, 2017.
- William Angliss Institute. (2017). *Foundations and donations*. <https://www.angliss.edu.au/about/foundation-donations>. Accessed October 24, 2017.

Chapter 7

An Indigenous Journey



Karon Hepner and Liz Lotter

Abstract Indigenous peoples' participation in vocational education and training (VET) is explored, along with employability outcomes. Cultural aspects are discussed conveying the challenges in merging societal and Indigenous norms in order to more effectively engage learners. This is determined by acknowledging complexities, formulating a critical evaluation of learning strategies, reflecting, reviewing and amending curriculum to include Indigenous Standpoint Theory, and Indigenous Standpoint Pedagogy in the delivery of VET. A case study is presented to highlight challenges, pedagogical practices, within the context of William Angliss Institute's implementation of training programs to Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples. Traineeships resulting in qualifications and employment are achieved at Australia's most iconic remote tourist destination Uluru, in partnership with Voyages Indigenous Tourism Australia, the management group for Ayers Rock Resort.

Keywords Indigenous peoples · Pedagogy · Indigenous standpoint theory

Introduction

In 2011 William Angliss Institute was provided the opportunity to implement training programs to Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander (ABTSI) peoples; offering a traineeship resulting in a qualification and employment to be achieved at Ayers Rock Resort, which welcomes global visitors by the mass each day of the year. The Indigenous traineeship program is built from the experience since its conception six years ago; the training model has varied over this time, according to complex intrinsic challenges that have also been culturally inspirational. Anangu people from the local community; the Anangu Pitjantjatjara Yankunytjatjara (APY) lands welcome Indigenous learners to come together nationally to unify ABTSI peoples from all mobs or tribes of Australia. It was our job to work with these complexities and incorporate

K. Hepner (✉) · L. Lotter
William Angliss Institute, Melbourne, Australia
e-mail: karonh@angliss.edu.au

© Springer Nature Singapore Pte Ltd. 2019
S. Beeton and A. Morrison (eds.), *The Study of Food, Tourism, Hospitality, and Events*,
Tourism, Hospitality & Event Management,
https://doi.org/10.1007/978-981-13-0638-9_7

them into the curriculum. At the same time students face a new way of life, leaving family to live in the most remote tourism and hospitality operational destination, be expected to follow routine and strict guidelines, attend class and work varying shifts with people from all over the world.

The objective of this chapter is to demonstrate how Indigenous participation in vocational education and training (VET) and outcomes have changed over the last decade. Miller (2005) published a comprehensive, systematic review seeking VET policy-makers and practitioners to act and move forward in developing training that meets the aspirations and needs of Indigenous Australians. While employability and employment outcomes are often a priority, other benefits of education and training relate to skill development and building confidence and identity, all of which can be transformational. These include improving literacy and numeracy skills and communication skills; local community ownership of courses; connection to aspects of culture and local knowledge; respect from others in the community; developing self-confidence and a stronger sense of identity; and transitioning into higher levels of study (Guenther et al. 2017; McRae-Williams et al. 2016).

The case study in this chapter conveys the difficulties in merging societal and Indigenous norms. It manifests the importance of delivering training effectively to Indigenous learners in the VET system. In order to do so, we must consider fundamental differences, such as 'Law' and 'Lore'; Law sets out "the principles and regulations established in a community by some authority and applicable to its people, whether in the form of legislation or of custom and policies recognized and enforced by judicial decision" (<http://www.dictionary.com/browse/lawdictionary.com>, 'law', 2017). Lore on the other hand is founded on evolution (see Diagram 7.1). A genetic study has found Aboriginal Australians are descendants of the first people to leave Africa up to 75,000 years ago. (AG staff with AAP, 2011 Australia Geographic).

Indigenous people lived in natural environments despite the difficulties and adapted to their surroundings. Aboriginal oral tradition tells of a formless and empty world that was brought to light by great ancestral beings in ancient times. These sacred stories continue to be carried through from generation to generation. How we engage with Indigenous learners effectively is by determining and acknowledging the complexities of whiteness and blackness, formulating a critical evaluation of learning strategies, reflecting, reviewing and amending curriculum to include Indigenous Standpoint Theory (IST) and Indigenous Standpoint Pedagogy (ISP) in the delivery of Vocational Education Training (VET).

The VET sector relies heavily on non-Indigenous trainers and staff to work with Indigenous learners. Although trainers are required to attend Indigenous cultural awareness programs prior to delivering training, little cultural understanding is gained, and few have experienced interactions with Indigenous people and their communities. It is crucial for VET staff to appreciate the concept of Indigenous knowledge to further progress the implementation of IST and ISP. Semali and Kincheloe (1999: 3) define Indigenous knowledge as "the dynamic way in which the residents of an area have come to understand themselves in relationship to their natural environment and how they organise that folk knowledge of flora and fauna, cultural beliefs, and history to enhance their lives". What makes Indigenous knowledge complex

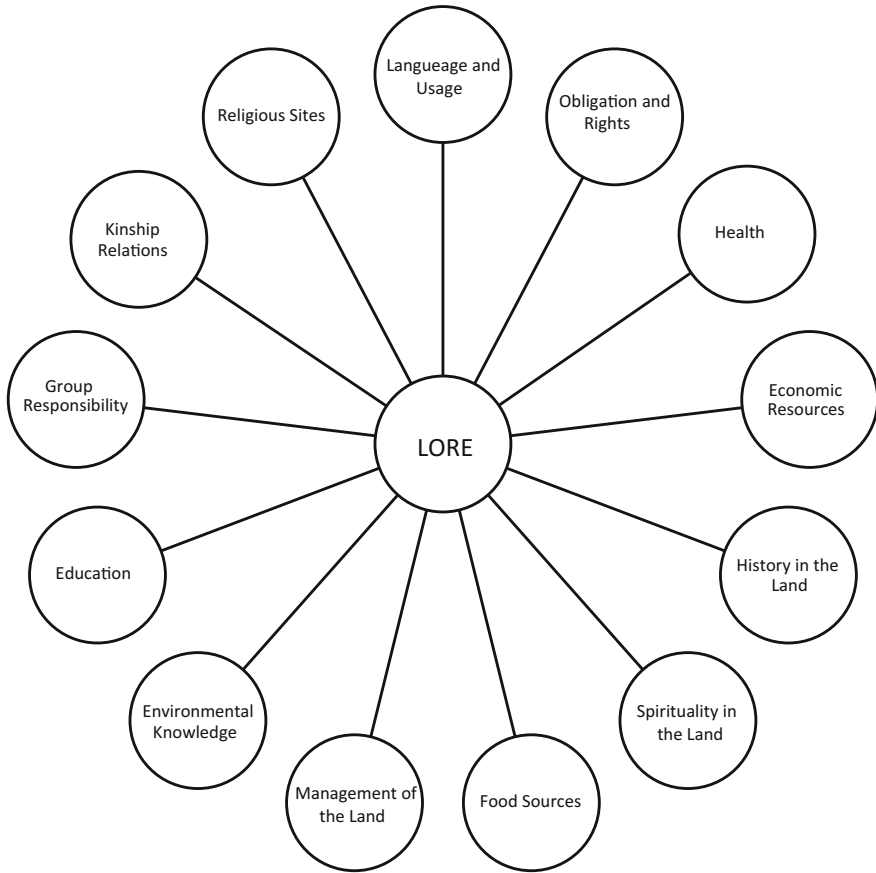


Fig. 7.1 Lore, Dreaming and Creation a governing system in Aboriginal society and filters out into all aspects of society and culture (Kangan Institute, 2010: 21)

is explained as being “different things in different places to different people”. It is perceived as complex by most cultural outsiders because such knowledge does not easily fit into the scientific logic or western concept’ (Nakata 2004: 22). Therefore, concepts of access and management, ownership and protection, nature and definitions are often incongruent and unfamiliar to Western philosophies. Such as, the Indigenous belief is that the land owns us, we don’t own the land. Nakata (2004: 26) advocated the integration of Indigenous knowledge in the curriculum, arguing that “inclusion” of Indigenous knowledge in educational curriculum promotes the visibility of Indigenous knowledge and helps raise self-esteem and interest in schooling.

Trainers and teachers must also become the learner and are encouraged to also learn some foundations of Indigenous knowledge and contextualise cultural complex sets of beliefs, values, systems, practices and tradition into the curriculum forming an essential part to the lives of Indigenous Australians. McLoughlin and Oliver (2000:

70) explained that: “by recognising that learning is culturally and socially contextualised, the design process becomes grounded and located within the communities and individuals for whom the learning materials are intended”. Non-Indigenous people must also come to understand that limitations apply and respect the fact that many aspects of Indigenous culture are protected as sacred knowledge and only shared and passed on through elders from generation to generation in the appropriate environment and circumstance. Pedagogical practices, the function or instructional methods used by teachers for engaging learners differs to ‘critical pedagogy’ as it is more complex and draws on the research and studies of social, political, economic and cognitive dynamics of teaching and learning. The following explores various learning theories to engage Indigenous learners.

Teaching ABTSI peoples’ curriculum effectively requires one to build relationships and engage with the learner. In exploring credible theories on how people learn and develop, establishing ABTSI perspectives demands a holistic approach and involves a reframing of both curriculum and pedagogical practices. Gibson (1993: 43) clarifies: “An additional barrier appeared to be a fundamental mismatch between competing logic systems (school logic and home logic), resulting in an inability to ‘see’ Aboriginal perspectives in schooling contexts, and possibly even an inability to cope with complex or non-linear logic in the school setting. This may be due to the serial and sequential logic required of teachers in much of their day-to-day reproduction of verbal information”. Curriculum that offers learners an understanding of Indigenous knowledge enables learners to gain a greater appreciation of Indigenous people and their own personal relationships with them. Accessing a diverse range of people from the community and their resources in the planning, delivery and evaluation of students’ work will provide rich capabilities, broaden and solidify ABTSI peoples’ perspectives and viewpoints on issues, content and processes.

Whilst cultural understanding is important, it is imperative that such studies are not seen as the only way to incorporate ABTSI perspectives within the curriculum. A planned course delivery should ensure a balance between the content and processes developed within the curriculum and pedagogical approaches.

The Tender and Stand Point Theory

In 2011 the Indigenous Land Corporation (ILC) invited William Angliss Institute (VIC), Charles Darwin University (NT), Regency TAFE (SA) and Ryde TAFE (NSW) to submit a training proposal to support the identified training goals of the National Indigenous Training Academy (NITA) located at Ayers Rock Resort—Yulara NT. The education institutions were required to demonstrate their capabilities in providing best practice with a proven track record in training and assessment outcomes.

William Angliss Institute (WAI) was chosen to take on the challenge of developing a training model suitable for ABTSI peoples. The initial approach was looking at the Indigenous Standpoint Theory (IST)—a contemporary theory proposing that teachers

and trainers integrate Indigenous knowledge into the curriculum to make learning and its application more relevant to Indigenous people (Foley 2003). According to Foley (2003), IST provides a promising pathway for Indigenous epistemology, the study of knowledge and justified belief, and forms the basis for Indigenous Standpoint Pedagogy (ISP). Building and gaining trust and rapport with Indigenous individuals and communities take time and patience. VET training is essentially designed to develop skills in forming, developing and improving relationships with those from Indigenous cultures. Research shows that Indigenous people benefit from VET in several ways. O’Callaghan (2005) reported that Indigenous participants (91%) experienced personal benefits such as improved self-esteem, self-confidence and workplace skills.

Registered Training Organisations, such as WAI are required to comply with regulations of the Australian Skills Quality Authority (ASQA); that includes complex documentation and data entry required for program delivery, training and assessment for each student. ASQA uses the Standards to ensure nationally consistent, high-quality training and assessment across Australia’s VET system. The standards requirements are somewhat rigid when applied to Indigenous learners at a Certificate III level. Additional support and resources are therefore required to assist this cohort of learners which is a costly exercise.

The Training Facility and Learning Resources

The collaboration of WAI and NITA was established at Ayres Rock Resort (ARR) to provide enterprise-based accredited training programs, offering pathways for Indigenous people into long term sustainable employment. This approach supports the Forrest Review, Creating Parity report which was undertaken by Andrew Forrest (former CEO of Fortescue Metals Group) for the Federal Government regarding Indigenous training and employment programmes. The report proposes: “the creation of a demand-driven approach to job services where training and support are only provided to get people into jobs that have been guaranteed by the employer” (2014: 118). As the traineeship program is planned to be a long term on-going program, ARR invested and converted an existing lodging house to a trainee accommodation complex due to its location; across from the Adult Education Centre where NITA—The Academy resides offering a flexible learning environment including classrooms, purpose built front office and restaurant desks replicating that of the Resorts facilities.

Action Learning and Eight Aboriginal Ways of Learning

In developing the programs, WAI understood the traditional classroom-based training delivery was often not effective for Indigenous learners. As a result, the delivery model developed for the programs were based on “Action Learning” initiatives. The term action learning is commonly accepted to mean learning from action or

concrete experience, and taking action as a result of this learning (Zuber-Skerritt 2001). A definition of action learning which highlights the value of the methodology is provided by Skippington (2002: 25). “Action learning is a systematic process through which individuals learn by doing. Through the process, people increase their self-awareness and develop new knowledge, attitudes and behaviours as well as skills for making changes and redefining their roles and responsibilities within new or changing workplace contexts”. ABTSI peoples’ have a distinctive cultural heritage whether they come from urban, rural or traditional – oriented families. Action learning approaches focus on learner-centred delivery and assessment strategies to optimise engagement and course completion, while also respecting cultural diversity and need, and maintaining the rigour of competency-based vocational education and training. Such action delivery driven methods include role plays by simulating workplace procedures potentially captured on video and stored as evidence of assessment, resort-wide site visits where learners can engage with staff members and create their own interview surveys to promote interaction and feedback from the Resort’s patrons. WAI continue to improve, update and comply with required changes, tailoring learning resources for ARR which familiarises trainees with their workplace effectively.

A specific pedagogical framework that allows teachers to include Aboriginal perspectives by using Aboriginal learning techniques is *The 8 Aboriginal Ways of Learning*. Yunkaporta (2009) identifies the eight ways in teaching, to support the Indigenous ways of knowing, being, doing, valuing and learning as they remain in an ancestral framework of knowledge that is still strong. This model provides Aboriginal and non-Aboriginal learners the opportunity to learn through narrative, plan and visualise explicit processes, work non-verbally with self-reflective, kinaesthetic, hands-on methods, learn through images, symbols and metaphors, using indirect, innovative and interdisciplinary approaches, modelling and scaffolding by working from wholes to parts and connecting learning to local values, needs and knowledge. WAI have designed a portfolio assessment structured to include the 8 Aboriginal Ways of Learning and is ideally delivered at Voyages property in far north Queensland, Mossman Gorge Training Centre. The apt unit of competency, *Interpret aspects of local Australian Indigenous culture* enables students to explore Aboriginal protocols, values, processes and systems appropriately.

e-Learning

During the second year of the program, laptops were provided for use by trainees in the classroom, and an eLearning platform was developed through ‘Articulate’ software to deliver interactive learning. These resources were designed and tailored similarly to the hard-copy learner guides and included material based on units of competency such as; *Use hygienic practices for food safety*, *Participate in safe work practices*, *Work effectively with others*, and *Provide service to customers*, giving the

trainees the opportunity to familiarise, explore and understand unit content specific to their workplace and allocated positions.

Whilst eLearning is based around self-paced learning, each student would complete work at different times, a task trainers' may find challenging to adapt to. Therefore, offering both styles of delivery can also positively impact learners' responsive contribution to completing non-assessable and assessable activities and tasks.

Indigenous Knowledge Versus Program Delivery

WAI has gained considerable expertise in engaging with Indigenous learners and enabling them to stay focused and motivated, and gain employment. This collaboration has also provided the traditional owners of Uluru, the Anangu community, with training opportunities. There have been five Anangu trainees graduate from the Certificate III program. Some have returned to their communities and continue to address their learned skills. The Anangu community is an important component of the program. Elders welcome and take each new intake of trainees on a day tour to Uluru Kata-Tjuta National Park (UKTNP) and Cultural Centre, providing them with an invaluable insight into the cultural history of land. In addition, the Anangu Elders provide a mentoring role to the trainees when required.

Recruitment

Trainees for the programs are recruited through Jobactive providers set up by the Department of Employment. They connect job seekers with employers from across Australia. All applicants' learning, language and numeracy (LLN) capabilities are assessed prior to commencement using a tool known as LLN ROBOT which offers a complete LLN analysis based on the Australian Core Skills Framework (ACSF) levels. It assists in determining a person's performance in the core skills of learning, reading, writing, oral communication and numeracy. For those who score lower than ACSF level 3, additional training is organised and a support plan is prepared to monitor and record their ongoing progress.

Once the trainees are enrolled into the program they are provided with support from The Academy and Voyages People and Culture Team (VPCT) throughout the duration of their learning and employment journey. Voyages assists with the recruitment process, together with overseeing the logistics of the workplace positions, assigning accommodation and providing welfare support, which ultimately assists trainees in completing their chosen qualification. Windley's (2017) key messages found that this support approach leads to higher-level skills and successful employment outcomes.

Levels of Attainment

Certificate II in Hospitality and Certificate II in Tourism were the initial qualifications delivered until research indicated that Indigenous students were more likely to be enrolled in certificate I & II level qualifications than non-Indigenous people. However, now Indigenous people are more likely to be enrolled in higher level qualifications (Certificate III and above). This change can be partly attributed to the notion that low-level certificates are not so relevant and a waste of public funding (Forrest 2014: 158–159). In line with this shift, and as a response to the needs of the Voyages Indigenous Tourism Australia, WAI commenced delivery of Certificate III in Hospitality and Certificate III in Tourism for Indigenous learners in 2014. Windley's (2017) key findings for employment outcomes indicate that Indigenous VET graduates are consistent across Indigenous and non-Indigenous graduates; however Indigenous employment rates have plateaued since 2008 (Figs. 7.2 and 7.3).



Fig. 7.2 F&B trainees with CEO Nicholas Hunt, Trainer Liz Lotter and Manager National Training, Karon Hepner



Fig. 7.3 Senator for the Northern Territory and Federal Indigenous Affairs Minister Nigel Scullion with trainees

Federal Minister of Indigenous Affairs—Nigel Scullion with NITA Students

Since WAI’s collaboration with the Resort, and the commencement of the programs, several graduation ceremonies have taken place where both partners have sponsored Student Awards. This provides the opportunity to acknowledge outstanding students, and to highlight their individual contributions to the success of the program. The following table indicates the number of trainee commencements, graduated students and graduates continuing employment with Voyages since the program’s inauguration in 2011. As of May 2018, 300 graduates from the program were employed at the resort (Table 7.1 and Figs. 7.4, 7.5, and 7.6).

Candidates Who Do not Complete the Program

The challenges faced by this specific cohort of Indigenous trainees are many and varied. Some have faced breaches of social justice and human rights, while other students have come from areas of high unemployment, high drug and alcohol consumption and/or domestic violence which has sometimes resulted in behaviour and health concerns. The Australian Institute of Health and Welfare (2015: 42) noted ‘the

Table 7.1 This table identifies the number of trainees who commenced since 2011, how many have graduated and approximate numbers of those continuing employment

Year	Trainee commencements	Graduates	Number of graduates continuing employment with Voyages
2011	15	4 (2012)	
2012	97	4	4
2013	89	June—34	25
2014	94	March—34 Nov—42	25 20 (20 others went to other employment, 1 to University and 4 to National Parks)
2015	93	May—29 Nov—31	20 (7 others went to other employment) 26 (1 other working a Yulara Childcare)
2016	95	April—24 Dec - 32	19 22
2017	65 (by end June)	July—40	25
Total	548	274	187—approximate estimate



Fig. 7.4 Group photo: VIP and 2016 graduands

rate of substantiated child protection notifications for Indigenous children was about 7 times the rate for non-Indigenous children (38.1 and 5.7 per 1000 children, respectively)’. Other issues, such as, segregation, racism or humbugging, which may entail family or community members to make “unreasonable or excessive” demands, for example, cash allowances can be challenging, or simply adapting into current soci-



Fig. 7.5 William Angliss institute award for academic excellence recipient Piper Wood with Karon Hepner, Manager National Training and Nicholas Hunt, CEO



Fig. 7.6 William Angliss institute award—home Valley Station trainee of the season recipient Jovina James with Deb Combe, Trainer William Angliss Institute

ety and workability expectations are also issues both trainees and trainers face in the program. Additional support is provided by NITA through counselling, learning support officers and ongoing support from the Resort's *Indigenous Engagement or Indigenous Retention Teams*. The later specifically supports trainees identified with low learning, language and numeracy levels to ensure they stay engaged with the training program.

One of the most purposeful aspects of training hospitality through VET is the opportunity to deliver essential skills required to work effectively in the Hospitality Industry. WAI learners can embrace and utilise their learned knowledge and skills successfully and add value to their workplace needs and their own life skills. Unfortunately, not all candidates are able to follow policies and procedures required as a trainee or commit to the necessary requirements of a trainee to complete the qualification. For those trainees who do not complete the full qualification, they are awarded a certificate of attainment for completed units. Hopefully, for the time such candidates experience varied learning methods, we can only hope they may take with them a message of empowerment as Rappaport (1981: 15) expresses, 'that our aim should be to enhance the possibility for people to control their own lives' and that they may have another understanding of the interactions learned and achieved to contribute to employment pathways that can improve their lifestyle, career endeavours and work toward achieving their dreams.

Skill Set Programs for Leadership Roles

Since January 2016, Voyages Indigenous Tourism Australia increased its focus on building representation of Indigenous employees in supervisory and leadership roles. To facilitate this WAI developed and delivered a Customer Service Management Skill Set of the following three units: Enhance the customer service experience, Manage quality customer service, and Manage conflict. The skill set was chosen from Certificate IV in Hospitality to develop their customer service skills and leadership potential. All units focus on quality customer service, identifying customer needs, communication techniques, managing difficult service situations, customer complaints and conflict (Fig. 7.7).

To continue the learning pathway, graduates from Certificate III programs who remain employed at the Resort are given the opportunity to participate in 'Step-Up Skill Sets programs'. Indigenous employees apply and go through an interview process to be selected to participate. The programs are designed to develop future Indigenous leaders for the ARR. All participants of the program have nominated mentors selected from various areas throughout the resort. They provide support to the participants and ensure they stay engaged in the learning to complete the program.



Fig. 7.7 Indigenous leadership skill set program—participants in the inaugural program visit to William Angliss Institute, Melbourne campus

Commitment to Social Responsibility

Voyages Indigenous Tourism Australia (VITA), has a strong commitment to its social responsibility; the support of local communities and protecting and enhancing the culture and environment of the location it operates in. Its vision clearly states its aim to behave ethically and operate in a sustainable manner that enhances economic, societal and environment values. At the same time, the organisation promotes economic development whilst also improving the quality of life of its staff, the local community and society at large. The collaboration has worked to embed these values throughout the training program to ensure the behaviour of the participants clearly reflects this vision.

This is evident in the support and mentorship all trainees are offered. To continue to positively impact Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples' progress, WAI is currently developing a Reconciliation Action Plan (RAP). This is an initiative to connect and further engage people and organisations such as VITA, to build frameworks for action, provide resources and policy advice and continue to promote the many stories of success. The 2016 RAP Impact Measurement Report revealed in organisations, employees and their non-Indigenous colleagues relate more positively with each other in areas of trust, less prejudice, more frequent interaction, and more understanding of Indigenous cultures and relationships. Since 2006, 767 organisations have created a RAP; 1,579,916 Australians were working or studying in an organisation with a current RAP, 46,446 employees have completed face-to-face cultural awareness training. By committing to a RAP, WAI can contribute to build on relationships, respect and drive to help foster more meaningful interactions between Indigenous students', employees and colleagues to form a better Australia for all.

Maintaining Standards

The traineeship program based at ARR has created a positive climate for learning and development for both trainees and trainers. WAI is required to report to the Department of Trade, Business and Innovation as the relevant Territory training authority, and is diligent in its efforts to ensure it complies with all ASQA and Australian Vocational Education and Training Management Information Statistical Standard requirements. Graduates from this program acquire employment skills in various occupations, which are in high demand in the Northern Territory. This provides a direct benefit to the Territories economic, social and cultural development.

Conclusion

In 2011, it was reported that there were two Indigenous employees at the resort and Voyages Indigenous Tourism Australia announced their vision to have 50% Indigenous employment at ARR by 2018. As of April 2018, around 45% of Ayers Rock Resort's Aboriginal and Torres Strait employee base are William Angliss Institute graduates and are employed at ARR reinforcing their training practically in various positions and departments including food and beverage, accommodation services; front office, porter service, housekeeping and public areas, retail and administration. WAI has awarded over 270 qualifications to trainees who have contributed to Voyages Indigenous Tourism Australia's vision and providing direction for ARR, while other graduates are continuing their careers in the wider tourism and hospitality industry.

Despite the achievements gained in the delivery of the Indigenous traineeship program which operates at ARR, Central Australia and Mossman Gorge Training Centre, Far North Queensland, as a nation we still face many challenges for our Indigenous cohort of learners to meet 'society norms' and standards without embedding Indigenous knowledges, therefore disregarding 'blackness and whiteness' principles or the concept of learning "different things in different places to different people". Now that we have explored such cultural complexities of Indigenous peoples learning needs we can view teaching pedagogies and theories such as 'Indigenous Standpoint Theory', 'Action Learning' and '8 Aboriginal Ways of Learning' as beneficial training approaches for ABTSI learners. Such notions can be applied to Vocational Education Training delivery via modelling or demonstrating, limit dense dialogue, investing in student activities through mind mapping, enable them to share stories of what they already know about the topic or related topics and link content back to land and place. The dilemma of capturing this type of flexible learning approach may not adequately tick off rigid VET Quality Framework assessment requirements which is predominately based on providing written evidence which is aimed at achieving greater national consistency in the way RTOs are monitored, audited and how standards in the vocational education and training sector are enforced.

The collaboration is extremely proud of the contribution the program has made to social equity, particularly in providing training and employment to a group of people who, in the past, were greatly under-represented in the hospitality and tourism industry. The training experience for ABSTI trainees is an intensive change embedded with fundamental life skills necessary to work and open pathways that will forever impact their way of life. The William Angliss Institute and Voyages Indigenous Tourism Australia Indigenous traineeship program has been recognised by various tourism awards since its implementation in 2011. Each year at least 60 ABSTI trainees graduate, the moment they feel a true sense of achievement providing a vision for a fulfilling life ahead.

References

- AG staff with AAP. (2011). DNA confirms Aboriginal culture one of earths oldest. *Australian Geographic*. <http://www.australiangeographic.com.au/news/2011/09/dna-confirms-aboriginal-culture-one-of-earths-oldest/>. Accessed 20 September 2011.
- Australian Institute of Health and Welfare. (2015). *The health and welfare of Australia's aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples 2015*. Canberra: AIHW.
- Foley, D. (2003). Indigenous epistemology and indigenous standpoint theory. *Social Alternatives*, 22(1), 44–52.
- Forrest, A. (2014). *The Forrest review: Creating parity. Indigenous jobs and training review*. <http://www.dpmc.gov.au/indigenous-affairs/employment/indigenous-jobs-and-training-review>. pp. 118, 158–159. Accessed 2 March 2017.
- Gibson, S. (1993). Culture and learning: A divisive link. *The Aboriginal Child at School: A National Journal for Teachers of Aborigines and Torres Strait Islanders*, 21(3), 43–51.
- Guenther, J., Bat, M., Stephens, A., Skewes, J., Boughton, B., Williamson, F., et al. (2017). *Enhancing training advantage for remote aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander learners*. Adelaide: NCVET.
- Kangan Institute. (2010). *Indigenous cultural awareness training: Participant guide*. Broadmeadows: Kangan Institute.
- McLoughlin, C., & Oliver, R. (2000). Designing learning environments for cultural inclusivity: A case study of indigenous on-line learning at tertiary level. *Australian Journal of Educational Technology*, 16(1), 58–72.
- McRae-Williams, E., Guenther, J., Jacobsen, D., & Lovell, J. (2016). What are the enablers of economic participation in remote and very remote Australia, and how can we identify them?. *Learning Communities: International Journal of Learning in Social Contexts*, 19, 6–25, viewed 7 February 2017.
- Miller, C. (2005). *Aspects of training that meet indigenous Australians' aspirations: A systematic review of research*. Adelaide: NCVET.
- Nakata, M. (2004). Indigenous knowledge and the cultural interface: Underlying issues at the intersection of knowledge and information systems. In A. Hickling-Hudson, J. Matthews, & A. Woods (Eds.), *Disrupting preconceptions: Postcolonialism and education* (pp. 19–38). Flaxton: Post Pressed.
- O'Callaghan, K. (2005). *Indigenous vocational education and training: At a glance*, NCVET, p. 3.
- RAP Impact Measurement Report. (2016). Reconciliation Australia. <https://www.reconciliation.org.au/?s=RAP+Impact+measurement+report>. Accessed 27 November 2017.
- Rappaport, J. (1981). In praise of paradox: A social policy of empowerment over prevention. *American Journal of Community Psychology*, 9(1), 1–24.

- Semali, L. M., & Kincheloe, J. L. (1999). Introduction: What is Indigenous knowledge and why should we study it? In L. M. Semali & J. L. Kincheloe (Eds.), *What is indigenous knowledge? Voices from the academy*. New York: Falmer Press.
- Skippington, P. (2002). *Learning@Work: Good practice in work based learning*. Melbourne: Australian National Training Authority.
- Windley, G. (2017). Indigenous VET participation, completion and outcomes: Change over the past decade, Adelaide: NCVER, 4(10).
- Yunkaporta, T. (2009). *Aboriginal Pedagogies at the Cultural Interface*. PhD Thesis. Brisbane: James Cook University.
- Zuber-Skerritt, O. (2001). Action learning and action research: Paradigm, praxis and programs. In S. Sankara, B. Dick, & R. Passfield (Eds.), *Effective change management through action research and action learning concepts, perspectives, processes and applications*. Lismore: Southern Cross University Press.

Part III
From Vocational to Higher Education:
A Continuing Journey or Full Stop?

Chapter 8

Curricular Reform in Food Programs



Ken Albala

Abstract The academic/vocational nexus is the focus of this chapter. It recognises the manner in which the nature of work is rapidly changing, food related issues confronting society, and a future which is increasingly unimaginable. The content reflects on the curricula and pedagogic approaches of current programs which tend to separate theory from practice. It is argued that student learning of food professions needs to start from an understanding of food and its interaction with humans, rather than from within a framework of traditional academic disciplines. A novel curriculum is imagined and illuminated, commencing with ethics as related to food systems. It challenges traditional disciplinary boundaries, combines vocational and professional education in a logical, but nevertheless creative, way, and introduces the concepts of the ‘aproned academic’ and ‘scholarly chef’.

Keywords Food systems · Curricula reform · Vocational · Professional

What follows is an expository essay outlining the ideal curricular design for a future integrated academic and vocational program focusing on food. It is based on the fundamental premise that the more well-rounded an education, the better prepared students will be to succeed in a number of different professional settings in a work marketplace that is not only rapidly changing, but one in which we can barely imagine the jobs that do not yet exist. It is also structured so as to address what are perceived to be shortcomings in existing programs which while they often nod to idea that there should not be a radical separation of theoretical and practical education, nonetheless have roots firmly planted in one or another set of goals for professional training (Cargill 2005; Nestle and McIntosh 2010; Weissman 2012; Hamada et al. 2015; Flowers and Swan 2016).

That is, there exist many food studies programs that primarily seek to address problems in food within the framework of traditional academic disciplines, and most of these are intentionally multidisciplinary. But they are not usually designed to prepare professionals who would be able to work in the food industries and entrepreneurship,

K. Albala (✉)
University of the Pacific, Stockton, CA, USA
e-mail: kalbala@PACIFIC.EDU

marketing, food science, let alone a professional kitchen. On the other hand, cooking schools and hospitality programs often include classes or whole components to acquaint students with what is broadly designated food culture that might include anthropology, sociology and even some history under the assumption that this will make them better equipped to cook and serve customers. Likewise, there are programs that include basic farming and animal husbandry or perhaps courses on food design, gastronomy, food and the arts or several other foci. Indeed, one could say that most food programs have a particular niche that sets them apart, which is perfectly rational given that they compete for students who themselves have varied interests and abilities.

It is also worth noting that several food scholars have been thinking precisely along these lines and the ideas presented here have not developed in a vacuum. Among scholars in the U.S. I could point to philosopher Heldke (2017) and her work from the perspective of John Dewey about the practical integration of hands on doing with thinking. The lack of practical application of skills in food studies programs has been something widely discussed and to some degree courses have even been implemented to redress the problem. Deutsch at Drexel (2012), Alice Julier at Chatham with its working farm (McKay 2010), and Trubeck (2009) at Vermont are all good examples of scholars implementing practical solutions into their programs. But few have envisioned or been able to implement an entire curricular overhaul beyond the current disciplines. A fundamental assumption here is that students in the food professions need to know first and foremost about food and its interaction with humans before they need to know various disciplinary methodologies.

These thoughts are drawn partly from my own familiarity with food studies programs in the US and elsewhere, such as those at New York University, Adelaide, Umbra Institute, SOAS in London and Boston University's Gastronomy program where I taught as a Visiting Professor both in person and online for a decade. It is also drawn from my direct experience of having founded a food studies program at the University of the Pacific that flourished for three years. That program was not designed following the principles presented here, but lessons learned there do inform this essay. That is to say, I am no stranger to the inner workings of a university and the possibilities of achieving goals in an institutional setting. I am also familiar with cooking schools ranging from the venerable Culinary Institute in New York to exciting new venues like Brightwater in Arkansas and to some extent my ideas spring from the fact that I do teach hands on cooking classes and have written cookbooks.

To start it would make sense to describe the objectives of this novel curriculum and what skill sets a student graduating from it would have mastered. It may seem somewhat paradoxical to expect a chef or butcher or restaurant owner to be interested or even able to benefit from academic food study. Likewise, universities are ill equipped to put students in a test kitchen or in a garden bed, both in terms of material resources and intellectual scope. University gardens have become a common feature of late and of course land grant colleges routinely focus on agriculture. But these are designed to train future farmers and food processors, just as cooking schools train chefs and universities are really designed to train future academics. It is precisely this disjuncture and too great a focus on a particular professional niche that will be a

shortcoming in the future. This is simply because fewer and fewer people are able to make a living farming. The food industries are also changing so rapidly that groceries as they have existed in the past century may become extinct as may traditional modes of marketing and advertising food as emergent media entirely change the playing field. It should go without saying that few scientists can envision the innovations that will undoubtedly emerge in the fields of nutrition, food chemistry and biology. Other food professions are also changing so quickly that business models are having a nearly impossible time keeping pace. Restaurants and grocery stores operate on the slimmest of margins. Food writing or at least traditional publishing may well become extinct. Perhaps most importantly, given the myriad problems in the food system globally, the inequities of distribution of resources, the prevalence of junk food, and the environmental threats posed by our mode of food production, who will be prepared to understand and address these problems systemically?

It would have to be a graduate equally versed in the business of food, how food is processed, distributed and prepared, and expert in analyzing how people consume food and how they think about it as an expression of identity. In other words, someone with training in entrepreneurship alone will probably not really understand why people make the food choices they do. Nor will they question why creating the next Dorito might not be a good idea from a purely business perspective. Without understanding people's intimate psychological reactions to food, how it is presented and how they believe it will interact with their bodies, how can a restaurateur hope to capture people's imagination? Equally how can a sociologist claim to analyze household cooking practices and so-called deskilling without understanding physically the daily demand of shopping and cutting up vegetables?

An immediate objection would question whether there is simply enough time within any program to become even vaguely conversant in such a broad number of divergent fields. How can someone take courses in science without a number of introductory classes? The same applies to every other discipline. The demands of training simply do not allow for such breadth of study. Moreover, does it make sense to focus exclusively on food, since someone in a business school may end up working in a different industry and someone teaching history will certainly have to teach courses unrelated to food. This is precisely why current curricula are too narrow and restrictive, they pigeonhole students according to disciplines that no longer reflect the realities of the job market. The future food professional will need an extraordinarily broad tool kit precisely because we do not yet know the opportunities that will exist, the way products will be sold or why people will want to purchase them. We do not yet know the problems that will arise with global warming, how our diet might need to change and how we will communicate information that people will need to eat a health-promoting and aesthetically pleasing diet. Again, it is the combination of theoretical and practical skills that a successful food program will be designed to teach.

As with any well-structured curriculum, staging levels of understanding is crucial. It seems obvious that many people involved in the food industries have not had direct experience with food, or have very little understanding of what people want in their diet. It might be why so many new products fail, not to mention restaurants. The

current strategy appears to be tossing anything against the wall and see what sticks. Naturally profit is the sole criterion for success. It is why we have so many problems in our food system. Ethics are rarely systematically applied to food production at any level. When health is concerned, corporations will do whatever they can get away with until public pressure or legal action forces them to do otherwise. The same is true for the environment, animal welfare, let alone the just distribution of food across social classes and globally. There are so many problems with our food system that it seems of utmost importance that graduates of a food program should be equipped to address them, whether in the field, kitchen, home or test lab.

I would therefore start the entire program with ethics, a basic introductory course on what has come to be called food systems. There is an excellent literature on this and related fields, including food justice, animal rights, and many other topics such as waste, locavorism and seasonality, food miles, etc. Most academic programs focus on these, but rarely do other food professions. Conversely, I think the first year should also include a basic introduction to agriculture and animal husbandry. Without knowing where the food comes from in the first place and without knowing what is really involved in raising it, I don't believe any food program can succeed. At the center of anyone's education in a food program, there should also be an introduction to cooking, including basic hands-on techniques. This is not necessarily entry level training for a chef, nor simply home cooking skills. Rather it is an explanation of ingredients, tools and procedures so that students have a real understanding of what is involved in food processing on the small and large scale. I would include some basic fermentation practicums such as pickle making, bread making, brewing and distilling, cheese making, etc. The logic behind this is that so many people today end up in artisanal manufacturing businesses at some level that they should understand all these basic procedures. A more advanced class would include butchery, milling and other potentially large-scale operations of this sort. Anyone working in any food related field should have a basic grasp of all the above.

The second tier of courses would focus on the many more specialized professions. A food writing course should go here, likewise food marketing and advertising, and a basic course in food science and nutrition. Equally important at this level is an entire course devoted to food communication. This would encompass not only the social meaning of what and how food itself communicates, but how food professionals successfully communicate their message across a broad variety of media platforms. It is becoming increasingly clear that success today and no doubt increasingly in the future will involve mastery of getting your message to customers and readers and much of this involves a certain level of technical mastery of blogs, podcasts, social media, photography and interviewing techniques. This is just as important for the food writer as it is for the chef, small business owner and even in the larger food industries. This program should not focus entirely on small scale artisanal operations or it will cater only to a small and usually elite clientele. That is, our students should infiltrate the industry to bring both ethical values and aesthetic sensibilities to initiate reform. Obviously the past century which has focused mostly on legislative solutions to problems in food production and food equity, animal rights and environmental concerns has not succeeded. We need people running these corporations with values

that will change from within and that can weather the tidal changes in public policy as administrations liberalize and tighten controls at whim. To put it another way we need corporate activists interested in fair trade, fair prices, fair wages. These are problems that some businesspeople recognize but we need an entire shift of sensibility that can only be achieved when the food movement operates within the industry rather than shouting from ivory tower.

It is actually the experience of my own food studies graduate students that has deepened my insight into this question. While some came directly from undergraduate degrees and had not yet chosen a career path, more than half were already working in food professions. Some were former line cooks, some owned small businesses like coffee shops or knife stores. There were pastry chefs, food activists, tour guides, writers, grocers, food bank managers, local food sourcing specialists. These were people who realized that moving up in their current positions or shifting to related jobs required knowledge and skills that could only be obtained in an academic setting. Conversely, I know many food scholars who crave the kinds of hands on activism that will actually influence human behavior and improve people's lives. Ultimately this is why I think an educational path that begins with both will better equip students to succeed personally and impact the world for good.

The curriculum waits until the third tier of courses to cover the theoretical side of food studies. It is here that the traditional disciplines would come into play, but I would not have them taught in the traditional lecture style format. Since students began with their hands on the practical side of food, they will be conversant in a kitchen and teaching should even at this level take place standing in front of a stove. My only personal experience of this kind has been teaching food history courses in a teaching kitchen with students reading recipes, interpreting and cooking them and then of course getting a first hand experience of tasting them, which is really the only way to understand the aesthetic sensibilities of the past. Only then do the wider lessons of food history really get driven home. For example, you can explain the complicated medieval trade routes that brought spices like nutmeg and cloves from the Moluccas all the way to Europe, their expense, the social cache they lent to hosts who could afford to serve them, the medicinal meaning of how they were combined according to the principles of humoral physiology, and so forth. But without actually cooking with the spices and tasting them in a medieval recipe, you really can't understand why they had such an enormous impact on global history.

In other traditional disciplines I think the hands-on approach is equally essential. I once accompanied a colleague, Alison Alkon in the sociology department, to our local farmers market to see how students interviewed the vendors, charted their origins, their customers and the produce they carried. The exercise taught methodology and implemented theory, but more importantly it showed that the sociology of food is not detached from real people's lives. Another example comes from a friend, Willa Zhen, who teaches food and culture from an anthropological perspective at the Culinary Institute of America. She has been devising hands on exercises for students who will ultimately end up as chefs and her forthcoming book on this topic will contribute to what should be a perfect melding of practical and theoretical training in food. In the traditional disciplines of history, sociology and anthropology, but equally

in communications, philosophy, political science as well as the arts and humanities, breaking out of the classroom setting seems to be the most viable solution to future curricular challenges. Implementing such a program would require rethinking traditional disciplinary boundaries but also the radical split between vocational and professional training. The very idea of a scholar chef and aproned academic defies the social categories and hierarchy of the professions. But until that occurs we will continue to have cheap bad food, completely unsustainable business models for every level of the food service industries, health problems associated with a poor diet and health care costs passed on the general public, environmental degradation, oceans over fished, animals treated no better than parts of machine and most importantly, people below the threshold of poverty barely getting enough to eat while others glut themselves. These are all problems that can be solved as long as those with the power and will to effect change are able to implement solutions drawn from their education and practical experience.

References

- Cargill, K. (2005). Food studies in the curriculum: A model for interdisciplinary pedagogy. *Food Culture and Society*, 8(1), 115.
- Deutsch, J. (2012). Are we teaching entrepreneurs what they really need to know? *Community College Entrepreneurship Journal*. Winter/Spring.
- Flowers, R., & Swan, E. (Eds.). (2016). *Food pedagogies*. Oxford: Routledge.
- Hamada, S., Wilk, R., Logan, A., Minard, S., & Trubek, A. (2015). The future of food studies. *Food Culture and Society*, 18(1), 167.
- Heldke, L. (2017). Theorizing alternative agriculture and food movements: The obstacle of dichotomous thinking. In K. Thompson (Ed.), *Agricultural ethics in East Asian perspective*. Berlin: Springer.
- McKay, G. (2010). Alice Julier: The woman who is growing Chatham's master of arts in food studies program, *Pittsburgh Post-Gazette*, 8 April.
- Nestle, M., & McIntosh, W. A. (2010). Writing the food studies movement. *Food Culture and Society*, 13(10), 160.
- Trubek, A. (2009). *Taste of place*. Berkeley: University of California Press.
- Weissman, E. (2012). Building a food studies program. *Journal of Agriculture, Food Systems and Community Development*, 2(3), 79.

Chapter 9

Supporting Scholarship: Reshaping a Vocational Educational Library for Higher Education



Paul Kloppenborg

Abstract This research explores library support of the scholarship and research needs of Higher Education (HE) lecturers in a Victorian TAFE (vocational college). Its purpose is to investigate how vocational libraries, now supporting HE delivery, can better provide information resources and services for the scholarly information needs of HE lecturers. The study is an exploratory case study approach for William Angliss Institute library that draws on the related literature on HE and vocational libraries, as well as from qualitative semi-structured interviews with librarians from Victorian TAFE institutes that deliver their own HE qualifications. The term scholarly can be defined in an information context, with the library having a role in supporting the scholarly information behaviour of lecturers. The study shows that TAFE libraries support the scholarship of teaching and learning of HE lecturers but are seen as immature in meeting their research needs. The challenge for the HE TAFE library is to provide access to the range and depth of discipline specific, quality electronic information that encourages and facilitates scholarship and research. The study contributes to firstly, the literature on how libraries can support the transition from a dominant vocational legacy to a hybrid model supporting both VET and HE cohorts; and secondly, the necessary prerequisites to help build research capacity and a HE learning culture within TAFE institute

Keywords Scholarship · Library · TAFE · Information behaviour · Information needs

Introduction

The Australian post-secondary education sector is divided between vocational education and training (VET) and Higher Education (HE). The epistemology of Higher Education (HE) is based on engagement with knowledge and its pedagogy on student

P. Kloppenborg (✉)
William Angliss Institute, Melbourne, Australia
e-mail: Paul.Kloppenborg@angliss.edu.au

© Springer Nature Singapore Pte Ltd. 2019
S. Beeton and A. Morrison (eds.), *The Study of Food, Tourism, Hospitality, and Events*,
Tourism, Hospitality & Event Management,
https://doi.org/10.1007/978-981-13-0638-9_9

merit and grading, not the attainment of competency which is the traditional focus of vocational education. The words “vocational” “education” and “training” reflect the complexity and problematical nature of defining VET. According to Karmel et al. (2008), VET is vocational in intent and instrumental in purpose with skill acquisition its primary goal. Moodie (2008) argues that the VET sector is practically orientated, generally encompassing less than two years study for students and based on articulation pathways to the advanced study of HE. Karmel (2011) distinguished the two sectors of HE and VET not by qualification levels or occupational versus career understandings, but through different funding, regulatory, teaching and learning styles and arrangements.

TAFE is the publicly supported sector of VET. In 2002, the Victorian Minister for Education and Training Lynne Kosky (2002) spoke about reinvigorating TAFE through skill development in line with industry and a flexible approach to delivery. TAFE Institutes were encouraged to apply for accreditation of degree delivery in niche markets on a fee-for-service basis. HE TAFE qualifications are mainly at diploma, associate degree and degree levels. Generally, they either focus on niche areas (for example, culinary arts, land management or forensic science), or combine various disciplines into specific vocational areas, such as aquaculture and environmental studies, or applied business in music. These high level vocationally orientated qualifications centre on broadening and deepening graduate skills and knowledge, creating what Tribe (2002) terms “the philosophic practitioner”.

Unlike VET’s national training packages and competency standards, HE TAFE lecturers are the intellectual custodians of their discipline and define the learning outcomes and graduate attributes of the curriculum. Implicit in the journey for an institute to deliver HE in a VET or TAFE institution is the creation of an academic culture. Academic culture relates to building scholarly capacity in a predominantly VET environment that acknowledges the need for structures that support and facilitate teaching, scholarship and research. One of those structures, the library, is a key provider of and intermediary in the information resources and services that assist scholarly capacity and capability building in TAFE institutions seeking to extend their HE delivery.

Libraries in VET generally and in TAFE specifically established their information services in the context of competency-based training, flexible delivery and work place knowledge. Traditionally the educational role of TAFE libraries lay in supporting trade or applied courses through curriculum resource-based learning. The information resources and services of TAFE libraries were shaped through supporting traditional models of teaching built on the primacy of prescribed course content and teacher industry currency.

Supporting infrastructures, such as the library, play a critical part in achieving the mission of TAFE institutions such as William Angliss Institute in becoming a recognised part of Australian Higher Education delivery. This research explores how William Angliss Institute library is transitioning from VET to HE based support of the scholarly information needs of its HE lecturers. The study will utilize an exploratory case study approach but draw on the researcher’s recent qualitative research data on library support of HE lecturers in Victorian TAFE.

Literature Review

Higher Education (HE) is defined in the literature as inquiry into knowledge and as the development of the mind to critically think, reflect and challenge the nature of the world (Barnett 1990; Truscot 1951). Whereas epistemologically VET can be viewed as living in a world of received knowledge, HE lives in a world of created and contested knowledge. The HE lecturer is constantly questioning themselves not only about best pedagogical practice, but about the right information, knowledge and skills to be teaching.

Economic and government policy changes have undermined the previously clear distinction between the HE and VET sectors. The blurring of the traditional divide between sectors is evident in the increase in the number of institutions providing both types of education- the University providing vocational entry qualifications, VET providers and some TAFE institutions teaching applied or practically oriented HE programs and an increasing number of Registered Training Organizations (RTO), that do both. William Angliss Institute is one of five current Victorian TAFE institutes delivering its own HE and VET qualifications. Unlike Australia's seven dual sector universities, defined by Moodie (2010) as having at least 20% but less than 80% student enrolment in each of its sectors- HE and VET, William Angliss Institute is a mixed sector institute, delivering their own VET and HE qualifications outside their initial establishment and the sector of the majority of their enrolments.

Scholarly Information Need

A principal institutional requirement of HE accreditation for TAFE institutions that allows delivery of HE qualifications is teacher scholarship. Scholarship involves the exchange and dissemination of new ideas and practices, especially in relation to disciplinary knowledge and is central to HE.

Scholarly information refers explicitly to the role information plays in the conduct of research and production of scholarship (Palmer and Cragin 2008). Scholarly information need relates to whatever information is needed to produce, create, organize, manage, preserve, disseminate, access or exchange scholarly output (Adigun et al. 2013). Scholarly information need also highlights the data, information, and training services that target an academics' information need (defined by their subject area or discipline) which is relevant and meaningful to their scholarly development (Greenstein and Porter 1998).

Higher Education Libraries and Information Needs

Cisse (2004) states that the academic library is the access point to the information services and resources that support the Institute's teaching, learning, and research missions. Rethinasami (2009) outlines the library's role as a facilitator between scholars and their information needs in three key areas. These areas are the selection and creation of content, organization of content to enable access, and the preservation of content for ongoing use. Each function supports the information needs of scholarship through facilitating interaction in an inter-disciplinary knowledge space. All three areas inform a debate between library intentions and its specialized functions that strategically serve institutional scholarly priorities, based on collaboration between teachers and the library.

TAFE Libraries and the Vocational Curriculum

The TAFE sector's constant re-structuring since the 1980s fashioned a fragmented and localized identification of the TAFE library's role. McIntyre and Hardy's (1988) seminal study of Victorian TAFE libraries placed TAFE libraries within the national reform framework of industry focused student learning and competency based training (CBT). Booker et al.'s (1995) report *Focus on Learning*, similarly aligned TAFE libraries to a service and flexible delivery model of information services within a VET framework. Historically, this reinforced the TAFE library's identity as a resource-based and learning support focused service catering for work-ready knowledge and skills to a predominantly diverse and part-time student cohort. This was illustrated in non-research orientated library services such as purchasing class sets of books for teaching, one-on-one assistance for literacy and numeracy issues and the supply of teacher centric self-paced learning packages. TAFE library resourcing and collections were built to meet the need of relevant lower certificate level vocational qualifications centred on classroom-based teaching practices.

The perception was that TAFE libraries occupied a service rather than educational role. This stemmed from a number of reasons including a community attitude valuing VET for its training emphasis and the outcome driven environment (Groenewegen 1987). TAFE libraries, established to provide non-university orientated information services for a wide socio-economic cohort, aligned their strategic goals to supporting a varied clientele, often part-time and entering post-secondary education with low levels of literacy, numeracy and computer skills (Volkoff et al. 2008; Milne et al. 2006). Unlike the research support provided by university library services for higher level qualifications, TAFE libraries modelled their resources towards supporting vocational models of teaching. This view emphasized the TAFE library as an information resource gatherer and distributor rather than as a contributing educative partner to teaching departments (Leong 2007).

HE TAFE Libraries

Responding to this global trend towards meeting workforce needs, in 2005, a number of Victorian TAFE institutions positioned themselves as HE providers of applied degrees. This was a proactive response to national strategic education goals and recognized skill shortages. It mirrored the changing needs of individuals and businesses and stronger pathways to knowledge and skills beyond work-based learning.

The resultant mixed sector TAFE library supported both the VET and HE teacher and student. It catered for different learning styles based on the nature of the curriculum. The critical shift from VET as module and competency based, and HE as requiring greater academic rigor, was reiterated in the library's importance to a student's critical thinking and research skills. A shift away from simply meeting required VET assignments towards a mix of HE assessment increasingly placed the library's role in terms of partnered responsibility towards supporting the well-rounded graduate.

The term scholarly has to be defined in an information context. As such, the TAFE library has a role in supporting the scholarly information behaviour associated with HE. Any gap between HE departments and the library related to the meeting the scholarly information needs of HE staff and students. This is demonstrated in the need for expansion of library resources, especially online databases, and direct teacher assistance, especially in referencing, information literacy and research. The introduction of HE into TAFE enabled TAFE libraries to push through cultural change, empowering Library Managers to expand collections, facilities and services. HE in TAFE has altered institutional teaching and learning strategies, with libraries now a more important stakeholder and partner in the transition to a hybrid educational institution.

Methodology

The interpretivist paradigm emphasizes a qualitative research methodology and is congruent with field work and an exploratory research intent (Benbasat et al. 1987). Qualitative research is used when the research question centres on the need to collect, interpret and make judgments about data that cannot be measured, for example what people say and do, and why (Bryman 2008; Creswell 2007; Neuman 2011; Walsham 2006). A qualitative approach was used because the focus for the study was an empathic uncovering of the shared practices and meaning of librarians within the scholarly information domain of library support of HE delivery in TAFE.

A case is defined as "a phenomenon of some sort occurring in a bounded context" (Miles and Huberman 2010: 25). The phenomenon is the move of HE into TAFE. The bounded context is William Angliss Institute which commenced delivering its own HE qualifications in 2007. A case study method is suitable for research questions that seek to provide rich descriptions or insightful understanding (Merriam 1988). This study seeks to explore the views of HE TAFE librarians in the sector as well

as the researcher's own views of the transition of a library from a VET focus to a hybrid VET/HE model.

This study draws on interviews conducted with twenty librarians from across the HE TAFE sector as a principal source of data. Interviewing is a qualitative technique that stresses the importance of human behaviour through language. It is a basic mode of inquiry that seeks understanding via personal lived experience and the meaning derived from that experience (Robson 2002). Semi-structured interviews with Library Managers, liaison and reference librarians were conducted as part of the researcher's Ph.D. study between February and August 2015. Ethical approval (300/2014/25) was received in August 2014. Pseudonyms were assigned to participants to protect their anonymity. The library sample was purposefully selected by the researcher as they represented principal conduits and facilitators for reference, information resourcing and other library services to HE lecturers. Data analysis is the process of making sense out of one's data (Merriam 1988: 127) and is a continual iterative exchange between collection and interpretation. Data analysis commenced as the data was collected. Initial and focused coding protocols were employed to distil down key themes. Key themes informed the discussion section and the researcher's own case study commentary on the William Angliss Institute library.

Findings

Library participants believed that HE lecturers appreciated librarians for the personal element of the library service provided. While resources such as databases, textbooks, subject guides and electronic information were valued and important for HE delivery, it was the library as student space and librarians, as a link between their teaching requirements and student access, that was most appreciated. Librarians believed that lecturers' use of the library related primarily to their teaching needs but that library support of HE research was in terms of resources for teaching currency and the updating of knowledge in their discipline area. While some participants referred to the research needs of the lecturer, most referred to the context of sourcing information used for the courses being delivered.

When asked by the researcher to list what resources and services were offered to lecturers to support their scholarly information needs, the following participant comments were typical.

EBooks, databases, streaming videos and books on the shelf DVDs (John)

The capacity to put together resources such as readings and journals and online resources that are relevant to the curriculum (Rosemary).

Library orientation tours and database classes (Terry)

The findings indicated that librarians believed HE lecturers used a variety of library information services and resources to support their scholarly information needs. These included physical and online resources, library space, and research support for teaching and training and information skills classes for students. Library participants

were cognizant that the library focused on meeting HE student and teaching needs. Interviews with librarians described the wider research and scholarly needs of the HE lecturer in terms of providing physical and electronic collection depth, especially in relation to multiple textbook and level and specialized databases with less restricted licensing.

When it came to what HE lecturers wanted from the library, the following comments from librarians were indicative of the consensus to expand physical and electronic resourcing, as well as providing more one-to-one student and research support.

Information service that is more expansive than it currently is ...coming from in the form of more extensive databases subscriptions (Charles)

Wanting more involvement with the Department (Bob)

What they ask for are multiple copies of any given title that students are going to use to be made available straight away (Shonah).

HE lecturers wanted current information, immediacy and speed of access to that information as well as a greater range and depth of scholarly information available. This higher level of academic resourcing and services referenced a university library context but with the proviso of the TAFE library's vocational legacy. The blend of library resources and services, supportive both VET and HE staff and student cohorts, was indicative of the need for greater library support in regard to resourcing, collections and staffing to adequately cater for the wide range of clients.

According to participant discussion, the challenges for the VET based library transitioning to support HE delivery centred on library identity, institutional recognition, librarian up-skilling and the need for relationship building from the library to both HE lecturers and HE departments. Librarians understood that the library was "a hybrid...in transition" (Joan) or "a VET [library] supporting Higher Education and changing to cope with ... all the issues that it involves" (Cassie). Many librarians emphasized that institutional support extended beyond the library as a requirement for the accreditation of HE degree delivery. Re-shaping the TAFE library from its VET heritage to a more supportive scholarly partner in HE TAFE and its applied teaching and research focus, necessitated an expansion in electronic resources and services.

Liaison with HE lecturers was viewed as more demanding than with VET teachers. Challenges related to realizing the library's importance as an inclusive partner and not just an adjunct to the institute's teaching and learning strategy. HE and its implicit scholarly focus implied firstly, a shift in the library collection from a more operational and generic information emphasis to the scholarly and peer reviewed focus of HE; and secondly, accompanying changes in the knowledge base of librarians.

The findings indicated that librarians wanted to be more involved in assisting with the scholarly information needs of HE. Through positioning the library in the teaching space and maximizing support through "the academic rigor of the collection" (Moira), the library could not only back up teaching and student success but support HE staff in their scholarship and research. The findings from this study confirmed library support of HE lecturers in TAFE related to the library as a student space, to resourcing,

especially database expansion and to library services, in particular the out-reach liaison activities of librarians.

Conclusion

The findings showed that TAFE libraries supported the scholarship of teaching and learning of HE lecturers by the variety of information resources and services they provided. While TAFE libraries were seen by participants as “developing” and “embryonic” in meeting the research needs of HE, they were appreciated and valued for what they afforded the teaching and learning strategies of their institutes. The transition to supporting research struggled against providing the range and depth of information resources, particularly online, that could meet all the scholarly needs of HE lecturers. This was because TAFE libraries now supporting HE were established on a VET physical collection legacy and lacked the range and depth of electronic information resources generally associated with a university library.

Nevertheless, librarians believed they could support the scholarly information needs of HE lecturers by being targeted, proactive and nimble in response, through the information resources and services they provided, to the scholarly information requests they received. The principal challenge for the HE TAFE library, and William Angliss Institute library in particular, was to provide access to the range and depth of discipline specific, quality electronic information that encouraged and facilitated scholarship and research. Librarians viewed HE lecturer scholarship as a shared responsibility. This view was expressed as a commitment to providing the resourcing, collections and staffing intent of a HE library. While aspiration of the resourcing associated with a university library, the HE TAFE library vision reflected a hybrid HE and VET model that emphasized active information services aligned to research, teaching and student requirements. Supporting the scholarly information needs of HE required skilled librarians, distinct HE services and closer liaison and partnerships to departments. Beyond the dependency of the library for HE accreditation purposes, librarians saw their role and function in terms of expanding information resources and services while working collegiately in the space of HE.

Institutional support is required to provide what HE lecturers need for their scholarly information. These needs relate primarily to improvements in library space, information resources, mainly databases, equipment for students and finally, services that support teaching and learning. The introduction of HE delivery in the William Angliss Institute was a catalyst to shift library services from the print based and teaching driven resources associated with a VET curriculum to a more open, online and expanded information service aligned to the needs of HE. VET was associated with a library browse culture as opposed to the more targeted needs of HE. The opportunity of HE delivery in TAFE was reflected in pushing for increased databases, improved research skills training and expanded liaison support with the HE department. Doubling HE library liaison support in 2017 provided an opportunity to establish relationships with HE lecturers. Expanding database suites from a

generalist focus to specialized electronic information was indicative of the transition to the more scholarly and peer reviewed information content required for HE teaching and research. Providing “Google-like” discovery searching through the library catalogue and off site remote access to that information, exemplified a change in the TAFE library from a resource provider to a facilitator in information provision.

Supporting the scholarly information needs of HE required skilled librarians, distinct HE services and closer liaison and partnerships to the faculty. This included a desire from the library to be embedded in the curriculum and to be delivering information literacy and research skills to HE staff and students. The William Angliss Institute library recognized that support of the scholarly information needs of its lecturers requires understanding of their needs. By implication, better marketing and liaison services were necessary to embed the library’s presence into HE conversations and relationships. Articulating a role beyond just an add-on student service requires institutional support to provide what HE lecturers want from the library, namely support for their teaching and students, and where possible, their research needs. The metamorphosis of the TAFE library to a HE VET hybrid library centred on information access and improved and targeted resource provision. For the future development of the William Angliss Institute library, the strategic HE vision was about knowing exactly what HE students and staff wanted and then delivering the information resources and services that met those expectations.

Future Considerations

- Demonstrating scholarly capacity is a required step towards future university accreditation. In the study, the library’s role related to how it supported the Institute’s research and scholarship strategies. This can be achieved through the resources and services that support the scholarly information needs of its students and lecturers.
- The research showed the library’s role in building scholarship and research in VET and HE in two main ways. Firstly, by contributing to the literature on how TAFE libraries can support the transition from a dominant vocational legacy to a hybrid model supporting both VET and HE staff and students; and secondly, understanding how the library is a necessary prerequisite to building research capacity and a HE learning culture within a TAFE institute.
- The vocational/professional nexus is embraced by demonstrating how the scholarly information resources and services that a library provides for its minority HE sector can influence the educational and knowledge space of its majority VET sector. The study showed how both HE and VET staff and students can benefit from a library’s expansion of its services, space and collections.
- HE delivery is changing and is no longer exclusive to universities. The study revealed the library’s contribution to building a scholarly and research culture within a non-university context. The study has relevance for similar transitioning

libraries internationally within the Further Education, Community College and Polytechnic sectors.

- The implication for practice relates to the institutional support required to provide what lecturers need for their scholarship, namely improvements in library space, information resources, equipment, and services.
- The lessons that can be drawn for the HE and VET sectors in Australia and internationally is that information resources underpin scholarship and research. The library's role is to provide a first choice for peer reviewed quality information for lecturer scholarship. This requires Institute investment in information resources and the flow on effect, namely the confidence and belief by lecturers that they can access anywhere and anytime, the range and depth of scholarly content they require.

Acknowledgements The author would like to acknowledge Charles Sturt University for their support of the researcher's current Ph.D. study.

References

- Adigun, G. O., Kotso, J. A., & Kolajo, F. S. (2013). Changing roles of academic and research libraries in scholarly information communication landscape: Case study of Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria, Nigeria. *Greener Journal of Social Sciences*, 3(3), 156–165.
- Barnett, R. (1990). *The idea of higher education*. Bristol: Society for Research into Higher Education and Open University Press.
- Benbasat, I., Goldstein, D. K., & Mead, M. (1987). The case research strategy in studies of information systems. *MIS Quarterly*, 11(3), 369–386.
- Booker, D., Murphy, C., & Watson, M. (1995). *Focus on learning: A framework for the provision of learning resources, library and information services in vocational education and training*. Adelaide, South Australia: National TAFE Chief Executives' Committee.
- Bryman, A. (2008). *Social research methods*. New York: Oxford University Press.
- Cisse, C. (2004). Access to electronic information and information research. *SCAULWA Newsletter*, 5(1), 14–17.
- Creswell, J. W. (2007). *Qualitative inquiry and research design: Choosing among five approaches*. Thousand Oaks: Sage Publications.
- Greenstein, D., & Porter, S. (1998). Scholars' information needs in a digital age: Executive summary. *New Review of Academic Librarianship*, 4(1), 147–156. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13614539809516775>.
- Groenewegen, H. W. (1987). *Automation in Victorian TAFE libraries and the 'book' system: Report of an investigation conducted on behalf of the Victorian Association of TAFE College Librarians (VATCL)*. Wantirna South: Victorian Association of TAFE College Librarians.
- Karmel, T. (2011, March). *As clear as mud: Defining vocational education and training*. Paper presented at the TAFE Governance and Regulations Forum, Melbourne.
- Karmel, T., Mlotkowski, P., & Awodeyi, T. (2008). Is VET vocational? The relevance of training to the occupations of vocational education and training graduates. National Centre for Vocational Education Research. <https://www.ncver.edu.au/publications/publications/all-publications/is-vet-vocational-the-relevance-of-training-to-the-occupations-of-vocational-education-and-training-graduates?friendly=printable>. Accessed 24 February 2017.
- Kosky, L. (2002). Knowledge and skills for the innovation economy: Future directions for Victoria's vocational education and training system. Victorian Department of Education and Training.

- <http://vital.new.voced.edu.au/vital/access/services/Download/ngv:27945/SOURCE2>. Accessed 30 June 2017.
- Leong, K. (2007). Information literacy and TAFE challenging librarian and teacher collaboration in the VET sector in a TAFE institution. <http://www.avetra.org.au/publications/AVETRAConference07Papers.shtml>. Accessed 1 August 2017.
- McIntyre, B. H., & Hardy, G. (1988). *Guidelines for the operation of TAFE Library Resource Centres in Victoria 1988–1992*. Melbourne: Department of Information Services, Royal Melbourne Institute of Technology.
- Merriam, S. B. (1988). *Case study research in education: A qualitative approach*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Miles, M. B., & Huberman, A. M. (2010). *Qualitative data analysis: An expanded sourcebook*. Thousand Oaks: Sage Publications.
- Milne, L., Glaisher, S., & Keating, S. (2006). *Making articulation work: TAFE to higher education at Victoria University*. Melbourne: Postcompulsory Education Centre, Victoria University.
- Moodie, G. (2008). *From vocational to higher education: An international perspective*. Berkshire: Open University Press.
- Moodie, G. (2010, November). *Types of tertiary education institutions: Description or prescription?* Paper presented at the L H Martin Institute Conference, Melbourne. http://www.lhmartininstitute.edu.au/userfiles/files/conf_2010/presentation_gavin_moodie.pdf. Accessed 20 March 2017.
- Neuman, W. L. (2011). *Social research methods: Qualitative and quantitative approaches*. Boston: Allyn & Bacon.
- Palmer, C. L., & Cragin, M. H. (2008). Scholarly information work and disciplinary practices. *Annual Review of Information Science and Technology*, 42, 165–211.
- Rethinasami, P. (2009). The roles of libraries in teaching and learning. <http://ezinearticles.com/?The-Roles-of-Libraries-in-Teaching-and-Learning&id=1859963>. Accessed 1 March 2017.
- Robson, C. (2002). *Real world research: A resource for social scientists and practitioner-researchers*. Oxford: Blackwell.
- Tribe, J. (2002). The philosophic practitioner. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 29(2), 228–257.
- Truscot, B. (1951). *Red Brick University*. Harmondsworth: Penguin Books.
- Volkoff, V., Clarke, K., & Walstab, A. (2008). Analysis of TAFE provision: Support document. National Centre for Vocational Educational Research. https://www.ncver.edu.au/__data/assets/file/0015/6270/nr05006s1.pdf. Accessed 30 April 2017.
- Walsham, G. (2006). Doing interpretive research. *European Journal of Information Systems*, 15(3), 320–330.

Chapter 10

Better Together: Negotiating the Tension Between Liberal and Practical Knowledge in Event Management Curriculum Design



Jeffrey Wrathall and Lynn Richardson

Abstract In a rapidly changing landscape, curriculum designers are under increased pressure to develop higher education courses that meet the needs of industry whilst ensuring that students engage with complex issues, developing broader views as global citizens. This chapter uses a case study approach to assess a curriculum design model that blends broader liberal and industry relevant subjects in a Bachelor of Event Management qualification. A qualitative research method was used to collect student and external academic feedback on the course design. Findings indicate that the delivery of liberal subjects in each year of the course enriches students understanding of more industry focused subjects and that the industry focused subjects provide for deeper discussions in liberal subjects.

Keywords Higher education · Pedagogy · Event industry · Graduates

Introduction

Over recent decades, Australia's higher education and vocational education and training (VET) sectors have been characterised by rapid change and high levels of complexity (Brew 2010; Marginson 2007). At the same time, Australian industries such as events and hospitality have experienced high levels of turbulence and rapid growth. In the events industry, the staging of a broad range of major and mega events, culminating in the Sydney Olympics of 2000, led to the expansion of event organisations and "ushered in a new era of sophistication and professionalism for the Australian events industry" (Wrathall and Gee 2011: 12).

The number, size and complexity of events has expanded rapidly and led to an increase in the demand for graduates capable of designing, developing and delivering those events, as well as a cadre of teachers and academics skilled and experienced in the relevant industries. By the early 2000s, event management programs

J. Wrathall (✉) · L. Richardson
William Angliss Institute, Melbourne, Australia
e-mail: Jeffreyw@angliss.edu.au

© Springer Nature Singapore Pte Ltd. 2019
S. Beeton and A. Morrison (eds.), *The Study of Food, Tourism, Hospitality, and Events*,
Tourism, Hospitality & Event Management,
https://doi.org/10.1007/978-981-13-0638-9_10

and programs concerned with allied areas such as hospitality and tourism, began to penetrate the higher education sector. Undergraduate and postgraduate programs in events management and hospitality management have gained a particularly wide appeal amongst domestic and international students in Australia.

The practical nature of these industries and perceptions about the required knowledge, skills and expertise pose particular challenges for the pedagogy and curriculum in higher education. Employers tend to value highly practical and hands-on employees, often with a strong perceived emphasis on the application of basic project management tools and techniques. These tools of the trade include designing and managing event programs, timetables, schedules, run-sheets, scripts and checklists. Prospective events students generally share this view and are attracted to event management programs which match their vocational education orientation. Such requirements appear to be consistent with a traditional VET competency-based approach to pedagogy and curriculum.

However, particularly for professionals in the events industry, a more thorough examination reveals that the knowledge and attributes currently required comprise a broader range of high-level cognitive skills that are necessary to develop event themes and concepts, develop and negotiate event marketing strategies, provide customer and other stakeholder services, and deal effectively with a broad range of complex financial, human resource, security, risk, legal, environmental and emergency management issues. Furthermore, there has been considerable debate in recent years about the extent to which a vocational focus ignores the need for liberal reflection (Belhassen and Caton 2011).

Consequently, a key question explored in this chapter is the manner in which degree programs may be designed to meet dual objectives. The first is to satisfy the needs of industry, the perceived need for practical and vocational, hands-on skills and competencies. The second involves addressing the need for broader, higher level knowledge and expertise with a focus on critical and strategic thinking, a capacity for liberal reflection, and a capacity to create, rather than simply retain, knowledge. Hence, after reviewing the relevant literature, this paper adopts a case study approach to explore how, and the extent to which, these dual imperatives of vocational and liberal education may be achieved.

Event Management as a Field of Study

Although a relatively recent field of study, people have gathered in both spontaneous and managed events ‘throughout eternities’ (Nelson and Silvers 2009). In current economic terms, the events industry is exclusively concerned with planned events. A review of the literature reveals that some authors postulate that the field has yet to achieve the level of a profession (Jiang and Wood Schmader 2014; Nelson and Silvers 2009), however the growth of research and event management curriculum heralds this progression. A signpost on this journey is the promulgation of the Event Management Body of Knowledge (Silvers et al. 2006), a framework that can be used

to guide curriculum development. In Australia, the recent development of threshold learning outcomes for event management degrees has further formalised event curriculum (Gross et al. 2017). Other indicators of increasing professionalisation includes recognition by academia through the growth in accredited qualifications ranging from vocational certificates through to Masters qualifications, and the developing body of research in the field. In their 2016 comprehensive review of event tourism research, Getz and Page highlight the expanding role that planned events have on destination attractiveness, economic growth and government policy.

The growing impact and visibility of planned events, particularly mega events such as the Olympic games, televised music festivals and world championship sporting events, has seen a corresponding growth in demand for event-based qualifications. This has incited the development of new courses predominately in North America, United Kingdom, New Zealand and Australia (Barron and Leask 2011; Getz 2002; Junek et al. 2009). International interest in formal qualifications in the field has seen expansion into new regions such as China and Korea (Lee et al. 2009). In concert with the growth in these qualifications and the number of academics teaching and researching in this field there is a broad and developing body of literature relating to the events industry, events studies and event tourism (see for example: Bladen and Kennell 2014; Getz 2002, 2008; Getz and Page 2016; Jiang and Wood Schmader 2014; Kashef 2015; Mair 2011; Merkel 2014).

However, the Australian Higher Education landscape, particularly in universities, has seen dramatic change over the past five years with many universities disbanding or subsuming faculties in the specialist areas of Tourism and Hospitality, in which Event Management was often situated, merging many with Business or Commerce. The Australian Good Universities Guide website currently lists 23 undergraduate qualifications in event management, significantly nearly half of which are a Bachelor of Business and only two a Bachelor of Arts. Given the change in faculty focus, it is unsurprising that curriculum designers are under increased pressure to privilege practical business skills over liberal knowledge, specifically in event studies.

Reviewing the literature dedicated to events, it soon becomes apparent that whilst the inclusion of liberal and critical content in hospitality and tourism courses has been discussed for some time (Morrison and O’Gorman 2006; Lashley 2004, 2006, 2008, 2009, 2015; Dredge et al. 2012; Tribe 2002; Airey 2016; Gross and Manoharan 2014, 2016) there is minimal discourse in this field related specifically to event management curriculum. Getz in his various works provides a clear narrative regarding the field of event studies and outlines potential research agendas to progress this field but there is little evidence that this has translated into curriculum design. Practical application, industry relevance and graduate outcomes dominate the literature in this area, perhaps reflecting the pressure that many universities (and the incumbent academics) feel to provide industry ready graduates (Barron and Ali-Knight 2017) in an increasingly marketised environment (Wheelahan 2007).

Despite this pressure several authors have noted the disparity between industry expectations and graduate abilities. Nelson and Silvers (2009: 38) conclude that there is a “lack of consistency and clarity around event management courses” which contributes to industry skepticism regarding qualifications in the field, and

Robinson et al. (2008) raised the question of whether industry valued graduate's management skills and capabilities. However, whilst an increased focus on practical skill development is advocated by industry, students and some authors (Bladen and Kennell 2014), Gross and Manoharan (2016: 52) speculate that given the level of skills development undertaken by employers in the Tourism, Hospitality and Events industry an "overemphasis on skills during academic study might be a waste". In the related area of Hospitality Management, a growing body of academics have raised the need for greater inclusion of liberal subjects into the curriculum to avoid the deterioration into a purely vocational mindset (Botterill 2000; Morrison and O'Gorman 2008; Morrison and O'Mahony 2003; Lashley 2004; Lugosi and Jameson 2017).

In his 2008 paper Getz identified that the majority of events related education fell into one of two categories which encompassed either a hands-on (vocational) approach or the application of generic management theory to the events industry. This echoes his earlier work where he warned of "falling into the trade school trap and avoiding difficult theoretical, methodological and ethical issues" (Getz 2002:13). In the field of hospitality Lashley (2004: 414) describes this focus as the study '*for* Hospitality' rather than '*of* Hospitality' (2004: 414). Mirroring debates in the Hospitality fields (Botterill 2000; Lugosi et al. 2009; Slattery 2002), events can be considered from a purely 'industry' perspective focusing on management skills and economic benefit or from a more critical perspective. Robertson et al. (2012) highlight the need to link theory with practice and the ability to reflect on this relationship in order to facilitate the co-creation of new knowledge and workplace practices. Bladen and Kennell describe events as "artefacts of human culture" (2014: 5) elevating the field beyond a management practice. Described as multidisciplinary (Getz 2008; Nelson and Silvers 2009; Ryan 2016) studies in events are informed by a suite of established disciplines such as anthropology, geography, psychology, sociology and economics. Although Robertson et al. 2012 locate event management education in the field of business studies, given the depth of complexity of the field, Ryan (2016) concludes that established educational practices designed for business management are not adequate for the study of event management.

Examining the balance between liberal and vocational education, Gross and Manoharan (2016) concluded that students preferred the practical and 'real world' experiences over theoretical aspects of their studies, however they raised the concern that a focus on skills is often related to a particular work environment, echoing concerns raised by Rata (2012) and Wheelahan (2007) regarding the stratification of knowledge. Morrison and O'Gorman (2008: 220) advise that educationalists need to achieve an "appropriate blend of the liberal, reflective and contemplative alongside those of the vocational, pragmatic and practical educational processes".

In contrast to vocational knowledge which is categorised as the knowable, liberal knowledge is conceived as the unknowable (Morrison and O'Mahony 2003; Wheelahan 2007). Liberal knowledge deals with issues of 'gender, identity, otherness and place. Politics and culture, legacy and impact' (Getz 2002: 18). These topics have become critical to the study of event management most recently due to growing awareness and regulatory requirements in relation to inclusion, sexual harassment,

legacy, environmental and cultural impact. The growth in movements such as Safe Spaces at festivals and the call for an all female major music event in highlight the complex issues with which event management students must now engage.

Based on Tribe's 'Philosophic Practitioner' (Tribe 2002), Dredge et al. (2012) conceived a framework to map the Tourism and Hospitality curriculum space. Portrayed in this framework is the tension often experienced by curriculum developers navigating the perceived divide between skills and capabilities, and (liberal) knowledge. Gross and Manoharan (2016: 44) discuss 'an optimal balance between liberal and vocational values', whilst Dredge et al. (2012) consider both balance and integration of liberal and vocational education to be essential. Morrison and O'Gorman (2006) however phrase this in terms of a 'blend' inspiring a vision of complementary rather than adversarial ways of knowing.

Case Study Context

An Australian mixed sector tertiary institute was selected to as the focus of this case study. The Institute has been delivering higher education in its specialist fields of foods, tourism and hospitality since 2007. Initially delivering two four-year bachelor programs, in 2013 the institute commenced a program of significant growth through the design and development of new higher education courses. Between 2014 and 2017 accredited higher education programs increased from 2 to 24 ranging from sub bachelors through to Masters programs. Underpinning the success of the development of these new programs was a curriculum framework centered on four strands of learning outlined in Table 10.1.

Unlike the research undertaken by Gross and Manoharan (2014, 2016) where graduates commence in a vocational institute and then progress to a university campus to complete the latter part of the qualification, the curriculum model under review is designed to integrate liberal education from year one with students who articulate into the program from vocational courses still required to complete each of these subjects (Table 10.2). This encourages students to view all their subjects through a dual lens. Not just from an industry perspective but also developing a broader view as a global citizen.

Delivery of the Bachelor of Event Management commenced in February 2015 and a first review of the course was undertaken at the end of 2016 at which stage all subjects had been delivered at least once. As an addition to this review a research project was instigated with the specific aim of determining student satisfaction with the structure of the course and in particular the integration of liberal subjects.

Table 10.1 Strands of learning

Strand		Focus
One	‘Studies of’	Situated within the liberal/critical domain these subjects take students beyond the current industry to challenge ways of thinking and provide broad perspective. Students also develop research skills through embedded practices based on the research skills framework
Two	‘Studies for’	Drawing on current industry practices with an applied focus this strand encourages students to move from ‘how to’ to speculating about what is to come. Skills to operate in the industry today are balanced with knowledge to prepare and lead in the industry tomorrow
Three	Enabling	Provides transferable management skills contextualised for the tourism, foods, hospitality and events industries
Four	Electives	Provides scope through electives for students to customise their learning

Table 10.2 Bachelor of Event Management subject matrix

	Year one—operations		Year two—management		Year 3—challenge and innovate	
	Semester one	Semester two	Semester one	Semester two	Semester one	Semester two
Developmental strand/delivery stage						
Strand one studies		Key concepts in event studies		Iconic Events		Politics and culture in international events
Strand two practices	Fundamentals of event practices	Event design	Project management and logistics	Marketing and communication for events	Business development in the events industry	Event evaluation and innovation
	The events industry		Catering for the events industry	Event stakeholders		Sustainability for the events industry
Strand three enabling subjects	Management and communication	Financial concepts	Introduction to marketing		Risk and legal issues	
					Revenue management	
Strand four electives (up to two electives per year)	Foundation academic communication skills	Elective	Elective	Elective	Elective	Elective

Table 10.3 Interviewee characteristics

Interviewee	Type	Gender	Industry Experience	Exposure to previous tertiary study	Academic program design experience
SI1	Student	Female	Substantial	None	None
SI2	Student	Female	Limited	Commenced but failed to complete previous degree courses	None
SI3	Student	Female	2 years	Diploma in Event Management	None
AI1	Academic	Male	Substantial	Ph.D.	Substantial
AI2	Academic	Male	Substantial	Completing a Ph.D.	Substantial

Method

As the purpose of the project was to investigate satisfaction and experiences of current students a qualitative research (Kervin et al. 2016) approach was adopted. This included five semi-structured interviews (Creswell 2009), three with current students and two with Melbourne-based academics that have had broad and extensive experience with the design, development and delivery of a range of academic programs including Event Management. Interviews were recorded and transcribed for analysis using a grounded theory approach, allowing the meaning to emerge from the data. Key characteristics of the interviewees are set out below in Table 10.3.

Findings

Each of the students interviewed were very positive about their experience in undertaking the program. While the reasons varied, they all expressed the view that the program had captured their interest, they had benefited in terms of what they were learning, and they had gained new perspectives and insights. For example, comments included:

I find it absolutely fascinating to look at an event from a conceptual and theoretical perspective...I'm understanding what's the bigger picture going on here (SI1)

this one is probably the one that's maybe taken my interest the most because the subjects are so relevant (SI2)

I remember my first semester it surprised me how much I liked studying...I felt like I was getting smarter (SI3)

Despite coming from quite different backgrounds, all student interviewees expressed an appreciation of both the broad theoretical and the practical, industry-specific elements of the program. Moreover, they identified a number of specific

strengths that characterised the program. These included an academic focus and the provision of academic skills that equipped students with the capacity to think and write in a clearer, more precise and more scholarly manner, and to understand events at a more conceptual level.

In this regard, a number of subjects were specifically designed to ensure that the program could clearly be delivered at degree level. For example, *Foundation Academic Communication Skills* seeks to provide essential academic and critical thinking skills to prepare students for the academic demands and assessment requirements that they need in later degree level subjects:

I found that I started to write, I guess, like an academic, in a sense. I would never have, in TAFE, worded things the way that I now word things, and I find myself actually in my job writing a lot better in terms of the words that I use (SI3)

Hence, this subject had been extremely useful in the transition from diploma to degree level studies. In addition, the student not only gained the ability to write in a more scholarly manner but also in a way that was more useful and effective in a practical, industry context. On the other hand, key learning objectives associated with Strand 1 subjects (see Table 1) seek to embed more advanced research and inquiry skills that facilitate a sound appreciation of more theoretical concepts, frameworks and models, as well as a more scholarly approach to learning as indicated in the following comments:

I just remember learning so much in those (subjects), maybe because it was early on. I just remember talking about event legacies and things like that (SI3)

I think you've covered the important theoretical issues that I think is necessary for students to understand but you've been able to manage that with the practical side of it so you've got a very good mix of theory and practice (SI1)

Strand one is the obvious one because it contains...the theoretical subjects (AI2)

While some student interviewees acknowledged the theoretical nature of these subjects, they also appeared to value the provision of other more industry-based subjects that still demonstrated a sound theoretical basis. One example is the following comments about *Project Management and Logistics*:

I've been doing project management for myself for years and years and years, and all the trade shows and things. But now I actually understand the words, the labels, the proper sequencing, why the evaluation, what are all the pieces. (SI1)

Also, with regard to *Catering for the Events Industry*:

you're approaching it from a more academic aspect...we did a catering plan. That was a practical application; we had all that theory. (SI1)

Other specific strengths that student interviewees identified as characteristic of the program were the links that existed between various subjects, the inter-connected nature of the degree as a whole, and the balance between theory and practice. For example:

I do think that there's a good balance, I think that it does lean slightly more towards more information based than practical based, but not in a negative way (SI2)

And in terms of an appropriate balance between theory and practice throughout the program:

I think this is great, this is really well balanced; I think it's been thought through pretty well...it's all absolutely connected to what I want to do in events, I think. The choice of courses (is) completely relevant; I think they were well chosen subjects. (SI1)

Similar sentiments about the balance between theory and practice are expressed as follows:

there's nothing more practical than a good theory...I think the link is very strong...in something that's a practitioner-oriented program the theory and the practice, to me, hold together fairly well and there's a good balance between theory and practice and from what I can see in the structure of the program (AI1)

that combines a nice theoretical and practical mix so that's a good set. At the same time the large number of event specific subjects clearly differentiates from any other event degrees that I've looked at. (AI2)

In terms of inter-connectivity amongst subjects and topic areas:

Everything is connected. So that connection, I think, is great to be able to be able to dabble into so many other little areas. (SI1)

Relevance and the industry-specific nature of subjects in the program was also highlighted as follows:

whilst (the subjects) are academic-based, they're still relevant to onsite skills (SI3)

More specifically, with regard to *Politics and Culture in International Events*:

like politics and culture, for example, if I was organising Olympics or World Cup, bigger corporate events, yeah that stuff would be relevant. (SI3)

And with regard to *Human Resource Management*:

I did HR most recently, I definitely find that theory very, very relevant...I've actually implemented a lot of those sorts of things in my workplace whilst doing recruiting and things like that, so that's something that I'm actually doing whilst I'm working.

Hence, not only the industry relevance of degree subjects but also the diversity of those practical subjects was regarded as a key feature of the program.

The structure of the program, the value of the various strands and hence, links between theory and practice were highlighted as follows:

the structure, to me anyway, is sequential, is logical and it leads through to a very solid level seven AQF exit point. (AI1)

there's a very large number of event specific subjects included in (Strand 2)...and I think that's excellent (AI2)

On the other hand, student interviewees did not specifically identify the program structure when discussing the degree.

Conclusion

The key purpose of this paper was to explore the manner in which degree programs may be designed to effectively satisfy dual needs: the need for vocational, hands-on skills and competencies; and, the need to develop a capacity for liberal reflection and the ability to create, rather than simply retain knowledge. Satisfying these dual needs goes well beyond simply achieving an appropriate balance (Dredge et al. 2012; Gross and Manoharan 2016). Rather, the key focus becomes the extent to which one perspective informs the other. Viewed through this lens, there is no real trade-off between liberal and vocational subjects. The addition of liberal subjects enriches a student's understanding of industry realities, while the more industry specific subjects provide the context for those liberal, more theoretical subjects. With this in mind, the curriculum model includes liberal subjects from year one to encourage students to view all of their subjects from both an industry perspective and the perspective of a global citizen.

The results of this study clearly indicated different but very positive perceptions amongst student interviewees about their learning experience and the insights gained as a result of their study. In particular, the blend of theoretical and industry specific elements of course content was recognised and appreciated as beneficial to their understanding of event studies. Furthermore, this mix of theory and practice, and the associated synergistic benefits, was clearly identified as positive aspects of the program by academic interviewees.

Specific strengths of the program that were identified and discussed by student interviewees included: the provision of academic skills that equipped them to cope with the academic challenges of a degree-level program; a theoretical focus that facilitated an understanding of events at a more conceptual level; the provision of practical, industry-specific subjects that were consistent with that theoretical focus; an appropriate balance between theory and practice; and, a high degree of inter-connectivity amongst various elements of the degree program. The program structure and the associated synergistic benefits referred to earlier were not clearly articulated by students but could be regarded as implicit given comments that demonstrated an appreciation of the theoretical and practical, as well as the inter-connectivity that exists in the program.

An educational program that lacks theoretical and academic rigor, as well as the inclusion of subjects in the liberal/critical domain may clearly be regarded as inappropriate for degree level study. At the same time, industries such as the events industry demand a focus on practical, vocational, hands on skills. Incorporating both perspectives would appear to be essential and the potential synergies have been highlighted in this study. Further research is required to clearly establish the optimum mix of subjects, as well as strategies to facilitate achievement of the potential synergistic benefits such that theory informs practice and practice provides a context that allows for a richer and more informed understanding of relevant theory.

References

- Airey, D. (2016). Tourism education: Past, present and future. *Turističko Poslovanje*, 2016(17), 9–12. <https://doi.org/10.5937/TurPos1617009A>.
- Barron, P. E., & Ali-Knight, J. (2017). Aspirations and progression of event management graduates: A study of career development. *Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Management*, 30, 29–38. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jhtm.2017.01.005>.
- Barron, P. E., & Leask, A. (2011). Event management education. In S. Page & J. Connell (Eds.), *Routledge handbook of events* (pp. 473–488). Hoboken: Taylor and Francis.
- Belhassen, Y., & Caton, K. (2011). On the need for critical pedagogy in tourism education. *Tourism Management*, 32(6), 1389–1396.
- Bladen, C., & Kennell, J. (2014). Educating the 21st century event management graduate: Pedagogy, practice, professionalism, and professionalization. *Event Management*, 18(1), 5–14. <https://doi.org/10.3727/152599514x13883555341724>.
- Botterill, D. (2000). Social scientific ways of knowing hospitality. In *Search of Hospitality: Theoretical perspectives and debates* (pp. 177–197). <https://doi.org/10.1016/b978-0-7506-5431-9.50014-7>.
- Brew, A. (2010). Imperatives and challenges in integrating teaching and research. *Higher Education Research and Development*, 29(2), 139–150.
- Creswell, J. W. (2009). *Research design: Qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods approaches*. Thousand Oaks: Sage Publications.
- Dredge, D., Benckendorff, P., Day, M., Gross, M. J., Walo, M., Weeks, P., et al. (2012). The philosophic practitioner and the curriculum space. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 39(4), 2154–2176.
- Getz, D. (2002). Event studies and event management: on becoming an academic discipline. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Management*, 9(1), 12–23.
- Getz, D. (2008). Event tourism: Definition, evolution, and research. *Tourism Management*, 29(3), 403–428.
- Getz, D., & Page, S. J. (2016). Progress in tourism management: Progress and prospects for event tourism research. *Tourism Management*, 52, 593–631. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2015.03.007>.
- Gross, M. J., & Manoharan, A. (2014). An exploratory study of hospitality graduates' perceptions of liberal and vocational balance in higher education. *CAUTHE 2014: Tourism and Hospitality in the Contemporary World: Trends, Changes and Complexity*, p. 247.
- Gross, M. J., & Manoharan, A. (2016). The balance of liberal and vocational values in hospitality higher education: Voices of graduates. *Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Education*, 28(1), 44–57. <https://doi.org/10.1080/10963758.2015.1127165>.
- Gross, M. J., Benckendorff, P., Mair, J., & Whitelaw, P. A. (2017). Hospitality higher education quality: Establishing standards in Australia. *Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Management*, 30, 4–14. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jhtm.2017.01.007>.
- Jiang, J., & Wood Schmader, S. (2014). Event management education and professionalism: The view from the trenches. *Event Management*, 18(1), 25–37. <https://doi.org/10.3727/152599514x13883555341814>.
- Junek, O., Lockstone, L., & Mair, J. (2009). Two perspectives on event management employment: Student and employer insights into the skills required to get the job done! *Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Management*, 16(1), 120–129. <https://doi.org/10.1375/jhtm.16.1.12.0>.
- Kashef, T. E. (2015). What is the value of event management education? The views of six industry practitioners. *Event Management*, 19(1), 1–13. <https://doi.org/10.3727/152599515x14229071392828>.

- Kervin, L., Vialle, W., Howard, S. J., Herrington, J., & Okely, T. (2016). *Research for educators*. South Melbourne: Cengage Learning.
- Lashley, C. (2004). *Escaping the tyranny of relevance: Some reflections on hospitality management education*. Brisbane: Common Ground Publishing.
- Lashley, C. (2006). Beyond navel gazing: Hospitality as a social lens. [online]. In P. A. Whitelaw & G. Barry O'Mahony (Eds.), *CAUTHE 2006: To the City and Beyond*. (pp. 453–465). Footscray: Victoria University School of Hospitality, Tourism and Marketing.
- Lashley, C. (2008). Studying hospitality: Insights from social sciences. *Scandinavian Journal of Hospitality and Tourism*, 8(1), 69–84.
- Lashley, C. (2009). The right answers to the wrong questions? Observations on skill development and training in the United Kingdom's hospitality sector. *Tourism and Hospitality Research*, 9(4), 340.
- Lashley, C. (2015). Hospitality and hospitableness. *Research in Hospitality Management*, 5(1), 1.
- Lee, K. M., Lee, M. J., & Kim, H. J. (2009). A comparison of student and industry perceptions of the event management curriculum in Korea. *Journal of Hospitality, Leisure, Sport & Tourism Education*, 8(2), 60–73.
- Lugosi, P., & Jameson, S. (2017). Challenges in hospitality management education: Perspectives from the United Kingdom. *Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Management*, 31163. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jhtm.2016.12.001>.
- Lugosi, P., Lynch, P., & Morrison, A. (2009). Critical hospitality management research. *Service Industries Journal*, 29(10), 1465–1478. <https://doi.org/10.1080/02642060903038879>.
- Mair, J. (2011). Events and climate change: an Australian perspective. *International Journal of Event and Festival Management*, 3, 245. <https://doi.org/10.1108/17582951111170308>.
- Marginson, S. (2007). *Prospects of higher education: Globalisation, market competition, public goods and the future of the university*. Rotterdam: Sense Publishers.
- Merkel, U. (2014). *Power, politics and international events: Socio-cultural analyses of festivals and spectacles*. New York: Routledge.
- Morrison, A. J., & O'Mahony, B. (2003). The liberation of hospitality management education. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 15(1), 38–44. <https://doi.org/10.1108/09596110310458972>.
- Morrison, A.J., & O'Gorman, K.D. (2006). Hospitality Studies: Liberating the Power of the Mind [online]. In: P. A. Whitelaw & G. Barry O'Mahony (Eds.). *CAUTHE 2006: To the city and beyond*. (pp. 453–465). Footscray: Victoria University School of Hospitality, Tourism and Marketing.
- Morrison, A. J., & O'Gorman, K. D. (2008). Hospitality studies and hospitality management: A symbiotic relationship. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 27(2), 214–221. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijhm.2007.07.028>.
- Nelson, K. B., & Silvers, J. R. (2009). Event management curriculum development and positioning: A path toward professionalization. *Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Education*, 21(2), 31.
- Rata, E. (2012). The politics of knowledge in education. *British Educational Research Journal*, 38(1), 103–124. <https://doi.org/10.1080/01411926.2011.615388>.
- Robertson, M., Junek, O., & Lockstone-Binney, L. (2012). Is this for real? Authentic learning for the challenging events environment. *Journal of Teaching in Travel & Tourism*, 12(3), 225. <https://doi.org/10.1080/15313220.2012.704245>.
- Robinson, R., Barron, P., & Solnet, D. (2008). Innovative approaches to event management education in career development: A study of student experiences. *Journal of Hospitality, Leisure, Sport & Tourism Education*, 7(1), 4–17. <https://doi.org/10.3794/johlste.71.170>.
- Ryan, W. G. (2016). How do you “do” event management education (EME)? A case study of event management higher education awards. *Event Management*, 20(1), 69–80. <https://doi.org/10.3727/152599516x14538326025116>.
- Silvers, J. R., Bowdin, G. J., O'Toole, W. J., & Nelson, K. B. (2006). Towards an international event management body of knowledge (EMBOK). *Event Management*, 9(4), 185.
- Slattery, P. (2002). Finding the hospitality industry. *Journal of Hospitality, Leisure, Sport & Tourism Education*, 1(1), 19–28.
- Tribe, J. (2002). Research trends and imperatives in tourism education. *Acta Turistica*, 1, 61.

Wheelahan, L. (2007). *Beyond the Contextual: The importance of theoretical knowledge in vocational qualifications and the implications for work*. Glasgow: Centre for Research in Lifelong Learning (CRL).

Wrathall, J., & Gee, A. (2011). *Event management theory and practice*. Sydney: McGraw-Hill.

Chapter 11

Mobility as the Teacher: Experience Based Learning



John O'Donnell and Laurin Fortune

Abstract Experiential based learning is a pedagogical approach that encourages student directed learning. Practices such as short study tours abroad, project-based learning and competition-based learning have been linked to increased global perspectives, greater connectedness and the development of problem solving and critical thinking. The narratives presented in this chapter are based around two different study tours, the first to an international student competition and the second to engage in sustainable tourism in New Zealand. The focus of the research is the design and conducting of the tours and to address issues arising, suggesting various approaches for successful study tours.

Keywords Problem-based learning · Competition-based learning · Study tours Sustainability

Introduction

Digital devices can now bring the world into the classroom, offering rewarding educational opportunities which enable students of tourism to safely engage in the world around them. Does this passive observation from the safety of our institutions act to sanitise and discourage the development of critical discourse and theorizing? In a risk-averse modern culture, we see a world curated by algorithms, discouraging us from touching, feeling, engaging and importantly questioning. Increasingly teachers are looking for ways to make it real, give meaning and imperative to drive the development of critical, and informed future industry professionals. No longer is the teacher the font of all knowledge. Rather they have a greater role as a conduit connecting students to new ideas, encouraging them to question and respond to ambiguous realities, and to develop the thirst to become lifelong learners.

J. O'Donnell (✉) · L. Fortune
William Angliss Institute, Melbourne, Australia
e-mail: John.O'Donnell@angliss.edu.au

© Springer Nature Singapore Pte Ltd. 2019
S. Beeton and A. Morrison (eds.), *The Study of Food, Tourism, Hospitality, and Events*,
Tourism, Hospitality & Event Management,
https://doi.org/10.1007/978-981-13-0638-9_11

This chapter provides some pedagogical insights into how this process may be managed. Key concepts are explored within the context of the global tourism industry, alongside experiential learning as manifested in Student Study Tours Abroad (SSTA) as a means to engage in civil society. Specific examples of how the power of experience-based learning (EBL) to engage students in the world outside the classroom are provided in the form of two case studies focused on SSTAs. The first case reflects on how one academic and five diverse students stepped beyond the safety of the classroom to lead the way to become the first faculty team, and first Australian team, to engage in a global competition held in New York City. The second investigates intended and unintended outcomes of a SSTA in exploring sustainable tourism in New Zealand. They offer a window into the challenges and rewards that pedagogical innovation can provide in both vocational and professional education.

Literature Review

The context for student learning discussed within this chapter is that of the global tourism industry. Tourism, as an economic sector, is a broad area encompassing food services, travel agents and tour operators, accommodation providers, arts and recreation, and air and water transportation. It is of significant importance within national economies. It was noted in the 2015–16 Tourism satellite accounts that it is one of five super growth sectors within the Australian economy (Tourism Research Australia 2016). Thus, developing students' global perspectives has an important function in preparing them for diverse future roles in this economically vibrant sector (Lunn 2008). Furthermore, critical thinking, problem solving, collaboration and communication have been identified as focal skills for the future (Social Research Centre Pty Ltd 2016).

Traditional didactic teaching methods have been criticised for encouraging passive learners without the skills required to resolve the complex real-world issues of today's workplace (Hong 1998). An alternative approach is that of constructivism. It is a paradigm that proposes that the learner constructs knowledge by in binding new experiences to their own unique prior knowledge. It is argued that learners will only understand if they can apply their own experiences in authentic contexts Biggs (2014), and is founded on the research of behavioural psychologists, for example Vygotsky, Dewey, Piaget and Lewin who studied how learning occurred (Fosnot and Perry 1996). Kolb's (1984) Experiential-Based Learning (EBL) theory draws on these early researchers' work to challenge traditional theory that learners are blank canvases to be filled with knowledge. Rather it is a process where knowledge is gained by grasping meaning from the learners' own experiences and observations. EBL theory fits well within the domain of constructivist theories supporting active authentic learning to provide the opportunities to gain knowledge from experience. However, critics have questioned learner's ability to self-direct the knowledge gathering, and that some information must be explicitly taught, it cannot come from experience alone

(Kirschner et al. 2006). Further, they highlighted that this is a theory of learning rather than teaching (Schenck and Cruickshank 2015).

Brookfield (2009) adds that critical theorising is not something that happens solely within the confines of educational institutions. EBL practices encourage immersion outside the classroom as “Experiential learning sends students out of the classroom into a world that is complex and interconnected, challenging their prevailing world view and their ability to take responsibility for their own learning” (Montrose 2002: 2). Furthermore Fuller, Edmondson, France, Higgitt and Ratinen (Arcodia and Dickson 2013: 147), propose that ‘students perceive field work as beneficial to their learning because they experience realities of their field, acquire deeper knowledge about course concepts, develop technical skills and interact with lecturers and peers’. High impact EBL activities focus on collaborative endeavours, research projects, and global learning (Kuh 2008). Kuh (2008) goes on to link them to increased retention, connectedness and engagement. Thus, with EBL the learner is directly in touch with the realities being studied, it provides opportunities to appreciate alternative perspectives, and encourage personal connectedness.

An EBL practice is that of Project Based Learning (PBL) that has of focus on learner centred enquiry (Savery and Duffy 1995). The key characteristics of a well-structured PBL include a central driving question which teams autonomously investigate using authentic real-world data (Thomas 2000) Competition Based Learning (CBL) differs from PBL as it concludes with participation in a competition. Notably, students’ results from the competition does not influence the students grade for the subject (Burguillo 2010). Implementing a successful PBL approach however is not without challenges including: providing supportive environments and assisting teachers in implementing and managing these (Blumenfeld et al. 1991).

It is proposed that Short Study Tours Abroad (SSTA) are derived from EBL and PBL. They are defined field trips of a short duration, several days to a few weeks, focused on research and learning in unfamiliar locations (Engle and Engle 2003). Recent evaluation of SSTAs indicate that this form of learning activity offers immersion in experiential learning to complement theory learnt in the classroom (Miao 2006). A tourism focused SSTA offers unique and often affordable opportunity for participants to engage in significant tourism issues (Arcodia and Dickson 2013) Earlier studies by Stear and Small (1994) support the benefits of study tours to offer opportunities to deliver self-directed reflection and increased inquiry. Williams and Best (2011) considered that they worked to increase student’s internationalisations increasing cross cultural viewpoints. While Harris and Lagos (2015) reported that the shared experiences of an SSTA increased friendships and connections. According to Ryan and Twibell (2000) the integration of travel into education encourages transformations of participants, increasing international awareness, empathy and growth. Jefferies and Nguyen (2014) present that engaging in new and novel experiences encourages participants to reflect and question what they feel that they know.

However, detractors question their value to deliver deep cultural exchanges. The short duration is considered ineffective for developing depth of learning as reported by (Coker et al. 2017). However, the findings of their study did report increased development of soft skills that are considered desirable by employers, such as communi-

cation, collaboration, civil engagement, and develop critical theorising. Participants have the opportunity to develop firsthand experience of significant tourism issues. Insights delivered by providing memorable experiences provide the foundation for reflection and critical reasoning (Stone and Duffy 2015). This can assist participants to develop unique perspectives, appreciating diversity, ambiguity and challenging beliefs. According to Porth (1997) engagement in civil society is not a text book, things do not always go according to plan and can cause frustration. However, it does enable participants to adapt and develop a range of problem solving skills techniques. Porth goes on to recommend a three-phase structure: pre-tour preparation, during tour program and post tour debriefing to close the learning loop. Finally, though SSTA offer rewarding travel experiences Johnson and Mader (1992) identify that the planning and coordination involved, the frustrations of travel and the risks make them a challenging addition to the program.

Case Study 1. Mobility as the Teacher: Participation in Global Student Competitions

It can be argued that entering global student competitions offers both the teacher and the student participant a range of immersive experiences that test and challenge them to improve. This case study reflects on the first team of five Australian students to enter a global competition; the STR Student Market Study Competition (SMSC) held in November 2016 in New York City (NYC). It involved six weeks of research and then travel to NYC to present at the HX Hotel Experience Show. As the team members were all participants in the Revenue Management (RM) subject of the undergraduate program the question was how to structure the special program to deliver a rewarding and curriculum compliant competition team. By combining PBL, CBL and a SSTA it was hoped that the team would be motivated to deliver a submission that would represent their institution on the global stage. The PBL approach was utilised to motivate and engage the group with the real-world data which informed the team's submission; a study of the Melbourne Hotel Market. It acted to develop student communication, problem solving and data analysis skills.

The CBL, which involved presenting to global student peers, and RM practitioners further enhanced the focus on effective presentation and communication of data, problem solving and analysis. As the competition was to be held in NYC a five-day SSTA was also a feature of the alternative RM program. This enabled the participants to develop industry insight about global hotel markets. To maximise the learning opportunities a three-phase model was applied to semester's alternative program which featured pre-tour research, during tour study program and formal and informal feedback post tour to close the loop. This narrative explores how taking a chance and wrestling with novel approaches can open a door to a whole new world.

For the six weeks of research conducted in the preparation phase a PBL model was utilized. This offered the participants a rich and rewarding learning experience

which encouraged active participation and created a sustainable team. It promotes ownership of the outcome, to identify gaps and weakness and encourages participants to develop strategies to rectify problems. The research drove the team to explore fundamental RM metrics, strategies and build market insight. The team needed to transform their discoveries into a presentation and in the process, build their knowledge of the discipline. As they were competing in public there was a heightened focus on realism, communication and effective data analysis. To support the pre-tour/research phase a number of activities and process were incorporated to enable teams' successful execution. They included the use of technology to facilitate team communication, the use of an industry mentor to make the learning authentic, and opportunities to rehearse in front of faculty and peers.

According to Blumenfeld et al. (1991) technology offers an efficient and effective way to support the inquiry. WAI's LMS was effective for centralizing knowledge, maintaining communication, project planning and connectivity. It however failed to support student authoring and curation of the project. The team faced institutional barriers in securing student designer access which limited its role for knowledge management. Thus the collaborative wiki spaces provided as part of the LMS were not embraced by the participants. Instead they adopted google docs which offered ease of sharing and collaborative authoring of project.

To facilitate both an authentic and motivating experience a two-hour site visit and meeting was held at a leading independent Melbourne Hotel with the CEO and Revenue Manager. Unique and divergent insights in relation to the local market were discussed with the team. The small group environment encouraged the students to feel like industry peers. The project was real and meaningful validating the importance of the data under investigation. This unique experience, emphasized the achievement and responsibility that team membership provided.

The CBL aspect of the program involved a public presentation of the findings to global student peers and a panel of industry judges. This was a confronting challenge for the inexperienced team. In order to prepare they presented two lectures, the first to faculty part way into their research journey. The second was to their RM student peers. These were important to clarify the project content and identify gaps and areas for improvement. EBL practices, such as PBL, encourage participants to engage in critical reflection. Feedback provided by peers and faculty encouraged the team to reassess the clarity and depth of their findings. In addition, it encouraged others to recognize the commitment of the team, further motivating the participants. To assist in alleviating anxiety final grades for the subject were not awarded dependent on the team's success at the competition.

Successful Revenue Managers combine historical evidence and critical insight to deliver, a tactically and strategically priced, value proposition to meet the willingness to pay of a segmented market. Kimes (1989) defines this as delivering the right product, to the right person, at the right time, for the right price. The SSTA program offered the participants a range of immersive tours and activities which focused on developing market insight, encouraging the participants to compare and contrast the NYC Hotel market to Melbourne. The itinerary focused on the following core themes:

- Engage like a local.
- Experience iconic markers that define market.
- Enjoy cultural events.
- Eat like a local.
- Envision the market from alternative perspectives.
- Evaluate the market using authentic local Revenue Managers insights.

It provided an authentic real-world classroom that value added the participants CBL activity.

One of the challenges of a SSTA is that costs may exclude participants from joining the program. The visa process was time consuming, complex and costly for International students adding to the financial burden of the program. Planning, leading and coordinating SSTA's require the faculty involved to develop capabilities that exceed the normal remit of classroom teaching and learning. Diving into SSTA, however, offers rewarding cultural and developmental experiences for those involved.

The formal post tour component of the program consisted of reflective essay reporting on their individual learning outcomes from the program. As a team, we developed a deep and connected bond not only between ourselves but a closer connection to our faculty as evidenced by team members volunteering their time to speak at orientation programs, and to act as mentors for future participants. These are the rich unintended rewards that being part of global competition and associated study tour provides.

The PBL acted to retain and sustain the team. Technology supported knowledge management and communication. Industry mentors empowered and inspired participants. Faculty and peers provided critical feedback to develop and grow the team. The SSTA provided authentic market insights, global perspectives and capability development. The CBL aspect of the program provided an opportunity for reward and recognition. Continuing involvement in activities such as the STR SMSC would be a valuable addition to RM programs. I sit in the Directors Office, it's time to decide will we enter another team for 2017? I smile, there pride of place on the bookshelf it sits the "honorable mention" for the second place in undergraduate non-finalist division. Hell, yeah, I am up for another fortunate adventure!

Case Study 2. Students Experiencing Sustainable Tourism

Ten Diploma of Tourism students from the Vocational educational and training (VET) course were selected for a short study tour abroad in New Zealand (October 2016) to experience world best practice in sustainable tourism. The World Tourism Organization defines sustainable tourism as "Tourism that takes full account of its current and future economic, social and environmental impacts, addressing the needs of visitors, the industry, the environment and host communities" (UNEP and UNWTO 2005: 12).

The Tourism Department recently evaluated this SSTA and found the outcomes were two-fold. The learnings had intended and unintended outcomes for the student participants. The intended ones related to identifying practice in sustainable tourism, and how tourism businesses policies potentially influence the sustainable principles. The unintended were identified to be in the areas of cultural awareness, personal development growth, teamwork and global citizenry skills. It was also noted that the participants evolved at different levels.

Prior to the trip, the students had completed subject unit's such as: "Implement and monitor environmentally sustainable work practices" and were studying a unit titled: "Develop workplace policy and procedures for sustainability". As a part of their assessment for the second unit the students were allocated a New Zealand tourism business to develop workplace policy for sustainability. This offered the opportunity to immerse in EBL from their SSTA.

New Zealand was chosen as the destination for the rich opportunities to engage and observe examples of best practice in sustainable tourism and as a quality EBL environment. This is supported by Cusick (2009: 805) "New Zealand is distinguished by diverse marine and terrestrial ecosystems found in close proximity to one another, and the relative ease of access to these ecosystems and to topographic features that highlight natural processes and human use of coastal and land resources".

The WAI New Zealand Sustainable Tour encompassed over 2000 km of travel. It commenced in Wellington in the North Island of New Zealand. On the first day the students were introduced to Maori culture and perspectives. This was hosted by an indigenous guide at the Te Papa museum. At night the city culture was explored through hip pop culture of bars and cafes in the streets of Wellington. The first immersion in the social and cultural aspects of sustainability had occurred. The next day they embarked on the Inter-islander ferry and discovered the delight of the picturesque Queen Charlotte sound.

Some of the key features of the twelve-day tour included staying in backpacker and lodge style accommodation. The students prepared and cooked meals of local food, shared kitchens and food with local and international travellers. They tramped pristine rainforest and mountain paths of the Able Tasman and Mt Cook National Parks and learnt the importance of creating a low impact on the environment as tourists and helping each other to achieve 15–20 kms of walking.

A key highlight of the SSTA for the students was the visit to the Green Globe accredited Kaikoura sustainable village community of 4000 people, which is "the first community in New Zealand and the second in the world to achieve the global tourism certification standard" (Cusick 2009). It had achieved a zero-waste policy and extended the life of the landfill by twenty years by innovative waste solutions including composting, recycling of all materials through waste recycling plant that the student visited.

The students were able to identify the social, environmental and economic benefits to the Kaikoura community. They swam with pods of Dolphins in the icy waters in the Pacific Ocean in Kaikoura. After they had the opportunity to meet with the founding owner of tourism business "Encounter Kaikoura (EK)," owner Lynette Brugman. They identified with the triple bottom line policies of the successful Dolphin and

Whale Watch company and learnt that the business employed 150 local people, created jobs for other supply businesses within the township. (EK) funded the innovative waste centre and supported a Trees for Travellers tree planting program that offset carbon emissions by the planting of two million trees by local youth. They had large educational component to the dolphin and whale tours and minimized impacts on marine life.

As a result of their hands-on EBL the students were able to apply some critical questions and observations, such as, noticing the number of boats in the vicinity of the dolphin pods, and the resultant emissions caused by diesel buses ferrying passengers from the café to the boat terminal. At (EK) they observed the attempt to recycle waste paper, plastic, glass bottles with clearly marked bins in and outside the café and shops. Students noted that a lot of the souvenirs in the shop attached to the (EK) café were made in China, and also found clothing that was made in New Zealand. Also, they noted no evidence of electricity generation from alternative energy sources such as solar or wind turbines, and no efforts to recycle water. All this provided good opportunity for one student to make suggestions for greater sustainability for (EK) in the proposed policy for their assessment to be submitted post tours.

Students also visited a range of sustainable wine tourism businesses. They sampled organic and biodynamic wines from three vineyards in Marlborough all part of the MANA (Marlborough natural winegrowers). They experienced behind the scenes tours, received lectures by the winemakers and gathered insights into environmentally friendly viticulture.

Later in the trip, they met rangers at Otago Peninsula Albatross Centre and experienced low impact tourism. Students had an up-close experience with the baby fur seals with Natures Wonders Eco Tour, and viewed the shy and rare Yellow Eyed Penguin. In Te Anau the students travelled across the second largest lake in NZ by high speed ferry to the glow worm caves. Visitor tour groups were restricted in numbers, common practice by operators to limit mass tourism and preserve the natural attractions.

They rafted, bungee jumped, and canyon swam in and through freezing waters of Queenstown that had been hit by October snow. They enjoyed dining out on local food powered by one hundred per cent renewable energy of hydro, geothermal, wind and solar energies.

Following the SSTA, it was important to gain feedback on the outcomes from this extensive EBL opportunity. Thus, post tour students were surveyed online. Four students responded anonymously to eight open questions. They were asked to comment and respond to the following: awareness of sustainability, employability skills and their personal development. In general, the survey revealed that the Intended outcomes from the experiential learning from the SSTA gave students context and concrete experiences in sustainable tourism and the ability to develop sustainable policy.

Responses are summarised as follows:

(a) Awareness of sustainability: reinforced the invaluable experiential learning of the SSTA where they were able to physically apply sustainable theory from the classroom to real life experiences. In Kaikoura one student observed *“I really enjoyed visiting the recycling plant in Kaikoura. They used the triple bottom line to recycle almost everything and involve the community to find incredible ways to repurpose it”*. Another student enjoyed participating in a range of sustainable eco tours. *“Being able to participate in tours and talk to business owners further helped me gain insight into sustainable tourism”*.

Furthermore, the critical thinking resulting from their exposure to a range of sustainable tourism was evident by the following comment from a respondent *“NZ is perfect for eco-tourism. I think the slogan “100% pure” perfectly sums it up. If managed correctly, eco-tourism will benefit NZs economic bottom line without harming the environment and community for a long time to come”*.

(b) Employability Skills: one student identified new knowledge resulting from the SSTA *“I think that having first-hand knowledge of a destination is invaluable in the tourism industry. The trip gave me an increased understanding of how NZ places itself as a tourism destination and gave me confidence to tell any potential employers that I am a “kiwi expert”*

(c) Personal Development Skills: aspects highlighted with were greater self-confidence, team work, communicating with business owners and doing activities outside their comfort zone. For example, *“Being pushed to do things that I wouldn’t do on my own. For example, swimming with dolphins.”*

The unintended outcomes from the SSTA for students were related to personal development. Each student had the responsibility of an allocated day to research the history, Maori culture, sustainable highlights of the day and be responsible for thanking the hosts of the day, loading bags on the bus, organize food and meals including shopping within the budget allocated. The survey responses and my observations confirm the students were learning responsibility, teamwork, leadership and how to operate in some non-familiar surroundings where they were challenged to come up with solutions. For three members of the tour it was their first time overseas. Each student had to make decisions on what meals to prepare, cleaning up duties, allocation of rooms and people to share with. Numerous interactions were complicated by cultural and interpersonal misunderstandings. At times individual’s competitiveness, differences of opinion and lack of consideration of the group caused tension. This also resulted in impromptu learning through working the resolution of these problems and by reflecting on behaviours and having to become more considerate individuals and group members. New Zealand provided highly relevant examples of sustainable tourism and provided our tourism students with an enhanced opportunity for awareness of sustainability. Potentially this will influence and strengthen their employability skills and their future directions as leaders in the tourism industry and create responsible global citizens.

Conclusion

The importance of the EBL resulting from SSTA in the two case studies presented cannot be under estimated in facilitating the opportunity for students to have business and community engagement in the global experiences. This immersion outside the classroom has resulted in connecting students to new ideas, critical thinking, problem solving, collaboration and communication. Knowledge is gained by grasping meaning from the learners' own experiences and observation. What we need is a more guided approach to extract meaning from these experiences of the SSTA. These SSTA need the structure of pre, during, and post phases of the tours to allow adequate preparation, learning's, reflections and critical thinking on the EBL or the SSTA could be construed by some as a "junket".

In each of the phases it is proposed that strong connections and clear objectives with course content are established. For example:

- (a) Pre-phase have group meetings outlining all SSTA expectations and research required in preparation;
- (b) During phase having students prepare reflective journals, visual diaries and required assessments.
- (c) Post-phase have student interviews and surveys to formalise feedback. Presentations to students not attending SSTA by participants of tours. Also, prompt feedback by the teacher on assessment completed in connection to SSTA.

In considering challenges of SSTA for students three issues can be identified:

It is intense learning in an uncontrolled environment, and does not suit the learning styles of all students from different cultural backgrounds. Secondly, some individuals participating in SSTAs are not group orientated and can cause tension amongst the participants. Finally, in the current climate of soaring educational expenses, financially only the students who can afford to participate are able to attend. Therefore, we may not be socio-economically inclusive across all classes. Institutions could look at industry sponsorship for disadvantaged students to enable them to attend future SSTAs.

For the teachers facilitating the SSTA during a semester the key challenges is in the enormous workload it creates pre, during and post tour. Significant levels of energy are required in organising itinerary, contacts for guest speakers and the range of educational based tour experiences required in the host country. During the tour the teachers are responsible twenty-four hours a day for the touring students, and all the logistical components of the tour. The time post tour required by teachers to catch up on the workload that accumulates is onerous. While one is away the preparation and post tour follow up of student classes not touring requires flexible curriculum arrangements and set work to complete.

The post tour follow-up with the touring students can be neglected or rushed as a result of this workload. Solutions to this could be facilitating relief teaching support or time release for a SSTA coordinator within institutions.

In both case studies the connections of the learning from the experience of SSTA with the curriculum for Higher Education and Vocational Education students were

very strong and have been observed as a course highlight. Overall, SSTA result in EBL giving personal growth, greater awareness of the world, and direction in their future employment.

References

- Arcodia, C., & Dickson, C. (2013). Tourism field studies: Experiencing the Carnival of Venice. *Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Education, 25*(3), 146–155. <https://doi.org/10.1080/10963758.2013.826985>.
- Biggs, J. (2014). Constructive alignment in university teaching. *HERDSA Review of Higher Education, 1*(5), 5–22.
- Blumenfeld, P. C., Soloway, E., Marx, R. W., Krajcik, J. S., Guzdial, M., & Palincsar, A. (1991). Motivating project-based learning: Sustaining the doing, supporting the learning. *Educational Psychologist, 26*(3–4), 369–398.
- Brookfield, S. (2009). The concept of critical reflection: Promises and contradictions. *European Journal of Social Work, 12*(3), 293–304.
- Burguillo, J. C. (2010). Using game theory and competition-based learning to stimulate student motivation and performance. *Computers & Education, 55*(2), 566–575.
- Coker, J. S., Heiser, E., Taylor, L., & Book, C. (2017). Impacts of experiential learning depth and breadth on student outcomes. *Journal of Experiential Education, 40*(1), 5–23. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1053825916678265>.
- Cusick, J. (2009). Study abroad in support of education for sustainability: A New Zealand case study. *Environment, Development and Sustainability, 11*(4), 801–813.
- Engle, L., & Engle, J. (2003). Study abroad levels: Toward a classification of program types. *Frontiers: The Interdisciplinary Journal of Study Abroad, 9*(1), 1–20.
- Fosnot, C. T., & Perry, R. S. (1996). Constructivism: A psychological theory of learning. *Constructivism: Theory, perspectives, and practice, 2*, 8–33.
- Harris, A., & Lagos, E. (2015). Forging friendships on a study tour abroad. *CAUTHE 2015: Rising Tides and Sea Changes: Adaptation and Innovation in Tourism and Hospitality, 500*.
- Hong, N. S. (1998). *The Relationship Between Well-Structured and Ill-Structured Problem Solving in Multimedia Simulation*. Pennsylvania State University.
- Jefferies, J., & Nguyen, A.-M. (2014). Impromptu learning: Unplanned occurrences, intended outcomes. *International Journal of Teaching and Learning in Higher Education, 26*(2), 182–192.
- Johnson, D. M., & Mader, D. D. (1992). Internationalizing your marketing course: The foreign study tour alternative. *Journal of Marketing Education, 14*(2), 26–33.
- Kimes, S. E. (1989). The basics of yield management. *The Cornell Hotel and Restaurant Administration Quarterly, 30*(3), 14–19.
- Kirschner, P. A., Sweller, J., & Clark, R. E. (2006). Why minimal guidance during instruction does not work: An analysis of the failure of constructivist, discovery, problem-based, experiential, and inquiry-based teaching. *Educational Psychologist, 41*(2), 75–86.
- Kuh, G. (2008). *High impact educational practices: What they are, who has access to them, and why they matter*. Association of American Colleges and Universities, Washington DC.
- Lunn, J. (2008). Global perspectives in higher education: Taking the agenda forward in the United Kingdom. *Journal of Studies in International Education, 12*(3), 231–254.
- Miao, S. Y. (2006). Experiencing English and cultural learning during study tours. *Australian Journal of Adult Learning, 46*(3), 419.
- Montrose, L. (2002). International study and experiential learning: The academic context. *Frontiers: The Interdisciplinary Journal of Study Abroad, 8*(2), 1–15.
- Porth, S. J. (1997). Management education goes international: A model for designing and teaching a study tour course. *Journal of Management Education, 21*(2), 9.

- Ryan, M. E., & Twibell, R. S. (2000). Concerns, values, stress, coping, health and educational outcomes of college students who studied abroad. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations*, 24(4), 409–435.
- Savery, J. R., & Duffy, T. M. (1995). Problem based learning: An instructional model and its constructivist framework. *Educational Technology*, 35(5), 31–38.
- Schenck, J., & Cruickshank, J. (2015). Evolving Kolb: Experiential education in the age of neuroscience. *Journal of Experiential Education*, 38(1), 73–95.
- Social Research Centre Pty Ltd. (2016). *QILT 2016 ESS National Report*. https://www.qilt.edu.au/docs/default-source/gos-reports/2017/ess-2016-national-report-final.pdf?sfvrsn=f0e0e33c_6. Accessed 18 Aug 2017.
- Stear, L., & Small, J. (1994). *Experiential learning in tourism management education: A field study tour to Bali, Indonesia*. Paper presented at the CAUTHE 1994: Tourism Research and Education in Australia: Proceeding of the Australian National Tourism Research and Education Conferences, 1994.
- Stone, G. A., & Duffy, L. N. (2015). Transformative learning theory: A systematic review of travel and tourism scholarship. *Journal of Teaching in Travel & Tourism*, 15(3), 204–224. (2015). <https://doi.org/10.1080/15313220.2015.1059305>.
- Thomas, J. W. (2000). *A Review of research on project-based learning*. Buck Institute for Education www.bie.org/images/uploads/general/9d06758fd346969cb63653d00dca55c0.pdf. Accessed on 17 Aug 2017.
- Tourism Research Australia. (2016). *Tourism satellite account 2015–16: Summary of key results tourism research Australia*, https://www.tra.gov.au/ArticleDocuments/185/Tourism_Satellite_Account_2015-16.pdf. Accessed 17 August 2017.
- UNEP & UNWTO. (2005), *Making tourism sustainable: A guide for policy makers*. <http://www.unep.fr/shared/publications/pdf/dtix0592xpa-tourismpolicyen.pdf>. Accessed 31 Aug 2017.
- Williams, K., & Best, G. (2011). *Short study tours abroad: Gaining a cross cultural viewpoint*. Paper presented at the CAUTHE 2011: National Conference: Tourism: Creating a Brilliant Blend.

Chapter 12

Student Learning and Employability: Immersion in Live Events



Garth Lategan and Melanie Williams

Abstract This chapter presents a case study describing a particular approach to providing immersive experiential learning opportunities to students studying a vocational education and training (VET) course in event management. It addresses a gap in the academic literature on this topic, which focuses on experiential learning in higher education courses. The case study is critically analysed in light of the higher education literature in order to highlight the differences and similarities in approach in the two sectors. The analysis reveals that the VET model, perhaps counter-intuitively, provides students with significantly greater access to management experience. It also addresses the gap in understanding reported in the literature between industry and learner needs through integrating the role of teacher and industry mentor. However, the analysis also reveals that the model is not free of risk and would benefit from greater input from pedagogical theory, particularly around the critical role of reflection in making sense of practical learning.

Keywords Employability · Employability skills · Experiential learning
Reflective practice

Introduction and Approach

The involvement of students in organising real-world events is not new in event management education and training. For instance, Moscardo and Norris (2004) report on a class of students who planned, marketed, managed and evaluated a real event and cite earlier examples in their paper. Providing experiential learning opportunities in event management courses that involve some kind of industry placement is seen as critical to graduates' gaining employment because many employers value experience in the industry (Helyer and Lee 2014; Junek et al. 2009; El Kashef 2015; Lockstone et al. 2008; Mair et al. 2009; Trought 2012). These experiential learning opportunities

G. Lategan (✉) · M. Williams
William Angliss Institute, Melbourne, Australia
e-mail: Garth.Lategan@angliss.edu.au

© Springer Nature Singapore Pte Ltd. 2019
S. Beeton and A. Morrison (eds.), *The Study of Food, Tourism, Hospitality, and Events*,
Tourism, Hospitality & Event Management,
https://doi.org/10.1007/978-981-13-0638-9_12

are variously referred to as work-based learning, industry placement, co-operative learning, internships and work integrated learning (WIL) (Helyer and Lee 2014). Although the models denoted by these different terms are not identical, for the purposes of this chapter they are treated synonymously since all involve some kind of authentic experiential learning through involvement in real world events. However, the academic literature focuses on higher education: no research into vocational education and training (VET) students' participation in events was found. This case study addresses this gap and critically discusses the differences and similarities between the experiential learning reported in the literature and that of a VET event management course at WAI. Thus, the literature on experiential learning and employability in event management courses is reviewed in order to provide a basis for comparison.

This is followed by a narrative describing one approach taken in a VET course. The case study is informed by an autoethnographic research approach, using self-reflection and writing to explore how the narrator's personal experience connects and interacts with shaping the educational experience of vocational students of event management. It is written in the first person by one of the authors. Autoethnography enables this author to explore and extend understanding of event management education and training in a way that 'the life of the researcher becomes a conscious part of what is studied' (Ellis 2004) cited in (Mair and Frew 2016: 8).

In the ensuing discussion, the case study is treated as an artefact for critical analysis. It is analysed in light of the literature in order to draw out some of the similarities and differences between the higher education and VET approaches. Conclusions are then drawn about the relative strengths and weaknesses of the model.

Literature Review

John Dewey, arguably the father of experiential education philosophy and theory, '[took] for granted the soundness of the principle that education in order to accomplish its ends both for the individual learner and for society must be based upon experience' (Dewey 1938: 89). He saw experience as a transactional continuum between an individual and their environment, in which every experience modifies the person and these modifications affect the quality of the experiences subsequently undergone. This transactional relationship meant for Dewey, that experience is not solely an internal phenomenon; each experience has an active dimension which changes the external conditions under which the experience takes place.

The lack of accounting for this contextual or social dimension of learning is one of the main criticisms levelled at Kolb's (1984) theory of experiential learning—see for example Elkjaer (2009); Jarvis (2009)—in which he brought together many of Dewey's ideas with those of Kurt Lewin on action research and the cognitive-developmental work of Jean Piaget—amongst others. In Kolb's model experiential learning involves a dialectical process of iterative and recursive cycles of immersion in concrete experience, stepping back and reflecting on the meaning of that experience, assimilating it into patterns by a process of abstract conceptualisation, then

applying that new knowledge through active experimentation. There are two sets of dialectics in the model: one between experience and abstraction and the other between action and reflection.

These theories of experiential learning underpin efforts to bridge the gap between theoretical and practical aspects of learning and provide the pedagogical foundation for experiential learning opportunities in event management education and training; see for example Lamb (2015) and Moscardo and Norris (2004). Indeed, Robertson et al. (2012) similarly emphasise the importance of supporting the development of practical skills and knowledge through sound educational and pedagogical foundations, including reflection in particular. As they point out, 'reflection is what changes a mere experience into one that is a learning experience' (p. 229).

The vital role of reflection on experiential learning is reiterated elsewhere, for example (Lamb 2015; Helyer and Lee 2014), the former of whom cite several other authors in support of the need for reflection to make sense of experiential learning and develop reflective practice. However Robertson et al. (2012), make the point that although much of the literature emphasises the benefits of reflection for student learning, this need may not be appreciated by the industry practitioners providing the work experience. Bladen and Kennell (2014) cited in Lamb (2015) advocate for educators working in partnership with industry to enhance cohesion in achieving the planned outcomes of the course.

The value of providing experiential learning opportunities is well documented. This includes benefits not only for students, but also for staff, the educational institution and industry (Moscardo and Norris 2004; Leslie and Richardson 2000; Busby 2005; Tribe 2002; Walters 2017; Mair et al. 2009). Some of the benefits for students include learning the importance of planning, learning to work as a team, learning from mistakes, and gaining confidence and a sense of achievement (Moscardo and Norris 2004); and gaining communication skills, teamwork, empowerment and again, confidence (Walters 2017).

However, the key benefit for students is seen to be enhancement of graduate employability in a competitive employment market (Lockstone et al. 2008). It should be pointed out that the term 'employability' is used in different ways in the literature. Some authors emphasise the development of what are termed 'employability skills': the skills deemed necessary for graduates to be job-ready, while others focus on employability as a job outcome. For example, Lockstone et al. (2008) summarise the practical skills required for event management graduates to be employable as covering 'a broad range of business, management and marketing skills as well as [...] event specific knowledge' (p. 3). Others separate employability skills into 'hard' discipline-specific and technical knowledge and 'soft' generic and interpersonal skills (Robertson et al. 2012; Whitelaw and Wrathall 2015; Helyer and Lee 2014). For yet others, employability skills appear to refer to job application and presentation skills (Grima 2013). Yorke (2006) cited in (Junek et al. 2009: 121), defines it thus: 'employability is more than just being employed in a job. It is about having the right skills to go through the recruitment process, understand the requirements of the job and being able to perform the job on a continuous basis'.

In the VET literature, the term 'employability skills' has specific currency and has been the subject of ongoing debate in the VET sector. Employability skills are defined by the Australian Chamber of Industry and Commerce and Business Council of Australia (2002) as 'skills required not only to gain employment, but also to progress within an enterprise so as to achieve one's potential and contribute successfully to enterprise strategic directions' cited in Wibrow (2011: 2). They comprise communication, teamwork, problem-solving, initiative and enterprise, planning and organising, self-management, learning and technology. These eight skills are embedded in every VET training package qualification.

However, in the higher education sector 'employability' is all too frequently understood simply as a job outcome in the graduate's chosen occupation (Yorke and Knight 2007). Several authors claim that industry experience is critical to gaining employment or that employers privilege experience in employment selection processes (Helyer and Lee 2014; Junek et al. 2009; El Kashef 2015; Beaven and Wright 2006; Trought 2012). Indeed, in his evaluation of events related courses in the UK, El Kashef (2015) found that in some cases industry practitioners valued the experiential learning component over the qualification itself. However, the sample size in this study was only six.

Industry experience is not only valued by employers: Grima (2013) found that 58% of the 30 graduates in her research considered the practicum to be central in preparing them for work in the industry, while Daruwalla and Fallon (2005) also acknowledged the value that students place on experiential learning. Nor is industry experience the only benefit in experiential learning placements. Students also develop networks which can be of considerable worth in gaining subsequent employment (El Kashef 2015; Mair et al. 2009).

Lockstone et al. (2008) investigated whether WIL placements at one Australian university were commensurate with jobs available in the industry. While they concluded from employment outcomes data that graduates were adequately prepared to work in the industry, they raised concerns that full-time and permanent positions were more likely to be available in the venue, association and corporate sectors which were under represented as locations for WIL placement. They conjectured that the greater focus on festivals and special events (70% of WIL placements occurred in the events sector) may expose graduates to the 'temporal and infrequent nature of events employment' (p. 15), including a high proportion of voluntary roles, and leave them unaware of the full range of career opportunities on offer. Lamb (2015) similarly noted that the types of events in which students engaged for their experiential learning activities were not representative of the event management sector as a whole. Lockstone et al. (2008) also analysed the types of roles into which students had been placed over a three-year period. The position title of Event Assistant accounted for the majority at almost 54%. Other positions ranged across a variety of functions with only 10 out of a total of 250 placements or 4% of students being placed in managerial positions.

The case study below picks up on a number of these themes from the literature via a personal account of one of the authors.

Case Study

Background

I arrived as a qualified teacher through an unorthodox route of running my own event business, seeking out learning opportunities at various life-crisis points. This stacked up in an eclectic mix of accounting, teaching, event management, and even stand-up comedy, skills and qualifications. The learning style that worked best for me was immersion in the practical first, theoretical framework later. Without doubt, my life-long learning experience has a profound effect on my orientation and approach as a teacher. Specifically, I provide the following narrative to give insight as to how student immersion in live events impacted on their learning and employability.

Narrative

When students finished their course in events management at WAI I would connect with them on LinkedIn or Facebook—I would keep in touch with them. Many were having difficulty getting jobs in the events industry. The common theme seemed to be either a lack of confidence within themselves, or lack of experience. I found this frustrating in my first years as a teacher; that the education we provided was not enough for them to get paid work. Why was this happening? This was an unfamiliar paradigm to me. All the people I used to train were in the industry. My own event career started because I wanted to put on a 21st birthday for my friend. I had no event experience. It was something learnt along the way. As my career progressed, anyone who approached me with a certain degree of enthusiasm, I gave them a responsible job role—no résumé or experience required. I always provided mentoring and guidance but believed that there is no better education than self-discovery through experience.

In my first year of teaching at WAI, I had a few students work on events I run called World Vegan Day Melbourne, and Cruelty-Free Festival Sydney. I gave the students full responsibility for an area, and on one occasion they ran the day at the Sydney event. The students who worked on these events got jobs in the industry straight away. Was this just luck or was there more to it?

In 2014, the President of World Vegan Day, Melbourne asked if I could help with the event as the team that was in place for 2013 had done a mass exit. I was hesitant, but I did not want to see an event I helped grow die. I had three months to make it happen, and I knew that I could not get anyone involved who had to be trained. It had to be a team of professionals. I decided to do it myself with a very small team. One of my students, Marcia, was keen to help me. I wasn't sure if it was a good idea but decided to take the chance, getting her to book in all the stalls. This was a time-consuming role but could be done as long as the person had good customer service skills. She not only did a great job, all the stallholders were raving about her,

and were so grateful to have her on the team. Marcia performed as well as anyone with years of experience.

At the end of the event, I was burnt out. I had nothing in the tank except for pride in the team, which had just pulled off an event in three months, when it should have taken nine. More importantly, Marcia got a job in the events industry. What was happening? How were these volunteer students securing jobs? The common theme was that they were just like me. They learnt better on the job, and the theory would come later. The true learning value was in the doing, and once they got an opportunity to be immersed in an event, they soaked the learning up like a sponge. This was my light bulb moment! So, I set out a strategy that was designed to overcome my frustrations as a teacher and add to the education and employability experience of the students. I put forward to the president of World Vegan Day that I would oversee the event but I wanted my students to run it, with me providing the mentoring. The event attracts over 18,000 attendees over 12 different areas. I would need five managers to be allowed to make decisions without approval, and 35 area managers who could bring their creativity to their area. The model was based on the 35 knowledge domains from Event Management Body of Knowledge (Rutherford Silvers 2016). The president agreed.

What was very surprising was that the roles filled up very quickly. In fact, it was not just event students who were getting involved, it was students from other institutions and other disciplines like marketing, graphic design, accounting, business, fashion, and public relations. Overall there were 25 students who took a role with responsibility. The rest was made up of people who wanted to learn about events. When looking back at the event, I can see why it attracted such a variety of students. They wanted to get involved because it lends itself to a wider community than just event managers—it's a lifestyle event, encompassing everything about life. The only demographic it didn't attract was actual vegans! It drew in students who had an appetite to get involved in something that they could take and have ownership over.

Out of the 25 students, eight ended up working for themselves and three of these people ran their own event, which I helped or supported in a small way. A further eight students got event jobs after their studies, four continued to further studies in a different field, and one student ended up travelling after they completed their studies. Four students were missing in action, and I've not heard from them.

Insights

I still question whether it was the management roles at events that gave the students the confidence to then go for a paid job, or whether these students were naturally attracted to these roles, and this was the next step to getting into industry. One thing I believe is that there needs to be a platform where students have the opportunities to get these roles. There are those who just need the extra bit of confidence and then they will find work easily, then there are those who need mentoring and a bit more theory, and then there are those who are lost and need their hand held before they

really commit to any career. As educators, we need to provide for all these different students and build stronger relationship with industry partners and work toward the common goal of an employability outcome.

Analysis and Discussion

Several aspects of the model presented in the case study are strikingly different from the discussion of higher education experiential learning in the academic literature. First, a high proportion of the students were placed directly in management roles in contrast to the 4% of students placed in managerial positions in the study by Lockstone et al. (2008). Moreover, some of these roles carried autonomous decision-making authority including deciding on a theme, managing the budget, hiring contactors and staff, calling meetings and running the event on the day. While they worked under guidance and mentorship of their teacher, it is unusual for students to be given this degree of responsibility and autonomy.

It is all the more unusual in light of the unstructured timing of the event in relation to the course. In degree courses industry placements are often scheduled in the penultimate or final year when a significant proportion of students' theoretical knowledge has been learnt. In contrast, in this case the opportunity to work on World Vegan Day was available to all students, regardless of what stage of their course they were at.

Second, the teacher was also the industry mentor. This overcomes the issue raised by Robertson et al. (2012) of industry personnel at the placement site not fully appreciating the learning needs of students. Taking on both roles enabled the teacher to align industry needs with student learning needs and to ensure that the learning outcomes of the course were met. This was done through the integration of work tasks such as undertaking risk management, marketing, and compliance with regulatory requirements into course assessment tasks. Clearly, this arrangement is only possible where the teacher maintains an active role in the industry and remains prepared to accommodate the students. However, the narrative indicates the heavy load on the teacher, perhaps calling into question its long term sustainability. Further, there may be a risk that through this closed loop between the roles of teacher and industry mentor, students' exposure to different approaches to event management may be limited.

Third, and in keeping with VET teaching generally, the pedagogical foundations of the model are less explicit (Williams et al. 2013). While the connections between theory and practice are evident through the integration of assessment tasks, no mention is made of pedagogical theory such as Kolb's (1984) experiential learning theory to guide the process. Perhaps as a consequence, formal processes of reflection on learning, upon which the higher education literature places such emphasis (Lamb 2015; Helyer and Lee 2014; Robertson et al. 2012), are missing from the model. However, this is not to say reflection did not occur; students took part in an informal debriefing where the highs and lows of their experience were discussed. There are also similarities between the case study model and its higher education counterparts

in the literature. In common with the majority of degree courses, the experiential learning focused on the festivals and special events sector of the industry (Lockstone et al. 2008; Lamb 2015). Like many degree courses the placement also involved voluntary participation rather than paid work (El Kashef 2015).

Nonetheless, 64% of the students who took responsible roles in the case study are known to have gone on to paid work in the industry, with further study outcomes for another 16%. While these are positive immediate outcomes, the concerns raised by Lockstone et al. (2008) with respect to whether higher education graduate appreciated the broad range of long term career opportunities in full-time and permanent positions presumably hold for their VET colleagues as well.

It is noteworthy that half of the graduates who went on to paid work started their own business. It is interesting to speculate on the degree to which learning and working under a self-employed mentor may have given the students the behind-the-scenes knowledge and confidence to strike out on their own upon graduation.

Second, in spite of the case study featuring a VET course, 'employability' is understood as job outcomes. This aligns more closely with higher education discourse than VET, in which the language emphasises the development of generic employability skills (Wibrow 2011). Finally, the case study supports the notion in the literature that undertaking industry placements develops confidence as a key factor in securing paid employment (Moscardo and Norris 2004; Walters 2017). Indeed, Junek et al. (2009) reported the view of some employers who felt that students generally lacked confidence and proactivity.

Conclusion

The model presented in the case study provides an alternative to traditional approaches to event management education and training which may suit learners who learn best by doing. The model has bridged the divide between industry and educational institution through bringing together the roles of teacher and industry mentor and by integrating practical work into course assessment. In this way it has brought into alignment the understanding of the needs of industry with the learning needs of students. It has also significantly improved the employability outcomes of graduates. What is particularly noteworthy about the model is that it provides students with management experience that includes authority to make autonomous decisions on matters of considerable significance.

However, the model is not free of risk. In particular, it could benefit from making more explicit use of pedagogy related to experiential learning, especially to formalise processes of systematic reflection as a key means of making sense of the knowledge and skills gained through working in the events industry and of integrating practical and theoretical knowledge. An opportunity for improvement exists in this regard.

References

- Beaven, Z., & Wright, R. (2006). Experience! Experience! Experience! Employer attitudes to arts and event management graduate employability. *International Journal of Event Management Research*, 2(1), 17–24.
- Bladen, C. & Kennell, J. (2014). Educating the 21st century event management graduate: Pedagogy, practice, professionalism, and professionalization. *Event Management*, 18(1), 5–14.
- Busby, G. (2005). Work experience and industrial links. In D. Airey & J. Tribe (Eds.), *The international handbook of tourism education*. London: Elsevier.
- Daruwalla, P., & Fallon, W. (2005). Experiential learning in events management education: Developing reflective practitioners. In J. Allen (Ed.), *Impacts of events: Proceedings of the international events research conference* (pp. 587–603). Sydney: University of Technology.
- Dewey, J. (1938). *Experience and education*. New York: Collier Books.
- El Kashef, T. (2015). What is the value of event management education? The views of six industry practitioners. *Event Management*, 19, 1–13.
- Elkjaer, B. (2009). Pragmatism: a learning theory for the future. In K. Illeris (Ed.), *Contemporary theories of learning: Learning theorists...in their own words*. London/New York: Routledge.
- Ellis, C. (2004). *The ethnographic I: A methodological novel about autoethnography*. Walnut Creek, CA: Rowman Altamira.
- Grima, J. (2013). Employability outcomes of the graduate diploma in event management programme at a New Zealand tertiary institution. In J. Fountain & K. Moore (Eds.), *CAUTHE 2013: Tourism and global change: On the edge of something big*. Christchurch: Lincoln University.
- Helyer, R., & Lee, D. (2014). The role of work experience in the future employability of higher education graduates. *Higher Education Quarterly*, 68(3), 348–372.
- Jarvis, P. (2009). Learning to be a person in society: Learning to be me. In K. Illeris (Ed.), *Contemporary theories of learning*. London: Routledge.
- Junek, O., Lockstone, L., & Mair, J. (2009). Two perspectives on event management employment: Student and employer insights into the skills required to get the job done! *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Management*, 16, 120–129.
- Kolb, D. A. (1984). *Experiential learning: Experience as the source of learning and development*. New Jersey: Prentice Hall.
- Lamb, D. (2015). Learning about events through involvement and participation: The use of experiential and authentic learning experiences. *International Journal of Event and Festival Management*, 6(1), 73–91.
- Leslie, D., & Richardson, A. (2000). Tourism and co-operative education in UK undergraduate courses: Are the benefits being realised? *Tourism Management*, 21(5), 489–498.
- Lockstone, L., Junek, O., & Mair, J. (2008). Experiential learning in event management education: Do industry placements in degree courses complement jobs available in the events industry? In S. Richardson, L. Fredline, A. Patiar, & M. Ternel (Eds.), *CAUTHE 2008: Tourism and hospitality research, training and practice: "Where the bloody hell are we?"* (pp. 634–652). Gold Coast: Griffith University.
- Mair, J., & Frew, E. (2016). Academic conferences: A female duo-ethnography. *Current Issues in Tourism*, 1–21. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13683500.2016.1248909>.
- Mair, J., Junek, O., & Lockstone, L. (2009). Event education and engagement with industry: Is it worth it? In J. Carlson, M. Hughes, K. Holmes, & R. Jones (Eds.), *CAUTHE 2009: See change: tourism & hospitality in a dynamic world*. Fremantle: Curtin University of Technology.
- Moscardo, G., & Norris, A. (2004). Bridging the academic practitioner gap in conference and events management: Running events with students. *Journal of Convention & Event Tourism*, 6(3), 47–62.
- Robertson, M., Junek, O., & Lockstone-Binney, L. (2012). Is this for real? Authentic learning for the challenging events environment. *Journal of Teaching in Travel & Tourism*, 12(3), 225–241.
- Rutherford Silvers, J. (2016). *Event management body of knowledge project*. Julia Rutherford Silvers. <http://www.juliasilvers.com/embok.htm>. Accessed January 12, 2018.
- Tribe, J. (2002). The philosophic practitioner. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 29(2), 338–357.

- Trought, F. (2012). *Brilliant employability skills: How to stand out from the crowd in the graduates job market*. Harlow: Prentice Hall.
- Walters, T. (2017). Delivering employable event studies graduates: Student perspectives on the benefits of experiential learning. In C. Lee, S. Filep, J. Albrecht, & W. J. Coetzee (Eds.), *CAUTHE 2017: Time for big ideas? Re-thinking the field for tomorrow*. Dunedin: Department of Tourism, University of Otago.
- Whitelaw, P., & Wrathall, J. (2015). Developing practice oriented undergraduate courses in a quality framework. *Quality Assurance in Education*, 23(4), 395–409.
- Wibrow, B. (2011). *Employability skills: At a glance*. NCVER. Available at: <https://www.ncver.edu.au/publications/publications/all-publications/employability-skills-at-a-glance>. Accessed March 7, 2018.
- Williams, M., Goulding, F., & Seddon, T. (2013). *Towards a culture of scholarly practice in mixed-sector institutions*. Adelaide: NCVER.
- Yorke, M. (2006). *Employability in higher education: What it is—and what it is not*. York, UK: The Higher Education Academy
- Yorke, M., & Knight, P. (2007). Evidence-informed pedagogy and the enhancement of student employability. *Teaching in Higher Education*, 12(2), 157–170.

Chapter 13

Designing and Running Overseas Study Tours



Effie Lagos, Andrew Dolphin and Fran Kerlin

Abstract It is globally recognised that study tours abroad offer benefits to students and teachers. Numerous professional development opportunities exist for teachers with even more personal development opportunities identified as beneficial for students. However, designing a study tour does not come without its own difficulties. Linking leisure type experiences with student intended learning outcomes require considerable amount of planning and energy. Additionally, teachers may not be experts in developing effective itineraries. This paper takes a reflective approach and concludes with recommendations relating to the strategic design of study tours.

Keywords Study tours · International study trips · Mobility · Transformative learning · International education · Short study tours abroad

Introduction

It is widely acknowledged that short-term study abroad programs have benefits for students and teachers alike. The increase by 10% on study tours between 2006 and 2008 is an indication study tours are on the rise globally (Barbuto et al. 2015). Many academics are seeking to take student groups abroad or go on exchange themselves and experience another culture or perform knowledge and ideas exchange with international educational institutions (He et al. 2017; Paik et al. 2015). Some authors view this as study abroad (Carlson and Widaman 1988; He et al. 2017; Kent-Wilkinson et al. 2015); others call it short-term stay abroad (Jackson 2008); academic mobility (Khoroshilova et al. 2015; Paik et al. 2015; Stone and Petrick 2013) or short study tours abroad (Williams and Best 2014). In this paper the terms study abroad and study tours will be used interchangeably. Whilst there are numerous studies on study abroad programs, Williams and Best (2014) claim there is limited research on the

E. Lagos (✉) · A. Dolphin · F. Kerlin
William Angliss Institute, Melbourne, Australia
e-mail: Effie.Lagos@angliss.edu.au

© Springer Nature Singapore Pte Ltd. 2019
S. Beeton and A. Morrison (eds.), *The Study of Food, Tourism, Hospitality, and Events*,
Tourism, Hospitality & Event Management,
https://doi.org/10.1007/978-981-13-0638-9_13

benefits of undertaking short term study tours. This study expands research on the benefits of short-term study tours.

This chapter is organised as follows; a literature review of the benefits of attending study tours for students and teachers; a description of each planning phase followed by a personal reflection by a higher education lecturer who escorted a higher education group on a two-week international study abroad program. The conclusion summarises key points and implications as well as provides suggestions for future research.

Literature Review

Perspectives on the advantages by study abroad programs vary among authors. For example Anderson et al. (2006) argue that short term study tours have a positive impact to students when exposed to foreign cultures, fostering professional and personal growth (Green et al. 2008). Students can form new friendships and enjoy numerous social benefits leading to increased satisfaction levels (Harris and Lagos 2015). Extending the research on personal benefits, authors stress that students may face personal challenges at foreign destinations and this offers them the opportunity to develop self-belief mechanisms (Fiedler and Kremer 2017); self-competency skills (Goldstein and Kim 2006); and social networks (Ding and Li 2012).

It is also argued that a study abroad experience has a transformative impact on students' way of thinking and world perception (Mezirow 1997; Pugh et al. 2010). Mezirow's theory involves student engagement and reflection as the basis for a revised frame of world reference (Mezirow 1997). To further support this argument, Behnke et al. (2014) conducted a longitudinal study based on hospitality related study tours over nine years. Using Mezirow's transformative theory as the basis for the study, they involved qualitative and quantitative methods and addressed the components of students' satisfaction, namely; pleasure (enjoyment and friendship); culture (culinary, sightseeing, overall experience); academic (activity, lecture and overall learning); logistics (program planning; food; hotel; travel and food) and instructors (leadership and locality). Conclusions of this study pointed to students having the desire to participate in further study abroad programs. A study on sixteen students who travelled to Bordeaux, France, and conducted by Williams and Best (2014) found that students engaged positively in a cross-cultural context; they demonstrated flexibility and became more self-aware and open minded.

These findings suggest study tours allow for skill enhancement at both personal and professional levels shaping students to becoming more confident job interviewees by the end of their course.

Similar benefits can be found on teachers when escorting study groups overseas. Armstrong (1984) notes personal growth is shown among teachers who work overseas with career and skill enhancement. Further studies support the view that teachers become open minded when interpreting the world, are accepting of other cultures

and values (Osler 1998) while also improving their professional skills (Furnham 2017).

A study conducted by Phillion et al. (2009) found teachers with limited exposure to other cultures may build cultural stereotypes suggesting it creates difficulties for students from minority cultural backgrounds. Accordingly, the need to develop teachers with expertise in delivering teaching programs in a highly diverse world is crucial for institutions aiming to attract international students. Paik et al. (2015) suggest teachers that interact with other cultures can improve their competence and skill to engage students more effectively from diverse backgrounds. The author admits to teachers having an influence worldwide as they expand their worldview and have enhanced cultural sensitivity. A subsequent study by He et al. (2017) found that benefits for teachers were extended not only in the cultural immersion opportunities; teaching and language learning; reflection and collaboration but also in teacher beliefs and practices that were positively impacted by the experience.

Social networks based on study abroad is also discussed in the literature (Ding and Li 2012). Study tours may provide the opportunity for new networks and collaboration. Reflection by teachers and students following such an experience may lead to personal and professional transformation as seen by Mkono (2016) and Robledo and Batle (2015). The power of travel to have a transformative impact on people is also evident in the literature (Lean 2012; Saunders et al. 2013) with additional studies also confirming reflection is required when adapting our learning into new practices (Aukes et al. 2007; Cranton 2002). Cranton (2002) proposes teachers to create opportunities for students to reflect on their beliefs and worldviews. Often students are able to articulate their views or write about them in their individual journals. It is up to the teacher to create space for reflection and engagement in relative discussions. Another way for students to reflect on ways of new thinking is encouraging them to participate in experiential learning experiences such as field trips or other settings attracting simulation of real life experiences (Cranton 2002). This suggests a study tour overseas can pave the way for students to become open minded, reflect on their world views and create new ways of thinking.

Above literature suggests that developing programs with specific key learning outcomes and context is necessary to receive a high level of satisfaction and positive feedback by students. Strange and Gibson (2017) also point to the necessity of identifying specific program elements that lead to clear student and society outcomes. In order to maintain the positive impact of study abroad educational programs authors call for well-designed experiences with clear student expectations (Goldstein and Kim 2006).

The increase of short-term study abroad programs over the past few years (Barbuto et al. 2015) also demonstrates the need for continuing research in this area. The way students engage in study abroad programs may also provide key insights into the behaviours students exhibit, the satisfaction they derive and consequent actions e.g., word-of-mouth recommendation for courses. As noted by Ding and Li (2012) the choice of a tertiary institution may be influenced by the individual's social connections. It is evident that teachers also benefit from study tours (Strange and Gibson 2017). Jackson (2008) noted people who engage with foreign cultures show more

empathy for others. With the literature pointing to the benefits of study tours both to students and teachers this paper will discuss the planning and implementation of an international study tour.

Case Study

A total of ten students from between first and fourth year, undertaking the Bachelor of Event Management and the Bachelor of Tourism and Hospitality were offered financial support by the Endeavour Mobility Grants support scheme to undertake a study tour to London, England in 2017. So far over 7000 Australian students have undertaken faculty led study tours overseas (Department of Education and Training 2017). The encouragement by government and the Institute suggests the offerings of study tours are on the increase largely due to the desire to create viable, rewarding global networks. As the literature also indicates, thorough planning is important in enhancing the international study experience (Behnke et al. 2014).

The trip to London was planned for a two-week period from 17 to 30 April. The decision to keep it to a maximum of two weeks was based on previous findings that confirm, any longer may lead to delivery intensity (Williams and Best 2014). The month was selected as it was mid semester break, and coincided with London's two major events, the London Marathon and St George's Feast, both prestigious events allowing experiential learning opportunities, interaction with the host community and opportunities for visitation to government offices, high profile regional locations and industry organisations. Based on these inclusions the assessments were also designed to maximise the research and learning outputs. Through collaboration with the Manager of City Activation & Strategic Partners at City of Melbourne an itinerary was designed to reflect the interests of study tour participants, which also supported the strategic direction of the institute. Furthermore, collaboration on this project aligns with the fundamentals of the City of Melbourne's partnership strategy (City of Melbourne 2016). The activities were strategically prioritised in a specific order to build student anticipation. A full itinerary is shown on Table 13.1 outlining activities in the order taken. A number of meetings took place before departure in order to ensure cultural awareness of the destination. Students were thoroughly briefed on necessary travel arrangements and travel cautionary aspects. Pre-departure sessions also included team-bonding activities to ensure connectedness among the members (Williams and Best 2014).

A teaching team (TT) of two academics, male and female were responsible to carry out the study program. The TT had previously discussed key roles that needed to be undertaken in order to ensure minimal logistical issues. As part of the implementation the TT had the intention to build relationships with key tourism and event stakeholders in London in order to secure mutual benefits and future collaborations among stakeholders (Aas et al. 2005). The first meeting at the Greater London Authority set the scene, outlining key challenges relating to the staging of major events in London, while the final visit to Glastonbury was the most anticipated seminar, covering

Table 13.1 Itinerary and intended learning outcomes

Type of activity	Destination	Intended learning outcomes
Seminar	Greater London Authority, London	To analyse the business structure of the Greater London Authority and exhibit an advanced understanding of the positioning of London as a global events capital and the triple bottom line impacts using a range of event contexts
Site visit	Woods Silver Fleet, events cruise operator, London	To define theory in innovative type events and critically evaluate financial concepts
Site visit	Excel London, exhibition centre, London	To critically evaluate issues emerging from business event developments and compare Excel London strategic directions to Melbourne Convention and Exhibition Centre
Experiential learning	Feast of St George at Trafalgar, London	To demonstrate ability in evaluating the social impacts of a cultural event based on observation techniques
Experiential learning	London Marathon, sporting event, London	To critically analyse and report on logistical issues emerging from the staging of a major sporting event in London's central business district
Seminar	West End Live, London	To expand understanding on the marriage between a key industry sector and a major public event and the flow on effects to tourism, retail and hospitality
Seminar	Media Circus, London	To evaluate innovative sponsorship solutions for London's central business district through the staging of strategic events
Site visit and seminar	Blenheim Palace, Blenheim	To understand major political influences and convey information on the complex use of a world heritage listed building
Seminar	Oxford City Council, Oxford	To understand social and cultural influences and develop tools for impact evaluation on host communities
Experiential learning [optional]	The Dorchester Hotel, fine dining restaurant, London	To challenge and extend understanding of high end dining from a global perspective and to encourage engagement with non-preferred experiences
Site visit and seminar	Glastonbury music festival, Glastonbury	To critically evaluate Glastonbury music festival, one of the longest running and high profile event of its type, as a brand and develop tools for best volunteer management practices
Seminar	Jane Austen Festival, Bath	To identify event objectives for Jane Austen festival and evaluate the economic and cultural impact for the host community in Bath, being a major regional city
Self reflection	London; Free day for students to undertake personal activities	To undertake critical reflection of personal and group strengths

local community expectations and volunteer management issues. The flow of the itinerary was strategically designed in order to open the educational program with a major overview of tourism and events. This also encouraged students to immerse themselves in each activity separately and reflect before preparing for the next one. The itinerary combined time for leisure and education, which gave the opportunity to students to socialise with peers, locals and achieve a balance between personal pursuits and individual learning (Williams and Best 2014). Despite the complexity of the program elements the TT hoped students would allow themselves to immerse in the experience as this would bring student satisfaction (Arnould and Price 1993).

Discussion

Each seminar involved case studies, discussion and questions. The guest speakers engaged the audience in local issues, key criteria for event successes and the importance of relationship marketing and partnership building. The role of engaging the host community as a consultant in the planning of upcoming events was highlighted in all lectures. The sessions allowed for shared reflection on the topic and further debate. Over twenty speakers reflected on their career path in events and highlighted the importance of networking and stakeholder engagement.

Logistics and project management issues were mainly addressed in Glastonbury along with the festival's sustainable practices that encouraged local community support. Building a strong reputation such as the Glastonbury music festival has meant the organisers now feel non-dependent from external sponsorship support, while they continue to theme their events influenced by social and political values and securing a strong community support network.

West End Live developed from an initial passion for theatre events and grew to become one of the biggest events in London (West End Live 2017). The move of the outdoor event from Leicester Square to Trafalgar Square came with many management issues due to the size of event. Running a number of acts over a certain period of time means strong time management skills and capability for strict logistical management are required. The positive social impact has meant the organisers could further develop their ideas to incorporate parades to the site in an effort to further boost the local community spirit and create an environment of togetherness and family celebration while boost ticket sales for the upcoming shows.

The Jane Austen festival highlighted Bath as the cultural capital to showcase the community event (Jane Austen Festival 2017). Free time in the small town allowed fully immersing oneself in the heritage style buildings and imagining what it would be like dressed up in the Jane Austen era. The key role of volunteers in the minor event was evident following the financial considerations that were highlighted during the session. Absorbing the cultural experience was enhanced by leisure activities including walks through Hyde Park, Buckingham Palace and visits in popular streets of the shopping precinct, Piccadilly Circus.

The marketing and Public Relations opportunities promoted by Media Circus indicated the importance of close collaboration with local businesses to create innovative event concepts that boost business activity in specific streets over the Christmas period. Themed ideas such as street exhibitions and street lights were just some examples to show how events can be created based on renewed marketing activity and business collaboration.

Students faced a new challenge with the optional participation at a fine dining restaurant, the Alain Ducasse at the Dorchester Hotel, an iconic property in London (Ducasse 2017). Understanding the dress code and presentation standards required at fine dining events was well received by students who never had a similar experience before and faced new learning challenges. Students were divided into two groups and had to engage in conversation about the experience. Assessing the environment, service, food and ambience and the link to innovative type events became the main topic of conversation. Highlighted by a casual interaction with the head chef meant the students were able to see the team effort back of house in order to evaluate all angles of a formal dining experience.

Reflection

After two years of planning, researching and designing the itinerary, ongoing collaboration among all stakeholders (teacher- associate dean and government) led to strong ties between the institute and the government department involved. The opportunity to execute the study tour and evaluate the experience based on observation and reflection resulted in renewed professional development. From a teacher perspective the program showed new areas of research and industry links with additional opportunities to involve students in future planning.

Becoming skilled in designing study abroad programs linked with specific learning outcomes led to an increased confidence for subsequent planning. Teachers require mentorship in delivering study tours and therefore this is an example for consideration when thinking of all the steps involved to deliver a positive student and teacher experience. The timeframe allowed to adopt a foreign culture also encouraged change in feelings in the way a culture can be perceived. Connecting socially with students while encouraging a shared learning environment also demonstrated new ways of experiencing learning based on foreign industry networks.

The timeframe of a minimum two-week period allowed for use of senses and interaction with environment and its elements such as buildings, landscapes and people leading to cultural absorption. Following every seminar and activity a deeper satisfaction was reached with the realisation of another learning outcome achieved. This feeling became more intense as days went by allowing for full absorption of the experience. The relevance of program content and the satisfaction felt became

the reason for new ideas to form and share with the group in a meaningful way. The search for meaning in a personal and professional context became present using all senses. World perceptions were renewed and a new 'self' created. The experience allowed for use of senses and feelings of absorption which can contribute to the creation of a meaningful lived experience (Arnould and Price 1993).

Via existing networks stakeholders took their time to work on ideas and explore all possible options for future collaboration, institute exchange programs and volunteer options. The London study tour experience was based on careful planning and specifically designed for students interested in cultural, business, sporting events and music festivals.

The challenges faced were numerous however ongoing communication, meetings among all stakeholders and the willingness to overcome difficulties led to effective teamwork resulting in a successful study tour. The additional complexity of logistics while executing the program meant that teachers had increased responsibilities, which were key in creating the meaningful experience for students.

Personal development involving a deeper commitment in day-to-day responsibilities showed that every moment should be lived. Professional growth including new knowledge, international networks and corporate links are part of the renewed meaning making at academic and industry level. Teachers need to take advantage of study tour opportunities and allow for immersion at all levels while building strong teacher-student communities.

Future Research

This paper is based on teacher reflection only. Future research could include interviews with students on their individual experiences both in terms of their learning as well as their personal growth. Interviews with teachers participating on study tours would guide teaching teams how to plan and effectively implement study tours. Additional interviews and reflections could be sought from the overseas partners to evaluate the experience long term and assess mutual benefits. Undertaking a study tour to a different destination may not yield similar benefits so prior research on the destination may be necessary. Finally, it is important to consider the student profile and the individual experience on international travel when planning an overseas study tour.

Conclusion

The international study tour experience benefited both teachers and students as identified in the literature review. It allowed for positive cultural acceptance (Green et al. 2008) and broad understanding of international working environments (Williams and Best 2014) that can be incorporated in future study tour planning. It also offered students the opportunity to form social connections (Ding and Li 2012) and friendships (Harris and Lagos 2015). Specific designed experiences such as the formal dining event allowed students to reflect on their own world perception (Mezirow 1997).

Including study tours in course programs as an alternative form of learning enhances the teacher-student engagement. International study tours that involve a combination of industry and academic components allow for international collaborative opportunities and encourage students to partake in further study abroad programs (Behnke et al. 2014). Developing an itinerary based on thorough planning presents its challenges however the overall result improves the student-teacher engagement.

References

- Aas, C., Ladkin, A., & Fletcher, J. (2005). Stakeholder collaboration and heritage management. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 32(1), 28–48. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.annals.2004.04.005>.
- Anderson, P. H., Lawton, L., Rexeisen, R. J., & Hubbard, A. C. (2006). Short-term study abroad and intercultural sensitivity: A pilot study. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations*, 30(4), 457–469. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijintrel.2005.10.004>.
- Armstrong, G. K. (1984). Life after study abroad: A survey of undergraduate academic and career choices. *The Modern Language Journal*, 68(1), 1–6.
- Arnould, E. J., & Price, L. L. (1993). River magic: Extraordinary experience and the extended service encounter. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 20(1), 24–45.
- Aukes, L. C., Geertsma, J., Cohen-Schotanus, J., Zwierstra, R. P., & Slaets, J. P. J. (2007). The development of a scale to measure personal reflection in medical practice and education. *Medical Teacher*, 29(2–3), 177–182. <https://doi.org/10.1080/01421590701299272>.
- Barbuto, J. E., Beenen, G., & Tran, H. (2015). The role of core self-evaluation, ethnocentrism, and cultural intelligence in study abroad success. *The International Journal of Management Education*, 13(3), 268–277. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijme.2015.07.004>.
- Behnke, C., Seo, S., & Miller, K. (2014). Enhancing the study abroad experience: A longitudinal analysis of hospitality-oriented, study abroad program evaluations. *Tourism Management*, 42, 271–281. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2013.12.010>.
- Carlson, J. S., & Widaman, K. F. (1988). The effects of study abroad during college on attitudes toward other cultures. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations*, 12(1), 1–17.
- City of Melbourne. (2016). *City of Melbourne Annual Report*. <https://www.melbourne.vic.gov.au/SiteCollectionDocuments/city-of-melbourne-annual-report-2015-16.pdf>. Accessed 18 October 2017.
- Cranton, P. (2002). Teaching for transformation. *New Directions for Adult and Continuing Education*, 93, 63–72. <https://doi.org/10.1002/ace.50>.
- Department of Education and Training. (2017). Endeavour mobility grants guidelines. <https://internationaleducation.gov.au>. Accessed 22 May 2017.

- Ding, L., & Li, H. (2012). Social networks and study abroad: The case of Chinese visiting students in the US. *China Economic Review*, 23(3), 580–589. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.chieco.2010.12.004>.
- Ducasse, A. (2017). <http://www.alainducasse-dorchester.com/>. Accessed 18 October 2017.
- Fiedler, G., & Kremer, U. (2017). Self-efficacy in prosthetics & orthotics students who did and did not participate in short term study abroad programs: Preliminary results. *Zeitschrift für Evidenz, Fortbildung und Qualität im Gesundheitswesen*. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.zefq.2016.11.006>.
- Furnham, A. (2017). Personality differences in managers who have, and have not, worked abroad. *European Management Journal*, 35(1), 39–45. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.emj.2016.10.002>.
- Goldstein, S. B., & Kim, R. I. (2006). Predictors of US college students' participation in study abroad programs: A longitudinal study. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations*, 30(4), 507–521. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijintrel.2005.10.001>.
- Green, B. F., Johansson, I., Rosser, M., Tegnah, C., & Segrott, J. (2008). Studying abroad: A multiple case study of nursing students' international experiences. *Nurse Education Today*, 28(8), 981–992. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.nedt.2008.06.003>.
- Harris, A., & Lagos, E. (2015). Forging friendships on a study tour abroad. *CAUTHE 2015: Rising Tides and Sea Changes: Adaptation and Innovation in Tourism and Hospitality*, p. 500.
- He, Y., Lundgren, K., & Pynes, P. (2017). Impact of short-term study abroad program: Inservice teachers' development of intercultural competence and pedagogical beliefs. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 66, 147–157. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tate.2017.04.012>.
- Jackson, J. (2008). Globalization, internationalization, and short-term stays abroad. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations*, 32(4), 349–358. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijintrel.2008.04.004>.
- Jane Austen Festival. (2017). <http://www.janeaustenfestivalbath.co.uk/>. Accessed 25 May 2017.
- Kent-Wilkinson, A., Dietrich Leurer, M., Luimes, J., Ferguson, L., & Murray, L. (2015). Studying abroad: Exploring factors influencing nursing students' decisions to apply for clinical placements in international settings. *Nurse Education Today*, 35(8), 941–947. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.nedt.2015.03.012>.
- Khoroshilova, S., Kostina, E., Bezdenezhnykh, L., Vezirov, T., & Shibaev, V. (2015). Academic mobility: The impact of short-term language courses abroad on the development of language competences. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 214, 992–999. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2015.11.691>.
- Lean, G. L. (2012). Transformative travel: A mobilities perspective. *Tourist Studies*, 12(2), 151–172.
- Mezirow, J. (1997). Transformative learning: Theory to practice. *New Directions for Adult and Continuing Education*, 1997(74), 5–12.
- Mkono, M. (2016). The reflexive tourist. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 57, 206–219.
- Osler, A. (1998). European citizenship and study abroad: Student teachers' experiences and identities. *Cambridge Journal of Education*, 28(1), 77–96. <https://doi.org/10.1080/0305764980280107>.
- Paik, S. J., Ganley, D. E., Luschei, T. F., Kula, S. M., Witenstein, M. A., Shimogori, Y., et al. (2015). Intercultural exchange among global teachers: The case of the teaching excellence and achievement study abroad program. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations*, 49, 100–113. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijintrel.2015.06.011>.
- Phillion, J., Malewski, E.L., Sharma, S., & Yuxiang, W. (2009). Reimagining the curriculum: Future teachers and study abroad. *Frontiers: The Interdisciplinary Journal of Study Abroad*, 18, 323–339. <http://ezproxy.deakin.edu.au/login?url=http://search.ebscohost.com/login.aspx?direct=true&db=eue&AN=47916886&site=ehost-live&scope=site>. Accessed 18 October 2017.
- Pugh, K. J., Linnenbrink-Garcia, L., Koskey, K. L., Stewart, V. C., & Manzey, C. (2010). Teaching for transformative experiences and conceptual change: A case study and evaluation of a high school biology teacher's experience. *Cognition and Instruction*, 28(3), 273–316.
- Robledo, M. A., & Batle, J. (2015). Transformational tourism as a hero's journey. *Current Issues in Tourism*, 20(16), 1736–1748.

- Saunders, R., Laing, J., & Weiler, B. (2013). Personal transformation through long-distance walking. In S. P. Felip (Ed.), *Tourist experience and fulfilment: Insights from positive psychology* (pp. 127–146). London: Routledge.
- Stone, M. J., & Petrick, J. F. (2013). The educational benefits of travel experiences: A literature review. *Journal of Travel Research*, 52(6), 731–744. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0047287513500588>.
- Strange, H., & Gibson, H.J. (2017). An investigation of experiential and transformative learning in study abroad programs. *Frontiers: The Interdisciplinary Journal of Study Abroad*, 29(1), 85–100.
- West End Live. (2017). <http://www.westendlive.co.uk/>. Accessed 18 October 2017.
- Williams, K. M., & Best, G. (2014). Short study tours abroad: Internationalizing business curricula. *Journal of Teaching in Travel & Tourism*, 14(3), 240–259.

Part IV
Research Informed Teaching

Chapter 14

Bridging the Gap: Making Research ‘Useful’ in Food, Tourism, Hospitality and Events—The Role of Research Impact



Tom Baum

Abstract This chapter addresses the value of academic research in food, tourism, hospitality and events to stakeholders, in particular the private sector. This is a well-travelled road in debate between these industry sectors and academia, with frequently cite concerns that academic research is too theoretical and lacks application to the everyday challenges which practitioners face. This chapter critiques approaches to ‘relevant’ research that just seek to address immediate industry ‘problems’. As an alternative, an approach is suggested that advocates research that has impact in a rather wider context, against a wide range of business, economic, social and cultural criteria. These are modified and extended from the UK’s Research Excellence Framework (REF). The application of these criteria are illustrated through a series of fictional mini-cases and conclusions regarding the value of this approach are drawn.

Keywords Food · Tourism · Hospitality · Events · Research relevance
Research impact · Research excellence framework (REF)

Introduction

In the food, tourism, hospitality and events field, discussion about academic research frequently coalesces on consideration of whether such endeavour has practical ‘value’ to stakeholders, particularly in the private sector. Vong (2017) points out that this is a very long-standing theme of debate which she broadly classifies as practitioner interest in finding ‘how to’ answers whereas academics focus on explanatory outcomes without, necessarily, providing solutions. Interestingly, Baum et al. (2016) in their review of academic research relating to the workforce in tourism and hospitality, argue that much published academic research, especially in the latter area, is dominated by the search for solutions rather than engagement with the use of theory as a route to explanation. King et al. (2011: 157) acknowledge the frequent dislocation

T. Baum (✉)
University of Strathclyde, Glasgow, UK
e-mail: t.g.baum@strath.ac.uk

between academic research in hospitality and industry needs when they argue that “the need for research on the contemporary issues and challenges of management in the hotel industry is apparent; the nexus between the needs of the hotel industry and the research contribution from academics is less evident”.

There is widespread advocacy for research which makes a difference to the respective sectors included in this analysis (food, tourism, hospitality and events). King et al. (2011) call for greater alignment between academic research and industry needs, itself a nuanced but widely enunciated position from both sides of the partnership. Similarly, Lynn (2016: 234), in discussing his editorial philosophy at the Cornell Hospitality Quarterly, argues the case for the journal to address, through its articles, research that is “devoted to the dissemination of knowledge that improves hospitality management”. This can certainly be delivered in some areas to greater effect than others. For example, Rodgers (2005) in her study of research in the area of food service management sees such studies in primarily technical and applied terms, research that seeks technical solutions to key operational problems relating to food safety, food production systems and related issues.

The challenge with this position in advocating research ‘relevance’ in food, tourism, hospitality and events, however, is that there is fragmentary evidence that, even where alignment is achieved, and academic and practitioner research addresses evident and critical issues within the industry, this actually translates into meaningful change in business or policy terms. Indeed, as Solnet et al. (2014) demonstrate in relation to research into workforce issues in tourism, there is little evidence that such studies drive change or generate new policy solutions and answers to well-rehearsed operational problems in the industry. Now this may be a problem of communication rather than of substance, as Vong (2017: 116) clearly notes, adopted of research outcomes depend upon “the value of knowledge generated depends not only on the ability of academics and researchers to transfer such knowledge effectively but also on the relevance of research topics, findings, and implications for the industry as well as the absorptive capacity of businesses”. Finally, there is limited evidence to support the argument that the industries in question necessarily want or support the research undertaken by academic partners or, indeed, facilitate such work at a practical level (Sobaih and Jones 2015).

This chapter is premised on the foundation argument that usefulness in academic research as defined by the industry-side user is a challenging concept and one that, increasingly, appears as a mirage on the researcher’s road ahead. Undoubtedly, ‘useful’ research (in the eyes of practitioners) does exist but this is generally undertaken in order to address a specific question or set of questions about a relatively narrow topic (relating to, *inter alia*, service, markets, finance, operational performance or environmental impact) for which an immediate answer is required. Such enquiries are frequently time and place specific and make little or no attempt to provide the platform for any level of generalisation or wider interpretation beyond the research context. Academic research is rarely designed or intended to address such narrow outcomes within the required timeframe. It frequently aspires to one or more of generalisation, theory-building, theory-testing or in-depth explanation of phenomena.

Asking whether research is useful in the food, tourism, hospitality and events field is generally premised upon the assumption that the usefulness should be to the practitioner, often operators within the private sector or policy makers in the public domain. This is a severely limiting assumption and creates the ‘search for solutions’ academic research behaviour articulated by Baum et al. (2016). In this chapter, we focus on notions of proven impact as a guide to the value or usefulness of research. In other words, rather than seeking to solve problems in the food, tourism, hospitality and events field when frequently no practical solutions exist, the yardstick for valuable research shifts to consideration as to whether research outcomes impact on stakeholder behaviour in a much broader sense. Discussion about usefulness of research is not just about direct application in ‘solving’ problems but is a consideration of the impact of research. Impact is a nuanced word of increasing importance in academic research and is the focus of discussion within this paper.

The model and interpretation of impact here is one adopted by the UK’s Higher Education Funding Council (HEFC) network (with separate agencies for England, Scotland and Wales) in undertaking its Research Excellence Framework assessments. Here we will assess the model and apply its key dimensions to fictional examples of research in the food, tourism, hospitality and events field as a means of assessing the usefulness of impact to both academic and wider stakeholder partners in academic research.

HEFC, the REF and Impact Assessment

The Funding Council network in the UK is responsible for the funding and regulation of all higher education providers within their respective jurisdictions. One of their key roles is to assess the quality of research across all universities and higher education colleges through the Research Assessment Framework (REF), previously known as the Research Assessment Exercise (RAE). In assessing quality within the REF, one of the key areas is the impact of the research (by individuals and teams) against a broad range of criteria. HEFC explain that “impact is defined as an effect on, change or benefit to the economy, society, culture, public policy or services, health, the environment or quality of life, beyond academia”. The REF process adopted impact as a major criterion in 2014 and has up-gauged its significance in anticipation of the up-coming 2021 REF. Subject areas (or Units of Assessment) are rated against their research output (via publications), their research environment and, finally, the impact of that research across any or all of the economy, society, culture, public policy or services, health, the environment or quality of life, beyond academia. This breadth is important as it is easy to fall into the trap of interpreting impact primarily in economic terms. Figure 14.1 highlights the multiple routes to impact that apply across the disciplinary spectrum, linking activities that are research-led or research-informed within universities and colleges to the range of indicative external outcomes than emanate from such research.

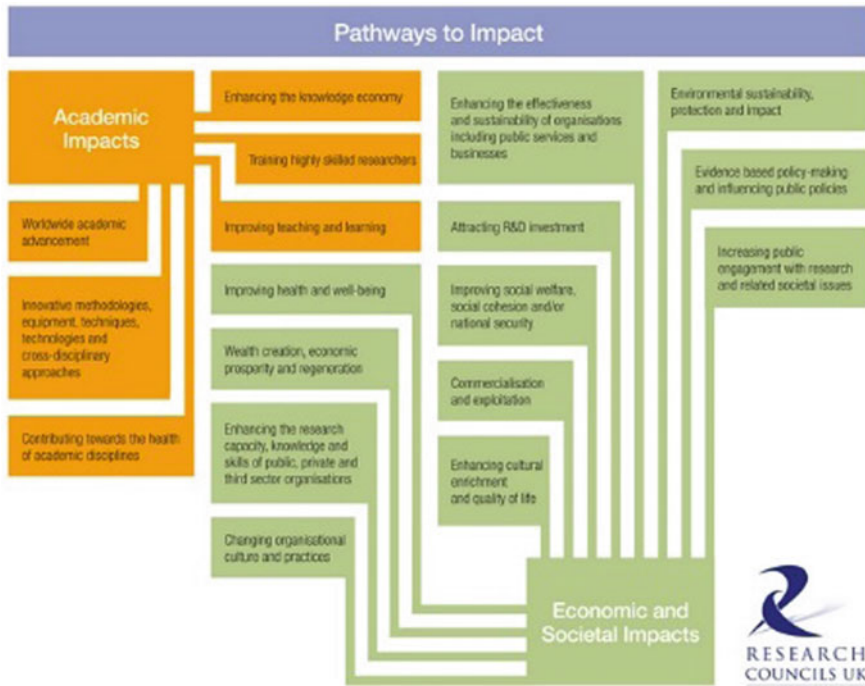


Fig. 14.1 Pathways to impact (Research Councils UK, pathways to impact. <http://www.rcuk.ac.uk/innovation/impacts/>. Accessed 14 November 2017)

The pathways provide a broad set of linkages within the road to impact. In Table 14.1, Hill (2015) interprets these linkages in terms of exemplar impacts across a range of contexts—civil society, cultural life, economic prosperity, education, policy making, public discourse and public services. This list is probably not exhaustive and could be further developed to include place (local, regional and international) dimensions and environmental/sustainability considerations. These have been added as a modification of Hill in Table 14.1. Clearly, the categories are not mutually exclusive and some overlap is inevitable within most research projects.

The next stage of this chapter applies the notion of impact across all the criteria identified in Table 14.1 to examples from food, tourism, hospitality and events.

Illustrating the impact of research in food, tourism, hospitality and events.

Impact in the context of research is about changing behaviour, practice, use of resources or policy. It is not to be confused with sharing of research outcomes with stakeholders through dissemination or engagement. For impact to be in evidence, there has to be clear evidence of change. Let us explore what Hill’s impact indicators could mean in the context of food, tourism, hospitality and events. These fictional mini-cases demonstrate what high level impact can look like; clearly, impact can also be achieved at the micro and much more localised level when researchers work with

Table 14.1 Indicative range of impacts (Modified from Hill 2015)

Civil society	Informing and influencing the form and content of associations between people or groups to illuminate and challenge cultural values and social assumptions
Cultural life	Creating and interpreting cultural capital in all of its forms to enrich and expand the lives, imaginations and sensibilities of individuals and groups
Economic prosperity	Applying and transferring the insights and knowledge gained from research to create wealth in the manufacturing, service, creative and cultural sectors
Education	Informing and influencing the form or the content of the education of any age group in any part of the world where they extend significantly beyond the submitting HEI
Policy making	Informing and influencing policy debate and practice through interventions relating to any aspect of human or animal well-being or the environment
Public discourse	Extending the range and improving the quality of evidence, argument and expression to enhance public understanding of the major issues and challenges faced by individuals and society
Public services	Contributing to the development and delivery of public services or legislation to support the welfare, education, understanding or empowerment of diverse individuals and groups in society, including the disadvantaged or marginalised
Place	Contributing to the development, delivery or application of policy or practice relating to issues at a specific local, regional or international level
Environment/sustainability	Applying and transferring the insights and knowledge gained from research to create environmental or sustainability outcomes that are of value to business and/or society

local enterprises (vineyards, restaurants, guesthouses, community events) and their studies help to shape key decisions made within these contexts.

Civil Society

Dr. A is a food scientist and undertakes a study of food safety standards across a number of food traditions and cultures in Melbourne, including Halal and Kosher cuisine. The study shows clearly that all food traditions and cultures adhere to common and high standards with respect to all aspects of food safety. This evidence is used by faith and community groups in news items, leaflets, restaurant reviews and in representations to public agencies and the media to inform and educate the wider community about their food traditions.

IMPACT: There is a clear link between the research study and the use of outcomes to inform and educate the wider community, contributing to changing attitudes and challenging prejudice.

Cultural Life

Dr. B is a cultural anthropologist who specialises in piecing together evidence about the almost forgotten religious rites and ceremonies of island communities in the south-west Pacific. Over a 10 year period, she has published a series of papers which present evidence that allows the re-creation of the rites and rituals of a number of these events. She has now advised island diaspora in Auckland to enable them to re-launch the ceremonies as authentic community and tourist events.

IMPACT: Sustained and detailed research over a period of time and publication of findings that are open to academic and community scrutiny has enabled Dr. B to advise community groups on the revitalisation of traditional rites and rituals in a way that is accessible to both these communities and visitors.

Economic Prosperity

Dr. C is a specialist in the design of software that provides interface between remote home security devices and property owners. She has designed software which allows holiday letting owners to operate the security system when their property is empty but which is deactivated immediately the guest enters their unique access code for the property. After taking out appropriate commercial rights and patents in conjunction with her University's Research and Commercialisation Office, Dr. C has licensed the software to the largest platform for independent holiday lettings in the UK.

IMPACT: Dr. C has developed a software product that has clear commercial value in the holiday lettings market and provided owners with an enhanced security system for when their property is vacant.

Education

Dr. D is passionate about introducing some of the ideas that underpin academic understanding of tourism to high school students. To further this objective, he undertakes a nationwide online voice survey of 14–16 year olds in order to gain a clear picture of their vacation experiences and expectations for future holidays. He uses the findings of this study to script a series of short videos, posted on YouTube, which explain the key benefits and difficulties associated with tourism, drawing directly on the voices of respondents in order to link learning to respondent experiences. In the

First 6 months, the six videos are viewed an average of 17,000 times and 39 high schools in the US apply for licences to use the videos.

IMPACT: Dr. D used research on young peoples' experiences of vacationing as a means by which to develop suitable learning materials in the area of tourism for high school students. The beneficial impact outcomes were educational and also commercial.

Policy Making

Dr. E and Dr. F together run the City Tourism Laboratory which undertakes realtime consumer research on behalf of city governments and private sector associations. Building on research undertaken for their respective Ph.Ds, Dr. E and Dr. F have developed a system for realtime data collection, analysis and reporting that can be tailored to specific visitor market segments, locations within the city and at specified times. Outcomes are used to frame tourism resource and marketing policy on a rolling basis. Currently, Dr. E and Dr. F operate the system on behalf of all capital city tourism bureaux in Australia and at least 7 cities across ASEAN.

IMPACT: This is an example of an applied project outcome that has drawn directly on academic research and results in data/information that helps to frame policy across a number of major cities in Australia and the wider region.

Public Discourse

Dr. G has researched published extensive evidence relating to potential health risks associated with the use of genetically modified foods, based both on her experimental primary research and the assessment of secondary sources in the scientific press. She has sought dissemination of her research findings through regular contributions to a high profile blog site on food and healthy living. Her blog has been picked up by a range of media outlets (print, television, radio) in her native UK, in Europe and, recently, in the US and Australia as well and she has a high profile addressing a range of topics that extend beyond her core research area. She is recognised as a leading and authoritative voice on food safety issues by the UK Government and the European Commission and has been called as an expert witness in court cases in the UK, the Netherlands and New Zealand.

IMPACT: Dr. G's research has positioned her as an authoritative voice in relation to her areas of research specialism. She has a high profile within the science community, the scientific policy community and the general public and is a major contributor to discourse and debate in her area.

Public Services

Dr. H is Editor-in-Chief of the International Review of Tourism and Events Regulation. For the past 17 years, he has undertaken an annual and systematic review of all new legislation and regulation with respect to tourism and events enacted by the 50 leading tourism receiving countries worldwide. Findings are synthesised into an annual 'State of Tourism Regulation' report. He is currently advising the Parliamentary Committee on Tourism Standards in South Africa on development of a new Tourism Act and the role of regulation within it. He has previously advised governments in 7 countries in the framing of quality standards regulations for tourism and events.

IMPACT: This research, based on published sources relating to legislation and government orders worldwide, forms the basis of advice provided by Dr. H to governments considering framing or changing legislation relating to tourism regulation and quality standards.

Place

Dr. J has undertaken economic impact studies of annual Pride Festivals (LBGTI) in four major UK cities for 10 years, providing and publishing trend data that is sensitive to market demographics, participant social and economic characteristics and community engagement. The model which Dr. J has developed to capture these data is highly location sensitive and allows for reporting at a community level within major cities. Dr. J has been appointed advisor to a European umbrella group that co-ordinates and advises cities with Pride Festivals on a transnational basis.

IMPACT: This is an example of an academic research model that has the capacity to provide tailored/bespoke data to cities and their sub-units (communities), factoring in a range of place-specific variables. Impact is clearly demonstrated through adoption.

Environment/Sustainability

Dr. I completed both his Masters and Ph.D. research through studies that measured the 'environmental consumption' of major departments in hotels (housekeeping, kitchen, food service, leisure), focusing on energy, materials consumption, waste. The focus of the research was 'bottom up', looking at these environmental indicators through the eyes and detailed analysis of the work practices of individual employees and assessing what behavioural change in these areas could mean to them and their work routines. Based on his research, Dr. I was invited to advise three major hotel chains on their environmental practices across all departments and helped each to

design training interventions to support staff become more environmentally effective. He has also developed a multi-format training package in the area on behalf of the national hotels association for distribution to all members.

IMPACT: Dr. I's research was designed to understand environmental practice at the level of the individual employee in hotels. This study allowed him to work with hotel companies and the hotel association to develop and implement training interventions that are designed to improve environmental stewardship across departments in hotels.

Discussion and Conclusion

These cases are intended to be illustrative of what impact of research in the fields of food, tourism, hospitality and events can look like. Clearly, impact against the extended Hill parameters can take a variety of shapes and sizes but what they have in common is facilitating some level of beneficial change within their stakeholder communities.

This chapter takes a particular approach in addressing the usefulness of academic research in food, tourism, hospitality and events. Usefulness is a popular but relatively opaque concept—useful to whom? useful for how long? among other questions. Impact, by contrast, offers us a measure of what actually has happened through academic research. Much such research has minimal impact, despite the best protestations of the researchers concerned who fail to recognise that publication and dissemination activities in now way guarantee that any changes will arise as a result.

Of course research impact may be intended or unintended, a result of serendipity that follows the publication of research outcomes or the demonstration of a product, service or process that emanated from research. Reflecting personally, one of my earliest publications was on models of public—private collaboration in the area of training for the hospitality industry. Some months after publication, I was contacted by the Vice-President for Human Resources of a major international hotel chain who wished to meet with me on his next business visit to London, specifically because he had read the article. We talked about my research, he invited me to spend time at their corporate headquarters and to work with his team on making my model work in practice. As a result, I spent a month with the company and saw them take aboard a completely new approach to working with government, public agencies and education providers, based on my inputs. The impact of my research, therefore, was significant but totally unintended.

Using potential impact as a rule of thumb guide in planning research in food, tourism, hospitality and events undoubtedly enhances the chance that it will be deemed useful by stakeholders. The classification of what constitutes impact also provides a wide variety of formats where impact can be sought. It provides a very useful guide for both experienced researchers and those embarking upon an early journey in their research careers. It also allows for variation in scale and for the

adoption of diverse methodologies. It is non-prescriptive but focuses on the most important consideration, how many waves (positive or negative) did the research generate?

References

- Baum, T., Kralj, A., Robinson, R., & Solnet, D. (2016). Tourism workforce research: A review, taxonomy and agenda. *Annals of Tourism Research*, *60*, 1–22.
- Hill, S. (2015). *Understanding research impact: Analysis of the REF impact cases*. <https://www.socsci.ox.ac.uk/files/research/shill-oxford-20may2015.pdf>. Accessed November, 14 2017.
- King, C., Funk, D., & Wilkins, H. (2011). Bridging the gap: An examination of the relative alignment of hospitality research and industry priorities. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, *30*, 157–166.
- Lynn, M. (2016). My attitudes and beliefs about different types of research. *Cornell Hospitality Quarterly*, *57*(3), 234.
- Rodgers, R. (2005). Applied research and educational needs in food service management. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, *17*(4), 302–314.
- Sobaih, A. E., & Jones, E. (2015). Bridging the hospitality and tourism university–industry research gap in developing countries: The case of Egypt. *Tourism and Hospitality Research*, *15*(3), 161–177.
- Solnet, D., Nickson, D., Robinson, R., Kralj, A., & Baum, T. (2014). Discourse about workforce development in tourism—An analysis of public policy, planning, and implementation in Australia and Scotland: Hot air or making a difference? *Tourism Analysis*, *19*(5), 609–623.
- Vong, F. (2017). Relevance of academic research to hospitality practitioners. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Education*, *29*(3), 116–128.

Chapter 15

Participatory Action Research as Development Tool for Industry Training: Artisan Gelato



Angela Tsimiklis

Abstract This chapter examines how participatory action research was used as a methodology and means to develop specialised artisanal gelato culinary programs at William Angliss Institute. The research wanted to push the boundaries of design methodologies in food, tourism, hospitality and events and was the foundation for creating a new training model and pathway for the Australian Vocational Education System to advance the development of professional resources and introduce a base for a culinary specialist training. The intricacy of developing professional culinary training programs for specialist and artisanal food products alongside a required depth of knowledge was unattainable through training in current Australian hospitality qualifications. The benefits of this research have enabled the establishment of a specialist training facility to train artisan gelato skills. The professional artisanal gelato training program continues to innovate and attracts local and international experts and students to the facility.

Keywords Design methodologies · Artisanal · Applied knowledge · Pedagogy

Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to discuss the benefits of participatory action research (PAR) as a developmental methodology to equip vocational educators with insightful pedagogy when designing and developing specialised culinary programs. This methodology has the potential to benefit vocational educators by incorporating a scholarly and innovative approach to teach trades, craft skills and applied knowledge. Vocational educators can extract insightful pedagogies to underpin the design and development of specialised culinary programs.

The research was conducted at the prestigious Carpigiani Gelato University in Bologna, Italy. The immersion of PAR was four weeks of structured Artisan Gelato

A. Tsimiklis (✉)
William Angliss Institute, Melbourne, Australia
e-mail: Angela.Tsimiklis@angliss.edu.au

© Springer Nature Singapore Pte Ltd. 2019
S. Beeton and A. Morrison (eds.), *The Study of Food, Tourism, Hospitality, and Events*,
Tourism, Hospitality & Event Management,
https://doi.org/10.1007/978-981-13-0638-9_15

training completed in 2015 which comprised collective investigation (Greenwood et al. 1993) and working alongside students, teachers and international gelato makers.

The outcomes of the research has influenced the design and delivery of professional Artisan Gelato programs in Melbourne Australia and has facilitated the growth of training for professional gelato makers allowing engagement with industry and building authentic, contemporary vocational training programs.

Literature Review

Drawing from a broad range of research from predominantly constructivist perspectives (Figgis 2009; Seddon et al. 2013; Robertson 2008) point to a growing enthusiasm within the vocational education and training (VET) sector of a momentum to develop highly trained vocational practitioners throughout Australia's teaching workforce.

McIntyre states that PAR involves learners with real material, concrete practices of a particular people in a particular practice and this allow revisited analysed and articulated participants to make the results of the research credible accurate and trustworthy (McIntyre 2008). Lucas et al. (2012) suggest that to have optimal vocational education, this requires pedagogies that are mindful of the relationship between learning methods and the proposed outcomes. This includes an understanding of learners' experiences linked with well-designed teaching methodologies, making vocational educators active learners in their development and construction processes towards developing relevant curriculum and professional training programs.

It is from these influences which have generated confidence within the VET sector towards enabling and building a more professional vocational community of vocational educators focused on pedagogy towards incorporating an industry relevant curriculum (Robertson 2008).

Australian Culinary Skills Shortages

Registered training organisations (RTO) and the hospitality industry in Australia in general, need a paradigm shift in their thinking around training and supplying expert culinary professionals. The Department of Employment in Australia has released consecutive reports (Occupational Skill Shortages Information 2017) that detail has demonstrated significant culinary skill shortages in the Australian labour market. Additionally, the Deloitte Access Economics report identified enduring labour shortages are stifling the Australian hospitality sector and these shortages have influenced and impacted productivity and growth (Restaurant and Catering Australia [R&CA] 2015).

The Deloitte Access Economics report also uncovered the hospitality industries inability to find workers with the right set of skills. Furthermore Restaurant and Catering Australia (R&CA 2015) also highlights the need for labour market to reform,

including improvements within the vocational education sector. The R&CA's 2015 Industry Benchmarking Report also exposes an increase in the number of businesses experiencing extreme difficulty filling positions; citing culinary professionals are still the most difficult positions to fill from chefs to pastry cooks and culinary specialist skills (R&CA 2015).

The literature indicates (Dunn 2011; R&CA 2015) that the current hospitality market requires a deeper and expanded level of vocational training to educate, retain and engage skilled culinary professionals from apprentices to specialised subject experts to achieve Australia's long-term productivity growth objectives (Dunn 2011; NCVET 2012). The importation of skilled culinary labour training is further underpinned by the continuous growth in the Australian hospitality industry. Additionally, many Australian hospitality enterprises spend valuable time, money and resources to find suitable employees from overseas to work and oversee kitchens in Australia (Skills Australia 2010).

Deficiencies of Expertise

Increasingly, the hospitality Industry is demanding more avenues in bespoke and artisan vocational training towards a higher level of specialist culinary skills. The research recognises that Australian vocational institutions only have the capacity to provide foundational culinary skills from apprenticeships to full time qualifications in specialist culinary skills is problematic. This equates to limited opportunities for culinary professionals to engage in professional development and to acquire new proficiencies.

Reports generated by the International Specialised Skills Institute (ISSI) stipulate that there are numerous deficiencies of expertise in wide-ranging culinary specialist skill sets, some of these skills include the production of Artisan Breads, Chocolate, Artisan Gelato and Fermentation methods of foods (Pellegrino 2011; Dunn 2011; Tsimiklis 2016; Lewis et al. 2017).

These reports conclude that the current vocational training environment demonstrates a weakness in innovation to facilitate the hospitality industries future training needs to produce specialised culinary experts. The literature outlines that the Australian Government and food industries currently do not have a process to identify or facilitate training in knowledge and bespoke food trade culinary skills development and recommends that registered training organisations should consider working closely with distinctive industries to develop accredited courses.

Many factors influencing the demand and supply for people with specific skills are not subject to educational planning or controls and as a result coordinated through labour markets (Skills Australia 2010).

Reports from the ISSI (International Specialised Skills Institute 2017) provide several examples of insufficient expertise in Australian food industries and emphasize the weaknesses in innovation towards skills development, government policy and formal organisational structures policies that facilitate another pathway for spe-

cialised culinary skills (Pellegrino 2011; Dunn 2011; Tsimiklis 2016; Lewis et al. 2017).

The National Centre for Vocational Education Resources recommends that leaders in the vocational training sector need to support the ongoing constructive developments in recognition of new skill approaches creating a higher level of competencies (NCVER 2012). There are calls for artisan training in specialised culinary skills to be made available nationally that enables a sustainable platform for future food enterprises and more importantly to be able to fill the employment vacancies required by industry (R&CA 2015).

Australian Workforce Futures: Developing professional artisan gelato programs

According to Skills Australia (2010) Australia requires a highly skilled population to maintain and improve our lifestyle and economic position in the face of increasing global competition, and to have the skills that adapt to the introduction of newly required expertise during rapid change (Skills Australia 2010).

Artisan gelato making is one skill deficiency experiencing skill shortages in Australia. Internationally artisan gelato is regarded as a specialist food product with a thriving professional community (Tsimiklis 2016). Gelato experts D. Toce (personal communication, April 10, 2015) and M. Bidin (personal communication, December 17, 2015) recognises that the skills required for the formation of Artisan Gelato is a distinguished trade. An artisan gelato maker must possess a depth of knowledge in the balancing of ingredients alongside the knowledge of fundamental processes and practical applications; only with such expertise, a high-quality food product can be produced that provides for a unique sensory experience of flavour, temperature, and texture.

In 2013 the International Gelato World Tour competition was held in Melbourne, Australia (Gelato World Tour 2015). In previous years this event had attracted already more than 280,000 people throughout Europe. The tour brought together local and international artisan gelato makers through workshops, public events, and forums. Comments made by industry personnel attending the event, indicated a growing concern that the local Australian Artisan Gelato Industry lacked developmental resources to facilitate an increasing industry in Australia. Conversations between international experts, equipment suppliers and domestic and international educators discussed the benefits for developing a recognised training base to establish and provide opportunities for Australian chefs to be trained in the high standard specialist culinary skill of artisan gelato making (Tsimiklis 2016).

Professional Culinary Training Programs

Reflecting on industry observations and concerns, a strategy was formulated to bring together internationally renowned Italian Carpigiani Artisan Gelato University, Majors Group Australia a provider of gelato making equipment and technology, and William Angliss Institute to develop professional artisanal gelato training courses. This project was to create a base for developing learning and expanding skills. The

formalisation of strategic professional industry and educational partnerships provided a solid foundation for the research and a plan for action was designed.

Participatory Action Research (PAR) was identified as the appropriate research methodology to generate a high level of comprehension of advanced culinary skills and the cultural aspects of artisan gelato making. For the benefit of this paper, PAR is defined as an emphasis on collaboration, researchers with participants working together to examine a problematic situation, and then apply the change (McIntyre 2008).

The basic concept of the research project was to learn about and to design innovative, effective and efficient vocational capabilities through an established vocational educational training base facilitating professional artisan gelato courses.

The International Specialised Skills Institute (ISSI) provided additional backing to the project as they acknowledged the necessity to develop this unique culinary specialist skill. Its support gave further provision and encouragement to the research, as ISSI understood that specialist's culinary skill deficiencies could be addressed through building global partnerships and initiating overseas skill acquisition plans.

Research Study

Discussions were undertaken to implement a new training model centered on capacity and capability building with data collected informing the project's objectives. A consensus of standard industry practices transpired from various gelato makers on a national level providing clear perspectives of essential industry processes. These discussions included a cross sector of gelato professionals in the Australian states of Victoria, New South Wales, South Australia and Queensland.

Other talks with affiliated machinery supplier Majors Groups provided a context in the logistics in operating gelato making machinery, operational layouts and business costs. The building of constructive networks in the planning stage allowed all stakeholders to contribute towards the course development and formulate with and what industry is seeking in their business and skills for their employees.

Research project priorities and investigation topics included:

- Recording and investigating gelato making in Australia and Italy focusing on methodologies, traditional practices, and innovative techniques for knowledge construction.
- Interaction and documenting the student's experience and teacher's delivery methods.
- Identifying contemporary and traditional practices and application to gain a sense of cultural tradition.
- Researching historical recipes that are associated with conventional and modern artisan gelato making.
- Understanding and recording the evolution of ingredients from traditional to modern artisan gelato recipes.

- Undertaking practical application in the workplace performing the daily activities of an artisan gelato maker.
- Comparing and analysing theoretical aspects of gelato making between various Italian businesses and culinary institutions.

Exploring Artisan Gelato

PAR in Italy involved attending CGU and undertaking the artisan gelato course for four weeks. This exercise resulted in documented classroom activities and practical applications within a targeted student group during classes and their downtime; this closeness was significant in attaining and learning from the student's group's experiential learning. The research allowed organic collaboration and interaction between students and their teachers extracting valuable insights from their lived experiences during their education.

The research permitted involvement in practical applications with participants building knowledge from recipe development to the handling and cleaning of specialised commercial equipment. Conversations amongst the students encouraged vital engagement providing a rich interactive insight that was central to the research informing its eventual application.

The research process involved participation, observation and consultation followed by reflection before commencing the cycle again. This interactive approach was driven by real-world learning and measured experiences Reason and Bradbury (2001) of the students and teachers. PAR allowed consideration to how the student group built up their capacity and gained an appreciation of reflective thoughts on the core course principles. This allowed knowledge acquisition, learning from the group's understanding during participation of the course from information translation to transition.

Building Capability

The PAR experience additionally included intensive artisan gelato making training at CGU along with associated assessments and examinations. Valuable collections of conversations and applications were considered during the development of a reproducible training model, which informed the long-term planning of courses in Australia. CGU educated, demonstrated and provided for the structure to be able to create a unique culinary vocational training program, which did so far not exist in Australia.

Other aspects of the research involved an immersion by internship at a local artisan gelateria in Bologna; this engagement provided another essential agency to inform the planning model. The experience of performing all steps of a gelato making process (theoretical and practical) from start to finish under the close supervision of a university-affiliated gelato specialist gave the research a direct link of what kind of

training is needed to make clear the daily performance tasks required by a specialised gelato maker.

This involvement contributed highly to the overall project recommendations as it advises the research with essential components for capability-building and meaningful experiences in the design of the program. For the gelato training program to be successful in Australia, the research needed an understanding of common factors in the workforce and workflow of how gelato makers would organise themselves in their daily working life. This ensured future training had a connection to context and application for the transferability of skills in the new training program.

The Instructors

Observations documented that the Carpigiani Gelato University is demonstrating a significant proficiency of a single specialist subject that confirmed their professional understanding and mastery of artisan gelato making. CGU instructors provided an essential model for PAR to draw structure as well as experienced pedagogical delivery methodologies. This observation highlighted essential educational outcomes towards preparing and advancing the professional development for Australian culinary educators who will deliver these courses.

What was learnt from the course was Artisan gelato focused on natural ingredients quality, seasonality, regions and the correct processing of ingredients to retain quality (Carpigiani Gelato University 2015). Technical processes were discussed which are used to achieve characteristic attributes in the product recognising and acknowledging the traditional and cultural aspects of artisan gelato.

The Instructors at CGU stipulated that many people open up a Gelateria's with limited management operational capabilities as well as inadequate knowledge of the science and function of ingredients and these essential skills prevent them from producing a true artisan product and the ability to develop new recipes and gelato products.

Transferability of Knowledge

In the Australian vocational educational system the unit SITHPAT306 Produce desserts is used to teach frozen desserts, icecreams and gelato. The Australian Government allocates 100 teaching hours to deliver this unit in vocational institutes (training.gov.au 2017). This unit also covers topics such as puddings, meringues, garnishes, souffles and predominately focused on plated desserts.

The hours allocated to gelato training in this unit does not provide sufficient time to develop effective techniques and skills with regard to the composition of ingredients and expertise. What is taught at CGU is the application and interaction of food ingredients: sugars, fats, proteins, solids, and water that provides artisan gelato with

Table 15.1 Sugar chart: Carpigiani Gelato University 2015

Sugars	Weight (g)	Anti-freezing power (%)	Sweetening power (%)
Sucrose	100	100	100
Dextrose	100	190	70
Maltodextrin	100	30	20
Glucose Syrup	100	80	50

its unique structure and sensory experience (mouth feel and texture). This detailed education contributes to an essential comprehension of the constraints and technical aspects in artisan gelato formulation; accentuating the ability and knowledge of the gelato maker to understand their ingredients and their attributes to reconfigure ratios and processes to create a semi-frozen product.

Observations during this research underscored educational program requirements that must consist of science-based approaches when designing such an educational course model. The underpinning of strong theoretical understandings supported practical applications. The students were required to formulate artisan gelato commencing with the identification of what composition and which quantities of would various ingredients such as water, fats, and sugars would create an acceptable final product. For example sugar in a recipe affects other ingredients (depending on the type of sugar used) through its sweetness and more importantly, its anti-freezing properties (Pancieria 2013). The main purpose of sugar in gelato is that it contains properties that prevent water from freezing by lowering and controlling the freezing point within a solution. Sugar helps to achieve the perfect structure, controlling the stability and lifespan of artisan gelato, this one ingredient determines serving temperatures, sweetness, and the stability of the finished product.

The below chart displays a small insight to some of the sugars used when making artisan gelato. The impact of these sugars can show a variance in physical and sensorial properties when designing texture in recipes. By example if we focused on sucrose at 100% in a recipe at 100 g and then wanted to substitute the sucrose with dextrose, you would calculate the substitution using the chart below. Taking note that dextrose's anti-freezing power is 190% of sucrose you would only require 52 g of dextrose to the 100 g of sucrose to have the same anti-freezing power. However, in making this change the taste of the gelato now has also changed, because of this substitution the sweetening effect in the gelato has been decreased for the sweetening power of dextrose is at 70% of the sweetness of sucrose making the final product less sweet (Table 15.1).

This example outlines some considerations when making gelato and provides an insight of how sugar performs and affects the relevant properties of the final product. Professional gelato makers must calculate all the food ingredients used in the recipe for their freezing ability, sweetness, texture and flavour. It is essential to recognise that when developing gelato recipes, the balancing of the different sugar varieties with other ingredients is at the forefront in recipe development. The failure to observe the

precision of balancing of ingredients results in a variance of a product that is either too soft or too hard to be served.

Outlining this one example of understanding sugar's role in gelato production draws attention to the significance, relevance, and importance of further educational culinary programs. Artisan gelato is not just about following a recipe and freezing it. This was agreed upon and discussed with numerous gelato artisans and other culinary educators in the Italian cities of Venice, Verona, Florence, Rome, Parma, and Milan (see [Appendix](#)). This diversification of sites visits and speaking with experienced artisan gelato makers gave an in-depth appreciation and association of the proud traditions, cultural significance, and regional variations when making gelato.

Findings

Reflecting on all stakeholders' active involvement, PAR demonstrates the capacity to initiate sustainable educational innovations and knowledge generation. Its usability allows applied interpretation Kindon et al. (2007, pp. 188–189) and an authenticity of relevance that reframes the transferability of knowledge and skills towards immediate action and curriculum development.

When educators actively participate in PAR, this evokes and informs real contextual needs and a realisation of educational innovations depicting real-world experiences for training. The student's comments pointed out that their interactive experiences and qualitative feedback gave context to rethinking theory to practice and the teacher to student relationships. The conversations amongst the students encouraged critical self-reflection central to informing their instruction, additionally advising the eventual application of the research.

The research achieved innovative, creative and practical research and scholarship strategies, the observations below encapsulate a situatedness of understanding gained by undertaking the PAR approach.

These include:

- Consulting with local hospitality industry leaders who have expressed keen interest in the development and recognition of developing training programs for advanced culinary skills.
- Participating in a structured professional Artisan Gelato training program in Bologna, Italy.
- Immersing in a renowned artisan gelato business, experiencing daily gelato making activities.
- Observing, discussing and participating with students and culinary teachers during experiential learning activities.
- Focusing on the historical and cultural aspects of an exquisite food specialty item.
- Understanding complexity and the depth of knowledge of artisan gelato formulation.

- Developing international professional and educational networks with other culinary educators worldwide building a community of practice.

Conclusion

PAR, as a research application, created unique insights that encouraged fresh thinking and approaches when constructing educational programs in practical skills. It provided a successful research methodology in the translation and transition of theoretical knowledge and practical skills acquisition. This research assisted in the construct of a workable model launching professional Artisan Gelato programs in Melbourne, Australia (Kirkham 2017).

The findings disclose that a science-based approach involving the functions and manipulations of ingredients were educationally fundamental for the course curriculum. Additionally, PAR concurred that collective inquiry and experimentation grounded in experience, action and social interaction could provide a practical application that benefits the building of hands-on training programs.

Valuable experiential insights were captured from the intertwined performance of both students and teachers. This interpersonal action allowed the research to become as much social as cognitive. This meaningful contact contributed to identifying essential learning experiences from participation to action, subsequently informing future delivery mechanisms, timings of classes and group activities.

The research also explored raising the level of authenticity by experiencing and participating in a real workplace. This immersion examined representative transferable knowledge of how to instruct future students when developing culinary educational programs. Additionally, considerations and understandings of cultural significances in artisan gelato proved itself to be another teacher in that it gave regional perspectives of the variances in gelato recipes applicable in their sweetness and fat contents.

PAR has significantly contributed towards the first steps in new thinking when creating and designing new training models in the Australian Vocational Education System to develop professional resources and a foundation base for culinary specialist skills.

The research suggests that the Australian Vocational Training sector should design and innovate towards nationally accredited culinary artisan training programs in the form of an academy, promoting unique artisan skill sets that educate and retain local chefs and bespoke professionals. Such an academy could draw on the knowledge and expertise of local and international chefs or experts in their trade to build a strong Australian community of practice. Furthermore, this setting would also allow profound research into process and strategies of how to successfully establish artisan food products and experiences in Australia.

Further Research Opportunities

- The impact of Australian Artisan Academy whereby one can direct future food artisans which enables training and endorsed qualifications recognising their field of expertise.
- Using PAR as a methodology to professionally develop vocational practitioners.
- Incorporating scholarly practices into vocational education could influence innovation and developmental theories.

Appendix

Artisan Gelatieri and Industry Site Visits

Venice

- La Boutique del Gelato, Salizzada San Lio, 5727, Castello, Venezia
- Gelato Fantasy, Calle dei Fabbri, 929, S.Marco, Venezia
- Gelatoteca SuSo, Calle della Bissa, 5453, 30124 San Marco, Venezia
- Gelateria Ca' d'Oro, Str. Nuova, 4273/b, 30131 Venezia
- Alaska, Calle Larga dei Bari, 1159, 30135 Venezia
- Grom, 3006 S. POLO, Venezia, VE 30125

Bologna

- La Sorbetteria di Castiglione, Via Castiglione, 44 d/e, Bologna
- Gelateria Gianni, Via Monte Grappa, 11, 40121 Bologna
- Cremeria Funivia, Piazza Camillo Benso Conte di Cavour, Bologna
- Gelateria Stefino, Via S. Vitale, 37, 40125 Bologna
- Gelateria Primo Latte, Via Azeglio, 1D, 40123 Bologna
- Carpigiani Gelato University Bologna- via Emilia ponente, 45, 40011 Anzola dell'Emilia.

Parma

- Gelato Festival 2015
- Emilia Cremeria, Str Luigi Carlo Farini, 29, Parma

Verona

- Gelateria Savoia, Via Roma, 1b, 37121 Verona
- L'arte del Gelato, Via Leoni, 3, 37121 Verona
- Gelateria Patagonia, Via Mazzinil Uberprufen, 37122, Verona.

Florence

- Gelateria Edoardo, Piazza del Duomo, 45R, 50122 Firenze

- Gelateria Artigianale La Strega Nocciola, Via de Bardi, 51/red, 50125 Firenze
- Gelateria Cantina del Gelato, via de Bardi, 31, 50125 Firenze
- Stickhouse, Il Gelato artigianale su stecco, Via Antonio Giacomini 9A, 50132
- Cantina del Gelato, via de Bardi, 31, Florence
- Venchi, Via Calimaruzza, 18 Angolo Piazza Del Mercato Nuovo 6/7, 50123, Florence

Rome

- Frigidarium, Via del Governo Vecchio, 112, 00186, Roma
- Gelateria del Teatro, Via dei Coronari, 65/66, 00186 Roma
- San Crispino al Pantheon, Piazza della, Maddalena, 3, 00186 Roma
- Giolitti, Via degli Uffici del Vicario, 40, 00186, Roma
- Carapina, Via dei Chiavari, 37, 00186 Roma
- Gelateria I Caruso, Via Collina 13/15, 00187 Roma



Gelato Museum, Bologna Italy, 2015

References

- Carpigiani Gelato University. (2015). *Carpigiani—Home*. <http://www.carpigiani.com/en/>. Accessed June 6, 2017.
- Dunn, R. (2011). *German bread making: Attracting and retaining apprentices in the Australian industry*. Higher Education and Skills Group Overseas Fellowship. <http://temp.issinstitute.org.au/fellowships/fellowship-reports/food-wine-tourism/>. Accessed June 10, 2017.

- Figgis, J. (2009). *Regenerating the Australian landscape of Professional VET practice: Practitioner-driven changes to teaching and learning*. NCVER. <https://www.ncver.edu.au/publications/publications/all-publications/regenerating-the-australian-landscape-of-professional-vet-practice-practitioner-driven-changes-to-teaching-and-learning>. Accessed May 4, 2017.
- Gelato World Tour. (2015). Press releases <http://www.gelatoworldtour.com>. Accessed October 02, 2015.
- Greenwood, D. J., Whyte, W. F., & Harkavy, I. (1993). Participatory action research as a process and as a goal. *Human Relations*, 46(2), 175–192. <https://doi.org/10.1177/001872679304600203>.
- International Specialised Skills Institute. (2017). *Fellowship reports*. <http://www.issinstitute.org.au/fellowships/fellowship-reports/>. Accessed September 05, 2017.
- Kirkham, R. (2017). Food revolution on the way to Daylesford. *The Courier*. <http://www.thecourier.com.au/story/4954403/food-revolution-on-the-way-to-daylesford/>. Accessed October 17, 2017.
- Kindon, S. L., Pain, R., & Kesby, M. (2007). Participatory action research approaches and methods: Connecting people, participation and place. *Routledge Studies in Human Geography*, 188–192.
- Lewis, G., Carew, A., & Fryar, N. (2017). *Fermentasmania: International lessons for local regional development*. Agrifood Skills Australia and University of Tasmania Fellowship report. <http://www.issinstitute.org.au/fellowships/fellowship-reports/food-wine-tourism/>. Accessed May 6, 2017.
- Lucas, B., Spencer, A., & Claxton, G. (2012). Learning and teaching methods that work. In *How to teach vocational education: A theory of vocational pedagogy*, pp. 59–76. <http://www.winchester.ac.uk/aboutus/lifelonglearning/CentreforRealWorldLearning/Documents/How-to-teach-vocational-education%20Bill%20Lucas%20Ellen%20Spencer%20and%20Guy%20Claxton.pdf>. Accessed July 20, 2017.
- McIntyre, A. (2008). *Participatory action research*. Sage Publications.
- National Centre for Vocational Education Research. (2012). *Apprentices and trainees: Early trend estimates, June quarter 2012*. NCVER. http://www.tda.edu.au/cb_pages/files/NCVER%20June%20quarter%202012.pdf. Accessed May 12, 2017.
- Occupational skill shortages information. (2017). Retrieved from <https://www.employment.gov.au/occupational-skill-shortages-information> Accessed July 27, 2017.
- Pancieria, D. (2013). *Italian Artisanal Gelato according to Donata Pancieria*. Lulu Enterprises Incorporated.
- Pellegrino, M. (2011). *The science behind the art of Patisserie*. Higher Education and Skills Group (formerly Skills Victoria) Overseas Fellowship. <http://temp.issinstitute.org.au/fellowships/fellowship-reports/food-wine-tourism/>. Accessed May 12, 2017.
- Reason, P., & Bradbury, H. (2001). *Handbook of action research: Participative inquiry and practice*. London: Sage Publications.
- Restaurant & Catering Australia (R&CA). (2015). *Shortfall of skilled workers to impact hospitality sector*. <http://www.medianet.com.au/releases/55059/>. Accessed July 18, 2017.
- Robertson, I. (2008). VET teachers' knowledge and expertise, *International Journal of Training Research*, 6, 1–22. <http://www.avetra.org.au/downloads/Robertson%20final.pdf>.
- Skills Australia. (2010). *Australian workforce futures: A national workforce development strategy*. http://www.issinstitute.org.au/pdfs/WWF_strategy.pdf. Accessed May 18, 2017.
- Seddon, T., Williams, M., & Goulding, F. (2013). *Towards a culture of scholarly practice in mixed-sector institutions*. Research report. NCVER. <https://www.ncver.edu.au/publications/publications/all-publications/towards-a-culture-of-scholarly-practice-in-mixed-sector-institutions>. Accessed May 08, 2017.
- training.gov.au. (2017). <https://training.gov.au/Training/Details/SITHPAT006>. Accessed July 24, 2017.

Tsimiklis, A. (2016). *Artisan Gelato training, Carpigiani Gelato University, Bologna, Italy*. ISS Institute Fellowship Report, Higher Education and Skills Group, Department of Education and Training, Victorian Government. <http://temp.issinstitute.org.au/fellowships/fellowship-reports/food-wine-tourism/>. Accessed June 22, 2017.

Chapter 16

Outside the Classroom Walls: Understanding War and Peace on the Western Front



Caroline Winter

Abstract A sample of 197 tourists, comprised mainly of older, Australian, Belgian and British nationalities was selected at two Great War (1914–1918) museums in Belgium and France. Questionnaires were used to collect data about visitors’ attitudes towards war museums and military cemeteries. An exploratory factor analysis of items designed to measure the purpose of military cemeteries extracted three factors: desire to visit (military cemeteries), understanding and remembrance. The study supports the notion that “getting outside” enhances understanding at these sites, in addition to the opportunities provided by more formal places, such as a museum and the classroom. This must be considered within the context of the battlefields, where the ‘evidence’ of war has been removed, and interpretation of the landscape is difficult without prior knowledge. Visitors were positive about visiting military cemeteries, seeing them as interesting, meaningful and important memorials. Different tests produced somewhat conflicting results, about the association of peace and understanding the war at the cemeteries, thus supporting other studies. Overall, the study supports the mutually reinforcing nature of formal and informal educational experiences in understanding the Great War.

Keywords Military cemeteries understanding museums · On-site learning · Peace

Introduction

The Great War of 1914–1918 ended a century ago, yet visitation to the Western Front battlefields of France and Belgium remains an important undertaking for people of many nations. The war resulted in the death of 10 million men and women, of whom the final resting place of between one third and half is unknown. Research at battlefield sites has confirmed that while remembrance remains a priority for many tourists, education and a desire to learn about history have become important (Hall

C. Winter (✉)
William Angliss Institute, Melbourne, Australia
e-mail: Caroline.Winter@angliss.edu.au

© Springer Nature Singapore Pte Ltd. 2019
S. Beeton and A. Morrison (eds.), *The Study of Food, Tourism, Hospitality, and Events*,
Tourism, Hospitality & Event Management,
https://doi.org/10.1007/978-981-13-0638-9_16

et al. 2010; Hyde and Harman 2011). Leisure experiences are also acknowledged as an accepted component of visitation and it is often the context within which other more serious experiences occur. Today, a wide range of people visit the battlefields to fulfil a number of motivations and experiences (Sharpley and Stone 2009). The centenary commemorations that began in 2014 have encouraged even higher levels of visitation.

The broader study of which this paper forms part, examined aspects of education, leisure, peace and remembrance, as well as personal, familial, national and European connections, at two war museums located on the Great War battlefields (Winter 2017). This paper concerns military cemeteries: peoples' desire to visit, and their attitudes relating to them as places for peace, remembrance and understanding the war. The paper is based on the notion that the military cemeteries of the Great War present opportunities for visitors to understand the social impact of the war in a way that goes beyond the mere learning of facts as McManus (2011) suggests. It also acknowledges that social memories are encoded to places and memorials, and very often, they are held within the fields of battle (Hutchinson 2009; Schwartz 1982).

Education and Understanding at Great War Cemeteries

After the war, secular pilgrimage was the dominant form of travel to the battlefields, and where relatives, friends and former comrades in arms, wanted to see the graves of their loved ones, and the places where they had once fought (Lloyd 1998). Touring the Great War battlefields for purposes of leisure was also very popular in the 1920s, although tourists were somewhat poorly regarded, and their motives for visiting were positioned as inferior to those of pilgrims (Lloyd 1998). Even so, battlefield tourism was popular, and travellers were assisted by the motoring guides published by the Michelin Tyre Company. Several comprehensive guide books were published, with each focusing on a particular campaign area (such as the Somme and Ypres), and they included small maps, photographs, a brief history of the battles, directions and advice on access to ruins and villages, as well as information about accommodation and other hospitality services.

The combination of the more serious aspects of remembrance with education and leisure is a sensitive and persistent theme in the various types of war related tourism (Henderson 2007; Sharpley and Stone 2009; Walter 2009). On the one hand, current visitors have access to a great deal of information that was not available to previous generations, including military records, service dossiers, maps and so on. On the other hand, however, McManus (2011) argues, learning historical facts about the war does not necessarily create meaning or provide an understanding of its events. Winter (2016) for example found that visitors to the Somme were keen to 'get outside', to experience the battlefield landscape for themselves, and to imagine how the war had impacted on the men. In addition, the temporal distance of current younger generations from the war means that understanding the conflict and its social

impacts can only be achieved in the absence of knowing those who lived through it (McManus 2011).

In an effort to assist visitors, the major battlefield areas in northern France and Belgium offer many facilities, particularly museums, interpretation centres and tour guiding. The importance of learning through on-site attendance is evidenced by the large number of school children that regularly visit the Western Front. In 2013, school children formed 44.2% of the total visitors (415,500) to the battlefields in the area around Ieper in Belgium. Of 154,700 British visitors, 98,200 (63.5%) were school children, and of 183,200 Belgian visitors, 31.6% were school children (Westtoer 2014).

The military cemeteries built by the Imperial (now Commonwealth) War Graves Commission are dominant along the old trench lines, and by their location, design and great numbers, they provide a highly visible and very sombre way in which to understand the impact of the Great War. The much smaller number, but more concentrated burials of the German cemeteries also tell their own story of the war. Walter (2009) points out that tourism is one of the mediating institutions which enables relationships between the living and the dead who lie in the cemeteries. Tyne Cot cemetery for example is one of the most highly visited sites in the Ieper area, with 359,000 visitors attending in 2013 (Westtoer 2014).

Peace on the Battlefields

The relationship between war and peace appears to be a difficult, sensitive and contested issue, and at times, a single event can be interpreted as an example of either war or peace (Kappler 2017). As part of the commemorations for the centenary of the Great War, the city of Ieper in Belgium (the old Ypres Salient) aims to be recognized as a City of Peace (Van Alstein 2011). There is however, some evidence to suggest that the British view of the war is concerned with national perspectives rather than peace (Van Alstein 2011). Winter (2017) for example, found that her sample of battlefield tourists regarded peace and anti-war as separate constructs, that were distinct from remembrance, education and leisure pursuits. One reason for this may be as Todman (2005) argues, that peace and anti-war ideas can be interpreted as being unpatriotic in times of national threat. In addition, he found that peace and anti-war themes may be seen as a denial of the sacrifices made by those who were killed or wounded, and this offends their surviving families.

Background to the Study Sites

The two sites were selected for this study because they are known to the researcher, have high levels of visitation, have well-appointed facilities as part of a military museum, and they are close to a military cemetery.

Fromelles

The Battle of Fromelles that was fought in 1916 resulted in 5533 Australian and 1500 British casualties (killed, wounded or captured). Approximately 200 of the dead were buried by the Germans in large pits at the edge of Pheasant Wood near the village of Fromelles in northern France. Over the years, the location of these burials was forgotten (Barton 2014), but as a result of the persistent efforts of an Australian amateur historian, Lambis Englezos the graves were found. Many of the men were identified through sophisticated DNA testing, and in 2010, the bodies were reinterred in the *Fromelles (Pheasant Wood) Military Cemetery*, the first new cemetery built by the Commonwealth War Graves Commission (CWGC) in 50 years (Barton 2014; Corfield 2009; Lindsay 2008).

Memorial Museum Passchendaele 1917

The *Memorial Museum Passchendaele 1917*, is located in the village of Zonnebeke, approximately eight kilometres from the city of Ieper (Ypres) in Belgium. There are approximately 160 military cemeteries of the Commonwealth War Graves Commission in the Ieper area, and the largest is located three kilometres from the museum. Tyne Cot is a ‘concentration’ cemetery, one that began as a small battlefield burial site but was enlarged after the war when bodies from surrounding fields were brought in. It now holds 11,965 graves, of which 8376 are unidentified, and a memorial wall listing 34,946 missing men (Commonwealth War Graves Commission, 2017). The cemetery is a symbol for the notoriously horrific Third Battle of Ypres (Passchendaele) of late 1917, which resulted in 275,000 British and 200,000 German casualties (Prior and Wilson 2002).

Method

Paper-based questionnaires and an information sheet, in English, French and Dutch were delivered on site in September 2013 by the researcher who was based at the *Memorial Museum Passchendaele 1917*, Zonnebeke, and at the *Fromelles (Pheasant Wood) Military Cemetery*. A more detailed description of the research design for the study can be found in Winter (2017) which focuses on questions relating to war museums at the selected sites. This paper concerns 13, five-point Likert scaled items that sought to assess visitors’ interest in visiting military cemeteries, and the role of cemeteries as places to understand the war, for remembrance and for peace. Four items relating to war museums were also analysed in order to clarify the relationships between peace, education and remembrance.

A final sample of 197 usable questionnaires were collected, including 87 from the Fromelles site and 110 from Passchendaele. A total of 18 records (7 from Fromelles and 11 from Passchendaele), were removed due to a large amount of missing data. There were some differences in the pattern of visitation between the two sites. At Passchendaele, visitors were surveyed immediately after exiting the museum, and although it is not known whether or not they had visited a cemetery on the day, it is quite likely they had, given the large number in the immediate area. At Fromelles, visitors were surveyed outside the cemetery, but they had not been into the museum because its opening had been delayed. It would be fair to say that many visitors had anticipated being able to visit.

Examination of the mean, standard deviation and skewness statistics confirmed the items were all acceptable for further analysis. Missing data for the Likert-scaled items were manually replaced with the item mean, this method being justified on the basis of the small number of missing data, at most being eight data points (approximately 4% of responses) (Tabachnick and Fidell 2001).

Results

Sample Characteristics

The samples at both sites were predominately men (62%) made up of a somewhat older cohort, aged between 50–69 years (58%), with less than 30 percent being under 39 years of age. Approximately one third (29%) of the sample at Passchendaele, and half (48.8%) at Fromelles were retired. A small number of tour guides and local residents were included at both sites (16 at Fromelles and 10 at Passchendaele). A high proportion of the total (67%) sample stated that members of their family had served in the Great War. In relation to cemeteries, 117 (59.4%) people had visited between one and ten, 43 people (21.8%) had visited more than ten cemeteries and 37 (18.8%) declined to answer.

The total nationalities were: Australian (n = 55, 27.9%), Belgian (n = 46, 23.4%), British (n = 55, 27.9%), French (n = 18, 9.2%) and Other (n = 19, 9.6%), which included people from the Netherlands, Canada, New Zealand and the USA. The Westtoer (2014) study of ten sites near Ieper in 2013 found that of 415,500 visitors, 44% were Belgian, 37% were British, 11% Netherlanders, and Australians 1.7%. Notably, the sample was over represented by Australians, most of whom were surveyed at Fromelles, and under represented by visitors from the Netherlands. Although many Dutch and Belgian visitors were visiting the museum at Zonnebeke, they tended to be on tours and were disinclined to complete questionnaires.

Table 16.1 Education, peace and remembrance at war museums and military cemeteries

Items	Mean	Std Dev
<i>Museums</i>		
1. Educate myself about the war	4.56	0.65
2. Learn about the history of the war	4.56	0.62
3. Peace education	3.60	1.03
4. It's a form of remembrance	4.57	0.66
<i>Cemeteries</i>		
5. Cemeteries are important places to understand the impact of the war	4.62	0.52
6. Cemeteries give a message of peace	3.86	0.94
7. Cemeteries are the most meaningful memorials to the war	3.96	0.85

Scale: 1 = Strongly disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Neutral, 4 = Agree, 5 = Strongly agree

Comparisons Between Sites

Paired sample t-tests were run on the 13 items to test for differences between the museum (*Peace education*) and cemetery (*Cemeteries give a message of peace*) items about peace. The results indicated that peace at the cemetery ($M = 3.86$, $SD = .94$) was significantly stronger than at the museum [$M = 3.60$, $SD = 1.03$], $t(196) = -3.59$, $p < .001$]. The eta squared (.06) indicated that the effect size was moderate (Pallant 2013).

Correlations were also calculated for the museum and cemetery items (see Table 16.1), and all associations were positive and significant with one exception. Item 5 (*Cemeteries are important places to understand the impact of the war*) was not significantly correlated with Item 6 (*Cemeteries give a message of peace*) ($r = .119$, $p = .095$). This result tends to support Todman's (2005) work about possible critique of the war and the results of the previous paper in this study (Winter 2017)

Visitation at Cemeteries

Independent sample t-tests confirmed that there were no significant differences between the two sites for the 13 cemetery items. The data were then subjected to exploratory factor analysis using the Principal Components extraction method with Varimax rotation (Table 16.2). In the first trial, two items cross loaded and were removed from the analysis (*To me, each cemetery is interesting*, and, *I want to visit as many cemeteries as I can*). Finally, three factors were extracted which accounted for 53.22% of the variance. The factors were labelled on the basis of the meaning suggested by their respective items: Factor 1: Desire to visit (4 items); Factor 2: Understanding and meaning (4 items) and Factor 3: Remembrance (3 items). Tests

Table 16.2 Results for exploratory factor analysis

Cemetery FA		Desire to visit	U/stand meaning	Remembrance
	Mean	F1	F2	F3
Cronbach's alpha		0.63	.57	.65
1. The cemeteries are all the same to me, so I want to visit only a few of them	1.98	0.83		
2. I am not interested in the war cemeteries	1.40	0.76		
3. I am interested only in visiting some specific cemeteries that I know about	2.66	0.70		
4. It is too sad to visit lots of cemeteries	2.29	0.47		
5. Cemeteries are the most meaningful memorials to the war	3.96		0.77	
6. Cemeteries give a message of peace	3.86		0.69	
7. Cemeteries are important places to understand the impact of the war	4.62		0.59	
8. I am interested in cemeteries for citizens as well as soldiers	3.56		0.54	
9. I wish to see the graves of my countrymen	3.89			0.86
10. I wish to see graves of my family	3.31			0.80
11. I especially want to honour the soldiers in the cemeteries	4.37			0.56

Scale: 1 = Strongly disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Neutral, 4 = Agree, 5 = Strongly agree

for the internal reliability of the sub-scales using Cronbach's alpha indicated acceptable levels for F1 (.63) and F3 (.65), but the score of .57 for F2 was unacceptable (DeVellis 1991). This result for F2 is probably reflects the low correlation between Items 5 and 6, as noted above.

The low means for the items making up Factor 1 (Desire to visit) indicates that visitors disagreed with the statements, that they were not deterred from visiting cemeteries, nor do they appear to see them in a negative way. In other words, people are interested in the military cemeteries, they want to visit several of them, and do not think they are too sad to visit. The second factor relates to understanding and the meaning of cemeteries: as meaningful memorials, and as giving a message of peace and as places to understand the impact of the war. Factor 3 concerns remembrance, with the two strongest items being to see graves of their countrymen and family.

In this study, the issue of peace remains somewhat unclear: the correlations indicated the relationship between peace and understanding were not strongly associated, but the same items loaded together in the factor analysis. The low correlation, combined with the poor Cronbach's alpha for this factor also suggests a weak relationship between peace and understanding the war in the cemeteries. It should also be noted, that during the factor analysis trials, the loading of the peace item appeared to be

sensitive to the inclusion or exclusion of other items, and in the previous paper relating to the museums aspect of this study, peace loaded with anti-war as a distinct and separate factor. It would therefore be premature to suggest where the notion of peace may best fit with other concepts relating to the battlefields.

Conclusion

Visitation to the Great War cemeteries illustrates one of the ways in which some of society's most important memories can be experienced and understood on site, at the places where defining events occurred. The highest scoring item in the study was, *Cemeteries are important places to understand the impact of the war*, and this confirms that understanding and making meaning of history extends beyond the formal, walled classroom (McManus 2011). This supports the practices of student field trips in providing experiential learning about complex and sensitive topics. It is also important to note that formal, classroom and field learning experiences are mutually sustaining. That is, in cases such as the Great War battlefields, where the 'evidence' of war has been removed or disappeared, some prior knowledge is required in order to interpret the landscape. The large number of visitors to the Western Front battlefields, including the military cemeteries, together with people's desire to 'get outside' and see for themselves, attest to the sites' continued relevance and importance (Sharpley and Stone 2009; Westtoer 2014; Winter 2016). The study also showed that most visitors do not appear to perceive military cemeteries in a negative way, but rather that they are interested in, and wish to visit several of them.

The notion of peace on the battlefields remains unclear and supports research at other war sites (Kappler 2017). In this study, the items for peace were scored higher at cemeteries than at museums, however, the correlation and factor analyses indicated that peace may be a distinct construct in the minds of visitors. This may reflect attitudes of the older generation, or perhaps the dominance of British and Australians in this sample, for whom peace, when considered in relation to the war dead, may be linked with unpatriotic or disrespectful sentiment (Todman 2005). The study indicates the importance of research in understanding these sensitive places, and clearly, further work is needed to better understand how peace may manifest, and the ways in which it can be developed as a theme in former war zones. The efforts of the Flemish government, the tourism industry and the many other organisations involved in the presentation of the battlefields in Ieper will provide a valuable study in this respect, over the coming years.

This study surveyed adults only, mainly from an older cohort who may possibly have had direct contact with those who had fought or had been otherwise involved in the Great War. While this group is clearly interested in remembrance and understanding the battlefields, it remains to be seen if the large numbers of school children who currently visit will continue to attend as adults.

The capacity of teaching staff to engage in research means that their experiences in the field can be immediately incorporated into classroom sessions to convey, not

only up to date content about tourism, but to illustrate the process through which knowledge is created.

Finally, the study confirms that the institution of tourism is instrumental in offering opportunities for visitors to attend sites at which understanding of war can occur, and that experiential learning continues out of the class room, at the places where history, when it was the present, was created.

References

- Barton, P. (2014). *The lost legions of fromelles: The true story of the most dramatic battle in Australia's history*. Sydney: Allen and Unwin.
- Commonwealth War Graves Commission (CWGC). (2017). <https://www.cwgc.org/find/find-cemeteries-and-memorials/53300/tyne-cot-cemetery>. Accessed 21 November 2017.
- Corfield, R. S. (2009). *Don't forget me cobber: The battle of fromelles*. Carlton: The Miegunyah Press.
- DeVellis, R. (1991). *Scale development: Theory and applications*. Newbury Park: Sage Publications.
- Hall, J., Basarin, V. J., & Lockstone-Binney, L. (2010). An empirical analysis of attendance at a commemorative event: Anzac Day at Gallipoli. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 29, 245–253.
- Henderson, J. (2007). Remembering the Second World War in Singapore: Wartime heritage as a visitor attraction. *Journal of Heritage Tourism*, 2(1), 36–52.
- Hutchinson, J. (2009). Warfare and the sacralisation of nations: The meanings, rituals and politics of national remembrance. *Millennium: Journal of International Studies*, 38(2), 401–417.
- Hyde, K. F., & Harman, S. (2011). Motives for a secular pilgrimage to the Gallipoli battlefields. *Tourism Management*, 32, 1343–1351.
- Kappler, S. (2017). Sarajevo's ambivalent memoryscape: Spatial stories of peace and conflict. *Memory Studies*, 10(2), 130–143.
- Lindsay, P. (2008). *Fromelles: Australia's darkest day and the dramatic discovery of our fallen World War One diggers*. Prahran: Hardie Grant Books.
- Lloyd, D. (1998). *Battlefield Tourism: Pilgrimage and the commemoration of the Great War in Britain, Australia and Canada*. Oxford: Berg.
- McManus, A. (2011). Poppies and pedagogy: Learning from the 'Great War'. *Citizenship, Social and Economics Education*, 10(1), 27–36.
- Pallant, J. (2013). *SPSS survival manual* (5th ed.). Australia: Allen and Unwin.
- Prior, R., & Wilson, T. (2002). *Passchendaele: The untold story*. New Haven: Yale University Press.
- Schwartz, B. (1982). The social context of commemoration: A study in collective memory. *Social Forces*, 61(2), 374–402.
- Sharpley, R., & Stone, P. R. (2009). *The darker side of travel: The theory and practice of dark tourism*. Clevedon: Channel View.
- Tabachnick, B. G., & Fidell, L. S. (2001). *Using multivariate statistics*. Boston: Pearson.
- Todman, D. (2005). *The great war: Myth and memory*. London: Hambledon and London.
- Van Alstein, M. (2011). *The great war remembered: Commemoration and peace in flanders fields. Report*. Brussels: Flemish Peace Institute.
- Walter, T. (2009). Dark tourism: Mediating between the dead and the living. In R. Sharpley & P. R. Stone (Eds.), *The darker side of travel: The theory and practice of dark tourism* (pp. 39–55). Clevedon: Channel View.
- Westtoer, (2014). *Wereldoorlog I bezoekers in the Westhoek 2013, Presentation*. Brussels: Westtoer Tourism.

- Winter, C. (2016). Tourism and making the places after war: The Somme and Ground Zero. *Alma-Tourism*, (Special Issue), 5, 26–43.
- Winter, C. (2017). The multiple roles of battlefield war museums: A study at Fromelles and Passchendaele. *Journal of Heritage Tourism*, Published online 8 February 2017, <https://doi.org/10.1080/1743873x.2017.1287189>.

Chapter 17

Student Leadership Development



Marcela Fang and Faith Ong

Abstract An increasing amount of leadership development programs (LDPs) is being promoted to enhance individual skills and to foster the development of leadership capabilities, particularly in response to today's volatile, complex and ambiguous business world. Investment in soft skills and leadership development also enables industries to prosper in the long term as management and leadership skill gaps are reduced. With the anticipated tourism and hotel development growth across the world, there is a rising need for managers who have the right skills and capabilities to help businesses and organisations achieve sustainable business performance. As industry practitioners look for graduates with the right mix of hard and soft skills, tourism and hospitality educators should further nurture the development of such skills to allow their graduates to prosper. The aim of this exploratory research is to determine leadership development needs of students studying tourism and hospitality courses, and inform the development of student leadership program initiatives, encouraging individual and industry growth.

Keywords Leadership · Development · Education · Student leaders

Introduction

The field of leadership is dominated by discussions at the organisational level where leadership development programs target middle and corporate managers, as this form of leadership initiative significantly impacts neoliberalist measures of success such as profit and sales. Far fewer discussions have taken place in regard to development of leadership at the student level, especially not in the area of tourism and hospitality. In the current, rapidly changing environment that has presented increased complex-

M. Fang (✉) · F. Ong
William Angliss Institute, Melbourne, Australia
e-mail: Marcela.Fang@angliss.edu.au

F. Ong
e-mail: FaithO@angliss.edu.au

ity to leaders, decisions need to be approached with agility. To nurture agile leaders who will positively impact the tourism and hospitality industries in the future, education providers should reduce the gaps between the leadership needs of students and industry requirements. As an institution with a strong reputation for delivering successful graduates who demonstrate expertise in their area of study, William Angliss Institute's (WAI) recent development of a Student Leadership Program in 2017 signals its aim to nurture future leaders who will contribute to the development and growth of the foods, tourism, hospitality and event (FTHE) industries, and their respective communities. Therefore, this study will examine student leadership skill development needs through the lens of WAI students.

To begin with, it is important to examine concepts within organisational leadership as a foundation for understanding leadership skills. While this constitutes a retrospective view on leadership, this study will build on them to discuss students' conceptualisation of the skills that will be crucial to their success as leaders of their respective industries in the future. This conceptualisation will serve to inform a future-led perspective on the leadership needs of FTHE industries. It behoves educational institutions to future-proof their graduates, preparing them for jobs that do not yet exist, and this study is conceived as a means towards achieving this.

Literature Review

The review of leadership literature uncovered two distinct leadership theory streams that can underpin the development of leadership programs and initiatives. One leadership theory stream emphasises the development of individual leadership skills and competencies and the other, the development of relational or collective leadership skills and capabilities (Day et al. 2014). The individual focus is more traditional as the emphasis is placed on individual character, personal traits, skills and behaviours (Allio 2005).

However, to lead effectively in today's increasingly interconnected, volatile and uncertain business environment, one must also work in a more cooperative and collaborative manner as it is the nature of relationships that can enable an organisation to thrive rather than just to survive (Ireland and Hitt 2005). According to the second leadership theory stream, leadership is seen as a relationship; sometimes one to one and sometimes one to many (Kouzes et al. 2010), in which leadership roles ought to be shared when the work context requires it (Kets De Vries et al. 2010). The collective form of leadership emphasises the development of interpersonal and social skills, as leadership is seen to be a process rather than an organisational outcome driven by individual leaders; in this process, many individuals interact with one another, and the outcomes are the results of their actions (Yukl 2012). Thus, leadership is attributed to the social settings and the diffusion streaming from various efforts made by individuals, such as leaders, managers, and followers in the organisation. Overall, these two theoretical views should not be seen in isolation, as one can support the other in a leadership development initiative. According to Goleman

(2015), intrapersonal skills, which are associated with individual leadership, form the foundation for interpersonal skills development, and therefore the development of collective leadership.

Bass and Avolio (1994) stress that a balance between transactional and transformational leadership styles is needed and that effective leaders should be able to master the two styles interchangeably. Through transformational style, leaders use emotional connectivity and positive social approach to foster the desired outcomes; through transactional style, leaders focus on the accomplishment of tasks and motivate employees through reward and punishment. Theoretically, both leadership styles should be used at different times to maximise employee performance (Orazi et al. 2013).

As tourism and hospitality businesses mostly rely on the performance of their staff, it seems logical that trust and fair employee-leader relationships contribute to better performance outcomes. For example, Rothfelder et al. (2012) discovered that leadership style in German hotels has a significant effect on employees' job satisfaction, and ultimately, the provision of quality guest services. The researchers posit that hotel managers need to positively influence their employees through suitable leadership behaviours to drive better hotel performance. Based on their study, transformational leadership is more suitable for the hotel industry as it facilitates employee job satisfaction. However, they also state that the transactional style contributes to satisfied employees. When employees clearly understand what they are expected to do and know what needs to be done to achieve organisational objectives, they are more likely to be satisfied when also rewarded accordingly for their good performance. Similarly, Dai et al. (2013) in their empirical study looked at leadership in the hospitality of Chinese firms and discovered that both transformational and transactional leadership styles should be used simultaneously to achieve effective organisational outcomes. The researchers stress that in collectivistic culture, the transformational and transactional leadership dimensions are identically important. They also confirmed that there is a linkage between trust and commitment and that both have a positive effect on organisational citizenship behaviour. To foster such behaviour, the researchers recommend that managers should develop trust with their employees, treat employees fairly and with respect, and create a good working climate so employees can interact and communicate with one another and ultimately achieve better performance outcomes.

Within the tourism destination context, various destination suppliers facilitate holiday experiences through destination resources, such as nature, culture, tourism infrastructure and services (Reinhold et al. 2015). However, Hristov and Ramkissoon (2016) and Pechlaner et al. (2014) stress that leadership within the tourism destination context has not received sufficient attention. Well managed and sustainable destinations are however believed to be the outcome of well-functioning interconnected stakeholder relationships and destination leadership, in which cooperative and collaborative behaviours result in effective decision making and quality travel experiences. Consequently, some form of cooperation and collaboration within the leadership process is believed to be needed to achieve well-functioning system or network that can produce effective outcomes for the destination.

Fostering Leadership Skills Through FTHE Education

It is evident from the literature review that leadership skills, which underpin the development of individual and collective leadership approaches, balanced leadership style (transformational and transactional), and collective and collaborative behaviours are needed to enable suitable tourism and hospitality graduates to effectively lead in the tourism and hospitality environments. According to Vinerba (2013), current tourism and hospitality industry training mostly focuses on the development of skills required for entry level positions, and early, middle and senior managers are not supported sufficiently. Consequently, today's managers are not developing those leadership skills which would allow them to perform in their roles effectively. Vinerba (2013) emphasises that current and future skills gaps will affect the businesses and organisations within the tourism and hospitality industries, particularly if the managers are not able to adapt to the rapidly changing business environment. As the demand for travel and hospitality experiences continues to grow, consumer behaviours will change, and digital technologies will rapidly evolve in response, creating the need for new leadership skills to face these new challenges. Current and future industry leaders will need the right skills to keep up with the change, to establish clear business vision, exemplify effective leadership, adapt effective management practices, and use information strategically to achieve effective business performance (Vinerba 2013).

Based on the current and future leadership needs (see for example, Joiner and Josephs 2007; Kets de Vries 2005), tourism and hospitality educators should foster the development of key leadership skills that will not only ignite graduates' career advancement but will also enable development of positive leadership culture within the FTHE industries.

The review of leadership literature uncovered various conceptualisations of leadership skills sets within the mainstream business stream and the tourism and hospitality research, yet no consensus exists on what the core and supplementary skills should be for now and the future. Different industry contexts may require different leadership skills sets at different times. Based on the review of business, and tourism and hospitality-based research literature, the following nine skills have been identified to fit the tourism and hospitality contexts:

1. Communication

According to Friedrich et al. (2016) communication is the base to all aspects of business and strategic decision making. Through communication, goals and objectives can be identified; problems described and appropriate cause of action proposed. It also enables business opportunities to be identified and exploited through collective efforts. Overall, through effective leadership communication, stakeholder relationships might be developed and maintained, and better business performance achieved.

2. Knowledge acquisition, use and dissemination

Scott et al. (2008) also highlight that today's leaders need to foster the acquisition, use and dissemination of business knowledge to enable better decision making.

Consumers of travel and hospitality experiences continue to look for new product offerings, and business decision making can be significantly compromised and opportunities missed if business leaders do not work effectively with their knowledge systems.

3. Strategic capabilities

Today's leaders are expected to be visionary and able to conceptualise and implement business strategies. This strategic capability requires conceptual skills (Northouse 2013), such as problem solving, expertise and reasoning (Anderson 2005). Analytical skills are also required, as business leaders need to continually scan the environment for new trends, opportunities and threats, while being aware of business strengths and weaknesses to evolve businesses (Zehrer et al. 2014).

4. Innovation

Increasingly, strategic skills are also linked with innovation. Leaders who adapt to the changing business environment are better able to manage business resources and capabilities. Tourism literature highlights that destination networking, which refers to cooperative and collaborative behaviour among interconnected businesses, is a form of innovation that may contribute to better destination outcomes. As businesses come together and engage in cooperative and collaborative behaviour, innovative tourism experiences emerge out of this process (Varra et al. 2012).

5. Network development

To achieve better business outcomes through innovative practices, effective leaders are also required to build and maintain various networks, such as social, business and community. For example, Friedrich et al. (2016) express that competitive advantage might be developed through effective network functioning as network actors interact with one another in a cooperative and collaborative manner.

6. Cooperation

Beritelli (2011) stresses that cooperation is one of the most important skills in the tourism leadership repertoire. Leaders who display cooperative behaviour score highly on emotional intelligence, which also means these leaders are better able to work with others. Individuals who score highly in the cooperative domain are more likely to distribute power to others on the team or within a network, and achieve better outcomes through collective actions (Northouse 2013).

7. Collaboration

As uncovered in Friedrich et al.'s (2016) research, individuals who are able to engage others in network activities are likely to foster collaborative leadership. Collaborative skills are also frequently emphasised in the tourism research literature. For example, leaders who are involved in the management of tourism destinations need to display collaborative behaviour as such behaviour tends to lead to better outcomes, such as improved management effectiveness (Hoppe and Reinelt 2010) and innovation (Zach 2016).

8. Collective leadership

The recent conceptualisation of collective leadership—leadership that is shared among various individuals (Yammarino et al. 2012)—is believed to fit the complex organisational and tourism business network context. Collective leadership actions therefore refer to the behaviours of the key network leaders who in their collective actions share information and engage themselves and others in the various communication, activities and collective decision making processes.

9. Organisational skills

Leadership capability that sets the right structure and control is underpinned by organisational skill. Leadership capacity, individual or collective, that fosters effective organisation and use of strategic and innovative resources should allow employees and network actors to work with one another in a more effective and collaborative manner, which may result in better decision making and effective overall outcomes (Collis and Montgomery 2008).

Crawford et al. (2014) assert that today's education providers need to emphasise the development of leadership skills, in addition to the basic theories, concepts and general industry knowledge. This is also in agreement with Vinerba (2013), who finds that current tourism and hospitality industries experience rising leadership skills gap. Therefore, educational providers like the William Angliss Institute, whose mission is to grow FTHE industry professionals, leaders and innovators, should now embed the necessary leadership skills in their current programs and other stand-alone leadership program initiatives to provide current and future students with solid base on which they can further build as they progress in their industries.

Knowledge Gap and Research Objectives

As highlighted by the literature review, a significant gap exists in current and future FTHE industry leadership skills needs. Industry practitioners are looking for graduates who can demonstrate well-developed hard and soft skills, which also include leadership skills (Vinerba 2013; Weber et al. 2013). Currently, industry practitioners invest only a limited amount of resources in developing entry level managers (Vinerba 2013). It is believed that current education providers should play a more active role in this area, and help to address the identified leadership gap. Investment in current students' leadership development could contribute to graduates' employability and motivation to continue advancing in their industries. In the long-term, the industries benefit from improved leadership capacity.

The aim of this research is to find out the leadership development needs of FTHE students. Building on the nine leadership skills identified within the business, tourism and hospitality literatures, the researchers will discuss student's conceptualisation of the leadership skills that will best serve them as future leaders. This conceptualisation will serve to inform a future-led perspective on the leadership needs of FTHE

industries. It is the responsibility of educational institutions to future-proof their graduates, preparing them for jobs that do not yet exist, and this study is conceived as a means towards achieving this.

Tourism and hospitality industry requires effective leaders to deal with today's business challenges. However, effective leadership and suitable skills and behaviours take time to develop, therefore the developmental journey should start earlier rather than later in the career. As many organisations now look to employ graduates who have good industry knowledge, cognitive capability, and also good leadership skills and potential (Vinerba 2013; Weber et al. 2013), the pressure is placed on the tourism and hospitality education providers to better prepare students for the industry. This study adopts a student centric approach to explore what leadership needs exist to inform the development of leadership, which will benefit both, the students and the industry as students learn to be more agile and able to deal with the rising workplace challenges.

Method

This study is of a qualitative nature and is looking for an answer to 'What are the leadership skills needed by FTHE students for their development as future leaders?' The 2017 Leadership Program cohort and other students identified as leaders by academics at WAI were invited to participate in interviews lasting 45–60 min. These interviews involved students envisioning leadership roles they anticipated occupying in the future, and the leadership skills that they thought would be required to be effective in those roles. Narratives documenting leadership development were collected from 12 participants, comprising a mix of genders, years of study, work experience and cultural backgrounds.

The interviews were transcribed, and deductive coding was conducted based on the nine established leadership skills distilled from the literature (Creswell and Poth 2017). Using definitions of these nine leadership skills, two coders—both researchers in this study—coded the transcribed interviews to establish intercoder reliability (Patton 2015). Additionally, students' reasons for their selection of leadership skills were also coded to find out the themes behind their reasoning. The researchers' coding revealed substantial similarities, with any disagreements on coding reconciled between the researchers in subsequent coding review. The results are elaborated in the following section.

Results

Of the nine leadership skills, communication was considered an important skill by most interviewees (see Fig. 17.1). This was supported by interviewees' examples of communication success and failures in their own working lives and related to



Fig. 17.1 Leadership skills selected by interviewees as important for future leadership roles

different aspects of communication. These included verbal (“In the kitchen, you have to communicate constantly...so that’s quite crucial”—Interviewee K), written (“The instruction was...just to break even...but after a couple of months, we felt they were pushing us to do upselling...and that’s different from what they initially communicated”—Interviewee J) and non-verbal (“If you’re saying something to someone, your body language is saying something else, your subordinate is going to know you’re lying...that’s not going to boost anyone’s morale”—Interviewee H).

The interviewees also emphasised the importance of knowledge in terms of its use, acquisition and dissemination. This related often to operational knowledge, as exemplified by Interviewee E, who said, “If you don’t have knowledge, how are you going to teach your staff things? If you don’t have an idea of how to make a coffee and try to teach somebody to make a coffee, this is not going to work.” However, interviewees also cited examples of disseminating experience as a form of knowledge, such as in the case of Interviewee L (“My supervisor isn’t just my boss...he also shares experiences of how he got up to a supervisor role, so we can learn from him and of course he doesn’t just talk about the good things, he also talks about where he fails...so I think it’s important to share your knowledge.”).

In order to become effective leaders, interviewees also felt that having strategic capabilities and organisational skills were important. With strategic capabilities, Interviewee B felt that “there has to be a framework or something to make sure you’re getting the most out of everybody who’s there to get where you need to go”, a role that is seen primarily as that of a leader’s. This is tangentially supported by the explanation provided by Interviewee G for their choice of organisational skills, as “you have to be really organised in order to achieve that goal. Everything can’t be a mess, everything can’t be everywhere.” Aside from people organisation, other interviewees also mentioned time and task organisational skills, pointing out the role of leaders as exemplars, and “you sort of learn from your leaders, like how they manage their work and then how they organise themselves in terms of working” (Interviewee C).

As can be seen from the results, communication, knowledge, strategic capabilities and organisational skills were of utmost importance to the interviewees. These are often in line with the individualistic style of leadership (REF). This is also supported by the least-chosen leadership skills—collaboration, cooperation and collective leadership actions—which are more likely to contribute to collective leadership styles. It is unclear if the low ranking of these latter three collective leadership skills are a result of perceptions that leadership is about the individual leaders rather than group dynamics.

While other leadership skills were also mentioned by the interviewees, it is pertinent to delve into their reasons for choosing these skills, as they may reflect the values that drive each interviewee. These reasons provide insight into their vision of the functions future leaders should fulfil in determining organisations' success. When asked to elaborate on why they chose each leadership skill, interviewees' answers were broadly sorted into three categories—facilitation, personal beliefs/values and future trends.

In relation to facilitation, this category consisted of interviewees who cited the different facilitation functions of each of these leadership skills in their vision of successful leaders within their industry. Oftentimes, interviewees would justify their choice of leadership skills by the extent to which they saw these skills as facilitating the direct achievement of organisational visions and goals. For example, Interviewee D thought that “a [general manager] should...have the ability to see a bigger picture...because that is his job.” And Interviewee F thought that, as a leader, “I have to envision how this action that I'm doing at the moment are going to nurture those strategies that I want to do in the future.” Others believed that certain leadership skills facilitated better decision-making, such as Interviewee L, who supposed that a good leader should conduct research to inform their plans, and seek their team's input before implementing these plans, so as to ensure the best decision is made. The last type of facilitation described by interviewees was that of facilitating employee buy-in. A number of interviewees described this convincing of employees as crucial for collective goal achievement, so as to maximise the chances of success. Interviewee A described this as “working with others who are just as passionate and on the same kind of wavelength as you are”, while Interviewee C saw this as enabling employees to “know that their words are actually heard by other people so it's also important in that way”. In general, empathy from leaders, especially in understanding the different roles and functions of each position in the organisation, was important to those who thought leaders needed to convince employees to work together towards a common vision. These facilitative functions were all connected to the interviewees' conceptualisation of the role leaders play in organisations, leading to their choice of leadership skills.

Interviewees also justified their choice of leadership skills by expressing them as a function of the interviewees' personal beliefs and value systems. This related to their perspective on interactions in general, thus leading to comments such as “I don't think leaders can be the ultimate leaders just by themselves...I don't think that works” (Interviewee B) and “I think in life and in anything...communication is the number one thing. And it's generally the number one thing people struggle with

as well” (Interviewee A). Interviewee I, whose goal was to own a café focused on sustainability, chose the set of skills they did because “you can combine it together...but the sustainable part of it...that’s what I value the most.” And so interviewees who were guided by their personal beliefs and values chose leadership skills that were complementary to these. Others chose certain leadership skills because they had witnessed antithetical examples in their workplace that provided learning points in becoming better leaders for the future.

Lastly, future trends were also important in these interviewees’ choice of leadership skills. The volatility of trends and tastes was prominent in these interview responses, emphasising that “ideas have to keep on flowing and you also have to improve your products even though you are selling it for 20 years” (Interviewee K). Interviewee D justified their responses by referencing the competitive and ever-changing market that requires constant innovation to ensure relevance over the long term. These interview responses indicate the importance of understanding the current business context and adapting to the changes with agility, in line with organisational vision and personal values.

Conclusion

To nurture and produce the future leaders of foods, tourism, hospitality and event industries in Australia and around the world, it is to WAI’s advantage that the leadership needs of their students are understood, and the potential leaders groomed to empower and develop to their greatest potential. By understanding the importance of communication, knowledge, strategy and organisational skills to students’ conceptualisation of future leadership, education and training can be better tailored to maximise the leadership potential of its students. Through exploration into the reasons for students’ conceptualisation of successful future leaders, this study also provides insights into the priorities that guide students’ future-led view of leadership and their associated skills.

In conducting this study, greater care can be taken to incorporate leadership development into the teaching at higher education and vocational levels. It encourages greater cooperation between the teaching and student services teams to design syllabi and leadership training programs that are complementary to the successful education of students, future-proofing them to deal with changes to their industries and preparing them for jobs that do not yet exist. Leveraging on this study on leadership skills, it is even more important to transition this knowledge into behaviours. In leadership embedded subjects and student programs, students could be supported to put into practice the values and visions they aspire to as future leaders. Further exploration may be conducted into student leadership behaviours and how these may be affected by factors such as level of study, age, and amount of working experience. Drawing on the broader literature on transactional and transformations leadership styles, it will also be important to explore how these leaderships behaviours manifest in different styles. By charting new directions in this area of knowledge, educational providers

can reduce the leadership gaps experienced by the industry. Students will have awareness of how they can develop through exposure to leadership training, thereby using this knowledge for lifelong learning and leadership development for the long term. This will provide further depth into understanding of student leadership development in FTHE education, instead of leaving leadership to chance.

References

- Allio, R. J. (2005). Leadership development: Teaching versus learning. *Management Decision*, 43(7/8), 1071–1077.
- Anderson, J. R. (2005). *Cognitive psychology and its implications* (6th ed.). New York: Worth Publishers.
- Bass, B. M., & Avolio, B. J. (1994). *Improving organisational effectiveness through transformational leadership*. Thousand Oaks: Sage Publications.
- Beritelli, P. (2011). Cooperation among prominent actors in a tourist destination. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 38, 607–629.
- Collis, D. J., & Montgomery, C. A. (2008). Competing on resources. *Harvard Business Review*, 86(7/8), 140–150.
- Crawford, A., Weber, M. R., & Dennison, D. (2014). Using hospitality coursework and internships to develop student leadership abilities. *Journal of Teaching in Travel & Tourism*, 14(4), 386–406.
- Creswell, J. W., & Poth, C. N. (2017). *Qualitative inquiry and research design: Choosing among five traditions* (4th ed.). Thousand Oaks: Sage Publications.
- Dai, Y.-D., Dai, Y.-Y., Chen, K.-Y., & Wu, H.-C. (2013). Transformational vs transactional leadership: Which is better? A study on employees of international tourist hotels in Taipei City. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 25(5), 760–778.
- Day, D. V., Fleenor, J. W., Atwater, L. E., Sturm, R. E., & McKee, R. A. (2014). Advances in leader and leadership development: A review of 25 years of research and theory. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 25(1), 63–82.
- Friedrich, T. L., Griffith, J. A., & Mumford, M. D. (2016). Collective leadership behaviors: Evaluating the leader, team network, and problem situation characteristics that influence their use. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 27(2), 312–333.
- Goleman, D. (2015). *A Joosr guide to emotional intelligence by Daniel Goleman: Why it can matter more than IQ*. Clitheroe: Bokish Ltd.
- Hoppe, B., & Reinelt, C. (2010). Social network analysis and the evaluation of leadership networks. *Leadership Quarterly*, 21(4), 600–619.
- Hristov, D., & Ramkissoon, H. (2016). Leadership in destination management organisations. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 61, 230–234.
- Ireland, R. D., & Hitt, M. A. (2005). Achieving and maintaining strategic competitiveness in the 21st century: The role of strategic leadership. *Academy of Management Executive*, 19(4), 63–77.
- Joiner, B., & Josephs, S. (2007). *Leadership agility: Five levels of mastery for anticipating and initiating change* (1st ed.). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Kets de Vries, M. F. R. (2005). *Global executive leadership inventory: Facilitator's guide*. San Francisco: Pfeiffer.
- Kets De Vries, M. F. R., Vrignaud, P., Agrawal, A., & Florent-Treacy, E. (2010). Development and application of the leadership Archetype questionnaire. *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 21(15), 2848–2863.
- Kouzes, J. M., Posner, B. Z., & Biech, E. (2010). *A Coach's guide to developing exemplary leaders: Making the most of the leadership challenge and the leadership practices inventory (LPI)*. San Francisco: Pfeiffer.

- Northouse, P. G. (2013). *Leadership: Theory and practice* (6th ed.). Thousand Oaks: Sage Publications.
- Orazi, D. C., Turrini, A., & Valotti, G. (2013). Public sector leadership: New perspectives for research and practice. *International Review of Administrative Sciences*, 79(3), 486–504.
- Patton, M. Q. (2015). *Qualitative research & evaluation methods: Integrating theory and practice* (4th ed.). Thousand Oaks: Sage Publications.
- Pechlaner, H., Kozak, M., & Volgger, M. (2014). Destination leadership: A new paradigm for tourist destinations? *Tourism Review*, 69(1), 1–9.
- Reinhold, S., Laesser, C., & Beritelli, P. (2015). Conference communication: 2014 St. Gallen consensus on destination management. *Journal of Destination Marketing & Management*, 4, 137–142.
- Rothfelder, K., Ottenbacher, M. C., & Harrington, R. J. (2012). The impact of transformational, transactional and non-leadership styles on employee job satisfaction in the German hospitality industry. *Tourism and Hospitality Research*, 12(4), 201–214.
- Scott, N., Cooper, C., & Baggio, R. (2008). Destination networks: Four Australian cases. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 35(1), 169–188.
- Varra, L., Buzzigoli, C., & Loro, R. (2012). Innovation in destination management: Social dialogue, knowledge management processes and servant leadership in the tourism destination observatories. *Procedia—Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 41, 375–385.
- Vinerba, A. (2013). Managing future skills needs. *Training Journal*. <http://www.trainingjournal.com/articles/feature/managing-future-skills-needs>. Accessed October 18, 2017.
- Weber, M. R., Crawford, A., Lee, J., & Dennison, D. (2013). An exploratory analysis of soft skill competencies needed for the hospitality industry. *Journal of Human Resources in Hospitality & Tourism*, 12(4), 313–332.
- Yammarino, F. J., Salas, E., Serban, A., Shirreffs, K., & Shuffler, M. L. (2012). Collectivistic leadership approaches: Putting the ‘we’ in leadership science and practice. *Industrial & Organizational Psychology*, 5(4), 382–402.
- Yukl, G. (2012). Effective leadership behavior: What we know and what questions need more attention. *Academy of Management Perspectives*, 26(4), 66–85.
- Zach, F. (2016). Collaboration for innovation in tourism organizations. *Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Research*, 40(3), 271–290.
- Zehrer, A., Raich, F., Siller, H., & Tschiderer, F. (2014). Leadership networks destinations. *Tourism Review*, 69(1), 59–73.

Chapter 18

International Students as Tourists: Implications for Educators



Natasha Hobbs

Abstract This chapter investigates international tourism students as tourists. Given the nexus of education and tourism, a term that has been adopted to describe this distinct market segment is that of ‘edu-tourist’. The implications for tourism education, in creating a closer symmetry between education and tourism for tourism students, are explored. Additionally, benefits such as the nurturing of global citizenship and cross-cultural understanding are considered. Of particular significance to tourism educators is the finding that tourism students adapted their travel behavior, reflected on or embraced different aspects of their tourism experience due to what they had learnt regarding sustainable tourism and destination product. It would be powerful for tourism educators to harness this influence so that students would gain as much as possible from their experience of being away.

Keywords Tourism · Education · Global citizenship · Cultural capacity

Introduction

International tourism students are making steps towards a globally integrated career in an industry predicted to support 11.1% of all employment worldwide by 2027 (WTTC 2017). While their primary reason for travel to Australia may be to gain a tourism qualification, by virtue of travelling, they are also engaging in the tourism industry that will eventually employ them. For this reason, international tourism students can be considered edu-tourists (Ritchie 2003). However, there has been little analysis of the symmetry between education and tourism for such students. This has implications from a market perspective (Ritchie 2003), but it may also inhibit potential benefits to students that industry might nurture as part of the international student experience (Huang 2008).

N. Hobbs (✉)
William Angliss Institute, Melbourne, Australia
e-mail: natashahobbs@gmail.com

© Springer Nature Singapore Pte Ltd. 2019
S. Beeton and A. Morrison (eds.), *The Study of Food, Tourism, Hospitality, and Events*,
Tourism, Hospitality & Event Management,
https://doi.org/10.1007/978-981-13-0638-9_18

203

Thus, the aim of this chapter is to explore the symmetry between the tourism and education of international tourism students' experience, to identify implications for tourism education in the 21st Century. A specific focus is on the geo-political benefits of international education such as, global citizenship and cross-cultural understanding because, this is recognised as important by universities and government alike (Universities Australia 2015). The following literature review considers this aspect, before exploring gaps and contradictory findings regarding the influence of education or tourism to the development of these goals. The research findings of a small case study, which explores key concepts through the 'eyes' of international tourism students is then presented.

Literature Review

As the term suggests, international tourism students, like all international tertiary students, are studying away from home. In this sense they are visitors. To arrive and settle, it has been necessary for them to engage with tourism industries, such as, airlines, and the destination management organisations of their host institution. However, because most tourism degrees and diplomas span three to four years, these students fall outside state and federal definitions of a tourist (State Government of Victoria 2014). This has implications for their recognition (or lack of) as a potential tourism market, and for the gathering of statistical data. Several academics have suggested this is an oversight in need of redress. For instance, Huang (2008: 1006) questions the validity of ignoring important social and cultural practices of international students 'to satisfy a country's or organisation's desire for statistics'. Likewise, Glover (2011) has identified that full degree international students have similar characteristics to students staying less than one year, which, if understood by both tourism and educational industries, could be harnessed to satisfy students' needs. Thus, this chapter draws upon these and Ritchie's (2003) conceptualization of international students as edu-tourists to explore the synergies and links between the two industries.

From an economic perspective these links have recently been made with 'The Australian' reporting the international student sector's worth at 24bn; if you add the direct contribution students make to education with their spending on other services (Hare 2017). This underpins Ritchie's (2003) conceptualization of the educational tourism product as including universities as well as accommodation providers and tour operators. The issue is, that these diverse businesses and institutions may fail recognize their role in creating the educational tourism experience, which could 'constrain the effective management of this sort of tourism' (Ritchie 2003: 16). Should some kind of collaborative approach be taken, benefits might reach beyond economic gains, such as the facilitation of social benefits to students.

Cross-cultural understanding is considered a positive side effect and benefit of tourism, as it can create an understanding between people of different cultures. Weaver and Lawton (2014) highlight this as geopolitical sustainability when it is used to improve bilateral and multilateral relationships. This tourism benefit links to Australian education as all “sectors have acknowledged the ability of international education to encourage local students to engage with foreign cultures” (Deloitte Access Economics 2015: 53). Furthermore, tourism education subjects that cover sustainable tourism can be considered to meet UNESCO’s approach to global citizenship education. This approach prioritises: ‘the relevance and content of education in order to ensure that education helps build a peaceful and sustainable world ...[it fosters] the knowledge, skills, values, attitudes and behaviours that allow for individuals to take informed decisions and assume active roles locally, nationally and globally’ (UNESCO 2017: 1). Moreover, for tourism students, the benefits of understanding different cultures and building global networks may well be increased due to the globally integrated nature of the tourism industry in which they will eventually build their careers. According to Brown’s (2009) ethnographic study of 150 international masters students, the transformative experience they gained while in the United Kingdom (including general shifts in world-view and increased intercultural competence) did link to increased career prospects on return home. Less clear, is whether these skills are gained through the visitor experience and tourism, their educational experience, or some blend of the two.

Indeed, the opportunity for international students to interact and develop cross-cultural competencies can occur socially within the grounds of their educational institution, in class, as well as through living and travelling within the host destination. For instance, Rosenthal et al. (2007) who assessed the wellbeing of international students at a large public-sector university in Melbourne, found that students were most likely to connect outside the classroom during the day-to-day experiences on campus. Likewise, Stone and Petrick’s (2013) review of study abroad literature finds that overall, students gained functional and cognitive increases in knowledge, learning about the unknown and cultural knowledge due to the whole experience, rather than the study component of the study tour. Hence, they agree with Abrams’ (1979, in Stone and Petrick 2013) evaluation that the term describing their travel should be ‘experience abroad’, not ‘study abroad’. Perhaps the same could be said for those international students studying overseas for their entire degree, such as international tourism students.

An understanding of where and how these competencies are gained may be important to maintaining international student satisfaction, as it is not only governmental bodies that recognise the benefits of international education. For the students, these skills and benefits are a motivational factor in deciding to study internationally. Studies exploring ‘study abroad’, ‘exchange’ and ‘international’ students find: the opportunity for exposure and exploration of other cultures (Cai et al. 2015; Chew and Croy 2011); to understand a foreign culture through friendship (Huang 2008); and to “live and learn about other cultures” (Stone and Petrick 2013: 736) all point to students recognizing the added value of gaining an education away from home.

Thus far this review has identified aspects of the relationship between the tourism and education of international tourism students. These aspects include the economic and geopolitical benefits of being away, such as the opportunity for cross-cultural exchange. However, literature regarding the role that education and tourism industries and practitioners might have in facilitating these benefits is limited. According to Tarrant et al. (2014) in their analysis of the impact study abroad has on global citizenry, it was not simply being away that increased cross-cultural competence. Rather, such gains increase when there is deliberate instruction. Their findings suggest that a combination of being abroad with an academic focus on sustainability yielded the 'greatest increases in global citizenship scores' (Tarrant et al. 2014: 153). Likewise, Leask and Carroll (2011) emphasise the importance of institutions leading the development of cross-cultural capabilities to improve 'informal learning'. Their study showed that both international and local students who participated in an institution-led mentoring program, gained knowledge and attitudes that are increasingly important in a connected and globalised society (Leask and Carroll 2011). Both of these studies shed some light on the importance of formalized education and instruction to personal development, in the form of cultural understanding and global citizenry. However, to date there has been little to indicate how 'tourism' specific education and instruction might influence international tourism students.

Conversely, it could be said that the travel component and the general experience of being away from home that international tourism students have, may provide fodder for reflection in relation to their education. Yet, literature empirically identifying their travel experiences within the host country as educational is limited. Both Falk et al. (2011) and Ritchie (2003) acknowledge the 'Grand Tour' when the English aristocracy sent young adults abroad to broaden their minds as learning and early examples of edu-tourism. Furthermore, Stone and Petrick (2013) identify various studies, which suggest that learning can occur without deliberate instruction. If experience leading to self-development is considered an educational outcome, then tourism has a role to play. However, it is acknowledged that formal instruction may be required to form course content knowledge. Overall, the impact of travel, and being away from home, as an experience that might enhance learning is an area warranting further research.

Research Aim, Question and Methods

This research explores the symmetry between the tourism, and education, of the international tourism student experience. It aims to identify any implications for tourism education, including the development of geo-political objectives, such as, cultural understanding. Thus, the research question is: does the experience of travel, and being away from home, impact on enhanced learning?

It applied a qualitative 'collective case study' methodology (Punch 2009: 119) to explore this question in relation to international tourism students. This allowed for commonalities and differences between student experiences to be highlight, and

more in-depth exploration of the topic (Punch 2009). Furthermore, this methodology recognizes that case studies may be criticized for not being generalizable. For this reason, it is acknowledged that this is a small sample, intended only to explore the topic, any findings will require further validation.

The primary method for collecting data was individual interview, conducted on campus at William Angliss Institute (WAI), Melbourne during July and August 2017. A purposive sampling method was used to select students, whereby WAI higher education lecturers approached several international students on behalf of the researcher. A 'purposive sampling' method was employed (Punch 2009: 252) to identify students who had travelled within Australia during semester breaks. They were specifically selected from the final year Bachelor of Tourism because they were considered to have been in Australia long enough to reflect on their experience of education and tourism. Four were available and amenable to be interviewed. Three were male and one was female. Two of the male students were Vietnamese (Students 1 and 4) and one was European (Student 3). The female student was Indonesian (Student 2). All respondents were in their 20s and had been in Australia for a minimum of three years. The interviews were semi-structured to allow for chance findings or particular avenues to be further explored (Brown 2009). The research challenge was to conceptualise the lived experience of the international tourism student outside WAI as part of their tourism experience. It is acknowledged that the distinction between tourism (travel away from the host destination), and the experience of living in the host destination but away from home, is blurry. However, whilst international students do not fit within neatly within various theoretical definitions of tourists, "their activities can be considered to have distinct tourism-related impacts and needs" (Huang 2008).

Results and Findings

The students have been assigned identifiers (S1–S4). Given the above profile of the four students, they would not have been included in any statistical tourism data. When asked if they identified as tourists, residents or students, S4 was the only student to see himself as a tourist, as much as a resident and student. "*I know more about Melbourne than some locals here, sometimes I feel like a tourist because I am travelling*". However, other times he is working and studying, hence he believes he is a combination of all three. Initially S2 openly stated that she did not come to Australia with a tourist mindset: "*I think at the moment, I'm just living the normal life, like study*". That said, she did admit she was a tourist when taking day trips, or went to Sydney. This was different for S1 and S3 who both saw themselves as student/residents. Even when travelling regionally, and engaging in what he saw as the "*tourist experiences*", S3 was "*not so much as a tourist*". This could be explained as he was travelling with locals that he met while living in student residences in Melbourne. He did acknowledge that he felt like a student initially, but identifies more strongly as a resident now; the same as other residents but without the right to vote and access to welfare benefits.

Irrespective of whether international tourism students identify as tourists, they have been engaging in tourism activities, and the tourism economy of Victoria and Australia. This supports Ritchie's (2003) definition of international students as edutourists. Appendix shows the various trips that the four students have taken since being in Australia. Regional destinations, such as Mornington and the Peninsula, which are easily reached as day trips or short breaks, have been frequented by all. The availability of a car impacts on the distance and frequency of these short breaks, with only S4 owning a car and being able say: "*Ok, let's go*". He regularly calls friends at midnight, after a shift in hospitality, to go camping. This kind of spontaneous travel was a common theme throughout the interviews and is not surprising as all students worked within the hospitality industry with limited time off. S2 had recently returned from a day trip to Ballarat, which she had been able to take by rail at short notice due to a day off from her commitment to Work Integrated Learning (work placement program). The attractions she visited while in Ballarat included Ballarat Wildlife Park, Sovereign Hill, and the Gold Museum. The common interstate destination amongst all four students was Sydney, by plane.

As identified in the literature review, one of the benefits of travel for education is gaining cultural understanding and competencies that may lead to global citizenry. While the researcher did not ask a direct question in relation to this, conversations with S1 and S3 indicated a conscious development and understanding of Australian culture. For example, S1 has developed an understanding of suburban Melbourne, the quietness of which came as a culture shock to him coming from Ho Chi Minh City. Likewise, he has come to realize that Australians interact within the tourism and hospitality industries differently to Vietnamese. Tourists in Australia approach strangers freely to talk "*and that's fine, but for Vietnamese that is considered so weird. Because I live here for a few years I understand and I know, so that is OK for me*". In addition, Australians address waiting staff differently, by asking once and waiting rather than demanding various items. For S3, one such cultural capacity is the understanding of Australian slang or phrases, such as, '*arvo*', or going out for '*tea*' instead of '*dinner*'. This student also actively seeks to understand cultures when travelling through food: "*So I guess one of my favorite things to do when I'm travelling is to experience the food because it also tells me something about the culture*". This can be seen as similar to the motivations for travelling overseas expressed in the literature. It is interesting to note that this student was the only one who discussed travelling with local students which corresponds to the finding of two other Melbourne based studies (Juneke 2012; Rosenthal et al. 2007) that European students were more likely to connect with and meet locals than Asian International Students. In addition, while the education of tourism might influence their travel, the students did not indicate the same for travel's impact on their tourism education. This is not to say travel is void of reflection, but for these students it "*just contributes to real life learning*" (S1).

The intersection between the education of tourism and its actual practice played out in some practical work related ways, as well as, being influential to the tourism choices, and sustainable practices of these students. When S2 first arrived in Australia she would study and go home. In time, she felt encouraged by other students

and teachers to discover her host destination. In addition, as part of her course she is undertaking a work placement, and through this she receives discounts for accommodation, which is further encouragement to travel. For S4, learning about destinations in his tourism course has been the impetus to experience them. When probed, as to what his learning of these destination and attractions might mean to his experience, the response was “*not much*”. However, S1 did show evidence that he had reflected on his tourism education when travelling:

In the research method I do my essay about heritage towns....after that I feel more conscience about what is happening with me travelling to places.....like responsible for what we're doing even though we're just tourists, we may go once, people will never remember your face....but the impression you leave on the local people will stay forever.

When questioned as to whether these values came from studying the sustainability of tourism, S1 acknowledged awareness of tourism issues prior to taking the course. However: “*taking the course open another door for me to look at the matter more clearly*”. The education of tourism was similarly reflected on when travelling by S3:

So that was great, using the information from classes to apply when you actually travel...I'm definitely more aware of the impact I have travelling. I've always been aware of the environment and sustainable practices, but it's great seeing sustainable practices towards society because that's some of the stuff we learnt here (like the multiplier effect and leakages and all that). So it kind of gives you different perspectives when you're making a choice. Should I buy from 'Coles' or should I go to the market for example, especially when you're out in smaller communities.

These understandings of sustainable tourism might be seen to contribute to the global citizenship of these students. As such, the education of tourism in these cases has had a positive impact.

Conclusion and Reflection

Overall the findings from the literature review identified that international students can be considered to be edu-tourists (Ritchie 2003), while on the other hand they fail to be captured in tourism data due to falling outside the international definition of the tourist (Glover 2011). The review also highlighted the benefits of studying overseas in relation to the development of cultural understanding and global citizenry. However, whether these benefits are best understood as a product of their educational experience, or their tourism/visitor experience (actual travel and living within the host destination) was less understood. Therefore, it was established that the symmetry and relationship between both paradigms (tourism and education) warranted further exploration with particular regards to the development of geo-political objectives in the education of tourism.

As stated in the chapter introduction, the overall aim has been to explore the symmetry between the tourism, and education, of the international tourism student experience, and to ascertain if there is any implication for tourism education. Given that by 2027 it is estimated that travel and tourism will support 11.1% of total employment (WTTC 2017) it is very important for educators to equip these students with the skills required for this globally integrated industry. Hence this chapter has focused on the research question: does the experience of travel, and being away from home, impact on enhanced learning? International tourism students as edu-tourists are in a unique situation in that they are practicing tourism by virtue of being away, while at the same time studying tourism. Of particular significance to tourism educators is the finding that tourism students adapted their travel behavior, reflected on or embraced different aspects of their tourism experience due to what they had learnt regarding sustainable tourism and destination products.

Most positively, some students appeared to be making sustainable travel choices based on their learning. These ranged from being conscious of their impact on small communities, to making decisions regarding where to shop, based on where their money will go. Such decisions indicate that international tourism students are learning to be global citizens through their study of tourism as proposed by Tarrant et al.'s (2014) study, which finds these benefits increase with deliberate instruction. It would be powerful for tourism educators to harness this influence so that students would gain as much as possible from their experience of being away. A particular focus could be given to the 'knowledge, skills, values, attitudes and behaviours that allow for individuals to take informed decisions and assume active roles locally, nationally and globally' (UNESCO 2017: 1) because these skills are required by a globally integrated tourism industry and for global citizenship.

It is important to note that the students themselves did not generally identify as tourists. It is recommended that this should be taken into consideration in future conceptualizations or mapping of international student experience, however for the purpose of this study, international tourism students have been conceptualized as edu-tourists.

Further research needs to be undertaken on a larger scale to ascertain which aspects of education nurture global citizenship skills for international tourism students. However, the findings presented in this chapter do imply that tourism educators have a role to play in nurturing global citizenship and the skills required of a 21st century tourism professional through the harnessing and influencing of their edu-tourism experience.

Appendix

Sample students and the destinations they have been to

Student			Intrastate	Interstate	Modes of transport
2	Male	Vietnamese	Monington Peninsula Buxton Trout farm Mt Bulla	Sydney, Woolongong Newcastle	Flights Car
1	Female	Vietnamese	Ballaratt Yarra Valley Frankston Morington Peninsula (Hot Springs)	Sydney	Flights Car Public transport
4	Male	Swedish	Philip Island Great Ocean Rod (Torquay) Grampians Castlemaine Ballaratt Shepparton Yarra Valley	Sydney Brisbane Fraser Island	Flights Car
3	Male	Vietnamese	Geelong Great Ocean Road Grampians Wilsons Prom Gippsland Lakes Entrance Mornington Queenscliff Sorrento	Sydney	Flights Car

References

- Brown, L. (2009). The transformative power of the international sojourn: An ethnographic study of the international student experience. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 36(3), 502–521. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.annals.2009.03.002>.
- Cai, L., Wei, W., Lu, Y., & Day, J. (2015). College students' decision-making for study abroad: Anecdotes from a U.S. hospitality and tourism internship program in China. *Journal of Teaching in Travel & Tourism*, 15, 48–73. <https://doi.org/10.1080/15313220.2014.999735>.
- Chew, A., & Croy, G. (2011). International education exchanges: Exploratory case study of Australian-based tertiary students' incentives and barriers. *Journal of Teaching in Travel & Tourism*, 11, 253–270. <https://doi.org/10.1080/15313220.2011.597633>.
- Deloitte Access Economics. (2015). *The value of international education to Australia*. Resource document. Australian Government. <https://internationaleducation.gov.au/research/research-papers/Documents/ValueInternationalEd.pdf>. Accessed November 6, 2017.

- Falk, J., Ballantyne, R., Packer, J., & Benckendorff, P. (2011). Travel and Learning: A neglected tourism research area. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 39(2), 908–927. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.annals.2011.11.016>.
- Glover, P. (2011). International students: Linking education and travel, *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing*, 28(2), 180–195. <https://doi.org/10.1080/10548408.2011.546210>.
- Hare, J. (2017). International ed hits \$24bn. *The Australian*, 4 August 2017. <http://www.theaustralian.com.au/higher-education/international-ed-hits-24bn/news-story/8c526941b930fedadff4460b040505b4>. Accessed November 6, 2017.
- Huang, R. (2008). Mapping the educational tourists' experience in the UK: Understanding international students. *Third World Quarterly*, 29(5), 1003–1020. <https://doi.org/10.1080/01436590802106247>.
- Junek, O. (2012). *International students and their leisure and travel behaviour: A grounded theory of being-ness and connectivity*. Unpublished PhD thesis, Central Queensland University.
- Leask, B., & Carroll, J. (2011). Moving beyond 'wishing and hoping': Internationalisation and student experiences of inclusion and engagement. *Higher Education Research & Development*, 30(5), 647–659. <https://doi.org/10.1080/07294360.2011.598454>.
- Punch, K. F. (2009). *Introductions to research methods in education*. London: Sage Publications.
- Ritchie, B. W. (2003). An introduction to educational tourism. In B. W. Ritchie, N. Carr, & C. C. Cooper (Eds.), *Managing educational tourism* (pp. 1–24). Clevedon: Channel View Publications.
- Rosenthal, D. A., Russell, J. C., & Thompson, G. D. (2007). Social connectedness among international students at an Australian University. *Social Indicators Research*, 84(1), 71–82. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11205-006-9075-1>.
- State Government of Victoria. (2014). *Tourism Victoria research, guide to sources, methodologies and definitions*. Resource document. State Government of Victoria. http://www.business.vic.gov.au/__data/assets/pdf_file/0006/1537881/Tourism-Victoria-Research-Sources-methodologies-defintions-March-2014.pdf. Accessed November 6, 2017.
- Stone, M. J., & Petrick, J. F. (2013). The educational benefits of travel experiences: A literature review. *Journal of Travel Research*, 56(6), 731–744. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0047287513500588>.
- Tarrant, M., Rubin, D., & Stoner, L. (2014). The added value of study abroad: Fostering global citizenry. *Journal of Studies in International Education*, 18(2), 141–161. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1028315313497589>.
- UNESCO. (2017). *Global citizenship education: UNESCO's approach*. <https://en.unesco.org/gced/approach>. Accessed November 6, 2017.
- Universities Australia. (2015). *Draft national strategy for international education: A blueprint for growth*. Media release. <https://www.universitiesaustralia.edu.au/news/media-releases/Draft-National-Strategy-for-International-Education-a-blueprint-for-growth#.WgPCP4Zx1jQ>. Accessed November 9, 2017.
- Weaver, D., & Lawton, L. (2014). *Tourism management*. Milton: John Wiley & Sons Australia Ltd.
- World Travel & Tourism Council (WTTC). (2017). *Travel & tourism economic impact: 2017 world*. <https://www.wttc.org/-/media/files/reports/economic-impact-research/regions-2017/world2017.pdf>. Accessed November 9, 2017.

Chapter 19

Through the Camera Lens: Utilising Visual Imagery with Short Study Tours Abroad



Kim Marianne Williams

Abstract This chapter aims to generate a discussion relating to a selection of visual methodologies. The specific focus is on three innovative imagery methods; visitor-employed photography, photovoice and photo-elicitation interviews. A cross-section of relevant literature on how visual methodologies have been applied in an education or tourism setting previously is documented and reviewed. This discussion assists with the adoption of these applications to the evaluation of short study tour abroad. The chapter highlights the benefits of utilising photographic imagery as a research or pedagogical instrument to guide effective inductive and reflective inquiry in tourism, hospitality, food and events education. In addition, ethical issues and protocols associated with these visual methods are considered. Visual photographic images have become a central part of human interaction and communication in the twenty-first century, however there is limited discussion of these methods being effectively adopted and adapted to students undertaking a short study tour abroad experience.

Keywords Visitor-employed photography · Photovoice · Photo-elicitation interviews · Study tours · Tertiary education · Tourism

Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to generate a discourse pertaining to a selection of innovative visual methodologies. Visual imagery can be effectively employed in conjunction with other qualitative research data collection tools, to assess the effectiveness of subject learning outcomes and evaluate subjects. Likewise, visual images can also be utilised as a component of a teaching and learning assessment approach for students. This chapter examines three innovative imagery methods; visitor-employed photography, photovoice and photo- elicitation interviews. The application of these

K. M. Williams (✉)
William Angliss Institute, Melbourne, VIC, Australia
e-mail: Kim.Williams@angliss.edu.au

© Springer Nature Singapore Pte Ltd. 2019
S. Beeton and A. Morrison (eds.), *The Study of Food, Tourism, Hospitality, and Events*,
Tourism, Hospitality & Event Management,
https://doi.org/10.1007/978-981-13-0638-9_19

methods has previously been associated with social science and education studies but there is limited discussion of these methods being applied to students undertaking a short study tour abroad experience.

The aim of the chapter is to document relevant literature on how visual methodologies have been applied in an education or tourism setting in the past. This knowledge will inform an adoption of these applications for a short study tour abroad curriculum in tourism, hospitality, food and events education being conducted at William Angliss Institute and in other similar institutional locations globally.

Literature Review

We live in a world which is overwhelmingly concerned with the visual, via art, media and methods of communication (Parker 2009). Travel holidays and the visual image have an interactive relationship (Garrod 2009). Taking photographs while traveling has become a ritual, (Cederholm 2004) catching oneself and others during these special experience is vital for remembering and also for sharing. Visual images form part of the narrative when travellers are away from home. Digital technologies now provide the traveller with the prospect to share online real time images with family and friends whilst accumulating an abundance of unmistakable memories in the form of a digital photo album. Social media has provided a variety of commonly accepted platform to view and comment on one's own and others travel photos (Lo et al. 2011).

Visual methods which can employ a photographic medium have become established as a robust participative research method (Maclean and Woodward 2013). This approach offers an empowering, engaging and effective technique which captures unique insights and emotions concerning the participant's memory. There is a reliable nexus between photos and memory (Berger 1992). Images, and in this case personal photographs, can operate as a stimulus by which students are able to reflect upon a learning experience (their memory). This reflection upon learning could assist in translating into an effective assessment strategy due to the fact that there is greater personal engagement. Images can also assist when conducting research to assess the overall effectiveness of learning obtained whilst completing a short study tour abroad experience.

Utilising visual methods within a qualitative research strategy contributes an additional facet to examine and provides a means to heighten and arouse deeper aspects of a human's awareness by stimulating and provoking reflective and strong memories of an experience (Harper 2002). Qualitative research is principally concerned with the examination and detection of social experiences through the use of inductive processes (Minichiello et al. 1995). Qualitative research presents the possibility to discover rich background aspects crucial for a study to obtain rich and complex descriptive data (Cohen et al. 2013). Visual images assist with this inductive process (Clark-Ibáñez 2004), especially if photos are incorporated with an interview as part of the data collection strategy. Narrative enquiry can also be utilised in this inductive process. Narratives or 'stories lived and told' are employed to understand the

experiences of others (Clandinin and Connelly 2000: 20). Visual images assist with memory recall and the development of a more vivid written or verbal narrative.

Visitor-Employed Photography

A range of image-based research techniques have been developed over time. Initially, visual methodologies research was chiefly concerned with existing visuals chosen by the researcher (Guillemin and Drew 2010). The researcher was the one who generated the visual during field work pursuits, obtaining appropriate images (e.g. postcards, newspaper, graffiti or brochures) or by taking a photograph themselves to be employed as an encouragement for discussion at an interview in the future. Willson and McIntosh (2010) presented an assortment of their photos to international tourists in a study of tourist experience of heritage buildings in Napier, New Zealand. This technique, however, has the limitation of looking through the lens of the researcher rather than from the participant's viewpoint. Thus the researcher is leading the discussion and the participant may not relate nor have any memories or personal connection with the visual.

Visitor-employed photography is the alternate technique to researcher generated visuals. This is when the participant is invited to generate the images for themselves, especially in the form of personal photography. In the past the researcher could supply an inexpensive and effective disposable camera to the research participant which would be returned to the researcher when all the required photographs were taken. This was the case for MacKay and Couldwell (2004) using visuals in destination image promotion and Garrod (2008, 2009) who investigated the perceptions of residents and tourists of Aberystwyth, Wales. Photos were taken by volunteer participants and submitted to the researchers for content analysis. Both these studies however, did not conduct any subsequent interviews with the participants, thus the analysis was again conducted through the researcher's lens. Another option which one could suggest is more suitable in the twenty-first century is for the participant to utilise their own equipment especially considering the expansive use of hand held devices containing high quality digital cameras.

To fully develop the concept of visitor-employed photography it is necessary to view the research focus through the lens of the participant. This is can be achieved by having participant identify what they consider is important for the research via their image selection and then also provide an opportunity to explain their own interpretation of the visual including its significance. This could be achieved via a written narrative/journal or by face to face interview or both. Visual content provides a means of focusing interview discussions. This can be achieved via two visual methods photovoice and photo-elicitation (Rose 2016).

Photovoice

Photovoice evolved from a method developed by Paulo Freire (Wang and Burris 1997) and is associated with action research techniques (Wang 1999). It is different from photo-elicitation because it is an ongoing ‘process of social learning, analysis and empowerment, in the hope of eventually changing the social situation itself’ (Rose 2016: 315).

Photovoice uses participant generated photographs which capture everyday experiences, allowing the focus to be on issues which are important to the participant that can then be conveyed to administrators, policy makers and the like to assist in social change making. This technique can be effectively used within an experiential learning setting in the classroom and as a research data collection tool (Werremeyer et al. 2016). Photovoice has the power to give participants the opportunity to reveal aspects of reality that may not have been initially considered by the researcher. Hurworth (2004: 76) suggested ‘photovoice has three goals:

- To enable people to record and reflect their community’s strengths and concerns;
- To promote critical dialogue and knowledge about important issues through large and small group discussion of photographs; and
- To reach policy makers.

Tomar and Stoffel (2014) conducted a study within the education sector which engaged photovoice to analyse the participant’s photos with accompanying narratives and interview discussions. This study concluded in a development in occupational-bases intervention to assist American war veterans who engage in higher education programs. The application of visual images in this study facilitated a fuller understanding of the study area and allowed the participants to identify factors that influenced them to complete higher education.

Photovoice methodology is usually associated with participatory research activities with vulnerable research participants; the young, women, the elderly or those who may not commonly have a “voice” in change issues at a society level (Wang and Burris 1994, 1997; Wang 1999). Simmonds et al. (2015) utilised this technique and extended the concept by underpinning it with narrative inquiry theory to create a narrative-photovoice. Narrative-photovoice explores both the photographs generated by the participant and a narrative which makes meaning of the topic being examined (Mitchell 2011; Simmonds et al. 2015) crafting an even more robust research procedure.

Photo-Elicitation Interviews

Photo-elicitation, is also a process of using visual images whilst conducting a research interview (Garrod 2008; Harper 2002), however photo-elicitation is slightly different process from photovoice discussed above. Photo-elicitation usually only involves one

or two interviews between the participant and the researcher with the duration being only a few weeks rather than an extend amount of time for a long term enabling project (Rose 2016). This process is utilised to build a relationship between the researcher and the research participant, rather than effecting change for the broader community.

Hurworth (2004: 77) suggested this technique can ‘challenge participants, provide nuances, trigger memories, lead to new perspectives and explanations and help to avoid researcher misinterpretation. ...While also building trust and rapport and providing a component of multimethod triangulation’. Rose (2016) identified four key strengths with a photo-elicitation process. Firstly, this method can allow different or “unknown” (Allen 2011) issues to emerge, which may not have been on the researcher’s or even the participant’s radar until the visual image was discussed at an interview. Secondly, this method has the capacity to evoke more intense emotions and stirs up valuable memories from the participants. Thirdly, photographs help to examine commonplace things, allowing personal reflection and discovering implicit aspects of life. Lastly, the photographs permit the participant to have a distinct and principal role during data collection, providing an empowering aspect compared to a researcher centre process.

There are a number of benefits of linking visual methods, visitor-employed photography with photovoice or photo-elicitation for data collection. The photograph ‘can act as a neutral third party’ (Parker 2009: 1119) rather than the conversation being about issues in the abstract a specific direction is provide from the photos for the interview discussion. Participants display an ownership of the images producing a stronger personal connection and a specific stimulus to facilitate open discussion. This assists in building a rapport between interviewer and interviewee enabling richer data collection and even the possible inclusion of emotional matters. Visuals also allow for silence, reflection and contemplation during the interview which may provide valuable unexpected spontaneous comments from the interviewee and interviewer (Parker 2009). Visual images add a sensory dimension to interviewing data and prompt profound emotional connection to a place, time, experience and memory connecting the concept of ‘self’ to society or culture (Harper 2002). These aspects agree with Crang (1997) who also proposed that the employment of photo-elicitation provides subjectivity allowing photographs to concentrate interviewee’s attention onto a task/issue/location in an immersive and involving way. The choice of photographs, including framing and subject is determined by the photographer and assist in providing a participant centred focus.

Photographic imagery is also effective as a pedagogical tool to guide reflective student inquiry. Photo-elicitation interview related to assessment tasks or utilised in the classroom can award another dimension to the pedagogical process and assist in deepening the comprehension of the teacher. Photographs can assist in opening up and engage students in written and verbal activities for their assessment tasks. Assessments providing reflection on experiences illustrate an interest in the student’s personal stories or narratives. While their deliberation on their learning also assists to validate and respect the student’s judgements concerning a particular topic and learning outcome they are exploring (Torre and Murphy 2015; Zenkov et al. 2012).

Photographs depicting the student also support authenticity of the work. This provides a degree of encouragement to students to follow ethical protocols and not engage in plagiarism activities, which have become prevalent in the twenty-first century education setting. Students are able to discuss and share their experiences in the classroom and transfer that involvement into diligent written assessment (Torre and Murphy 2015).

It may also be suggested that taking photos is enjoyable and fun and connects with the twenty-first phenomenon of ‘selfies’ and digital technologies such as Instagram, Snapchat and Facebook. Another aspect of this method is the photograph does not have to be considered high/good quality, it is more important that there is a photo to create a dialogue. It is the meaning and significance regarding the photographs which is most important. The question is: what are the images representing to the participant and contributing to the research study or the assessment task?

Ethical Issues for Visual Imagery

Before proceeding to the application of these methods for a short study tour abroad it is important to deliberate upon ethical issues and protocols for visual imagery methods. When conducting any research, it is paramount to identify ethical issues associated with the research method being considered. The application of a visual methodology generates a raft of extra ethical issues in comparison to other traditional qualitative research methods. Wiles et al. (2008) proposed there are a number of key ethical issues to be considered when utilising visual methods. Smith et al. (2012) confronted the similar concerns. One major consideration is anonymity, the identification of people within the visual image must be considered, this may be the participant or others. Will the photograph be included in the research publication? Images included in a research publication can add another effective dimension to analysis but bring with it an ethical and privacy consideration.

Visual images or photographs taken and supplied by the participant may be self-censored or can be used to only generate the positive and constructive aspects of photo-elicitation interview; empowerment, engagement and open discussion, and will not be considered for inclusion in a research publication. In addition, the researcher needs to contemplate that not only the photograph can identify the research participant. Specific narratives associated with the photographs may also provide the reader with clues which assists in identification. This situation is also magnified if the study location is identified and only a small number of eligible participants were involved. Likewise, another important consideration is even if you have obtained the relevant ethical consent from the participant what happens if there are others depicted within the photographs. The researcher may not have been able to obtain consented from the others to be part of a research study causing more complications.

As mentioned above, the major concern arises when the photographs will be included in a publication, thus part of the consent may be to specify that people (other than those in a public space) should not be included. However, this may be

detrimental to the quality of data collected in certain studies, especially if the study has a focus concerning human interactions. The other option to protect the participant's privacy is to not include any photographs in publications and to use the technique for the benefits discussed previously (Smith et al. 2012). Whatever decisions are made it is essential that all utilisations of the photography are fully explained to participants prior to consent to participate is obtained.

Short Study Tours Abroad and Visual Methods

A range of William Angliss Institute students undertaking qualifications in vocational and higher education are offered the opportunity to complete part of their studies by enrolling into a subject incorporating a study tour experience. A specific case study example of a short study tour abroad conducted by the Higher Education Faculty at William Angliss was evaluated for its benefits for students and teachers in Chap. 20. Study tours can provide an excellent experiential learning vehicle which combines fundamental learning objectives with a touristic exposure which is richer than the typical travel holiday (Litvin 2003). Study tours provide students with 'a more comprehensive knowledge and understanding of global policy and practice, cultural complexity, and diversity which is now required of Australian business students for optimal performance upon entering the contemporary workforce' (Williams and Best 2014: 241).

Short study tours abroad provide many and varied learning and growth opportunities for students; international exposure, cultural enrichment, subject content knowledge and skills and access to industry and real-life experiences to mention a few. From the relevant literature examined in this chapter it appeared reasonable to expect that visual content may provide an engaging method for students to identify and focus their learning upon what they consider to be important for an advantageous result during their time in another cultural setting.

The visual methodologies literature documented above assists in identifying how these techniques can be adopted and utilised for a short study tour abroad in general. Visual methods would be a particularly appropriate technique to be utilised for study tours which specialise in tourism, hospitality, food and events for both vocational and higher education students. There is an excellent case to suggest it is important to focus attention upon evaluating or researching the learning effectiveness and the overall satisfaction levels of students undertaking this type of experiential learning. A trusted best practice in educational environments is to continually consider ongoing improvements and evaluation of all subjects and entire programs. Short study tours abroad which also include extra financial commitment from the students, the Victorian State Government (Endeavour Mobility Grants) and the institute should also be scrutinised and continually reviewed for aspects of improvement to learning due to the extra commitment from all parties.

Photovoice the method associated with action research and societal change could be applied to an overall evaluation of programs with a component of study tour

included in the curriculum. Issues, challenges and positive elements could be identified and utilised to rectify negatives and enhance positives aspects. This method could assist with providing a deeper understanding of this type of experiential learning via a study tour which provides valuable benefits to teachers and students. This data collection can also assist in reaffirming the value of these programs to policy makers within the education institution and also validate the funding provided by the state government mobility grant scheme.

There are a number of research studies which have examined the benefits associated with study tours (refer to Chap. 20) however there is limited literature providing a discourse concerning the advantages of adopting visual methods to enhance data collection or to be utilised as a pedagogical technique. Pachmayr and Andereck (2012) and Williams and Best (2013) incorporated visitor-employed photography and photo-elicitation interviews in their research studies. After returning home tertiary students were requested to provide a number of photographs and a written narrative which best represented significant cultural experiences depicting their cross-cultural development during the short study tour abroad. These photographs were employed at a research interview (photo-elicitation) as a means to focus the interview discussions on the students' cultural engagement and changes in their cross cultural perceptions. Short study tours provide students with an opportunity to explore other cultures and develop an international or global perspective of life.

These cases illustrated that there is value to employing visual methods for more informative data collection. Data collected could assist in determining the benefits of utilising the above research methods for expanding the quality and depth of data collected post study tour experience in tourism, hospitality, food and events education. There has been little scholarship published on these methods being applied in the tourism, hospitality, food and events education sector, implementing these methods and publishing outcomes and results in the future will assist in reducing this research gap. The application of all three methods could be incorporated into a tertiary institute context which could offer both vocational and higher education students the opportunity to participate in a study tour in the future.

On a pedagogical point recent study tours conducted by William Angliss Institute have incorporated visuals for a scaffolded assessment task. Students were required to collect and then select a range of photographs which represents specific aspects of the learning outcomes for the study tours. Written narratives concerning the visual images were also included and became the major component of the assessment result. The photographs and narratives were utilised to submit a reflective journal and then a subsequent essay. This assessment strategy could be further developed by including a photo-elicitation interviews as a pedagogical tool to assist with enquiry (Sanchez 2015; Torre and Murphy 2015). A presentation or viva; an oral discourse on what learning was obtained could also be included with this assessment strategy.

A further adaptation of these methods could incorporate a short 'youtube' style video, which have become more prevalent and easier to produce with advancements in digital technologies and internet applications. These videos could be analysed by the researcher or become a starting point for discussion and analysis from the participant's perspective.

Conclusion

This chapter has provided an outline of a selection of innovative visual methodologies whilst revealing the benefits of utilising visual methodology as a research or pedagogical instrument. The visual photographic images have become a central part of human interaction and communication in the twenty-first century. This acceptance and enhanced consumption of photographs provides a bridge of acceptance for the use of visual methods in educational studies in both the research and teaching and learning arena.

Visual methodologies can provide a richer context for memory recall and discussion and are able to transcend into a multi-disciplinary approach providing a component of triangulation to the research process. These methods afford a practical application for the tourism and hospitality education sector, offering excellent evaluation tools for adoption to a short study tour abroad experiential learning experience. Visual methods a nexus of application can be conducted by both vocational and higher education.

The lessons that can be drawn for higher and vocational education are to incorporate novel research techniques which may increase engagement of participants or students in research or assessment activities. The discourse within this chapter can be applied to the Australian context but just as easily internationally.

References

- Allen, L. (2011). Picture this: using photo-methods in research on sexualities and schooling. *Qualitative Research*, 11(5), 487–504.
- Berger, J. (1992). *Keeping a rendezvous*. New York: Vintage International.
- Cederholm, E. A. (2004). The use of photo-elicitation in tourism research: Framing the backpacker experience. *Scandinavian Journal of Hospitality and Tourism*, 4(3), 225–241. <https://doi.org/10.1080/15022250410003870>.
- Clandinin, D. J., & Connelly, F. M. (2000). *Narrative inquiry: Experience and story in qualitative research*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Clark-Ibáñez, M. (2004). Framing the social world with photo-elicitation interviews. *American Behavioral Scientist*, 47(12), 1507–1527. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0002764204266236>.
- Cohen, L., Manion, L., & Morrison, K. (2013). *Research methods in education*. New York: Routledge.
- Crang, M. (1997). Picturing practices: Research through the tourist gaze. *Progress in Human Geography*, 21(3), 359–373.
- Harper, D. (2002). Talking about pictures: A case for photo elicitation. *Visual Studies*, 17(1), 13–26. <https://doi.org/10.1080/14725860220137345>.
- Hurworth, R. (2004). Photo-interviewing. *Qualitative Research Journal*, 4(1), 73–79.
- Garrod, B. (2009). Understanding the relationship between tourism destination imagery and tourist photography. *Journal of Travel Research*, 47(3), 346–358.
- Garrod, B. (2008). Exploring place perception: A photo-based analysis. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 35(2), 381–401.
- Guillemín, M., & Drew, S. (2010). Questions of process in participant-generated visual methodologies. *Visual Studies*, 25(2), 175–188. <https://doi.org/10.1080/1472586x.2010.502676>.

- Litvin, S. W. (2003). Tourism and understanding: The MBA study mission. *Annals of Tourism Research, 30*(1), 77–93.
- Lo, I. S., McKercher, B., Lo, A., Cheung, C., & Law, R. (2011). Tourism and online photography. *Tourism Management, 32*(4), 725–731.
- MacKay, K. J., & Couldwell, C. M. (2004). Using visitor-employed photography to investigate destination image. *Journal of Travel Research, 42*(4), 390–396. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0047287504263035>.
- Maclean, K., & Woodward, E. (2013). Photovoice evaluated: An appropriate visual methodology for aboriginal water resource research. *Geographical Research, 51*(1), 94–105. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1745-5871.2012.00782.x>.
- Mitchell, C. (2011). *Doing visual research*. Los Angeles: Sage.
- Minichiello, V., Aroni, R., Timewell, E., & Alexander, L. (1995). *In depth interviewing* (2nd ed.). Melbourne: Longman.
- Pachmayr, A., & Andereck, K. (2012). Tourism and cultural understanding in study abroad. In *Tourism travel and research association conference: Advancing tourism research globally*, Paper 15.
- Parker, L. (2009). Photo-elicitation: An ethno-historical accounting and management research prospect. *Accounting, Auditing & Accountability Journal, 22*(7), 1111–1129. <https://doi.org/10.1108/09513570910987439>.
- Rose, G. (2016). *Visual methodologies: An introduction to researching with visual materials* (4th ed.). London: Sage.
- Sanchez, L. (2015). Students as photo activists: Using cameras in the classroom for social change. *Theory into Practice, 54*(2), 163–171.
- Simmonds, S., Roux, C., & ter Avest, I. (2015). Blurring the boundaries between photovoice and narrative inquiry: A narrative-photovoice methodology for gender-based research. *International Journal of Qualitative Methods, 14*(3), 33–50.
- Smith, E. F., Gidlow, B., & Steel, G. (2012). Engaging adolescent participants in academic research: The use of photo-elicitation interviews to evaluate school-based outdoor education programs. *Qualitative Research, 12*(4), 367–387. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1468794112443473>.
- Tomar, N., & Stoffel, V. (2014). Examining the lived experience and factors influencing education of two student veterans using photovoice methodology. *The American Journal of Occupational Therapy, 68*(4), 430–439.
- Torre, D., & Murphy, J. (2015). A different lens: Changing perspectives using photo-elicitation interviews. *Education Policy Analysis Archives, 23*(111), 1–23.
- Wang, C. C. (1999). Photovoice: A participatory action research strategy applied to women's health. *Journal of Women's Health, 8*(2), 185–192.
- Wang, C., & Burris, M. A. (1994). Empowerment through photo novella: Portraits of participants. *Health Education and Behaviour, 21*(2), 171–186.
- Wang, C., & Burris, M. A. (1997). Photovoice: Concept, methodology and use for participatory needs assessment. *Health and Behaviour, 24*(3), 369–387.
- Werremeyer, A., Skoy, E., & Kelly, G. A. (2016). Exploration of learning during an international health elective using photovoice methodology. *Pharmacy, 4*(39), 1–9. <https://doi.org/10.3390/pharmacy4040039>.
- Wiles, R., Prosser, J., Bagnoli, A., Clark, A., Davies, K., Holland, S., & Renold, E. (2008). Visual ethics: ethical issues in visual research. Southampton: ESCR National Centre for Research Methods Review Paper NCRM/011.
- Williams, K. M., & Best, G. (2014). Short study tours abroad: Internationalizing business curricula. *Journal of Teaching in Travel & Tourism, 14*(3), 240–259.
- Williams, K. M., & Best, G. (2013). Visual imagery: Applications for seeing the world. In *2013 32nd Annual conference of the international society of travel and tourism educators, Geotourism*. Detroit, USA, 17–19 October.

- Willson, G., & McIntosh, A. (2010). Using photo-based interviews to reveal the significance of heritage buildings to cultural tourism experiences. In G. Richards & W. Munster (Eds.), *Cultural tourism research methods* (pp. 141–155). Oxfordshire: CABI.
- Zenkov, K., Ewaida, M., Bell, A., & Lynch, M. (2012). Seeing how to ask first: Photo-elicitation motivates English language learners to write. *Middle School Journal*, *44*(2), 6–13.

Part V
Pushing the Boundaries
of Scholarship

Chapter 20

Fueling a Praxis-Exegesis Cyclical Model



Susan Sykes Hendee

Abstract The concepts of praxis and exegesis are explored within the context of lifelong learning in the form of an interactive model. It is argued that understanding of this interaction is central to effective teaching and learning. The author provides an example of autoethnographic research in placing herself and her experience into the model, underpinned by her emotional intelligence. The content of the chapter contributes to the development of a Praxis-Exegesis conceptual model, incorporating Emotional Intelligence as a means of increasing levels of professional success.

Keywords Praxis · Exegesis · Emotional intelligence

Introduction

The terms, *praxis* and *exegesis*, while having their roots in the 16th and 17th centuries, are being applied more and more today to research and learning, particularly in a holistic, lifelong learning environment. Simply put, praxis refers to action while exegesis is about reflection. Thus, a Praxis-Exegesis model incorporates both doing and thinking, underpinning the way in which we operate in the world. I argue that understanding this in an educational context is central to teaching as well as learning.

One of the most effective ways to deepen our understanding of such an intimate concept is by taking a personal, narrative-based approach via various ethnographic methods. This is illustrated in a number of chapters in this book via an ‘autoethnographic’ method which uses the self as the data, requiring a significant level of critical reflection, and can be highly effective when studying intimate experiences. It is seen as ‘self-narrative that critiques the situatedness of self with others in social contexts’ (Spry 2001: 710) and is intricately connected to concepts of praxis and exegesis.

Considering autoethnographic research in an educational context, Beeton (2015: 31) notes that ‘as an educator, often when travelling I stand outside my emotions

S. S. Hendee (✉)
William Angliss Institute, Melbourne, Australia
e-mail: susan.hendee@gmail.com

and experiences as a tourist, bringing such reflections back to the classroom...’ Yet, acceptance of some of the more personal reflexive ethnographies has taken time to be recognised in the academic world. Holt (2001, 2003) demonstrated this by using an autoethnographic report on his teaching experiences in an autoethnographic expose of the struggle for publication and academic acceptance of such interpretive paradigms.

Furthermore, by underpinning the above with concepts of emotional intelligence, a rich and valuable outcome is not only possible, but practical. As described by Mayer et al. (2002), EI comprises four elements, namely:

- **Facilitating Thought:** The ability to generate, use, and feel emotion as necessary to communicate feelings or employ them in other cognitive processes;
- **Understanding Emotions:** The ability to understand emotional information, to understand how emotions combine and progress through relationship transitions, and to appreciate such emotional meanings;
- **Managing Emotions:** The ability to be open to feelings, and to modulate them in oneself and others so as to promote personal understanding and growth;
- **Perceiving Emotions:** The ability to perceive emotions in oneself and others as well as in objects, art, stories, music, and other stimuli.

This is supported with a highly relevant culinary analogy from Mayer and Salovey (1997: 21–22), who explain that:

Most beginning cooks who carefully follow a recipe can produce a good tasting meal without necessarily knowing about all the ingredients. School based programs focus on these basic recipes... [and] avoid difficult issues like whether emotional intelligence... can be taught. Might these programs teach a bit of emotional intelligence? Perhaps just as gaining experience around the kitchen might help someone begin to develop as a chef.

This is such an apt analogy, as cooking and emotion are closely connected, as illustrated in the prevalence of emotional back-stories from contestants in cooking shows, such as, *Master Chef*. It also sits well with the focus of this book. This raises a range of questions to which we must respond, such as, do we need a Praxis-Exegesis conceptual framework/model? And if yes (as I believe it is), what would it look like and what fuels its core?

Thus, in this chapter I am looking at a way to develop a working Praxis-Exegesis conceptual model incorporating emotional intelligence to explore if it can explain how it effects one’s level of success. This is achieved through the use of an autoethnographic personal narrative case, underpinned by emotional intelligence. I describe my Praxis-Exegesis model, with implications and applications that go beyond my own experiences.

From Praxis to Exegesis and Back Again: A Personal Story

By adopting an Praxis-Exegesis model, we can locate and further understand core moments in our lives. The process can be described via a series of personal questions:

- What is your Core?
- Why have a Core?
- When is your Core timeline?
- Who is part of your Core?
- Where do you seek support for your Core?
- How are you balancing your Core through Praxis?
- How are you balancing your Core through Exegesis?
- How would you design your Praxis Exegesis Model?

A personal timeline is essential to understanding the movement to and from praxis and exegesis and sets the stage for a deeper understanding. I outline my own timeline and identify my core praxis and exegesis moments on the following pages. This enables us to consider how emotional intelligence develops and whether levels of emotional intelligence affect success.

Born in 1951 in South America, I migrated to the United States in 1958. As I matured, I moved from simply ‘doing’ (praxis), to ‘reflecting (exegesis). This was not a completely linear progression, but with periods of exegesis at specific times in my life, such as, after the death of my spouse in 1995. Preparatory school, 4th from the bottom, low board scores in English and Math, but high in Spanish, led me to my first college experience and major, English. An emotional decision? Dropping out (it was the 60s), my mother asked what do you like, want to do? A resounding sound emitted, ‘I love food’. The Culinary Institute of America accepted me and my life’s mission became clear. I graduated 4th in my class in 1974 (the year chefs were still considered “servants replace servants with “domestics” by the US government). Two decades later after increasing responsibilities in the practical, professional world of culinary arts and food service, but only an Associate of Occupational Studies degree in culinary arts I felt my knees ache and my elucidation skills weak. I was migrating from practice with a need to explain. First, though I needed academic credentials and finished three degrees, one bachelors and two masters, and on the road to a doctorate. After changing my doctoral work thesis topic, twice, a small article on professional careers and emotional intelligence skills needed to be successful, chefs were once again marginalized, and next to grave diggers (least likely to need emotional intelligence skills). Death of a spouse, discovery of a new life partner and lifestyle, sobriety and an attack on my life profession required new emotional skills.

This initial phase from 1951 to 2001 represents what I see as my praxis ‘core’ as illustrated in Fig. 20.1.

Then there was a period of exegesis from 2001 to 2007 when my personal academic career took hold, leading me on to a series of educational awards and international travel. Inducted into the American Culinary Federation as Honorary in the American Academy of Chefs, and a trip awarded to Taiwan because of my role as one of the top women in culinary education supported my roadmap. I was using my thinking brain. Conducting workshops on emotional intelligence nationally and internationally, first tier higher education institutions and appointed Dean in a master’s program in hospitality resulted from illuminating the emotional intelligence skills model, my core. I completed a Ph.D. at New York University and my thesis titled: Measurement of

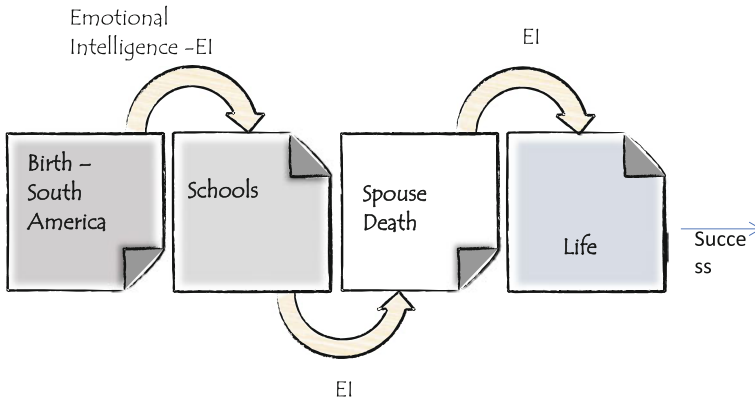


Fig. 20.1 Praxis core: 1951-2001

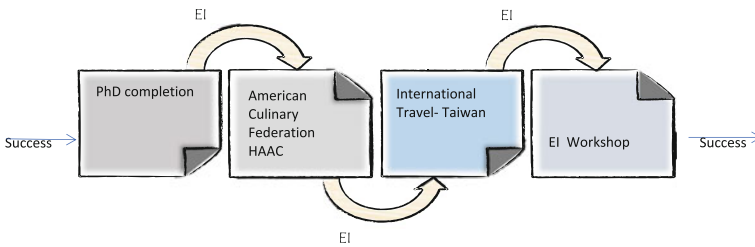


Fig. 20.2 Exegesis core: 2001-2007

differences in emotional intelligence and job satisfaction of practicing chefs and culinary educators as measured by the Mayer-Salovey-Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test and Spector’s Job Satisfaction Survey, was realized. Figure 20.2 summarises this period.

I then moved back to an era of praxis from 2007 to 2016 (see Fig. 20.3), transitioning from being a mentee to a mentor, and engaging in leadership roles. Teaching, mentoring and modelling emotional intelligence to higher education students, staff and faculty, sharing with non-profits, and upgrading emotional intelligence recertifications with Charles J. Wolfe Associates, long time emotional intelligence mentor. I was doing, feeling my core again. Although my MSCEIT scores (an ability test of emotional intelligence) were higher identifying/perceiving skills were still low. After refreshing my Spanish skills at a community college, I asked the professor, how I was doing, “She said fine”. I asked her a question about why I hated to explain, write so much. Guess what, I was still writing sentence phrases as if writing in Spanish. No wonder I loved research and hated writing.

Finally, I come to the current day, reflecting on my more recent journey into stronger, yet collaborative roles as those I have been mentoring now become mentees. William Angliss Institute graced my journey, appointed as an Eminent Professor, honoured but was this a culmination? No, a continuation, sharing my areas of expertise, foods and emotional intelligence, and working with others on this core and crux, my

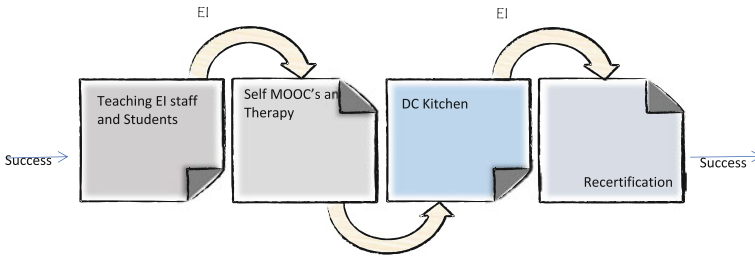


Fig. 20.3 Praxis core: 2007–2016

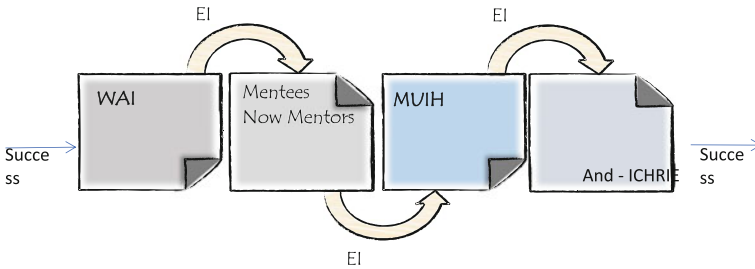


Fig. 20.4 Exegesis core 2016—future

writing (exegesis). The topic praxis- exegesis was introduced by Paul Whitelaw, my topic mentor. I asked my mentees, to mentor me on what they thought about praxis-exegesis and others’ in a holistic, master’s nutrition culinary hands-on class I was teaching.

The resulting framework/model was developed. Attending an International Council Hotels and Restaurants Institution and Education conference, a day, prior to my first visit to William Angliss Institute, a workshop on hospitality journals and their editors, highlighted their needs. The majority of downloads in one journal were based on the keyword ‘food’, new frameworks were being sought and original research essential for journal consideration. Full circle and more to come. I found my core, emotional intelligence and it has sustained me, professionally, personally and pushed me to explain and practice all the skills essential resulting in success. This part of my journey is summarised in Fig. 20.4. As I reflect and gaze into the future, I see much potential for research on EI in the kitchen, with a great potential for practical as well as theoretical outcomes and developments.

Conclusion

Figure 20.5 presents a praxis and exegesis summary of my life to date, as discussed above. The eras of exegesis have been precipitated by major life events, such as, the death of a spouse, discovery of a new life partner and lifestyle, sobriety and an attack on my life profession required new emotional skills. However, they are

not fleeting moments, but extended periods of reflection and increasing levels of emotional intelligence.

Through such a personal, autoethnographic narrative, we can see that levels of emotional intelligence, as identified through praxis and exegesis affects one’s level of success. Consequently, we can apply this approach to our teaching as well as personal/professional lives. Working, teaching, and mentoring emotional intelligence allows us to express ourselves to our students, through our practices, deeds and elucidation, writing and explanation. Mastery comes with both, praxis and exegesis, a hybrid model supported by a core. In my case it is emotional intelligence, in your timeline your core may be emotional intelligence and or something else. An evolved version of the Praxis-Exegesis model generated in Fig. 20.6 may guide you as a faculty or professional leader with your students, mentees and yes, even your mentors.

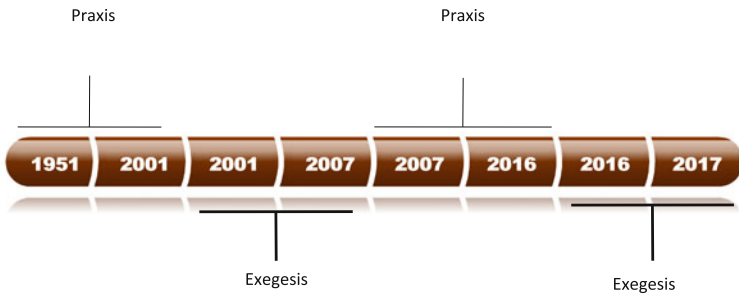
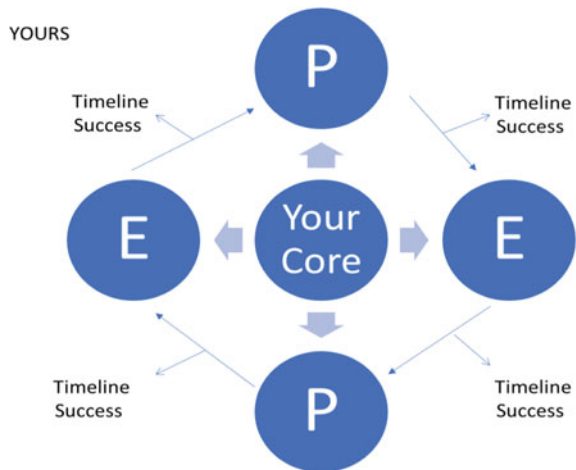


Fig. 20.5 Personal Praxis and Exegesis model

Fig. 20.6 Version 2 Personal Praxis and Exegesis model



References

- Beeton, S. (2015). *Travel, tourism and the moving image*. Bristol: Channel View Publications.
- Holt, N. L. (2001). Beyond technical reflection: Demonstrating the modification of teaching behaviours using three levels of reflection. *Avanti*, 7(2), 66–76.
- Holt, N. L. (2003). Representation, legitimation, and autoethnography: An autoethnographic writing story. *International Journal of Qualitative Methods*, 2(1), 18–28.
- Mayer, J. D., & Salovey, P. (1997). What is emotional intelligence? In P. Salovey & D. J. Sluyter (Eds.), *Development and emotional intelligence*. New York: Harper Collins.
- Mayer, J. D., Salovey, P., & Caruso, D. R. (2002). *Mayer-Salovey-Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test (MSCEIT)*. Toronto: Multi-Health Systems Inc.
- Spry, T. (2001). Performing autoethnography: An embodied methodological praxis. *Qualitative Inquiry*, 7(6), 706–732.

Chapter 21

Context Specific Language: Critical to Student Learning



Ian Frost and Emma Gronow

Abstract This chapter explores the challenges of recontextualising discipline and vocationally situated knowledge into the academic curriculum. Two case studies are presented that whilst discussing contrasting perspectives are characterised by language that may be particularly complex to learn. The first of the case studies considers the recontextualising of accounting discipline knowledge to a vocationally applied context and the second case study explores the codification of experience and knowledge of wine studies for the academic curriculum. Threshold concepts literature is reviewed as a framework for this recontextualisation to identify that which is troublesome to learn. Understanding the nature of knowledge as tacit and explicit and the space in which knowledge is created provides further insight into transformative points in the student learning experience. Both case studies found that language and vocabulary and the influence of the students' biography to this were significant to the student learning experience. Practical implications for pedagogy are to provide the experience for which students may attach meaning to the language of the subject and thereby enhance their learning.

Keywords Threshold concepts · Accounting · Wine studies · Tacit knowledge Curriculum · Pedagogy

Introduction

Both literature and social commentary describe the society of today as the knowledge society. Young (2010) asks what is it that it is important to know, while Muller (2009) describes the implication for curriculum to be that the knowledge base of each occupation will become increasingly conceptual. Therefore, one of the challenges for the

I. Frost (✉) · E. Gronow
William Angliss Institute, Melbourne, VIC, Australia
e-mail: Ian.Frost@angliss.edu.au

E. Gronow
e-mail: Emma.Gronow@angliss.edu.au

© Springer Nature Singapore Pte Ltd. 2019
S. Beeton and A. Morrison (eds.), *The Study of Food, Tourism, Hospitality, and Events*,
Tourism, Hospitality & Event Management,
https://doi.org/10.1007/978-981-13-0638-9_21

curriculum in vocationally applied fields of study is to address the specific vocational context, or situated knowledge of the workplace, and the conceptual knowledge that underpins these professional or occupational requirements (Barnett 2006; Muller 2009). From a pedagogical perspective it has been suggested that this requires a recontextualisation of both discipline and practical knowledge (Barnett 2006; Shay 2013), in order to transform unfamiliar knowledge into familiar, and understood.

This chapter explores these issues drawing threshold concepts theories as a framework for recontextualising accounting discipline knowledge and the nature of tacit knowledge in terms of whether it might be codified or articulated and communicated into the academic curriculum. Two case studies are then presented to illuminate the literature findings. They highlight the importance of recontextualisation within the curriculum to connect the language of knowledge to the student's personal experience. The subject matters are Introductory Accounting and Wine Studies. Interestingly, they represent similar yet contrasting challenges. The former requires recontextualisation of concepts and knowledge from the accounting discipline to the vocational context of hospitality and tourism. The latter is to codify principles and experiences that emerge from vocationally situated wine knowledge into the academic curriculum. It was found that the language required to describe the concepts and knowledge in both subjects is complex. From a pedagogical perspective, it is proposed that when a curriculum can provide experience that allows students to attach meaning to the word, drawing on their personal reference system, student learning is enhanced: *if you can experience it you can name it*.

Literature Review

Numerous disciplines and fields of study such as, economics (Karunaratne et al. 2016), occupational therapy (Rodger and Turpin 2011), engineering (Meyer et al. 2016), physics and law (Akerlind et al. 2011) have applied a threshold concept framework to re-think curriculum and pedagogy. A threshold concept is defined 'as akin to a portal, opening up a new and previously inaccessible way of thinking about something. It represents a transformed way of understanding, or interpreting, or viewing something, without which the learner cannot progress' (Meyer and Land 2006: 19). Threshold concepts in accounting have been defined as threshold barriers and conceptions (Lucas 2000). Threshold barriers are the negative preconceptions of accounting held by students, such as, difficult mathematical calculations and dull and boring techniques. Threshold conceptions are the organising structure or framework which provides the explanatory rationale for accounting techniques. This involves recognition that there exists underlying principles, aspects of the technique are inter-related and an acknowledgment of subjectivity (Lucas and Mladenovic 2006: 156).

According to Meyer and Land (2003), the threshold concept framework is useful in identifying transformative points in a student's learning experience. This may represent thought processes, perceptions or experiences within the subject or even more generally. Perkins (2006) contributes that threshold concepts are particularly

relevant to knowledge that is troublesome for a variety of reasons, for example, counter-intuitive, alien, tacit, conceptually difficult, or an inaccessible underlying game. In introductory accounting negative preconceptions are identified as transformative points in student learning and the underlying game is the ‘recognition of the interrelatedness of aspects of the technique’, ‘an acknowledgment of subjectivity’ and ‘recognition that there exists underlying principles’ (Lucas and Mladenovic 2006: 156). Having identified threshold concepts in introductory accounting as threshold barriers and conceptions, Lucas and Mladenovic (2006) suggests that an effective technique for curriculum design may be to address threshold barriers first and then threshold conceptions.

A key aspect of threshold concepts is that they expose the tacit knowledge that we expect our students to absorb along with our stated learning objectives. The popularisation of the term, tacit knowledge, is generally attributed to Polanyi (1958). It is his more widely quoted statement from the *Tacit Dimension* (1966: 4) ‘...we know more than we can tell’ which provides a more accessible insight into the notion. To further understand the phenomenon, he takes an example from face-recognition: if we know a person’s face, then we can recognise it among thousands, even if we usually cannot explain how the recognition happens (Polanyi 1966: 4–5). Thus, tacit knowledge can be described as a knowledge people carry in their minds and is therefore difficult to access and share. Consequently, most tacit knowledge cannot be articulated (Puusa and Eerikäinen 2010). This form of knowledge exists exclusively within the brain of the knower, may include mental schemes, beliefs, insights, know-how and expertise (Engemann 2017), and be highly nuanced (Gascoigne and Thornton 2013; Zappavigna 2013). This contrasts with explicit knowledge, which can be easily and quickly transmitted from one individual to another and tends to be organised systematically.

Collins (2010) distinguishes between different categories of tacit knowledge: relational (weak); somatic (medium); and collective (strong). Gascoigne and Thornton (2013) explore the nature of tacit knowledge in terms of whether it might be codified or articulated. Three potential viewpoints are proposed as presented in Table 21.1. They claim it is not possible to offer fully context independent terms. However, the principle of articulacy means that we might go some way to developing context dependent terms which enable communicability. This links to Nonaka et al. (2000: 8) who propose that knowledge is created ‘through interactions between tacit and explicit knowledge, rather than from tacit or explicit knowledge alone’. Furthermore, it is suggested that ideal spaces for creating knowledge is where individuals interact, share values and communicate (Davis et al. 2016; Silby and Watts 2015; Smith 2001). Knowledge is not created by individuals alone but has dimensions of collective activity, context dependence and communicability.

The preceding literature has highlighted the benefits of applying threshold concepts to assist educators to rethink and scaffold curriculum and pedagogy, opening the door for enhanced student learning. This is summed up by Cousin (2006: 4) as: ‘A shift occurs in learner’s perception, new understanding is assimilated into the learner’s biography, coming part of who they are, how they see and how they feel.’ In popular parlance, it may be termed as the ‘light bulb’ moment when the alien, troublesome, tacit, and/or conceptually difficult enter into the familiar. The aim is enhanced

Table 21.1 Principles of knowledge Gascoigne and Thornton (2013: 4–5)

Principal of codifiability	All knowledge can be fully articulated or codified in context independent terms
Principle of inarticulacy	Knowledge cannot be articulated
Principle of articulacy	Knowledge can be articulated either in context-independent terms (it can be codified) or in context-dependent terms

knowledge creation through the interaction of tacit and explicit knowledge towards improved codification, communicability and context specific language. Furthermore, it represents a process of co-creation within individual and collective learning environments and specific contexts. The following two case studies offer contextual insight relative to Introductory Accounting threshold barriers and conceptions and Wine Studies and tacit knowledge, respectively.

Case Study 1: Accounting in Tourism and Hospitality Degrees: Threshold Barriers and Conceptions

The context is higher education in an applied or vocational context of tourism and hospitality and the session is introductory accounting. As stated in the chapter introduction, institutions in this learning environment have a commitment to industry and to a body of knowledge. In addition, students' interests, expectations and skill sets are usually driven by their interest in the field of study, but not necessarily in the disciplines that may be part of these studies. Thus, the challenge for the curriculum is to recontextualise discipline knowledge to connect with the vocational realities in which this knowledge will be applied and the learner's biography.

Research Objective and Methods

The objective of this research is to explore and advance understanding of threshold barriers and conceptions for introductory accounting through the 'eyes' of students in a vocationally oriented higher education institute. The aim is to deepen understanding of the nature of students' perceptions and educational experiences towards the development of a framework to inform curriculum development, content and pedagogy.

Phenomenological inquiry was utilised as this is open-ended and emerging as the research unfolds based on the lived lives of participants (Creswell 2007). Research participants were selected from all current students (as at March 2016), or recent graduates (2015–2016) who had completed the Introductory Accounting subject in the Bachelor of Tourism and Hospitality Management degree at William Angliss

Institute. Fourteen participants were interviewed. 78% of these students were enrolled as international students and 22% as domestic students. Interviews were semi-structured. Interview question prompts were used to elicit discussion on the nature of the learning experience. Interview data and field notes were coded and grouped into similar themes of student's experiences. This data analysis process was guided by the work of Miles et al. (2014) and was iterative as it went through initial and subsequent coding rounds.

Findings

The first round of coding data focused on the threshold barriers and conceptions identified by Lucas and Mladenovic (2006). Two key emergent themes confirmed the preference for the field of study, and exposed preconceptions regarding the degree of difficulty as regards introductory accounting.

I think I was nervous because I was like I don't want to study finance because I want to do the practical aspect of learning to work in a hotel or hospitality. I thought I wouldn't be good enough I guess kind of thing.

I would say that I didn't know what I was going to expect in the first week, like it would be hard and scary because it's finance.

Further, students who could reference what they perceived as practical or real world examples, were able to recognise the interrelatedness of accounting techniques and underlying principles. For students with this experience prior to, or during, the introductory accounting course, this recognition occurred at that time.

So I remember when I was in financial concepts understanding the difference between cash flow and just a general profit and loss or how it differs from an overall financial understanding of your company and it suddenly made a whole lot of sense, oh it's not the same thing.

For other students, this recognition occurred a year or two later in their studies when they returned from their work placement year.

I can see how they change the business through their behaviour. They start to cut down their food storage like order less so that will cut the food cost and they cut out people's hours of the labour cost and also they change the menu as well. So I can see they tried to control the potential loss from different perspectives.

While the above insights are of interest, the richest and most revealing of findings were related to vocabulary as a threshold barrier. During subsequent coding, it was found that a single word or phrase often represents an underlying accounting concept or practice that involves a sequence of explanations. Within the student's frame of reference, it may have other meanings, or be used to represent different concepts in other contexts. This can be particularly alien and troublesome for students when studying introductory accounting, especially if English is not a first language.

I reckon the definitions of wording, I remember was quite difficult. Calculations I didn't find, I think it more around words behind all of it was difficult. Does that make sense?

There's a lot of words that felt difficult especially if you don't like the subjects and you're like I really don't care what this word means but then you really struggle if you don't understand what the whole concept of it is.

It was quite an experience for me because I remember I had the basics for financial concepts, however I had some issues with the vocabulary - the small words that didn't make sense at the time because I'd never heard of them because they were technical words which make a complete difference to the subject of course.

However I had some issues with the vocabulary. I remember in one of the first classes I had to ask what was an invoice, which today is probably one of the silliest questions someone can ever come up with. Anyway that's my first memory of financial concepts.

I'm an international student, my mother language is not English so sometimes I need to take some time to reflect the concept, I will translate English into Chinese to understand the concept fully.

Conclusion

The findings support the work of Lucas and Mladenovic (2006) who propose that curriculum design should address threshold barriers first, and then threshold conceptions. This study extends understanding of threshold barriers to include the interpretation and use of discipline specific language that can prove to be alien, troublesome, tacit, conceptually difficult, or literally foreign. Techniques to support students to learn the language required to describe accounting concepts need to be incorporated into the curriculum - to embed into their individual biography.

Case Study 2: Can Codification of Wine Tasting Terms Assist Teaching and Learning?

Wine might be viewed as nothing more than a beverage to quench thirst, provide digestive accompaniment for food, or to intoxicate and foster merriment in the imbibor. Alternatively it could be considered as aesthetic experience (Charters and Pettigrew 2005), something of great subtlety and complexity with a vast array of characteristics that demand attention, excite the senses, stir emotions and, when paired with food, demonstrate a veritable symphony of gustatory combinations. The challenge is how to develop an understanding of wine, its characteristics and its quality (Charters 2003). In the context of education or training, we might then consider how the associated skills and knowledge can be learnt and how this might be best taught.

Research Objectives and Methodology

The research objective is to explore strategies for improving the teaching of wine tasting, drawing on the concept of tacit knowledge. It utilises an auto-ethnographic approach (Ellis 2004; McIlveen 2008), as well as the reflective practitioner principles of Schön (1983, 1987), and uses self-reflection and writing to explore how personal experience connects and interacts with shaping the educational experience. Specifically, it draws on the experiences of the researcher as a student/participant in the Wine and Spirit Education Trust (WSET) Wine and Spirit Level 3 course. While the study is specifically of the researcher's experiences as a participant in this program from February to April 2016, it is also set against the backdrop of his teaching of wine studies in Higher Education in an applied or vocational context. The case study considers the WSET program which provides a systematic approach to wine tasting. It provides a specific set of characteristics, which must be observed as well as providing a lexicon of descriptors for use in evaluating wine.

Findings

The inherent difficulty of students undertaking studies in a language other than their own and in a foreign culture is recognised (Andrade 2006; Johnson 2008; Sawir et al. 2008). This is magnified when considering the study of wine. Many related terms are appropriated from multiple languages. Grape varieties often retain their indigenous names, with some having multiple names in different countries or regions. This is complex enough for learners who speak the language in which the subject is being taught, compounded for those utilising a language that is not their first. In addition, many cultures have little or no history of wine consumption and have no previous experience of being exposed to, or tasting wine. Thus, many of the wine descriptors may represent alien, troublesome, tacit, or conceptually difficult concepts for both domestic and international students.

The nature of the WSET courses progress through three levels. Each increases the range of available descriptors, and opportunities to distinguish between aspects, such as, sweetness or acidity. This has the effect of providing a scaffolded structure, whereby, students can extend their observational and evaluative skills as they gain exposure to an increasing range of wines. Alongside is the accompanying development of declarative knowledge that must be demonstrated in assessable events to allow progression. A distinctive benefit of the WSET approach is the increased likelihood of corresponding responses from multiple tasters in a class, drawing on the notion of the shared nature of language (Ayers 1963). Thus, there is the potential for learning and confidence growth through peer affirmation, or validation; the observed joy in the eyes of participants when another student notes the same descriptors they have used.

That said, an inherent tension and question is recognised. Is there value in providing a delineated and defined range of descriptors for wine in the form of a lexicon? On one hand, it is restrictive by virtue of reducing the scope of descriptors which can be drawn on. This can have the effect of limiting the ability to communicate with others who have not been schooled in the use of this same terminology or lexicon. In contrast, it allows novice student wine tasters to focus on identifying terms that match their experience. It supports the development of confidence in offering a term which has a greater degree of likelihood of concurring with another student, thereby, helping to build a vocabulary.

Conclusions

It is concluded that there is legitimacy and value in attempting to codify the wine evaluation process, even if it is in context-dependent terms rather than context-independent terms. The use of a specified wine lexicon is one strategy for improving the teaching of wine tasting. Through the dynamic interactions of the taster's learning is shared, and knowledge co-created. For novice student wine tasters this allows the language to be placed in their mental schemes, building vocabulary, expertise, and communicability.

Reflection and Conclusion

The utility of applying threshold concepts within the context of recontextualising and scaffolding curriculum and pedagogy has been confirmed. It is rich in its focus on the lens through which learners see, feel, and give meaning to both vocational and disciplinary knowledge. In adopting this approach, the educator's quest is how to embed and manage transformative points into curriculum and student learning experiences; who they are, how they are seen and how they feel. It recognises the interaction of tacit and explicit knowledge. Specifically, the centrality of language and vocabulary in this process has been highlighted.

The educator's goal is, therefore, to improve codification, communicability, and context specific language. This has been proved to be all the more pertinent relative to the language of accounting, and wine studies, in general, and more so when the student's first language is not English. A further significant finding lies in the shared and co-creative nature of learning.

A practical implication for educators can be found in the wine studies descriptors and delineated lexicon approach. This can assist novice students across fields of study and disciplines to develop frames of reference, meanings and a context specific language as an early foundation from which learning can take root and grow in complexity, less rigid and bounded.

References

- Akerlind, G., McKenzie, J., & Lupton, M. (2011). *A threshold concept focus to curriculum design: Supporting student learning through application of variation theory*. Australian Learning and Teaching Council.
- Andrade, M. (2006). International students in English-speaking universities: Adjustment factors. *Journal of Research in International Education*, 5(2), 131–154.
- Ayers, A. (1963). *Can there be a private language? The concept of a person: And other essays*. London: Macmillan Education.
- Barnett, M. (2006). Vocational knowledge and vocational pedagogy. In M. Young & J. Gamble (Eds.), *Knowledge, curriculum and qualifications for South African further education* (pp. 143–157). Pretoria: HSRC Press.
- Charters, S. (2003). *Perceptions of wine quality* (Doctoral dissertation). Edith Cowan University, Perth.
- Charters, S., & Pettigrew, S. (2005). Is wine consumption an aesthetic experience? *Journal of Wine Research*, 16(2), 121–136.
- Collins, H. (2010). *Tacit and explicit knowledge*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.
- Cousin, G. (2006). An introduction to threshold concepts. *Planet*, 17(1), 4–5.
- Creswell, J. W. (2007). *Qualitative inquiry and research design: Choosing among five approaches* (2nd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Davis, J., Docherty, C. A., & Dowling, K. (2016). Design thinking and innovation: Synthesising concepts of knowledge co-creation in spaces of professional development. *Design Journal*, 19(1), 117. <https://doi.org/10.1080/14606925.2016.1109205>.
- Ellis, C. (2004). *The ethnographic I: A methodological novel about autoethnography*. Maryland: Rowman Altamira.
- Engemann, K. (2017). Knowledge management. In S. Rogelberg (Ed.), *Sage encyclopedia of industrial and organisational psychology* (2nd ed., Vol. 2, pp. 844–849). University of North Carolina, Charlotte: Sage.
- Gascoigne, N., & Thornton, T. (2013). *Tacit knowledge*. Durham: Routledge.
- Johnson, E. (2008). An investigation into pedagogical challenges facing international tertiary-level students in New Zealand. *Higher Education Research & Development*, 27(3), 231–243.
- Karunaratne, P. S. M., Breyer, Y. A., & Wood, L. N. (2016). Transforming the economics curriculum by integrating threshold concepts. *Education+Training*, 58(5), 492–509. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1108/ET-02-2016-0041>.
- Lucas, U., & Mladenovic, R. (2006). Developing new ‘world views’: Threshold concepts in introductory accounting. In J. H. F. Meyer & R. Land (Eds.), *Overcoming barriers to student understanding: Threshold concepts and troublesome knowledge* (pp. 148–159). London: Routledge.
- Lucas, U. (2000). Worlds apart: Students’ experiences of learning introductory accounting. *Critical Perspectives on Accounting*, 11(4), 479–504. <https://doi.org/10.1006/cpac.1999.0390>.
- McIlveen, P. (2008). Autoethnography as a method for reflexive research and practice in vocational psychology. *Australian Journal of Career Development*, 17(2), 13–20.
- Meyer, J. H. F., & Land, R. (2006). Threshold concepts and troublesome knowledge: An introduction. In J. Meyer & R. Land (Eds.), *Overcoming barriers to student understanding: Threshold concepts and troublesome knowledge* (pp. 3–18). London: Routledge.
- Meyer, J. H. F., & Land, R. (2003). *Threshold Concepts and Troublesome Knowledge: Linkages to ways of thinking and practising within the disciplines* (ETL Project Occasional Report No. 4). Retrieved from <http://www.colorado.edu/FTEP/documents/ETLreport4-1.pdf>.
- Meyer, J. H. F., Knight, D. B., Baldock, T. E., Callaghan, D. P., McCredden, J., & O’Moore, L. (2016). What to do with a threshold concept: A case study. In R. Land, J. H. F. Meyer, & M. Flanagan (Eds.), *Threshold concepts in practice* (pp. 195–209). Rotterdam: Sense Publishers.
- Miles, M. B., Huberman, A. M., & Saldana, J. (2014). *Qualitative data analysis* (3rd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

- Muller, J. (2009). Forms of knowledge and curriculum coherence. *Journal of Education and Work*, 22(3), 205–226.
- Nonaka, I., Toyama, R., & Konno, N. (2000). SECI, Ba, and leadership: A unified model of dynamic knowledge creation. *Long Range Planning*, 33, 5–34.
- Perkins, D. (2006). Constructivism and troublesome knowledge. In J. H. F. Meyer & R. Land (Eds.), *Overcoming barriers to student understanding: Threshold concepts and troublesome knowledge* (pp. 33–47). London: Routledge.
- Polanyi, M. (1958). *Personal knowledge: Towards a post-critical philosophy*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.
- Polanyi, M. (1966). *The tacit dimension*. Gloucester: Peter Smith.
- Puusa, A., & Eerikäinen, M. (2010). Is tacit knowledge really tacit? *Electronic Journal of Knowledge Management*, 8(3), 307–318.
- Rodger, S. & Turpin, M. (2011). Using threshold concepts to transform entry level curricula. In Krause, K., Buckridge, M., Grimmer, C., & Purbrick-Illek, S. (Eds.), *Research and development in higher education: Reshaping higher education* (Vol. 34, pp. 263–274). Gold Coast, Australia, July 4–7, 2011.
- Sawir, E., Marginson, S., Deumert, A., Nyland, C., & Ramia, G. (2008). Loneliness and international students: An Australian study. *Journal of Studies in International Education*, 12(2), 148–180.
- Schön, D. (1983). *The reflective practitioner: How professionals think in action* (Vol. 5126). New York: Basic Books.
- Schön, D. (1987). *Educating the reflective practitioner*. San Francisco: Josey-Bass.
- Shay, S. (2013). Conceptualizing curriculum differentiation in higher education: A sociology of knowledge point of view. *British Journal of Sociology of Education*, 34(4), 563–582. <https://doi.org/10.1080/01425692.2012.722285>.
- Silby, A., & Watts, M. (2015). Making the tacit explicit: Children's strategies for classroom writing. *British Educational Research Journal* [serial online]. October 1, 41(5), 801–819. Accessed October 26, 2017.
- Smith, E. A. (2001). The role of tacit and explicit knowledge in the workplace. *Journal of Knowledge Management* [serial online]. 5(4), 311. Available from: Emerald Insight, Ipswich, MA. Accessed October 26, 2017.
- Young, M. (2010). The future of education in a knowledge society: The radical case for a subject-based curriculum. *Pacific-Asian Education*, 22(1), 21–32.
- Zappavigna, M. (2013). *Tacit knowledge and spoken discourse*. London: Bloomsbury.

Chapter 22

Simulated Pedagogies and Autoethnographic Reflections



Madelene McWha

Abstract Adopting innovative, scholarly and reflective approaches to teaching practices can be a challenging task, yet students in our digital, information-rich age demand these skills from modern educators. This issue is addressed by exploring a case study regarding simulated pedagogies in the classroom environment using an autoethnographic approach. An educator reflects on and draws insights from her manifold roles and finds that while simulated games are not a panacea for higher education and can present varied challenges for students, educators and operators, they offer pedagogical value through learner engagement. This chapter also presents a call for increased dialogue about different teaching practices and experiences within the broader education sector to help bridge any perceived gaps between more industry-focussed practitioners and academia.

Keywords Autoethnography · Simulations · Innovative teaching
Research informed teaching

Introduction

Adopting innovative, scholarly and reflective approaches to teaching practices can be a challenging task, yet it is my experience that students in our digital, information-rich age demand these skills from modern educators. This issue is addressed by exploring a case study regarding simulated pedagogies as a teaching-learning tool in the classroom environment. I have drawn insights from my dual role as educator (subject-coordinator and lecturer) and simulation-operator using an autoethnographic lens. The aim of this chapter is to explore how simulated pedagogies can assist with both students' and educators' learning and engagement, as well as the latter's professional development.

M. McWha (✉)
William Angliss Institute, Melbourne, VIC, Australia
e-mail: Madelene.McWha@angliss.edu.au

© Springer Nature Singapore Pte Ltd. 2019
S. Beeton and A. Morrison (eds.), *The Study of Food, Tourism, Hospitality, and Events*,
Tourism, Hospitality & Event Management,
https://doi.org/10.1007/978-981-13-0638-9_22

Simulation Pedagogies

Simulations have been identified as effective tools for developing graduate skills and capabilities required in industry as well as an effective learning tool to supplement existing traditional methods of instruction (Benckendorff et al. 2015; Pratt and Hahn 2015). Advancements in learning technologies (e.g. online communication, learning management systems and apps) have provided educators with opportunities to shift the learning milieu to more interactive and student-centered learning environments that could encourage and stimulate students to become more active learners (Douglas et al. 2007). This notion is supported by Martin and McEvoy (2003) who use a hotel operational training simulation and found that the learning experience outcome and critical and analytical thinking differed significantly between the responses of those who felt they were highly involved and those who felt they were less involved in the simulation.

Placing too much onus on students, however, might also prove challenging in the context of simulated learning. For example, Dalgarno et al. (2014) compared the learning outcomes from two learning conditions using computer-based simulations; one condition allowed exploration through manipulation of simulation parameters, whereas the other allowed observation of simulation output from pre-set parameters, limiting the complexity of the task. Their findings supported the argument that reducing complexity and providing instructional guidance to learners are important if potential learning benefits are to be achieved. With this view, educators are required to consider, manage and adjust the settings and boundaries of the simulation in accordance with its intended users.

Simulation games (as a teaching-learning tool) have a history of being used as learning aids in business education (Gosen and Washburn 2004). The more popular tend to be designed predominately for experienced managers and final-year postgraduate business degree students (Larréché et al. 2010); there is hence an opportunity to provide introductory-level units designed for undergraduate tourism students. Simulations have recurrently been employed in hospitality training and education (Douglas et al. 2007; Ferreira 1997; Kiser and Partlow 1999; Thompson and Verma 2003), especially in the hotel (Furunes 2005; Martin and McEvoy 2003) and food service industries (Feinstein and Mann 1998). Tourism management simulations, and specifically those that focus on sustainable destination development, have received less attention in the academic literature, which reveals an opportunity to further develop both theory and practice.

Autoethnographic Research Methods

An autoethnographic approach was deemed best suited for this case study as this method uses self-reflection and writing to explore the personal experiences connected with a contextual setting, in this instance, the situated experience of engaging

a simulated pedagogy. It is a form of qualitative research situated within the paradigm of the interpretive social sciences (ISS), also known as the constructivist paradigm. The researcher within ISS adopts a relativist ontology, where realities are multiple, and subjective epistemology, meaning that the knower and the subject create understandings in a socially constructed world (Creswell 2013), which is adopted here to address the complexity of the research aim.

Autoethnography, also known as evocative narrative (Méndez 2013), is often understood to extend beyond autobiography because the researcher performs “narrative analysis pertaining to himself or herself as intimately related to a particular phenomenon” (McIlveen 2008: 3), hence reflecting critically on their experience of the research. Beeton (2016a: 2) elucidates that while it is difficult to differentiate autoethnographic research from autobiography (or memoir), “autobiographies tend to have a strong emphasis on literary style, whereas autoethnography focuses more on the self-reflexive content, often with the aim of exploring a singular aspect of the subject’s life”. Beeton (2016b) refers to autoethnography as deep immersion in a study whereby the researcher becomes a subject of his or her own research, as experienced by Dyson (2007: 39):

I was both part of the lives of the participants and part of the ‘case’, which I was investigating. My experiences, challenges and interactions with the subjects of my research impacted upon the subjects ‘out there’ and on myself ‘in here’ as a researcher.

Hamilton et al. (2008) distinguish autoethnography from narrative (a look at a story of self) and self-study (a look at self in action, usually within educational contexts), claiming that rather, it looks at self within a larger context. They expound that the term was originally used to describe cultural studies of one’s own people, yet has grown to refer to stories that feature the self or include the researcher as a character. While its practice “has not been common within education its value and the perception of its worth is changing” (Dyson 2007: 36) and various scholars have engaged with it since (see Hamilton et al. 2008; Quicke 2010; Méndez 2013). It is now a recognised and well-developed research approach (Creswell 2002; Denzin and Lincoln 2000; Ellis and Bochner 1996, 2000).

Mitra (2010) views autoethnography as ‘doing’ and ‘being’ in the research process and to demonstrate this in his text, he juxtaposed academic and free-style writing, as performative autoethnography, and hence sections of the text read as a first-person narrative. This type of performative autoethnography/writing is used to re-centre “incoherence and fragmentation to foster questioning among readers and encourage further dialogue drawing on one’s personal experiences and outlooks” (Mitra 2010: 3). Further, by writing about scholarship in the form of a story, this might help the reader to sense that the author was a genuine participant in the life-world of the participants/students, thus encouraging authenticity and trustworthiness (Quicke 2010).

There are no set rules for writing styles when engaging with autoethnography and to “follow some diktats here would in itself be unreflexive”, rather, the approach and writing style is chosen by the author for the purposes they have in mind for the writing (Quicke 2010: 251). In the case of this paper, I have chosen to write

in a way that combines my academic and personal prose to limit fragmentation, which I feel is not well suited to a relatively short piece of writing, however, it is hoped that my self-reflexivity shines through the academic jargon, especially in the following section that focuses on my experience of and reflections on using DAPS. Writing in first person, generally, has not been encouraged in academic research (Ellis and Bochner 2000) and it feels foreign to me, however, Ellis and Bochner (2000) believe that autoethnography seems to require it because the use of the first-person voice provides direct testimony and some sort of personal accountability. Further, Méndez' (2013: 280) statement that “personal narratives, experiences and opinions are valuable data” makes sense to me because qualitative researchers study things in their natural settings, attempting to make sense of, or to interpret, phenomena in terms of the meaning people bring to them (Denzin and Lincoln 2000).

While I used the notes I had made after class and during meetings with my research team, as well as the tutorial notes that I had prepared for the students to assist in my recollection of my experience, autoethnography acknowledges that it “is always a story about the past and not the past itself” (Ellis and Bochner 2000: 745). The following section presents the case study, as well as my autoethnographic reflections that represent my recollection and interpretation of my experience and comprise an exploration of what I believe worked well and what I would do differently next time. Case studies are useful to explain why an innovation worked or failed to work and illustrate the complexities of a situation by recognising more than one contributing factor (Beeton 2005). It is hence hoped that this case study is able to illuminate the intricacies of my own experience using simulations as teaching-learning tools, as well as the various challenges and benefits.

DAPS Simulation Case Study

The simulation game Destination Administration and Planning System (DAPS) was developed by Professor Michael McGrath; he, my teaching team and I played this simulation with my introductory-level students taking a subject called *Destinations and Attractions* during August 2016, which introduces foundation destination development concepts. This is a continuing project and an earlier version of the game has been used before (McGrath et al. 2015). The purpose here is not to detail the development of the game as was outlined by McGrath et al. (2017), rather, this chapter places focus on the insights drawn from autoethnographic reflections about an educator's teaching and students' learning. The study outlined below was granted ethics approval, however, given the level of my immersion in the study, I had to ensure ethical issues were carefully monitored, such as the inclusion of my students in my story here and I have been careful to maintain their anonymity.

A total of 12 teams participated in this simulation across four tutorials as a classroom activity (as opposed to an assessed course requirement). During game play, which was run towards the latter half of the teaching semester after the student cohort had been introduced to the foundation theories regarding sustainable

destination development. Teams of approximately four-to-five students assumed the role of a Destination Management/ Marketing Organisation (DMO) for Ballarat, a regional tourism destination in Victoria, Australia. Students were asked to make decisions regarding Green Economy (GE) and Tourism Development (TD) investments and rezoning of rural lands. They were given four five-year segments (a total of 20 years) to make these decisions and would discuss their rationales with team members in the time provided between segments (usually around ten minutes). This allowed teams to evaluate the outcomes of their previous input decisions before settling on and setting the inputs into the next five-year segment. At the conclusion of their class, students completed a short survey, elaborating on their game-play experience and understanding of concepts related to the simulation. We asked them:

- a. How, if at all, has the simulation game improved your understanding of destination development and sustainability concepts?
- b. What, if any, improvements could be made to the simulation game as a teaching and learning exercise?

The results of this survey, in addition results from a survey conducted with Higher Education staff members to ascertain their suggestions for improvement, were reported by McGrath et al. (2017). The suggestions for improvement from both staff and students were sorted into three categories: (1) game context, (2) game design and (3) game outputs. Firstly, in regard to game context, students asked for more details regarding the context or background of the destination they were managing, as they thought it would help them imagine the destination they were developing. A key suggestion to facilitate better user experience was a step-by-step guide easing users into the simulation through videos, discussion and illustrated prompts. This was particularly so for students who did not understand what constituted GE and TD spending or were unfamiliar with economics in tourism systems.

Secondly, in relation to game design, both students and staff commented on the simple graphics and design of the simulation, suggesting that these could be improved with more colours and a less intimidating design regarding numeric data. Furthermore, there were suggestions that the sliders that were used in the simulation's graphic interface for determining GE and TD investments as well as land rezoning percentages lacked accuracy, and that more precise forms of input could improve the experience. Another suggestion was to incorporate multiple perspectives into the simulation, such that the sentiments of stakeholders other than DMOs, such as the host community, could be captured. Feedback also suggested that the simulator take into account promotions and their related outcomes, as it would provide DMOs with an indication of the more effective promotional strategies. There were also suggestions for other inputs in addition to the existing three, in order to more accurately reflect reality. These include: ethical considerations, transport link impacts, acts of terror and natural disasters, the socio-economic profiles of visitor markets, political and legislative upheaval, and innovations.

Lastly, the suggested improvements related outputs pointed to the need to increase the amount of detail provided if it is to be used as a learning tool. There were users who felt that while graphs and numbers were illustrative, there was need for explanations

that could interpret the consequences of these graphs and numbers for those who were still at the beginning stages of their academic study. There were also suggestions to align results to theories and models that were being taught in the introductory unit, such as Butler's Tourism Area Life Cycle.

The findings suggested that most students not only noted an improvement of understanding, but also outlined the ways in which their understanding was improved. In particular, some appreciated being able to see the impacts of small changes in inputs on measurable outcomes relating to destinations, supplementing the knowledge taught in the unit. They also developed a greater understanding of the variety of factors involved in decision-making, and the complexity of the tourism system. In addition, the students thought the varied outputs showing impacts of their decisions and visitor numbers gave them a clearer picture of the multiple inputs and outcomes that needed to be considered. While the results of this trial are not the focus of this chapter, some are elaborated on in the following sections if relevant to the insights drawn from using the simulation as a teaching-learning tool.

Autoethnographic Reflections

My previous exposure and experience with using simulations, such as the interactive hospitality simulation programme Hotel Operations Tactics and Strategy (HOTS), where teams manage a virtual hotel business, perhaps lessened my initial trepidation regarding the administration of a simulation game. This particular story, however, is about my involvement with DAPS, which I had not used before. Many of my more senior academic colleagues have referred to the 'Imposter Syndrome', which is said to be felt by Ph.D. candidates defending their dissertation, senior lecturers applying for associate professorship and even professors themselves when publishing papers in top-tier academic journals. It is the concept that a person can feel a persistent fear of being exposed as a 'fraud' because they perceive that their ability or accomplishments do not meet the standard or expectations of their peers. This is what I initially felt when faced with operating the DAPS simulation without the assistance of its creator and his mastery of programmer language, acronyms and technical expertise—that my students would ask all the tough questions and expose my inexperience. Yet once I entered the classroom I soon realised that my amateur knowledge could be masked by my enthusiasm to use different technologies and involve my students.

While I had feared that I would struggle with operating the unfamiliar technology, the challenges I faced primarily related to negotiating the real-life/industry application, as well as the students' prior knowledge and exposure to simulation-based learning. In terms of applying the simulation to reality, while one fictional case study was presented at the beginning of the tutorial, further explanation (perhaps over several lead-up weeks) with various examples could have helped the students understand the broad array of decisions that are needed to sustain a destination (e.g. how to invest money, realistic costs and budgeting). Feedback from the students also suggested that they were expecting high quality visuals and better graphics and design

of the game interface (e.g. more colour and imagery) and additional explanations for the output, not just graphs and numbers. One student referred to the maths visuals as being overwhelming and another wished for more information to be provided to explain the results in addition to the results being graphed. While the students did not mention the visuals whilst in the classroom, perhaps if they were expecting more visually stimulating material they might have felt disappointed, however, this did not seem to dampen their enthusiasm to engage in the activity. A staff member suggested using video examples to explain the outputs and to include some scaffolding exercises so students can work at their own pace and I agree that these resources would assist with the instruction of the simulation, especially for those students who may not feel comfortable speaking up in class. In fact one student asked to have more written details and information so that they could look back over the material if they did not understand. This might also help to overcome any language and/or cultural barriers with students.

The aspects that I believe engaged the students and assisted with their learning the most include their teaching team's enthusiasm and encouragement, as well as the notion of the natural environment's fragility. The notion that a destination's attractiveness could be negatively influenced by over development seemed to provoke their interest and attention. One student acknowledged that the simulation game demonstrated to them that investing in social and environmental factors would have a positive influence on tourism revenue and that resources needed to be balanced. Similarly, another student realised that if they invest too much in tourism development without considering its implications that it would damage the natural environment, which could in turn deter tourists from visiting the destination due to issues regarding pollution. Hearing my students' ability to understand and communicate these concepts was highly rewarding and suggested to me that the simulation, despite not yet having flashy graphics, had assisted in their learning.

Conclusion

This research contributes to the wider pool of knowledge on simulations as teaching-learning tools. It offers insights into operational challenges and the lessons learnt, which may assist other educators wishing to engage simulations in the classroom environment. While simulated games are not a panacea for higher education and can present varied challenges for students, educators and operators, they offer pedagogical value through learner (both student and educator) engagement. I would like to see simulations as a key component of learning tools in the future and imagine that they could be utilised as alternative and/or supportive teaching media, such as for blended and online delivery, to enhance students' understanding of the complexity associated with managing sustainable destinations. I have found that some students struggle with understanding academic theory when it is presented in isolation from real world settings and interactive simulations can assist with this dilemma by providing hands-on experiences of simulated industry in an academic environment.

On another level this chapter comments on methodology in educator practice. I was attracted to autoethnography as a research methodology because it encourages my researcher/educator ideologies to be embedded as well as exposed in my writing and research. These are informed by my lived reality, experiences, encounters and interactions with the world and autoethnography allows a researcher to explicate their ideologies through personal stories. I hope that by revealing my own ideological base, as a researcher/educator, to in turn encourage my colleagues and other researchers to reflect upon their own place in their research, to collectively develop our scholarly practice; as articulated by Méndez (2013: 282) whereby “through reading a cultural or social account of an experience, some may become aware of realities that have not been thought of before, which makes autoethnography a valuable form of inquiry”.

By communicating our autoethnography in our scholarship and research, we can learn from other educators’ collective and subjective experiences. A dialogue about different teaching practices and experiences could act as a bridge between the educational sectors (e.g. higher education and vocational education). In this regard, I could have incorporated more autobiographical analysis in this case study (e.g. my previous experiences in the university sector), considering that my research interests and intercultural understanding stem from life experiences, however, due to word limitations I felt further self-analysis was beyond the scope of this particular chapter. This reveals an opportunity for further research into the potential benefits of creating a dialogue about our lived experiences (i.e. challenges, learning and hopes) as educators/researchers. The case study method and autoethnographic approach were found appropriate and useful in regards to exploring the nuances of an educator’s experience of a simulated pedagogy. Some of the results may be specific to this classroom environment, however, possibilities were raised that others can explore and these findings could be examined in different contexts and with diverse cultures to further illuminate the simulated pedagogies.

References

- Beeton, S. (2005). The case study in tourism research: A multi-method case study approach. In B. Ritchie, P. Burns, & C. Palmer (Eds.), *Tourism research methods: Integrating theory with practice* (pp. 37–48). Oxfordshire: CAB International.
- Beeton, S. (2016a). The self as data: Autoethnographic approaches. *Travel and Tourism Research Association International Conference 2016: Advancing Tourism Research Globally* (pp. 1–2). Amherst: University of Massachusetts.
- Beeton, S. (2016b). *Film-induced tourism* (2nd ed.). Bristol: Channel View Publications.
- Benckendorff, P., Lohmann, G., Pratt, M., Whitelaw, P., Strickland, P., & Reynolds, P. (2015). Creating educator resources for online simulation-based pedagogies in tourism and hospitality. In E. Wilson & M. Witsel (Eds.), *CAUTHE 2015: Rising Tides and Sea Changes: Adaptation and Innovation in Tourism and Hospitality* (pp. 67–78). Gold Coast: School of Business and Tourism, Southern Cross University.
- Creswell, J. (2002). *Educational research*. New Jersey: Pearson Education.
- Creswell, J. W. (2013). *Qualitative inquiry and research design: Choosing among five approaches* (3rd ed.). Lincoln: Sage.

- Dalgarno, B., Kennedy, G., & Bennett, S. (2014). The impact of students' exploration strategies on discovery learning using computer-based simulations. *Educational Media International*, 51(4), 310–329.
- Denzin, N. K., & Lincoln, Y. S. (2000). *The handbook of qualitative research* (2nd ed.). Thousand Oaks: Sage.
- Douglas, A., Miller, B., Kwansa, F., & Cummings, P. (2007). Students' perceptions of the usefulness of a virtual simulation in post-secondary hospitality education. *Journal of Teaching in Travel & Tourism*, 7(3), 1–19. <https://doi.org/10.1080/15313220801909270>.
- Dyson, M. (2007). My story in a profession of stories: Auto ethnography—An empowering methodology for educators. *Australian Journal of Teacher Education*, 32(1), 36–48.
- Ellis, C., & Bochner, A. (1996). *Composing ethnography: Alternative forms of qualitative writing* (Vol. 1). Walnut Creek: AltaMira.
- Ellis, C., & Bochner, A. (2000). Auto-ethnography, personal narrative, reflexivity. In K. Denzin & Y. Lincoln (Eds.), *The handbook of qualitative research* (2nd ed., pp. 733–767). Thousand Oaks: Sage.
- Ferreira, R. R. (1997). Measuring student improvement in a hospitality computer simulation. *Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Education*, 9(3), 58–61. <https://doi.org/10.1080/10963758.1997.10685330>.
- Feinstein, A. H., & Mann, S. H. (1998). The development and assessment of a foodservice instructional simulation technique (FIST). *Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Education*, 10(3), 19–27. <https://doi.org/10.1080/10963758.1998.10685193>.
- Furunes, T. (2005). Training paradox in the hotel industry. *Scandinavian Journal of Hospitality and Tourism*, 5(3), 231–248. <https://doi.org/10.1080/15022250510014372>.
- Gosen, J., & Washburn, J. (2004). A review of scholarship on assessing experiential learning effectiveness. *Simulation & Gaming*, 35(2), 270–293.
- Hamilton, M. L., Smith, L., & Worthington, K. (2008). Fitting the methodology with the research: An exploration of narrative, self-study and auto-ethnography. *Studying Teacher Education: Journal of Self-Study of Teacher Education Practices*, 4(1), 17–28. <https://doi.org/10.1080/17425960801976321>.
- Kiser, J. W., & Partlow, C. G. (1999). Experiential learning in hospitality education: An exploratory study. *Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Education*, 11(2–3), 70–74. <https://doi.org/10.1080/10963758.1999.10685240>.
- Larréché, J.-C., Gagnon, H., & Triolet, R. (2010). *Markstrat by STRATX: Participant handbook*. Massachusetts: StratX International.
- Martin, D., & McEvoy, B. (2003). Business simulations: A balanced approach to tourism education. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 15(6), 336. <https://doi.org/10.1108/09596110310488195>.
- McIlveen, P. (2008). Autoethnography as a method for reflexive research and practice in vocational psychology. *Australian Journal of Career Development*, 17, 13–20.
- McGrath, G. M., Harris, A., & Whitelaw, P. A. (2015). A destination management game simulation for novice tourism and hospitality students. *Proceedings of the 29th Annual Conference of the Australian and New Zealand Academy of Management*, 2–4 December, Queenstown, NZ.
- McGrath, G. M., McWha, M., Lockstone-Binney, L., Ong, F., & Whitelaw, P. A. (2017). Use of a destination simulation game: Preliminary results for an undergraduate tourism and hospitality program. In *Proceedings of the CAUTHE 2017 Conference*, 7–10 February, Dunedin, NZ.
- Méndez, M. M. (2013). Autoethnography as a research method: Advantages, limitations and criticisms. *Colombian Applied Linguistics Journal*, 15(2), 279–287.
- Mitra, R. (2010). Doing ethnography, being an ethnographer: The autoethnographic research process and I. *Journal of Research Practice*, 6(1), 1–21.
- Pratt, M. A., & Hahn, S. (2015). Effects of simulation on student satisfaction with a capstone course. *Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Education*, 27(1), 39–46.

- Quicke, J. (2010). Narrative strategies in educational research: Reflections on a critical autoethnography. *Educational Action Research, 18*(2), 239–254.
- Thompson, G., & Verma, R. (2003). Computer simulation in hospitality teaching, practice, and research. *Cornell Hotel and Restaurant Administration Quarterly, 44*(2), 85–93.

Part VI
Conclusions: Into the 21st Century

Chapter 23

Plausible Futures: Transforming Ourselves, Transforming Our Industry



Melanie Williams

Abstract William Angliss Institute (WAI) aspires to become a University of Specialisation. This chapter outlines some of the reasons behind this objective and the challenges involved in seeking to achieve it. The author contends that the Institute and the industry it services must co-evolve and transform their worldviews if they are to meet the challenges of an uncertain future: a task that entails developing more complex epistemologies. Based on the author's doctoral research that suggest a catalytic correlation between participation in certain forms of scenario planning and epistemic development, a transformative approach to scenario based research is proposed as a vehicle for bringing about this transformation. The methodology for a proposed scenario research project is explained and its potential short and long term benefits for both WAI and the industry are identified. The proposal represents innovation in WAI's own development and its industry partnerships.

Keywords Scenario planning · Epistemic development · Worldview
Transformative learning

Introduction

William Angliss Institute (WAI) is the Victorian State Government's designated Specialist Centre for the training of food, hospitality, tourism and events. With over 75 years of history in training in the food trades, the institute added the provision of higher education in 2007 with its first intake of 39 students into two bachelor degrees. Ten years later this has grown to around 700 students in a range of undergraduate and postgraduate programs. Although growing year on year, higher education provision continues to play the junior partner to vocational training in terms of student numbers.

However, WAI plans to become a University of Specialisation. This will apply to the whole of the organisation, not just its higher education faculty. Why would

M. Williams (✉)

William Angliss Institute, Melbourne, VIC, Australia
e-mail: Melanie.Williams@angliss.edu.au

WAI aspire to go down this path? What are the challenges for a trades-based school that has such grand aspirations? How do these relate to the challenges facing the industry it services? How might these challenges be addressed? And what benefits could accrue to WAI and the industry? This chapter explores these questions from the perspective of worldview transformation.

The Aspirations and Challenges

We aspire to position ourselves as a new type of organisation servicing the food, tourism, hospitality and events sectors in new ways. We aspire to become an organisation that brings together a range of elements that are currently in tension: liberal arts with industry relevance; practical skills with scholarly thoughtfulness; entry level training with high level intellectual achievement. We aspire to be a place where new ideas are generated, where we are renowned for our innovation and design that addresses the real-world issues of our industry and co-creates with them new directions in thinking and practice.

We cannot do this as we are now: a Technical and Further Education (TAFE) institute with higher education offerings on the side because we are fragmented and bound by traditional vocational education and training sector constraints. Our organisation participates in a national vocational training system which, at its best, can only value instrumental thinking that focuses on linear, causal reasoning and analytical problem solving. At its worst, it values doing over thinking. Much of this training deals in certainties, in the highly contextualised, atomised and instrumental transfer of knowledge, largely confined to that which is required to perform particular workplace functions. This inevitably shapes the thinking of those who teach in this arena.

Nor can we do it as a ‘super TAFE’, by simply changing our name and structures to those of a university and continuing with business as usual, because that cannot generate the intellectual power that a vibrant research and scholarly culture engenders. And neither will going down the path of a traditional university help because that would mean turning our back on our trades-based traditions.

The rationale for becoming a University of Specialisation is that it is the only structure and ‘brand’ that will allow all of these aspirations to be brought together, to be articulated and operationalised in a coherent way that proclaims one unified organisation from Certificate I through to Ph.D. We aspire to become an organisation which is not only ‘specialist’ but also ‘special’—unique, in other words. University of Specialisation status is a kind of brand shorthand for signalling to ourselves, to our industry and to the world that this is the kind of organisation we want to be, that these are our offerings, and if anyone wants to be in the forefront of exciting and ground-breaking happenings in our industry, this is the only place where they can get them.

And for the industry, safeguarding the sustainability of its future development to ensure its continued relevance, productivity and economic prosperity is impera-

tive given its economic and social significance as an employer of 206,000 people, or seven per cent of Victoria's population. Influences such as climate change, pandemics, geopolitical and economic stability and the escalating cost of travel pose complex challenges and generate increasing uncertainty for the sector. Researching the alternative futures of the industry as the context for setting new strategic directions is a vital capability to thrive in such uncertain environments, both for the industry and WAI. Our futures are inextricably linked: the needs of the industry as it negotiates its contribution to the economy and society more generally will dictate the required knowledge, skills and attributes of its workforce. This in turn will shape the kind of organisation WAI needs to be, what attributes its graduates will need to have acquired and what questions its applied research agenda will need to address.

Understanding sustainability as a continuous, iterative and innovative process requires leadership in the industry and its training providers, and a workforce in both that is not only aware of emerging challenges but sufficiently skilled, flexible and innovative to adapt to them—ideally, even to be able to intervene to change them. This requires close partnerships between industry employers and WAI in a relationship of co-development and mutual learning.

So how do we honour the best of our traditions as we transform ourselves into a community of critically reflective scholar-practitioners who can produce graduates that are well equipped to embrace the uncertainties and complexities of the future? And how do we transform our industry so that it is forward thinking, innovative and able to thrive in a turbulent new world? How can we co-evolve to meet these challenges and to play a hand in shaping our common futures?

My contention is that the journey is essentially one of epistemic development, both for ourselves and our industry. A key task is to shift from an explanatory and problem solving approach to training future industry workers, to a future in which faculty and students engage collaboratively with industry partners in processes of critical, systemic inquiry to tackle the complex and conflict-laden situations that confront our industry as it navigates its role in civic society (Bawden 2016). This requires nothing short of worldview transformation.

Worldview and Worldview Transformation

Worldviews are comprised of an integrated system of beliefs and assumptions in three major domains: (1) beliefs about the nature of being and reality; (2) beliefs about knowledge and knowing; and (3) beliefs about value—both ethic (what we believe is good or bad) and aesthetic (what we believe is beautiful or ugly).

Beliefs about knowledge and knowing (epistemological beliefs) are our meaning-making structures. They function in three ways. First, they filter our experience of the world, selecting what comes to our attention from the host of background detail that is not noticed. Second, having made that selection, they attribute meaning and significance to what we notice. Third, they shape our actions in response to the meaning that has been attributed to our experiences (Koltko-Rivera 2004). Because of

this meaning-making function, epistemological beliefs are dominant within a greater system of worldview beliefs. They mediate all other beliefs (Brownlee et al. 2010).

While notions of what is included in a person's epistemological beliefs differ, there is general agreement in the personal epistemology literature that there are four core epistemological beliefs, each of which has its own developmental scale ranging from simple to complex beliefs about knowledge and knowing. The four core beliefs are: (1) whether knowledge can be known with certainty or is uncertain; (2) whether its source is external or knowledge is constructed by the knower; (3) whether knowledge is understood as discrete facts or is seen to be complex and dependent on context; and (4) whether knowledge can be justified by appeal to an external authority or by argument and evidence (Hofer and Pintrich 1997). Thus, these four dichotomies represent the end points on a continuum of epistemic development. As a person's personal epistemology develops they progress towards more complex ways of knowing in one or more of these domains.

In this context, worldview transformation involves the knower using increasingly complex ways of making meaning out of their experience of the world as their understanding of knowledge itself progresses in successive stages along the developmental continuum. This differs from ordinary learning, wherein new knowledge is accommodated within existing meaning-making structures or worldviews. In contrast, this 'transformative' learning involves a fundamental change in the forms of the meaning-making structures themselves. And at the same time as this development occurs, the knower also develops critical awareness of the limits that their processes of meaning-making impose. That is to say, the knower develops awareness of the ways in which their own worldview shapes and limits their perceptions. This awareness gives rise to the ability to critically evaluate their own beliefs and to remain open to other perspectives (Williams 2016).

Thus, as a person's epistemic development progresses they typically become less black and white in their thinking as they come to recognise the importance of context. They become more tolerant of uncertainty and complexity as this awareness of context opens a broader perspective on the world. They become more tolerant of others' views as they appreciate the contestability of knowledge under the influence of their own and others' worldviews. And their reasoning powers improve as they strive to formulate sound arguments backed up by evidence to justify their views. I argue that this worldview transformation is what is needed in individuals and as part of our organisational ethos to transform WAI into a University of Specialisation that is capable of achieving its aspirations. I argue further that the Victorian tourism industry would also be better placed to meet the challenges outlined and to achieve sustainable development through a similar transformation in the worldviews of its decision makers.

Scenario Researching and Worldview Transformation

So how could we go about the notoriously difficult and slippery task of changing the way people think? One possible path is to use scenario researching as a vehicle for fostering epistemic development. While numerous assertions in the classical scenario planning literature contend that engaging in scenario planning has a transformative effect (van der Heijden 2005; Schoemaker 1992; van der Heijden et al. 2002; Wack 1985) there is little beyond anecdotal evidence in this literature to back the claims. Nor is there a coherent theory explaining how transformation might occur.

However, I am not referring to the flat, process-driven approaches to scenario planning described in much of this literature, labelled by Ogilvy (2004: 292) as ‘a practice in search of a theory’. Rather, my Ph.D. research suggests that participation in a transformative approach to scenario planning may indeed foster epistemic development which can be legitimately couched in terms of worldview transformation. This approach entails a critically reflexive, transformative scenario researching methodology that is richly informed by the experiential learning theories of Dewey (1938) and Kolb (1984); the action research of Lewin (1951); the systems inquiry of Churchman (1971) and Checkland (1981); the worldview theory of Koltko-Rivera (2004); the transformative learning theory of Mezirow (2009) and Kegan (2009); and research into epistemic cognition by Perry (1968/1999), Kitchener (1983) and others (Hofer and Pintrich 2002; Greene et al. 2016).

In the longitudinal case study research for my Ph.D. the epistemic development of five teachers and principals was tracked through a two-year scenario project that investigated the future of teaching in Australian schools. Over the course of the project all five participants showed evidence of transformation in one or more dimensions of their worldview. This was typically expressed as having an enriched understanding of the world through heightened awareness of multiple complex influencing factors and their systemic interactions; an increased orientation to the future and capacity to factor long term considerations into their thinking and actions; and enhanced awareness and tolerance of uncertainty and the importance of embracing multiple perspectives. These changes in thinking led to significant changes in the ways in which the participants viewed and carried out their professional roles. The research methodology did not permit the inference that participating in the scenario exercise *caused* these changes but it appeared to have a catalytic influence (Williams 2016).

At the time of writing WAI is awaiting the outcome of a funding application to the Victorian State Government to undertake a two-year action research-based scenario researching exercise to tackle the challenges outlined for WAI and the Victorian tourism industry. Scenario researching requires a focal issue that frames the investigation. This project will focus on the sustainable development of tourism in Victoria. Tourism in this context also incorporates foods, hospitality and events—all of the areas serviced by WAI’s education and training programs.

The proposed project will facilitate close affiliations across Victoria through partnering with the state’s peak body for tourism and events. Together the partners will generate a set of scenarios of alternative futures for Victoria’s tourism industry, which

will become the context for adaptive and generative strategies for both industry and WAI. The scenarios will provide contexts for ensuring that the training provided by WAI is relevant to a workforce in a dynamic industry that must constantly deal with complex uncertainties within the environments in which it operates.

Methodology

We propose to establish a scenario building team of around 60, comprising members of WAI's vocational and higher education staff and students, Executive and Board, along with industry stakeholders. Over a period of two years, this team will conduct research activities that include scenario workshops, desk research, literature reviews, focus groups and interviews with key industry personnel and thought leaders on a more global basis to generate plausible, alternative future states of the operating environment for both the industry and WAI.

Using the Neville Freeman Agency's QUEST™ methodology (Freeman 2004), the scenario researching process consists of five phases: (1) identifying a framing question to guide the research; (2) articulating a preferred vision for the future; (3) identifying and analysing the natural, social, political, economic, cultural and technical influences—and their possible systemic interactions—that are likely to shape the future operating environment; (4) developing a set narratives about plausible, alternative, future states of that environment; and (5) using these scenarios to inform and evaluate strategy development to guide our journey forward.

The transformative approach to scenario researching entails a process of critical systemic inquiry. Bawden and Freeman (2007) have mapped the process to experiential learning, which mirrors cycles of action research. Each phase is undertaken as an action research cycle in which we not only inquire into the matter at hand (sustainable tourism development in Victoria and WAI's role in it), but also reflect upon our processes of inquiry and—most importantly—upon our own epistemic perspectives or worldviews as a critical, social, learning system.

Informed by transformative learning theory (Mezirow 2009; Taylor et al. 2012) and research into epistemic cognition (Hofer and Pintrich 2002; Salner 1986; Kitchener 1983), we will use processes of dialogue and reflective critique to raise awareness of the ways in which our collective worldviews consciously and unconsciously select, define and limit: (a) what we perceive as being worthy of attention in both the matter to hand and the processes we engage into get there; (b) the significance we attribute to those matters and processes; and (c) our behavioural responses in light of this attribution of meaning and significance (Williams 2016; Bawden and Freeman 2007; Koltko-Rivera 2004).

In the first phase, interviews with key internal and external stakeholders will identify the 'burning issues' for the industry and the Institute as we progress together. The findings will be compiled into an Issues Report, which will help to scope the exercise and define its purpose through informing the development of the framing

question/s that will guide the process. The Issues Report will also provide input into the scenario building workshops.

In phase two, a ‘preferred future’ for the Victorian tourism industry will be developed. In this context, a concurrent whole-of-Institute visioning workshop will initiate a conversation to develop a shared narrative about what WAI might look like as a University of Specialisation. These preferred futures will be critical to informing strategy development in the last phase of the project—more on this later.

In the third phase, desk research into trends and trend-breaks in the external environment will provide the stimulus for dialogue and critical reflection in the scenario building workshops. Participants will work in small groups to identify the natural, social, political, economic, cultural and technological influences, and their interactions and permutations, that are likely to shape the industry and the Institute’s future operating environments. This dialogic process is designed to produce the clash of worldviews within the group that can trigger a transformative learning experience. Participants must prioritise influences within their groups, which entails negotiating both meaning and process to achieve an agreed outcome. Exercises in conversation mapping and critical reflection on these tasks will raise awareness of the impact of worldview with the intent of surfacing and challenging hegemonic assumptions.

Once as many influences as possible are identified, participants will be asked to rank the influences deemed to be the most critical to the framing question/s, and the most uncertain as to how they might play out. The different combinations of these critical uncertainties will give rise to three to five alternative scenarios. This process of manipulation assists in developing participants’ awareness of uncertainty, complexity, the importance of context and systems thinking—and as always, the influence of worldview.

As the indicative scenarios start to emerge in phase four, a timeline ‘back casting’ from the future to the present will be developed for each scenario. The timeline traces the events that must have happened in order for each scenario world to have come about. It begins from the future and works backwards in order to overcome linear extrapolation from the present, which would inhibit the development of scenarios that are sufficiently discontinuous from the present to generate new perceptions. This back-casting technique helps to generate the scenario narratives as well as test the plausibility of the emergent scenarios: if no logical link can be traced back from the future to the present, then the scenario lacks plausibility and internal coherence and must be modified accordingly.

At this point selected thought leaders will be introduced to provide counterpoints to the thinking that has emerged within the scenario building team to date. Again, this is designed to create worldview dissonance, which provides the opportunity for the reappraisal, enrichment and extension of the scenarios.

Drawing on Dewey’s (1938) notion of experiential learning, techniques such as visualisation and role play will be used make the scenarios as real as possible once the different scenario worlds start to solidify. This will facilitate an immersive, imaginative experience of what it might feel like to live in these worlds. The aim is to create existential shock: to produce sufficient discontinuity from the everyday world to trigger a transformation in the way the present is perceived. To achieve this, the

scenarios must be plausible, robust and compelling, and be set sufficiently far into the future to allow participants to overcome the cognitive constraints of their present reality.

These scenarios represent the environments in which Victoria's tourism industry, and therefore WAI, may well have to operate in the future. A set of early warning indicators will be developed for each scenario, which will function as an alert to the possibility that one or other scenario (or key elements thereof) may be about to unfold.

The final phase of the scenario researching process entails developing strategies that are designed, as far as possible, to bring about the preferred futures identified in phase two. These are reappraised at this point for their continued relevance and desirability in light of the knowledge gained through the scenario building process. What differentiates scenario researching from conventional strategic planning at this juncture is that, whereas strategic planning draws a direct line between where the organisation is now and where it wants to be, in scenario researching, the strategies towards the vision are mediated by alternative possibilities in the operating environment. There is no single path to the future: alternative sets of strategies are developed that will help the organisation to achieve its vision *in each scenario*.

Furthermore, both adaptive and generative strategies are developed. There is a clear delineation between (a) matters internal to the organisation over which it has control; (b) external matters over which the organisation may exert some influence and so act to change the environment; and (c) those which are beyond the capacity of the organisation to influence—to which the organisation must adapt.

Once the strategies are developed they will be tested for relevance in each scenario. Strategies are prioritised according to their likely efficacy in the greatest number of scenarios. However, those strategies which may be relevant to only one or two scenarios are not discarded. The operating environment will be monitored going forward. If evidence of the early warning indicators for a particular scenario appears, then these strategies will be the appropriate ones to deploy.

Before being finally adopted, the strategies will be critically evaluated and their implications explored. This enhances awareness of the social and environmental aspects of sustainability and its ethical imperative. We will thus pay attention to the emotional, relational, ethical and existential dilemmas that emerge from the process.

The outcomes of the process will be packaged in a publication that will be available for employers and stakeholders in the Victorian tourism industry to use to inform their own organisations' and regions' strategic development. WAI will use the process to inform curriculum development and its applied research agenda, as well as its own strategic planning and direction setting.

The Benefits

The significance of scenario researching does not reside in the scenarios as artefacts, although the literature suggests that they have value in 'rehearsing the future' in a way that can give rise to foresight (Schwartz 1991; van der Heijden et al. 2002). The

true worth of their development is as a vehicle for triggering new perspectives on the present—what the founding father of modern scenario planning termed ‘the gentle art of re-perception’ (Wack 1985).

In terms of the specifics of the proposed project, there are both short and long term benefits to be gained, both for WAI and the industry. In the short term, both will benefit from industry-relevant curricula, the development of applied research capabilities, the application of critical scholarship, improved attitudes to change and uncertainty, and the development of foresight capabilities and strategic planning skills—not to mention the benefits of enhanced understanding and trust through the partnerships forged.

In the longer term, the Victorian tourism industry can expect to gain sustainability through adaptability, innovative sustainable developments, more highly skilled managers and productivity gains. Long term benefits for WAI will include highly sought-after graduates, enhanced institutional reputation, well developed applied research capabilities across both vocational and higher education staff, consulting capabilities and a sustainable institution through its capacity for foresight and adaptability.

Conclusion

The proposed project has a number of innovative features. Some of these represent innovations for WAI as an education and training provider and some represent innovations in the relationship between WAI and the Victorian tourism industry. Examples of the former include: (1) using scenario researching as a form of scholarship to provide the context for WAI’s own strategic development as well as to inform curriculum, pedagogy and applied research; (2) engaging a cross-sectoral researching team with industry partners; and (3) attempting to enhance the epistemic development of both the workforce and the organisational epistemology as a whole (Schon 1995) as critical to achieving its strategic aspirations. Innovations in our partnership with the industry include: (1) recognition of our interdependence and mutual investment in ensuring the sustainability of the industry; (2) exploring our shared futures as a co-evolutionary process; and (3) making available expertise in scenario researching as a vital approach to strategic development and innovation in the industry.

These innovations emerge from a transformative praxis that is exceedingly practical for the development of both the industry and WAI, while at the same time representing a theory-laden, reflective and reflexive form of scholarship that has intellectual and ethical development as its highest objective. The futures orientation of scenario researching and its embrace of uncertainty, complexity and multiplicity makes it eminently suitable as a scholarship for the 21st century as times become increasingly turbulent and new capabilities in innovation, adaptability and resilience are required. It is a methodology that transcends discipline: scenario researching can be applied where any ‘system of interest’ with a complex problem to explore can be identified. What is being proposed here can certainly be replicated across

other disciplines, industry sectors, education and training providers in Australia and internationally.

However, scenario researching is an expensive and time-consuming process. It requires buy-in and courage on the part of organisational leaders to allow radical ideas and new perspectives to percolate through the organisation and take root. Perhaps the greatest challenge with scenario researching as an experiential, social leaning process is how to amplify any changes in thinking beyond the immediate participants in the exercise. And of course, while the process is structured to present multiple opportunities for participants to examine and challenge their worldview beliefs and assumptions, it cannot guarantee that they will do so. In the words of Dirkx and Smith (2009: 65): ‘ultimately, whether a learning experience is transformative rests with the learner, not us as instructors or facilitators’.

These constraints notwithstanding, I suggest that scenario researching in the way described in this chapter represents a unique opportunity to transform ourselves and our industry so that we can co-develop the capability to realise our mutual and distinctive strategic aspirations.

Acknowledgements This chapter was developed from a conference working paper titled “Plausible futures for education and training in food, hospitality, tourism and events” originally presented at *CAUTHE 2017: Time for Big Ideas? Re-thinking the Field for Tomorrow*, Dunedin, New Zealand. The author acknowledges the contributions of Emeritus Professor Richard Bawden, Western Sydney University and Oliver Freeman, Adjunct Professor, University of Technology Sydney/Neville Freeman Agency for their conceptualisation of the proposed WAI scenario researching project.

References

- Bawden, R. (2016). Personal correspondence [Email], 27 October.
- Bawden, R., & Freeman, O. (2007). Scenario planning as an experiential exercise in social, reflexive and transformational learning. <http://www.oliverfreeman.com.au/library.html>. Accessed October 30, 2017.
- Brownlee, J., Purdie, N., & Boulton-Lewis, G. (2010). Changing epistemological beliefs in pre-service teacher education students. *Teaching in Higher Education*, 6(2), 247–268.
- Checkland, P. (1981). *Systems thinking, systems practice*. Chichester: Wiley.
- Churchman, C. W. (1971). *The design of inquiring systems: Basic concepts of systems and organization*. New York: Basic Books Inc.
- Dewey, J. (1938). *Experience and education*. New York: Collier Books.
- Dirkx, J. M., & Smith, R. O. (2009). Facilitating transformative learning: Engaging emotions in an online context. In J. Mezirow & E. W. Taylor & Associates (Eds.), *Transformative learning in practice: Insights from community, workplace and higher education*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Freeman, O. (2004). *Building scenario worlds: How to transform our approach to business and strategic development*. North Sydney: Richmond.
- Greene, J. A., Sandoval, W. A., & Braten, I. (Eds.). (2016). *Handbook of epistemic cognition*. New York: Routledge.
- Hofer, B. K., & Pintrich, P. R. (1997). The development of epistemological theories: Beliefs about knowledge and knowing and their relation to learning. *Review of Educational Research*, 67(1), 88–140.

- Hofer, B. K., & Pintrich, P. R. (Eds.). (2002). *Personal epistemology: The psychology of beliefs about knowledge and knowing*. New York: Routledge.
- Kegan, R. (2009). What 'form' transforms? A constructive-developmental approach to transformative learning. In K. Illeris (Ed.), *Contemporary Theories of Learning: Learning theorists ... in their own words*. London, New York: Routledge.
- Kitchener, K. S. (1983). Cognition, metacognition, and epistemic cognition. *Human Development*, 26, 222–232.
- Kolb, D. A. (1984). *Experiential learning: Experience as the source of learning and development*. New Jersey: Prentice Hall.
- Koltko-Rivera, M. E. (2004). The psychology of worldviews. *Review of General Psychology*, 8(1), 3–58.
- Lewin, K. (1951). *Field theory in social sciences*. New York: Harper & Row.
- Mezrow, J. (2009). An overview of transformative learning. In K. Illeris (Ed.), *Contemporary theories of learning*. London: Routledge.
- Ogilvy, J. A. (2004). Scenario planning, critical theory and the role of hope. In R. A. Slaughter (Ed.), *Knowledge base of futures studies*. Brisbane: Foresight International.
- Perry, W. G. (1968/1999). *Forms of intellectual and ethical development in the college years: A scheme*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Salner, M. (1986). Adult cognitive and epistemological development in systems education. *Systems Research*, 3(4), 224–232.
- Schoemaker, P. J. H. (1992). *How to link strategic vision to core capabilities* (pp. 67–80). Fall: Sloan Management Review.
- Schon, D. (1995). The new scholarship requires a new epistemology. *Change*, November/December, 27–34.
- Schwartz, P. (1991). *The art of the long view*. New York: Doubleday.
- Taylor, E. W., & Cranton, P. & Associates (Eds.) (2012). *The handbook of transformative learning: Theory, research, and practice*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- van der Heijden, K. (2005). *Scenarios: The art of strategic conversation*. Chichester: Wiley.
- van der Heijden, K., Bradfield, R., Burt, G., Carins, G., & Wright, G. (2002). *The sixth sense: Accelerating organizational learning with scenarios*. Chichester: Wiley.
- Wack, P. (1985). *Scenarios: The gentle art of re-perceiving*. [Unpublished manuscript]. Harvard Business School.
- Williams, M. (2016). *Learning scenarios: Transforming worldviews*. Ph.D., University of Melbourne.

Chapter 24

Conclusion: Studying Scholarship in Changing Times...



Sue Beeton and Alison Morrison

Abstract The mix of authors, scholarly approaches and topics covered in this book pushes the boundaries of our knowledge in terms of the ways that we understand, study and teach trades, craft skills, and applied as well as theoretical knowledge. In this era of uncertainty, these approaches are even more important. As many of the chapters in this publication refer to and employ Case Studies, we turn our attention to a brief discussion of that methodological approach. This is important, as Case Studies remain relatively misunderstood in many research disciplines; yet in relation to the various areas that we have been examining here, they are often the most appropriate and illuminating method. We conclude with a discussion of the role that co-creation plays in the scholarship presented in the book.

Keywords Co-creation · Case study

At the same time as customers, tourists, audiences and service providers have become ever more diverse, tourism, hospitality, foods and events have taken a greater place in today's society; consequently, understanding them becomes ever more varied and complex, requiring greater attention, creativity and diversity. No longer are these fields of enterprise and examination outside the realm of scholarly study, particularly in terms of education.

We not only see new tourism markets rising in this century, but others maturing and diversifying, from the emerging markets of China, India and South America to the maturing western markets. The tourism experience itself is now segmented in innumerable ways, from slow tourism, food and wine tourism, ecotourism, city tourism and voluntourism to adventure-based activities, not to mention the broad range of events, both business and recreational. Furthermore, all these experiences contain significant elements of hospitality, food consumption and service.

Moreover, young people today see travel as simply a part of their lives, with such increasing mobility creating greater demands on host destinations and communities. Education and social media have created greater familiarity with the 'other', but also

S. Beeton (✉) · A. Morrison
College of Eminent Professors, William Angliss Institute, Melbourne, Australia
e-mail: s.beeton@outlook.com

© Springer Nature Singapore Pte Ltd. 2019
S. Beeton and A. Morrison (eds.), *The Study of Food, Tourism, Hospitality, and Events*,
Tourism, Hospitality & Event Management,
https://doi.org/10.1007/978-981-13-0638-9_24

greater curiosity to experience it. Celebrity chefs, cooking programs and blogs have armed the general public with food knowledge, language and expectations beyond what we saw even ten years ago, not to mention our self-curated lives through social media such as Twitter, Instagram and Facebook.

Such a rapidly altering environment presents challenges for educators, requiring more flexibility in curriculum and teaching approaches than ever before. Many of our more traditional educational institutions are not in a position to respond to such changes in a timely manner, presenting scholars and educators with the additional challenge of making their programs relevant within very tight, often inflexible parameters. As Chemi and Krogh (2017: viii) explain, educational institutions are now required to look more closely at “the emotional, sensory, affective and psychological sides of teaching and learning...”. There are those who are addressing such issues in a very practical manner, as evidenced in this publication, responding to the calls for more creative and proactive approaches to education from those scholars and colleagues cited in the Introduction, including Sheldon and Fesenmeir (2015) and Benckendorff and Zehrer (2017), along with Dredge et al.’s (2013) call for program differentiation and quality.

The mix of authors, scholarly approaches and topics covered in the preceding chapters pushes the boundaries of our knowledge in terms of the ways that we understand, study and teach trades, craft skills, and applied as well as theoretical knowledge. While all the contributors to this book have a connection with William Angliss Institute in Australia, from Academic Board members, the College of Eminent Professors to casual and full-time staff, many have international perspectives and experiences. Consequently, the cases and concepts presented have broad applications, far outside the walls of one institute. In effect, William Angliss Institute is the Case Study, set in a wider global context. Combining this with additional international contributions from the Eminent Professors, all of whom are global leaders in their respective fields, we have produced a resource for all scholars in the professional trades who are dealing with change and uncertainty.

As many of the chapters in this publication refer to and employ Case Studies, we turn our attention to a brief discussion of that methodological approach. This is important, as Case Studies remain relatively misunderstood in many research disciplines; yet in relation to the various areas that we have been examining here, they are often the most appropriate and illuminating method.

The Case Study in Scholarly Studies

Cases are used extensively in teaching and journalism, where they are employed to illustrate a point, or even to entertain. While not wishing to comment on the current state of journalism, teaching case studies are often manipulated to further illuminate a particular issue. For example, in a class on Tourism Economics, a case will often focus on the economic issues more than other aspects, depending on the focus of that class. Case Studies used in research, such as those presented in this publication,

are quite different in that their aim is to increase our knowledge through careful, reflexive examination.

Robert Yin, the leading expert on the Case Study, began publishing material about this method over 25 years ago. One of his early articles on the topic in 1981, 'The Case Study Crisis: some answers,' where he responds to criticisms of this approach, remains relevant today, stating:

What the case study does represent is a research strategy, to be likened to an experiment, a history, or a simulation, which may be considered alternative research strategies. ... As a research strategy, *the distinguishing characteristic of the case study is that it attempts to examine*: (a) a contemporary phenomenon in its real-life context, especially when (b) the boundaries between phenomenon and context are not clearly evident. (Yin 1981a: 59)

Stake (2006) takes the notion of the Case Study further (as does Yin in later studies, while remaining true to his early work), explaining that it is not only a process, but also the product of an inquiry, which is evident in many of the chapters in this book.

In another early article, Yin reiterates his concern about the lack of support or understanding of the value of the Case Study:

Unfortunately, up to now, the stereotype of the case study as merely an exploratory device has probably discouraged such recording and analysis, because investigators have been unaware that they have been using a serious method in the first place. The realization... that case studies are a full-blown research strategy, applicable to all phases of scientific inquiry (from exploratory to explanatory) - should encourage more methodological documentation and research in the future. (Yin 1981b: 110)

While often confused with ethnography and participant-observation, which are also utilised in some of the chapters in this book, Case Studies are actually 'part of the repertoire of methods that may be used to gather empirical materials on a specific case or set of cases' (Jennings 2010: 185). In fact, often ethnography and participant-observation findings form elements of a Case Study, as well as other methods of data gathering. Nor is this solely the realm of qualitative data, as the Case Study can also incorporate quantitative data.

While Yin's comments bemoaning the fact that many discussions or research methods ignore or misrepresent the value and importance of the case study as a research method, as the above citations from the last century testify, this situation that remains today in many circles (Yin 1981a, 2012; Beeton 2005, 2016). Hence the importance to open up this discussion in later stages of this publication.

One of the great strengths of research-based Case Studies is that it can incorporate speculation, particularly in relation to the shape of the future. Certainly, our future remains indeterminate, continually evolving and morphing into something often not even imagined by futuristic creators and imaginers. Indeed, it is even stranger, and potentially more interesting, than science fiction, requiring us to plan for an increasing diversity of scenarios.

Co-creating Our Future

Such uncertainty, combined with increasing consumer knowledge, power and influence has seen the rise of the collaborative practice of co-creation. This is particularly pertinent to the services and experiences inherent in food, hospitality, tourism and events. It relates not only to guests and hosts, but also to students and teachers, tourists and operators, audiences and performers, and many of the cases presented in the preceding chapters inherently combine elements of co-creating programs and approaches with such actors.

According to Piller et al. (2010), initially presented in relation to value-creation that customers bring into the market by Prahalad and Ramaswamy in 2004, co-creation has been described as "... denot[ing] a product development approach where customers are actively involved and take part in the design of a new offering..." (Piller et al. 2010: 8). Furthermore, the dialogue is between equal partners, rather than the more traditional top-down approach, and is a significant element of co-creation (Binkhorst and Den Dekker 2009), that relates directly to our fields of foods, tourism, hospitality and events, and in many of the preceding chapters, either directly or indirectly.

In order to address the issues of uncertainty and change described earlier, many scholars have either consciously or unconsciously adopted aspects of co-creation into their programs and studies. More often than not, these elements have been understood and developed almost subconsciously, with the conscious study of co-creation in education a recent phenomenon (Chemi and Krogh 2017). There is little, if any, discussion of co-creation in tourism, hospitality, foods and events teaching and learning, yet we can see how intuitively it is being applied. However, there are industry-based studies on co-creation between operators and tourists, including work from Binkhorst and Den Dekker (2009) along with Cabiddu et al (2013) and Prebensen et al (2013) in relation to tourism, Edvardsson et al (2011) looking at service exchange, and Chathoth et al. (2013) regarding hospitality, to Rihove et al.'s (2015) consideration of co-creation in terms of festivals and events. This body of work (along with numerous others) amply illustrates the embeddedness of co-creation into our fields of experience.

In terms of education, particularly the notions of student-centered learning approaches that include active learning (Bonwell and Eison 1991), cooperative learning (Johnson et al. 1991) and collaborative learning (Bruffee 1984), co-creation is part of a natural progression that has seen us move through experiential learning (Kolb and Kolb 2005) as well as problem-based learning (Duffrin 2003) and so on.

As well as the above teaching approaches, the rise of interest in co-creation can be seen as directly related to concepts of the 'experience economy'. As far back as 1999, when discussing the rise of the experience economy, Pine and Gilmore noted the role of 'new technologies' such as the Internet and social networking in empowering consumers to create their own experiences in conjunction with their suppliers (Pine and Gilmore 1999). Building on this, Berrada (2017) looks at the experiential relationship with the Internet, tourism and co-creation.

The scholarly authors in this publication have presented us with an extensive range of cases and approaches incorporating transformation, visual imagery, indigenous engagement, simulation, ethnography and scenario development all leading us towards life-long learning approaches. This not only incorporates co-creation, but also demonstrates the co-evolving and transformation of educators and students. As Williams notes in the preceding chapter, transforming educational institutions and their practices can be achieved through collaborative and reflective approaches found in scenario research and study, which is intricately connected with co-creation and other approaches outlined in this publication.

The Future Is Bright...

As we move towards the third decade of this Century of Uncertainty, underpinned by social, political, cultural and climatic change, we must continue to adapt our training and education to meet both the human and natural challenges. This publication has not only illustrated this complexity and diversity, but also presents us with a creative range of approaches to the scholarship, education, study and teaching of food, tourism, hospitality and events into the coming decades.

The concepts presented here provide a strong base from which we must develop and evolve. The term, 'lifelong learning' relates to all of us, not in the least scholars and educators. No longer can the old ways continue to be effectively applied, nor should they.

References

- Beeton, S. (2005). The case study in tourism research: a multi-method case study approach. In B. Ritchie, P. Burns & C. Palmer (Eds.), *Tourism research methods. integrating theory and practice* (pp. 37–48). Oxfordshire: CAB International.
- Benckendorff, P., & Zehrer, A. (2017). The future of teaching and learning in tourism. In P. Benckendorff & A. Zehrer (Eds.), *Handbook of teaching and learning in tourism* (pp. 609–625). Cheltenham: Edward Edgar Publishing.
- Berrada, M. (2017). Co-creation of the tourist experience via internet: Towards exploring a new practice. *Journal of International Business Research and Marketing*, 2(5), 18–23.
- Binkhorst, E., & Den Dekker, T. (2009). Agenda for co-creation tourism experience research. *Journal of Hospitality Marketing & Management*, 18(2–3), 311–327.
- Bonwell, C. C., & Eison, J. A. (1991). *Active learning: Creating excitement in the classroom*. Washington, DC: George Washington University Press.
- Bruffee, K. A. (1984). Collaborative learning and the "Conversation of Mankind". *College English*, 46(7), 635–652.
- Cabiddu, F., Lui, T. W., & Piccoli, G. (2013). Managing value co-creation in the tourism industry. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 42, 86–107.
- Chathoth, P., Altinay, L., Harrington, R. J., Okumus, F., & Chan, E. S. (2013). Co-production versus co-creation: A process based continuum in the hotel service context. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 32, 11–20.

- Chemi, T., & Krogh, L. (2017). Introduction. In T. Chemi & L. Krogh (Eds.), *Co-Creation in higher education: Students and educators preparing creatively and collaboratively to the challenge of the future*. Rotterdam: Sense Publishers.
- Dredge, D., Benckendorff, P., Day, M., Gross, M. J., Walo, M., Weeks, P., et al. (2013). Drivers of change in tourism, hospitality, and event management education: An Australian perspective. *Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Education*, 25(2), 89–102.
- Duffrin, M. W. (2003). Integrating problem-based learning in an introductory college food science course. *Journal of Food Science Education*, 2(1), 2–6.
- Edvardsson, B., Tronvoll, B., & Gruber, T. (2011). Expanding understanding of service exchange and value co-creation: A social construction approach. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 39(2), 327–339.
- Jennings, G. (2010). *Tourism research* (2nd ed.). Milton: Wiley.
- Johnson, D. W., Johnson, R. T., & Smith, K. A. (1991). *Active learning: Cooperation in the college classroom*. Edina, MN: Interaction Book Company.
- Kolb, A. Y., & Kolb, D. A. (2005). Learning styles and learning spaces: Enhancing experiential learning in higher education. *Academy of Management Learning & Education*, 4(2), 193–212.
- Piller, F., Ihl, C., & Vossen, A. (2010). *A typology of customer co-creation in the innovation process*. https://papers.ssrn.com/sol3/papers.cfm?abstract_id=1732127. Accessed March 1, 2018.
- Pine, B. J., & Gilmore, J. H. (1999). *The experience economy: Work is theater and every business a stage*. Boston: Harvard Business School Press.
- Prebensen, N. K., Vittersø, J., & Dahl, T. I. (2013). Value co-creation significance of tourist resources. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 42, 240–261.
- Rihova, I., Buhalis, D., Moital, M., & Gouthro, M. B. (2015). Conceptualising customer-to-customer value co-creation in tourism. *International Journal of Tourism Research*, 17(4), 356–363.
- Sheldon, P. J., & Fesenmaier, D. R. (2015). Tourism education futures initiative: Current and future curriculum influences. In D. Dredge, D. Airey, & M. J. Gross (Eds.), *Routledge handbook of tourism and hospitality education* (pp. 155–170). Abingdon: Routledge.
- Stake, R. E. (2006). *Multiple case study analysis*. New York: Guildford Press.
- Yin, R. K. (1981a). The case study crisis: Some answers. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 26(1), 58–65.
- Yin, R. K. (1981b). The case study as a serious research strategy. *Knowledge Creation, Diffusion, Utilization*, 3(1), 97–114.
- Yin, R. K. (2012). *Applications of case study research* (3rd ed.). Thousand Oaks: Sage.