

Educating for Sustainable Tourism:
An Analysis of Degree Programmes in Sub Saharan Africa and
Implications for Reform

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Abstract

Tourism projects have been promoted for several decades on a global scale as a tool for achieving socio-economic development and, more recently, the United Nations Sustainable Development Goals. The pivotal role of education for ensuring the long-term success of these projects has also been widely acknowledged. However, numerous studies indicate that academic programmes as well as research in sustainable tourism education have lagged behind.

Several important research gaps were confirmed in the process of this study. In particular, there is scant research on achievements with regard to the integration of sustainability into tourism curricula. Likewise, little attention has been given to the development of conceptual frameworks designed specifically for sustainable tourism education.

This study attempts to address these research gaps by examining the status of sustainable tourism education in the Sub Saharan Africa context. This region has recently become the focus of increased tourism development work due to its high poverty, unemployment and migration levels on the one side, and a robust tourism industry and growing workforce on the other.

Adopting a mixed method approach, the study commences with a quantitative analysis of sustainability related content in online tourism curricula in all accredited tertiary institutions in the region. Next, a framework for sustainable education is developed that is informed by tourism stakeholder perspectives gained through surveys and interviews as well as an extensive review of the apposite scholarship. In a final step, the online curricula is analysed within the context of the proposed framework and recommendations are offered.

The overall findings of this inquiry indicate, contrary to the recommendations of the tourism stakeholders and scholars consulted in this study, that sustainability concepts have yet to be fully integrated into tourism curricula in the region. Rather than addressing a broad range of sustainability related issues, tourism curricula remain mostly focussed on business interests. This study argues for a more balanced approach to tourism education in order to successfully contribute to the achievement of the Sustainable Development Goals.

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List of Figures

Figure 1: Triangulation Theory and Sustainable Tourism Research	20
Figure 2: List of SDGs adopted by the UN General Assembly in 2015	36
Figure 3: Higher Education Diversified Roles.....	48
Figure 4: Occupation Skill by Educational Attainment.....	68
Figure 5: The Social Sciences and Relationship to other Disciplines.....	77
Figure 6: TEFI Values Framework for Tourism Education	86
Figure 7: Elements of Tourism Education for a Sustainability Approach	88
Figure 8: Different Institutional Positioning within the Curriculum Space	96
Figure 9: Curriculum Framework Model	97
Figure 10: Systems Approach to Tourism Curriculum Design.....	98
Figure 11: Stakeholder Approach to Corporate Social Responsibility	108
Figure 12: Economic Structure of SSA by Employment	113
Figure 13: Tertiary Education Enrollment Rates in SSA.....	117
Figure 14: Ratio of Household Expenditure per Tertiary Education student to Average National Income for Selected Countries, 2006-2015	118
Figure 15: Total Tertiary Institutions according to Accreditation Body.....	146
Figure 16: Online Tourism Programmes in Tertiary Education Institutions	147
Figure 17: Countries offering tourism programmes with/without Curricula online.	148
Figure 18: Total Bachelor and Master Tourism Programmes per Country	149
Figure 19: Sustainability-related Content by Programme Title	152
Figure 20: Sustainability-related Content in by Programme Affiliation.....	156
Figure 21: Distribution of Non/Sustainability-related Courses per Country	158
Figure 22: Proportion of General Business-related courses to Sustainability- related courses for Tourism Programmes with Online Curricula	160
Figure 23: Types of Sustainability-related Courses by Sub/Category	161
Figure 24: Distribution of Respondents according to Work Experience	168
Figure 25: Distribution of Respondents according to Organisation Type	169
Figure 26: Stakeholder Definitions of Sustainability	198
Figure 27: Respondent Views on Sustainable Tourism Education Concepts.	207
Figure 28: Survey Rankings of Suggested Sustainable Tourism Concepts ...	208
Figure 29: Rankings of Employability versus Sustainability for Curricula	219
Figure 30: Relevance of Employability and Sustainability for Tourism TE	240

Figure 31: Distinction between Discipline-specific and Key Competencies.....	264
Figure 32: Framework for Sustainable Tourism Education	266
Figure 33: Constructive Alignment of Outcomes, Teaching and Assessment	269
Figure 34: Taxonomy of Learning, Teaching and Assessing	272
Figure 35: Bloom's Taxonomy for the Cognitive Domain of Thinking Skills ...	273
Figure 36: Selected Assessment Methods according to Bloom's Taxonomy .	275
Figure 37: BA in Sustainable Tourism Management.....	279
Figure 38: Selected Modules with Learning Outcomes, Instructional Methods and Assessment Strategies.....	284
Figure 39: Tourism Stakeholder Model of Influence.....	295

List of Tables

Table 1: SSA Country Classification by Income Group	29
Table 2: Timeline of Milestones and Declarations relating to Sustainability	37
Table 3: Key International Higher Education Declarations on Sustainability	52
Table 4: BEST EN Educating for Sustainability in Tourism	89
Table 5: Methods and Tools for Tourism Education from Previous Studies...	100
Table 6: Total Contribution of Tourism to GDP, by Country, 2011-2014	114
Table 7: Public Education Expenditure by Country Income and Region	116
Table 8: Inter-regional Strategies for HE Reform in Africa	120
Table 9: Survey Groups and Questions	138
Table 10: Coding Rules devised for Content Analysis	145
Table 11: Bachelor and Master Tourism Programmes according to Titles	150
Table 12: Sustainability-related Content by Programme Title	152
Table 13: Affiliation Names for Bachelor and Master Tourism Programmes..	154
Table 14: Sustainability-related Content by Programme Affiliation.....	156
Table 15: Distribution of Sustainability-related Tourism Courses across SSA	157
Table 16: Overview of Sustainability-related Courses by Sub categories	159
Table 17: Humanities-related Content in Online Tourism Curricula in SSA ...	162
Table 18: Soft Skill Courses in Tourism Programmes.....	163
Table 19: Overview of Responses for Survey Tool	166
Table 20: Country and Recruitment Information for Surveys and Interviews .	166
Table 21: Overview of Respondent Job Descriptors and Responsibilities	170
Table 22: Achievements in Sustainability reported by Tourism Stakeholders	172
Table 23: Overview of Survey Responses to Suggested Curricula Content ..	206
Table 24: Important Employability Skills According to Interview Respondents	218
Table 25: The Relative Importance of Employability and Sustainability Skills	243
Table 26: List of Employability Skills in this Study and other selected Studies	244
Table 27: Respondent Rankings of Ethics and Liberal Arts for ST Education	245

Acronyms and Abbreviations

AfDB	Africa Development Bank
Anabin	Recognition and Assessment of Foreign Educational Certificates
AU	African Union
AUC	African Union Commission
BEST EN	Building Excellence in Sustainable Tourism Education Network
CAD	Creative Arts and Design
CAMES	The Africa and Malagasy Council for Higher Education
CSR	Corporate Social Responsibility
EACEA	Education Audiovisual and Culture Executive Agency (European Commission)
EC	European Commission
EaS	Education about Sustainability
EfS	Education for Sustainability
ESD	Ecologically Sustainable Development
ESDA	Education for Sustainable Development in Africa
EU	European Union
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
GNI	Gross National Income
HE	Higher Education
HDI	Human Development Index
HPI	Happy Planet Index
IT	Information Technology
ICTs	Information Communication Technologies
IUCEA	Inter-University Council for East Africa
LATFure	Learning and Teaching Tools Fuelling University Relations with the Economy
MDGs	Millennium Development Goals
MOOCs	Mass Open Online Courses
NEPAD	New Partnership for Africa's Development
NGOs	Non-Government Organisations
OAU	Organisation of African Unity
SADC	Southern African Development Community
SARAU	Southern African Regional Universities
SD	Sustainable Development
SDGs	Sustainable Development Goals
SHT	Stakeholder Theory
SSA	Sub Saharan Africa
ST	Sustainable Tourism
STEM	Sciences, Technology, Engineering and Mathematics
ST-EP	Sustainable Tourism – Eliminating Poverty Initiative
SULITEST	Sustainability Literary Test
TE	Tertiary Education
TEFI	Tourism Education Futures Initiative
UN	United Nations
UNCED	United Nations Conference on Environment and Development

UNDP	United Nations Development Program
UNDEFSD	United Nations Decade of Education for Sustainable Development
UNEP	United Nations Environmental Program
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization
UNWTO	United Nations World Tourism Organization
WCED	World Commission on Environment and Development
WSSD	World Summit on Sustainable Development

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Abstract.....	3
Acknowledgements.....	4
Acronyms and Abbreviations.....	8
TABLE OF CONTENTS.....	10
List of Appendices.....	13
1 INTRODUCTION.....	14
1.1 Research Problem and Context.....	14
1.2 Motivation and Aims.....	17
1.3 Research Strategy and Scope of Study.....	19
1.4 Outline and Key Definitions.....	22
2 LITERATURE REVIEW.....	31
2.1 The Interconnectivity of Sustainability, Tourism and Education.....	31
2.1.1 Conceptualisations of Sustainability.....	31
2.1.1.1 The Evolution of the Concept of Sustainability.....	31
2.1.1.2 Sustainability in the Tourism Industry.....	36
2.1.2 The Role of Education for Sustainability.....	41
2.1.2.1 Connecting Economic Theories to Education and Development.....	41
2.1.2.2 The Contribution of Tertiary Education to Sustainable Development.....	48
2.1.2.3 Tertiary Education Concepts for Sustainability.....	52
2.2 Approaches to Tourism Studies in Tertiary Education.....	58
2.2.1 Locating Tourism Studies in Academia.....	59
2.2.2 Factors impacting on the Development of Tourism Education.....	63
2.2.3 Tourism Studies and the Employability Paradigm.....	66
2.2.3.1 The Development of Employability in Tourism Academia.....	66
2.2.3.2 The Interconnectivity of Employability and Sustainability.....	70
2.2.3.3 Meeting Market Needs through Industry Collaboration.....	72
2.2.4 Educating for Sustainability in Tourism.....	76
2.2.4.1 Liberal Arts.....	76

2.2.4.2 Critical Studies Approach.....	79
2.2.4.3 Global Orientation	83
2.2.4.4 Integrative Approaches	87
2.2.4.4.1 Multidisciplinarity, Interdisciplinarity and Postdisciplinarity.....	90
2.2.4.4.2 Balanced Curriculum Concepts	92
2.2.4.5 Methods and Tools of Instruction	99
2.3 Exploring the Impacts of Stakeholders in the Tourism Sector.....	105
2.3.1 Stakeholder Theory in the Organisational Context.....	105
2.3.2 Stakeholder Management in the Tourism Sector.....	107
2.4 The Sub Saharan African Context.....	112
2.4.1 The Economic Significance of the Tourism Sector.....	112
2.4.2 An Overview of the Tertiary Education Landscape	115
3 METHODOLOGY	124
3.1 Framing the Research and Researcher	124
3.2 Phase One: Literature Review	128
3.3 Phase Two: Content Analysis of Online Tourism Curricula.....	128
3.4 Phase Three: Eliciting Tourism Stakeholder Perspectives.....	134
3.4.1 The Survey Process.....	137
3.4.2 The Interview Process	140
4 DATA ANALYSIS AND FINDINGS	143
4.1 Analysis of Online Tourism Curricula Content.....	144
4.1.1 Coding Online Curricula Data	144
4.1.2 Sustainability in Tourism Programmes and Titles.....	146
4.1.3 Sustainability and Tourism Programme Affiliations	153
4.1.4 Sustainability-related Course Content.....	157
4.2 Stakeholder Perspectives on Sustainable Tourism	164
4.2.1 The Analysis Process	164
4.2.2 Profiles of Survey and Interview Respondents.....	165
4.2.3 The Praxis of Sustainable Tourism: Achievements and Challenges..	171
4.2.4 The Relevance of Sustainable Tourism for Tertiary Education	183
4.2.5 Stakeholder Participation in Curricula Development.....	190

4.2.6 Appropriate Curricula Content for Sustainable Tourism Education	197
4.2.6.1 Stakeholder Definitions of Sustainability	197
4.2.6.2 Perspectives on Relevant Sustainability Content.....	206
4.2.6.3 Employability versus Sustainability Education	214
4.2.7 Concluding Stakeholder Comments and Advice.....	222
5 DISCUSSION: CONCEPTS FOR A FRAMEWORK	230
5.1 Introduction	230
5.2 Perceptions of Sustainability	230
5.3 Inadequate Education for Sustainability in Tourism	233
5.4 Sustainability and Employability Synergies	237
5.5 The Centrality of Soft Skills and Competencies	242
5.6 Effective Methods and Tools	246
5.7 Context Relevancy of Curricula Content	253
5.8 Hidden versus Visible Sustainability.....	256
6 A FRAMEWORK FOR SUSTAINABLE TOURISM EDUCATION	260
6.1 Framing the Framework	260
6.2 An Integrative, Competency-Based Approach	262
6.3 An Application of Framework: A Curriculum Example.....	267
7 ASSESSING THE STATUS OF TOURISM EDUCATION IN SSA.....	286
7.1 Use of Technology for Tourism Education	286
7.2 Locating Sustainability in Tourism Curricula.....	288
7.3 Stakeholder Voices in Curricula Development	293
7.4 Challenges, Achievements and Potential.....	298
8 RECOMMENDATIONS FOR SUSTAINABLE TOURISM EDUCATION	301
8.1 Showcase Sustainability.....	301
8.2 Synergise Employability and Sustainability Goals.....	302
8.3 Broaden Horizons with Interdisciplinarity.....	303

8.4 Ensure Context Relevancy.....	304
8.5 Redesign a Module	305
8.6 Utilise Technology for Teaching	306
8.7 Focus on Fostering Competencies.....	306
8.8 Step up Third Mission Activities	307
9. CONCLUSION	310
References.....	318

List of Appendices

Appendix 1: Initial Coding Scheme	383
Appendix 2: Conceptual Framework for Data Collection Instruments	385
Appendix 3: Letter of Information	386
Appendix 4: Interview Guide	387
Appendix 5: Tertiary Education Institutions and Accreditation Sources by Country	388
Appendix 6: Titles of Bachelor Tourism Programmes in Sub Saharan Africa	390
Appendix 7: Titles of all Master Tourism Programmes in Sub Saharan Africa	391
Appendix 8: List of Sustainability Courses by Main and Sub Categories	392
Appendix 9: Codebook.....	397
Appendix 10: Common Topics in Tourism Management Programmes	399
Appendix 11: Compilation of Key Competencies for Sustainability Education	400

1 INTRODUCTION

1.1 Research Problem and Context

There is increasing recognition of the need for a unified effort to move towards a more sustainable future for our planet. Global issues relating to pandemics, climate change, poverty and migration have been much in the focus of recent reports in the media. All of these concerns are intricately connected to the field of tourism and underscore the imperative for more sustainable practices. Three highly relevant issues, in particular, are currently capturing the attention of politicians, think tanks and the general public alike.

Firstly, and unfolding just as this study was complete, a pandemic of hitherto unknown dimensions is afflicting billions of people and disrupting the regular work and life of citizens worldwide (Johns Hopkins, 2020). This present global health crisis illustrates that changes in how we live and how we do business is becoming ever more urgent. A recent article in *Social Europe* summed up the extent of the crisis in unambiguous words: “The loss of biodiversity and our waste-oriented production and consumption patterns are in large part responsible for the propagation of the virus and our inability to react properly. The Covid-19 crisis makes the transition of our economies and societies towards a more sustainable way of life more urgent than ever” (Rodrigues and Magonette, 2020).

Secondly, though experts and politicians may differ in their analyses and approaches to the current climate situation, there are very few remaining voices that advocate a business as usual approach. The recent detailed and irrefutable scientific insights into the climate changes of the Earth underscore the necessity to rethink established approaches to conventional ways of life. Combatting global warming (or ‘heating’ as some call it) demands a variety of urgent mitigation and adaptation strategies (IPCC, 2019).

Thirdly, the issue of migration, particularly African migration to Europe, has aroused much controversial discussion in the past years both on a public and political level. A recent United Nations (UN) report entitled ‘Scaling Fences’ (UNDP, 2019) underscored the imperative to devise policies that address long term humanitarian, political, and economic goals. The report revealed that 93

percent of Africans who undertook the dangerous journey to Europe would be willing to do it again (UN News, 2019), and that it is often the young, better educated, and less poor who seek a better life in Europe. Thus, a key aspect of the Scaling Fences initiative is to counteract brain drain by supporting Africans within their own countries through the expansion of employment and educational opportunities. This is of paramount importance given that Africa currently has a population of around 90 million people aged 20-24, with projections that this figure will double over the next 30 years (Economist, 2019).

Addressing global crises of this nature was the central driving motivation underlying the United Nations Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) in 2015. The tourism industry, in particular, has been assigned a significant role in UN development work because of its enormous economic impact. As one of the largest global industries, accounting for 10.2 percent of global gross domestic product (GDP) and 1 in 10 jobs worldwide, it is seen as a key driver for socio-economic progress (UNWTO, 2018a, p. 13). Furthermore, the industry has shown remarkable resilience bouncing back from serious setbacks such as the global financial crisis (2009) and previous pandemics (SARs 2004, and Swine Flu 2009) to report world annual growth rates of 6 percent in 2017 and 2018, and more recently 4 percent in 2019 (UNWTO, 2020a).

It is from this optimistic perspective that the UN went on to declare *2017 as the International Year of Sustainable Tourism for Development*. Ratified by all UN member states, this initiative was a global acknowledgement of tourism's potential to advance the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development and attendant SDGs (United Nations, 2015b).

The discussion revolving around the need to adopt more sustainable forms of tourism began, however, several decades ago. The concept of 'Sustainable Tourism' (ST), as one that considers not only environmental but also economic and socio-cultural impacts, was launched in 1995 with the *World Conference on Sustainable Tourism* in Lanzarote and was also later adopted in the *Cape Town Declaration* in 2002. Additionally, after several decades of further international initiatives and a growing awareness of the importance of education for achieving sustainability, the UN declared 2005-2014 as the *Decade of*

Education for Sustainable Development (United Nations, 2005). The objective was to promote education for sustainability on all levels and on a global scale (UNESCO, 2014c).

Surprisingly, despite international recognition of the unequivocal interconnectivity of sustainability, education and tourism development, little attention has been paid to the link between sustainability and tourism programmes offered by Tertiary Education (TE) institutions (Boyle, Wilson and Dimmock, 2015; Chawla, 2015; Moscardo, 2015a). This has resulted in mounting calls from both academia and the international community to invest in education for sustainability in tourism. In particular, the UN calls for action in the formulation and implementation of educational policies as well as curricula development in tourism that support the achievement of the SDGs (UNWTO, 2016).

Inadequate knowledge and skills are viewed as major obstacles to the development of the ST industry (UNESCO, 2014e; Dredge, Airey and Gross, 2015). Especially in the tertiary sphere, there is a need for study programmes that aim to equip future graduates with the knowledge and competencies required to become operative in the complex and multi-disciplinary field of ST (Novelli and Jones, 2017). For countries with a significant tourism industry or development potential, quality education is seen as crucial to ensure effective governance, vision, and leadership for future economic self-sufficiency, sustainability and autonomy. The overriding goal is to create a sustainable future for all nations in terms of environmental integrity, economic viability and socio-cultural equity (UNWTO, n.d.a; UNWTO and UNDP, 2017).

With the conclusion of the UN decade for education in 2015 as well as the year of sustainable tourism development in 2017, it seems timely to investigate how well sustainability concepts have been embraced in academic tourism programmes. In other words, the task is to consider how effectively the next generation of leaders in the tourism field are being prepared for the challenges and opportunities ahead.

1.2 Motivation and Aims

The motivation for this thesis evolved in the process of the author's own professional work which has increasingly involved tourism-related projects in several Sub Saharan African (SSA) countries. These projects are sponsored by the availability of expanding funds to the region by organisations such as the European Commission (EC), as well as the Baden Wuerttemberg Stiftung and the Dr. K. H. Eberle Stiftung in Germany. The focus of the projects is typically on the development of tourism destinations or capacity building in tourism education in the TE sphere.

The SSA region which consists of 47 countries south of the Sahara (defined in section 1.4) has been especially targeted for this type of funding due to its high poverty level on the one hand, and significant tourism growth potential on the other. Although on a global level poverty rates are reported to be decreasing, this is not the case in SSA where poverty is on the rise: it is predicted that by 2030, nearly 9 in 10 of the extremely poor will live in the region (World Bank Group, 2018b). Juxtaposed with this is a robust and stable tourism industry: with a recorded 6 percent increase in 2018, according to the UNWTO (2019b). Furthermore, with regard to long term tourism growth (2017-2027), the prognosis for SSA remains very optimistic – in worldwide comparisons the region was only topped by Asia in terms of expected growth in incoming visitors, contributions to employment and to GDP (WTTC, 2017).

From this backdrop, the author became interested in investigating how tourism is being currently being taught in general, and in SSA in particular. A special emphasis was placed hereby on the role of sustainability in these programmes. After reviewing scholarship relating to ST education in general, it became apparent, as noted by several researchers, that few publications exist in this field, and even fewer in a developing country context (Ruhanen, et al., 2015; Zolfani, et al., 2015). Moreover, the literature revealed contesting ideologies and theoretical approaches to tourism education.

Several specific research gaps were identified that are of relevance for this study. In particular, there is scant research on the extent to which sustainability has been integrated into tourism programmes in general (Hatipoglu, Ertuna and

Sasidharan, 2014, pp. 5030–5031). Likewise, although numerous frameworks for sustainability education exist, there are substantially fewer for ST education in particular (Moscardo, 2015a). This study attempts to address these gaps.

Thus, from this broader field of tourism research as well as development projects in the region, a central research question for this thesis emerged.

Simply put, the research question asks: What is the current status of ST education in SSA?

From this, three specific questions relating to SSA were derived:

- What is considered effective ST education?
- What has been achieved?
- What still needs to be addressed?

The three main goals are thus: (1) to examine the extent to which sustainability content has been integrated into tourism degree programmes in accredited TE institutions in this region, (2) to develop a framework for ST education and (3) to assess the relevancy of these programmes within the proposed framework.

The specific objectives are:

1. To conduct a content analysis of bachelor and master tourism programmes for courses and themes related to sustainability in all accredited TE institutions in SSA;
2. To develop a framework for academic ST education by:
 - a. reviewing current and previous research in the ST education field;
 - b. examining existing conceptual frameworks developed by TE institutions and other organisations for sustainability education;
 - c. exploring various tourism stakeholder perspectives through online surveys and interviews with selected representatives from the tourism industry, TE institutions, development organisations and government authorities.

3. To present an example of a ST curriculum based on the framework;
4. To discuss the findings of the academic (sustainable) tourism programmes within the context of the proposed framework;
5. To offer recommendations for effective ST education if necessary.

1.3 Research Strategy and Scope of Study

Given the complexity and multi-faceted nature of the field of ST, this study adopts a theoretical triangulation approach. This approach is considered appropriate as it permits a deeper and broader analysis by viewing findings through the lens of multiple related or competing theories and perspectives. Figure 1 demonstrates how triangulation theory offers a structured and logical approach to the research.

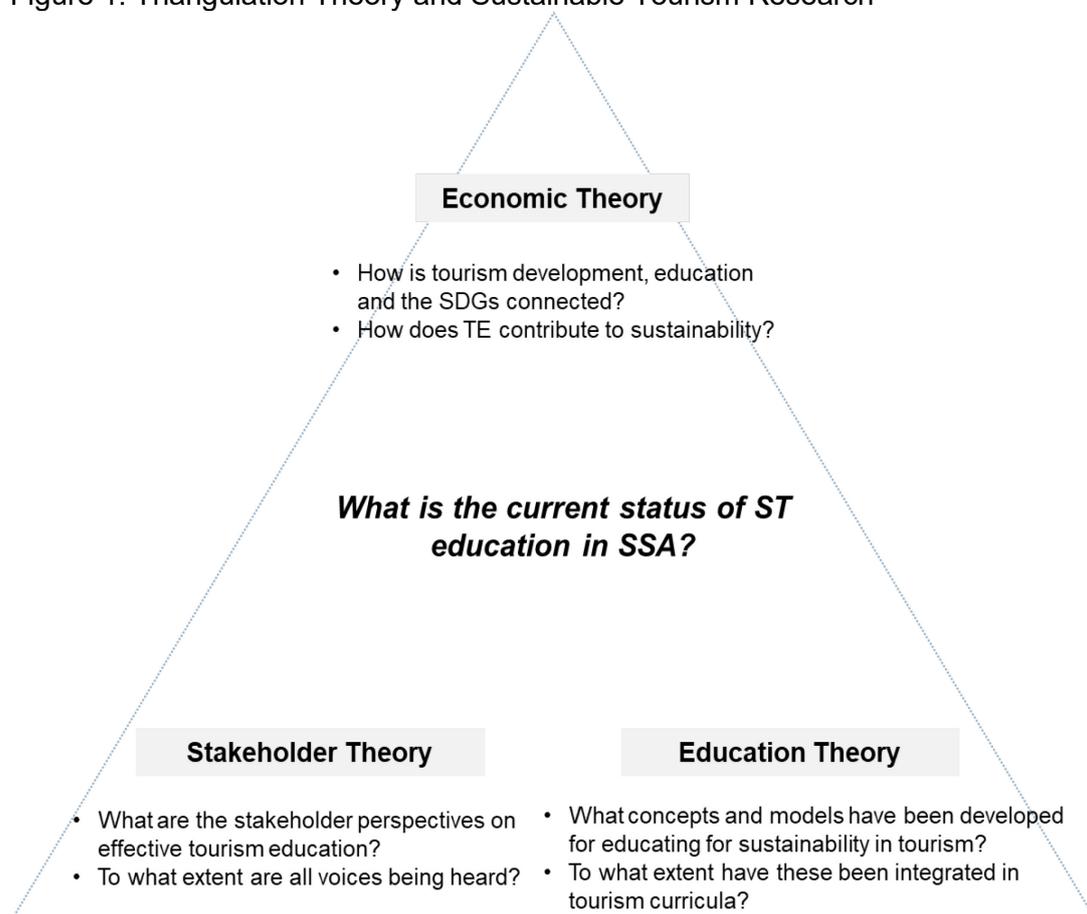
Included in this study are theoretical concepts from the field of economics which provide the context for understanding the connections between tourism development, TE, and sustainable development (SD). Drawing on education theory, ideologies relating to employability, the liberal arts, and critical pedagogy are discussed in connection with educating for sustainability in tourism. Furthermore, stakeholder theories that explain the dynamics and management of involved actors offer insights and explanations into the factors influencing the development and direction of tourism curricula in TE. The reduced dependency on a single theory offered by the theoretical triangulation approach was found to increase robustness and validity of study findings (Burau and Andersen, 2014; Grant and Marshburn, 2014; Modell, 2015).

This study employs a mixed method approach, which involves using both quantitative and qualitative data collection and analysis methods within a single study (Morse and Niehaus, 2016). Whereas the online content analysis of TE institutions uses mostly quantitative methods, the semi-structured stakeholder interviews and surveys involve qualitative methods. Over the past two decades, the mixed method approach has become increasingly accepted as a scientifically legitimate form of practicing research (Mertens, 2014; Biddle and Schafft, 2015). The combination of both positivist and interpretive research

philosophies was seen to increase the design flexibility and rigour of studies, and facilitate a more in-depth investigation (Altinay and Paraskevas, 2015).

Using Excel software, this study commences with a *quantitative analysis* of ST content in all accredited TE institutions in SSA (n=1619). The data size is based on information obtained from official education ministry data banks in Germany and SSA. The sampling process involves (1) stratifying by country, (2) identifying universities with tourism programmes, (3) filtering for ST content, and (4) analysing the located content within a proposed framework of ST education. The selection criteria for the sample aims to give a broad geographical coverage and is influenced by the availability of data on the web.

Figure 1: Triangulation Theory and Sustainable Tourism Research



The target population for the *qualitative analysis* consists of representatives from the tourism industry (i.e., tour operators, hotels, tourism boards); TE institutions (offering tourism programmes); development organisations (i.e., NGOs); and government authorities (i.e., education/tourism ministries).

Surveys are administered online, and interviews conducted either face to face or using online technologies such as Skype or WhatsApp.

The surveys and semi-structured in-depth interviews are conducted with key tourism stakeholders either located in, or working closely with, SSA countries. Using both surveys and interviews has the advantage of generating multiple perspectives (Knollenberg and McGehee, 2016), in this case, on effective ST education. The method involves non-random, purposeful sampling to facilitate expertise input and to address access, resource and time limitations (Robinson, 2014). Similar to the quantitative analysis, the selection criteria for the sample aims to provide a broad geographical coverage and is based on the availability and access to experts in the respective countries.

The next stage of the research process involves creating a framework for ST education based on the perspectives of the tourism stakeholders as well as apposite scholarship in the field. The findings of the content analysis are then, in a final step, analysed within the context of the framework, and recommendations, if appropriate, subsequently offered.

With regard to the scope of this study, there were initial concerns that the SSA region involving 47 countries would be too large an area to cover. However, exploratory research indicated that number of tourism programmes published online would deliver a manageable size of data for analysis. In addition, preliminary readings suggested that not only *what*, but *how* sustainability is taught is of relevance. Therefore, pedagogical concepts are included in the literature review and inform the proposed framework. However, in order not to exceed resource, space and time limitations, the online analysis investigates the integration of sustainability *content* into tourism programmes in SSA. How well and to what extent pedagogical concepts have been integrated in tourism programmes in SSA could be the focus of another study.

A further consideration for the scope of this study is the purpose of the proposed framework for ST education. The framework is intended as a general guideline for the development of ST curricula based on expert views from the findings of this study as well as the broader scholarship. It does not claim or aspire to create a one-size-fits-all or ready-to-go curricula for SSA. Rather, it

aims to provide a description of the course content, methodologies and tools recommended as conducive for effective ST education and, ultimately, the achievement of the SDGs.

1.4 Outline and Key Definitions

The final part of this introduction will describe the structure of the thesis. For purposes of clarity, it will also provide important definitions that have particular relevance for the respective sections as well as for the thesis in general.

Central to this study are the terms 'tourism' and 'sustainable development' which will, therefore, be defined first.

Although the term 'tourism' is commonly used, it has been the subject of decades of scholarly discussion resulting in diverse definitions and interpretations (Williams and Lew, 2015). The terms 'tourism' and 'tourist' are respectively derived from the French words 'tour' and 'journey' and have been in use in English since around 1800, in French since 1815, and in German since 1830 (Fischer, 2014, p. 13). Numerous attempts to define tourism have since been made underscoring the difficulty of reaching a consensus in the field (Tribe, 2011, p. 44). Perhaps the most commonly known definition is from the United Nations World Tourism Organization (UNWTO):

"Tourism comprises the activities of persons traveling to and staying in places outside their usual environment for not more than one consecutive year for leisure, business and other purposes." (UN Statistical Commission and WTO, 1994, p. 5)

However this definition has come under considerable criticism. In particular, there is confusion concerning what exactly 'outside of their usual environment' specifies. Fischer (2014, p. 14) criticizes that according to this definition, a soldier who spends less than a year in an unfamiliar environment could be classified as a tourist. Holloway and Humphreys (2012, p. 7) point out how this aspect of the definition has led to inconsistencies in interpretation: Whereas the United States Census Bureau defines a tourist as one who makes a round trip of at least 100 miles, the Canadian government argues that the distance must be 25 miles from the boundaries of tourist's home community, and the English

Tourism Council describes 20 miles and 3 hours journey away from home as a leisure trip. Likewise, scholars Yu, et al. (2012, p. 446) argue that the concept of 'outside of usual environment' is murky and requires further clarification. Their studies adopt a tourist perspective and conclude that those who travelled at least 75 miles and whose main purpose was pleasure are more likely to define themselves as tourists (Yu, et al., 2012, p. 445).

Broadening the discussion, Tribe (2011, p. 43) points out how defining tourism is especially challenging because researchers of tourism often come from different fields resulting in definitions that are inevitably rooted in their respective disciplinary paradigms. Similarly, tourism geographer Williams (2009, p. 2) notes that definitions are difficult because tourism is a complex field covering a variety of concepts and a wide range of disciplines that include geography, economics, business and marketing, sociology, anthropology, history and psychology (Williams, 2009, p. 2).

Although there is contention among other tourism geographers surrounding definitions of recreation and leisure, there is a general consensus that tourism, recreation and leisure are interconnected (Hall and Page, 2014, p. 7).

Whereas leisure is broadly defined as free time, recreation is seen as activities (including tourism) undertaken within this free time (Boniface, Cooper and Cooper, 2016, p. 15). According to Williams (2009, pp. 6–11), however, delineating leisure or recreational activities from other activities such as business, health-related, educational or religious trips is challenging as they may overlap. Equally problematic, so this author, is the attempt to define tourism through economic activity as tourism involves diverse tangible and less tangible products and services that cannot easily be distinguished from non-tourism products and services.

More recently, in alignment with international recommendations (UNWTO, 2010, p. 101), the UNWTO tourism definition was revised to reflect a broader, more inclusive concept:

“Tourism is a social, cultural and economic phenomenon which entails the movement of people to countries or places outside their usual environment for personal or business/professional purposes. These people are called visitors

(which may be either tourists or excursionists; residents or non-residents) and tourism has to do with their activities, some of which involve tourism expenditure.” (UNWTO, 2020b)

Despite the various criticisms addressed above, no convincing alternative has been offered to date and thus this definition of tourism is adopted in this study.

Turning to the concept of SD revealed that it is likewise a ubiquitous term that is subject to much debate and thus is taken up in more detail in chapter 2. For the purposes of this thesis, the term SD is defined in terms of a broad, multifaceted concept that considers current and future economic, ecological, socio-cultural aspects (World Bank Group, 2018a, pp. 1–2) as well as the technological aspects of development (Šlaus and Jacobs, 2011, p. 98).

The terms knowledge, skills and competencies are also used throughout this thesis and therefore require clarification. Although many variations for different contexts exist (Dredge, 2015; UNDP, 2016; European Commission, 2018), the best suited for the purpose of this thesis is provided by the European Parliament Council (2008, p. 4). Knowledge is therein defined as the assimilation of “facts, principles, theories and practices related to particular field of work or study” through learning. Skills are described as “the ability to apply knowledge and use know-how to complete tasks and solve problems” which can be “cognitive (involving the use of logical, intuitive and creative thinking) or practical (involving manual dexterity and the use of methods, materials, tools and instruments).” Finally, competence is defined as “the proven ability to use knowledge, skills and personal, social and/or methodological abilities, in work or study situations and in professional and personal development.” As frequently found in the literature (Bachmann, 2018), this study uses the terms ‘soft skills’ and ‘competencies’ synonymously.

Chapter two provides a comprehensive review of the literature relevant for this study. It includes a discussion of relevant economic theories, educational approaches to ST, stakeholder models as well as the SSA economic and educational context.

Section 2.1 offers the context for understanding the interconnectivity between tourism development, education and the goals of sustainability. In order to

facilitate the discussion, this section reviews literature on relevant economic theories as well as TE studies. The overriding purpose of this section is to provide the theoretical and conceptual foundation on which the next sections build.

Relevant terms for this section and beyond that require defining are TE and HE, which although often used interchangeably, differ significantly. The term TE is used to refer to all forms of post-secondary education that include, but are not limited to, universities, polytechnics, technical colleges, distance learning centres and business schools (UNESCO Institute of Statistics, 2011; World Bank Group, 2017c). The term HE is a subset of TE and refers specifically to degree granting universities and colleges. Except where the source explicitly refers to HE, the broader term of TE is adopted in this thesis as it is more reflective of the study's scope.

Similarly, the theme of education and sustainability is often randomly referred to in diverse ways including ecologically sustainable development (ESD); education about sustainability (EaS); and education for sustainability (EfS) (Wilson and von der Heidt, 2013; Barkathunnisha, Lee and Price, 2017, p. 178). In this thesis, the term EfS will be adopted as it extends beyond the specific ecological aspects defined in ESD and the general concepts of sustainability taught in EaS, to include various pedagogical approaches to sustainability education (Belhassen and Caton, 2011; Canziani, et al., 2012, p. 4). When referring specifically to educating for sustainability in tourism, the shorter form of 'ST education' will be adopted.

Section 2.2 shifts focus from a general discussion of TE and sustainability to a narrower focus of the concepts for ST education, specifically in the TE context. It sketches out the emergence of tourism programmes in academia and reviews scholarship that takes a critical look at the various concepts, ideologies, epistemologies and models that have been established for tourism studies. To facilitate the discussion in this section, the following concepts and terminology require definition.

Paradigms are frequently referred to in tourism education discourse. Derived from the works of Thomas Kuhn, paradigms refer to a set of beliefs, values, and

techniques shared by a community of researchers that influence a scientific discipline over a period of time (1970). For many scholars, the field of tourism is shaped by the opposing paradigms of neoliberalism and sustainability (Tribe, Dann and Jamal, 2015, p. 41). Paradigms are guided by epistemological, ontological and methodological concerns (Ayikoru, 2009, p. 75; Pernecky, 2012, p. 1121) which in turn require clarification.

In contrast to phenomenological field of tourism education which examines the phenomenon of tourism activities in practice, the epistemological field of tourism – often located in academic journals and discourse – is concerned with how knowledge is created and legitimised (Munar and Bødker, 2015, p. 105). Epistemology, defined more broadly as the study of the nature, origins and limits of knowledge (Pernecky, 2012, p. 1121) also involves exploring the relationship between who and what is being taught (Ayikoru, 2009, p. 75). The epistemological perspective adopted in tourism studies determines which knowledge will be taught (Edelheim, 2015, p. 30), which in turn can be influential for conveying the broader social impacts of tourism on society (Barkathunnisha, Lee and Price, 2017, p. 176).

Shifting focus from the knowledge and skills of the tourism discipline, the concept of ontology turns to examining underlying ideological beliefs and values (Witsel and Boyle, 2017, p. 159) and engages discussion on the meaning and purpose of tourism education (Barkathunnisha, Lee and Price, 2017, p. 176). By studying the form and nature of reality (Ayikoru, 2009, p. 75; Pernecky, 2012, p. 1121), ontology offers a framework for understanding how reality is perceived in societies (Edelheim, 2015, p. 30; Witsel and Boyle, 2017, p. 156). In the context of tourism education, the ontological debate will determine which theories, concepts and vocabulary will be adopted in the discipline (Edelheim, 2015, p. 31). Tourism scholars have argued that too much attention is given to epistemological and methodical concerns in tourism discourse and that the complex, interdisciplinary nature and transformational potential of the tourism industry demands more focus on ontological issues (Pritchard, Morgan and Ateljevic, 2011, p. 949; Barkathunnisha, Lee and Price, 2017, p. 176).

Which concepts, ideologies, and content dominate in tourism education can be explained with the philosophical concept of axiology. Defined as the study of value or goodness, axiology explores which values are seen as having value in their own right (intrinsic) or value for the sake of something else (extrinsic). (Edelheim, 2015, pp. 30–31).

With regard to tourism curricula, what constitutes knowledge is explained by epistemology, what knowledge is adopted is explained by ontology, and what knowledge is considered of value and to whom is explained by axiology (Edelheim, 2015, p. 30; Barkathunnisha, Lee and Price, 2017, p. 176). The concept of axiology thus offers explanations of how the differing values and interests held by tourism stakeholders can result in differing priorities and recommendations for curricula development (Edelheim, 2015, p. 32).

The foregoing discussion of the terminology frequently encountered in tourism discourse illustrates the importance of attending to epistemological, ontological and axiological concerns as these shape perceptions and influence policy making in tourism education (Edelheim, 2015, p. 32).

To conclude, the terms of scientific discipline, pedagogy and curriculum will be defined. *Scientific disciplines* can be described as fields of expertise, research and practice that are defined and legitimised by self-perpetuating regulatory systems (Holmes, 2001, p. 230). The term *pedagogy* refers to the underlying philosophical ideology adopted in education as well as the employed teaching methods such as lectures, case studies, etc. (Christie, et al., 2013, p. 391; Barkathunnisha, Lee and Price, 2017, p. 176). A *curriculum* can be defined as the “organisation of knowledge for transmission in education” (Pechlaner and Volgger, 2015, p. 85) with the purpose of promoting intellectual, personal, and social development (Barkathunnisha, Lee and Price, 2017, p. 175). Young (2013, p. 101) maintained that for modern societies to progress, forward-looking curricula are needed that not only impart past knowledge but also aim to create new knowledge. This thesis will adopt a synthesis of these definitions, accommodating also Tribe’s broader definition of curriculum as the “whole programme of educational experiences that is packaged in a degree programme” (Tribe, 2015, p. 20)

Section 2.3 focusses on the role of stakeholders as this is a central theme for this study. The section explores how stakeholder theory can offer explanations for the diverging and sometimes conflicting approaches to tourism curricula in TE. It describes how stakeholder power, involvement and interests can impact on tourism development projects and can thus provide valuable insights into how diverse tourism stakeholders influence and inform tourism curricula design.

This study will adopt the broadly accepted definition of stakeholder theory as one that describes the interaction of human actors engaged in value co-creation which, through the alignment of values, norms, and ethics, contributes to efficient and effective organisations. Stakeholder theory thus encompasses a comprehensive worldview of business that reflects a critical awareness of its short and long term societal impacts (Freeman, Phillips and Sisodia, 2018, p. 7).

Section 2.4, the final section of the literature review, provides an overview of the context in which tourism education in SSA is situated. It will begin by briefly describing the SSA tourism sector before turning to an examination of the TE landscape in the region. This section underscores the imperative for educating for ST in SSA on the one hand, while drawing attention to the specific challenges of the TE context on the other.

Although alternative classifications of SSA exist (World Population Prospects Population Database, n.d.; World Bank Group, 2019, p. 103), for the purposes of this study, the countries examined will be based on the UN grouping which includes the 47 countries south of the Sahara as listed in Table 1 (United Nations Statistics, 2019). An economic profile of individual countries is obtained by clustering according to income levels, measured by the gross national income (GNI) per capita (World Bank Group, 2018c). Excluded in this study are the North African countries of Algeria, Egypt, Libya, Morocco, Sudan, South Sudan, Tunisia and Western Sahara as well the smaller islands such as the French Southern Territories and Mayotte.

Table 1: SSA Country Classification by Income Group

Low-income countries (\$995 or less)	Lower-middle-income countries (\$996-3,895)	Upper-middle-income countries (\$3,896-12,055)	Higher-income countries (\$12,056)
Benin	Angola	Botswana	Seychelles
Burkina Faso	Cabo Verde	Equatorial Guinea	
Burundi	Cameroon	Gabon	
Central African Republic	Congo, Rep.	Mauritius	
Chad	Côte d'Ivoire	Namibia	
Comoros	Ghana	South Africa	
Cong, Dem. Rep.	Kenya		
Eritrea	Lesotho		
Ethiopia	Mauritania		
Gambia, The	Nigeria		
Guinea	São Tomé und Príncipe		
Guinea-Bissau	Djibouti		
Liberia	Zambia		
Madagascar	Swaziland (Eswatini)		
Malawi			
Mali			
Mozambique			
Niger			
Rwanda			
Senegal			
Sierra Leone			
Somalia			
Tanzania			
Togo			
Uganda			
Zimbabwe			

Adapted from World Bank Group (2018c; 2019, p. 103); United Nations Statistics (2019)

Chapter three provides an overview of research methodology. It begins in Section 3.1 by offering the underlying philosophical considerations for the chosen research strategies. Section 3.2 describes the purpose and extent of the literature review. Section 3.3 provides a step by step description of the research methods for collecting the data of online curricula content. To conclude this chapter, section 3.4 describes the survey and interview research approach adopted in this study.

Chapter four commences in section 4.1 with a description of the coding process established for the analysis of online tourism curricula in SSA before presenting the details of the findings. Section 4.2 is concerned with presenting the findings of stakeholder perspectives on ST education obtained through the survey and interview research instruments. A discussion of the implications of these findings for the study's objectives is taken up in detail in the following chapters.

Chapter five weaves together the insights gained from the respondents of this study with the information from the reviewed scholarship. Sections 5.2 to 5.8 summarise the most important findings of the inquiry and discuss the emergent themes relating to the research questions.

Chapter six combines the ideas, concepts and recommendations from the overall findings of this study to create a framework for ST education. Section 6.1 begins by reviewing the various considerations that will inform the framework that is subsequently presented in section 6.2. Section 6.3 concludes the chapter with an example of a ST curriculum to illustrate how the framework can be applied.

Chapter seven assesses the tourism programmes with online curricula within the proposed ST framework. This discussion includes the use of technology (section 7.1), the inclusion of sustainability in curricula (section 7.2) and stakeholder participation (section 7.3). A discussion of the challenges and achievements (section 7.4) completes the chapter.

Chapter eight presents various recommendations for ST education resulting from the overall findings of this study.

Chapter nine offers a summary of the major findings of this study in connection with the research questions. This thesis concludes with description of limitations encountered, as well as final reflections and implications for further research in the field.

2 LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 The Interconnectivity of Sustainability, Tourism and Education

This section provides the context for understanding the arguments underlying the rationale for the continued international focus on tourism development and education as crucial tools for promoting SD. This section has two central objectives. The first is to provide in section 2.1.1 an overview of the development of the concept of sustainability and to provide the context for understanding how the concept is connected to education and tourism development. The second objective is to present in section 2.1.2 theoretical models, empirical studies and conceptual frameworks that illustrate how education in general, and TE in particular, can contribute to the achievement of SD. The overriding purpose of Section 2.1 is to provide the context for understanding the contemporary discourse pertaining to sustainability in tourism TE programmes, a theme which is then taken up in detail in the succeeding section of 2.2.

2.1.1 Conceptualisations of Sustainability

2.1.1.1 The Evolution of the Concept of Sustainability

Although there is an abundance of literature on the concept of sustainability that can be traced back as far as the 18th century, it remains an ambiguous and nebulous term that is a continued source of much contention (Spindler, 2013).

The term ‘sustainable development’ first appeared in a strategy paper for the International Union for Conservation and Nature in 1980 (Klarin, 2018, p. 70). With an initial focus on environmental concerns, sustainability has also been discussed in terms of *strong sustainability* in which nature was seen to have intrinsic value and exist in symbiosis with mankind, and *weak sustainability* which adopted an anthropocentric view of nature as subordinate and valued in terms of its usefulness for humanity (Cotterell, Arcodia and Ferreira, 2017, pp. 376–377).

Perhaps the most widely cited and influential definition is found in the Brundtland Report (Sharpley, 2015, p. 175) which defined sustainability as “development that meets the needs of the present without compromising the

ability of future generations to meet their own needs” (World Commission on Environment and Development, 1987, p. 49). However, this definition is not without criticism (Weaver, 2014, p. 634) nor has it provided concept clarity: over 300 definitions have been identified since the Brundtland Report (Dobson, 1996).

The concept of the Triple Bottom Line is also closely associated with the concept of SD. Based on Elkington’s original model of sustainability, this concept promotes a balanced and coordinated approach to environmental, social and economic concerns (Elkington, 1999). However, critics contend that term SD is an oxymoron (Turner, 1997, p. 133) and argue that attaining an equilibrium in SD is unachievable because the three dimensions inevitably compete—with the achievement of one coming at the expense of others (Klarin, 2018, p. 86).

Similarly, other critics note that past experiences demonstrate how SD involves a trade-off of interests between communities, environmentalists and neoliberal capitalists who often promote growth and consumption strategies (Pouw and Gupta, 2017, p. 104). Described in terms of a ‘neo-colonial strategy’, large scale growth projects were seen to destroy the traditional lifestyles of small farmers and indigenous peoples in the Global South (Brand, 2015). Closely linked to this argument, according to this author, is criticism of hegemonic approaches that involve the appropriation of local knowledge as patentable resources for pharmaceutical profit. Thus the winners, with current conceptualisations of SD, are multinational companies and national governments, the losers being the indigenous peoples who depend on the land, forests and water for their livelihoods (Brand, 2015).

Further critical voices equate the concept of SD to past western notions of imperialism and colonialism in which ‘underdeveloped’ countries were subjected to the economic development policies of the powerful West, which, rather than reduce, tended to reinforce extant marginalization and power differentials (Tangi, 2005, p. 4; Planetary Project, 2019). Current strategies of SD, endorsed by the World Bank and International Monetary Fund, involve market liberalisation and globalisation which were reported to exacerbate inequalities in

less developed countries such as Africa (Majeed, 2012, p. 479). Empirical studies of 167 countries in the context of SD achievements, confirmed that not one of the countries had achieved the goals of ecological sustainability, poverty reduction, or intra-generational and inter-generational equity (Holden, Linnerud and Banister, 2014, p. 130).

Of particular relevance for this study is the criticism directed at the educational policies associated with SD. Tikly (2019, p. 223) argues that the assumption that education plays a transformative role in achieving SD fails to consider the historical role of education in supporting unsustainable development in Africa in the context of the colonial legacy. Education policies, according to this author, need to address the broader economic, socio-cultural and political dimensions in Africa. Likewise, scholars Bonal and Fontdevila (2017, p. 75) contend that issues relating to unequal power relations, lack of voice as well as discrimination and exclusion are missing in current educational discourse.

However, in spite of the ongoing critical debates surrounding a coherent definition and strategy for SD, it remains to date one of the most ubiquitous and important contemporary concepts that is prioritised in international as well as national political agendas (Holden, Linnerud and Banister, 2014, p. 130).

The following historical milestones trace the evolution of the concept of sustainability from its ecological beginnings to its current multidimensional perspective. It also demonstrates the increasingly prominent role that education plays in the international initiatives and sustainability discourse.

1972: United Nations Conference on the Human Environment. Also known as the Stockholm Conference, this event marked the beginning of the several UN global conferences with sustainability and development as an explicit focus. The resulting United Nations Environmental Program (UNEP) was one of the first of its kind that called for a broad approach to educating for responsible environmental and business practices (United Nations, 1972).

1977: UNESCO-UNEP Intergovernmental Conference on Environmental Education, Tbilisi, Georgia. Building on the principles established in the previous conference of 1972, the major objectives of environmental education were laid out in the Tbilisi Declaration. In particular, it called for an

interdisciplinary approach to education aimed at imparting the knowledge, values and skills necessary to address environmental problems (UNESCO, 1978).

1987: The World Commission on Environment and Development (WCED). This event presented the influential document entitled *Our Common Future*, otherwise known as the Brundtland Report, which expressed concerns about ecological impacts and resource limitations in connection to growth. It also emphasized the key role of education for raising awareness, changing attitudes as well as promoting political agency (World Commission on Environment and Development, 1987).

1992: United Nations Conference on Environment and Development (UNCED), Rio de Janeiro. Also referred to as the first Earth Summit, this conference produced the *Agenda 21 Voluntary Action Plan* and involved the united efforts of 178 nations. The summit was one of the first to advocate economic development as a tool for alleviating poverty and finding solutions to environmental challenges such as pollution, finite resources and biodiversity preservation (United Nations, 1992).

2000: The United Nations Millennium Development Goals (MDGs). A global collaboration of 191 nations and over 22 international organisations developed the eight MDGs that aimed to address an increasingly wider spectrum of global sustainability issues including poverty, universal education, gender equality, child mortality, maternal health, diseases, SD and global partnerships (United Nations, 2000).

2002: United Nations World Summit on Sustainable Development (WSSD), also known as Rio + 10 and Earth Summit 2002, in Johannesburg, South Africa. Concerned with the lack of progress in the development of the educational strategies formulated previously in the Agenda 21, this summit brought to the fore once more the crucial role of education for sustainability and thus paved the way for the next UN education initiatives (United Nations, 2002).

2005: United Nations Decade of Education for Sustainable Development, (UNDEFSD). The declaration of 2005-2014 as the decade for education was announced. Acknowledging education as the motor for transformational

change, this initiative aimed to promote the skills seen as crucial for coping with the challenges of sustainability such as critical thinking, creativity, problem solving and communication. This global roll-out sought to deliver a broad spectrum of quality education programmes on all learning levels from nursery school to university (United Nations, 2005).

2012: United Nations Conference on Sustainable Development, RIO+20.

The resulting resolution of this conference contained the annex “The Future we Want” which reiterated the commitment to the underlying values of SD including inclusive and equitable economic growth, poverty reduction, human rights and environmental protection (United Nations, 2012).

2015: The United Nations 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development and the SDGs. Building on the MDGs, a collaboration of 150 world leaders came together to develop the *2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development* and the attendant 17 SDGs. Education was again given a central role in this ambitious global collaboration (UNESCO, 2018a, p. 264) that aimed to promote the values of peace, freedom, solidarity, economic equity and environmental protection (Eurostat, 2018, p. 4). Declaring that “no one will be left behind” (United Nations, 2015b, p. 5), the 17 SDGs identified 169 targets that addressed challenges connected to people (such as hunger, poverty and health); prosperity (including economic, social and technological progress, and partnerships); peace (involving human rights, equitable and inclusive societies); and planet (for example, climate change, sustainable growth and environmental protection) (United Nations, 2015b, pp. 5–7). A complete list of the SDGs is provided in Figure 2.

As can be seen from the preceding descriptions, education is a central theme running throughout the international sustainability initiatives. The next section explores how sustainability has been incorporated into the field of tourism.

Figure 2: List of SDGs adopted by the UN General Assembly in 2015

<p>Paragraph 54 of the United Nations Resolution A/RES/70/1 of 25 September 2015 sets out the following 17 Global Goals, together with 169 targets:</p> <p>Goal 1. End poverty in all its forms everywhere</p> <p>Goal 2. End hunger, achieve food security and improved nutrition and promote sustainable agriculture</p> <p>Goal 3. Ensure healthy lives and promote well-being for all at all ages</p> <p>Goal 4. Ensure inclusive and equitable quality education and promote lifelong learning opportunities for all</p> <p>Goal 5. Achieve gender equality and empower all women and girls</p> <p>Goal 6. Ensure availability and sustainable management of water and sanitation for all</p> <p>Goal 7. Ensure access to affordable, reliable, sustainable and modern energy for all</p> <p>Goal 8. Promote sustained, inclusive and sustainable economic growth, full and productive employment and decent work for all</p> <p>Goal 9. Build resilient infrastructure, promote inclusive and sustainable industrialisation and foster innovation</p>	<p>Goal 10. Reduce inequality within and among countries</p> <p>Goal 11. Make cities and human settlements inclusive, safe, resilient and sustainable</p> <p>Goal 12. Ensure sustainable consumption and production patterns</p> <p>Goal 13. Take urgent action to combat climate change and its impacts ⁽¹⁴⁾</p> <p>Goal 14. Conserve and sustainably use the oceans, seas and marine resources for sustainable development</p> <p>Goal 15. Protect, restore and promote sustainable use of terrestrial ecosystems, sustainably manage forests, combat desertification, and halt and reverse land degradation and halt biodiversity loss</p> <p>Goal 16. Promote peaceful and inclusive societies for sustainable development, provide access to justice for all and build effective, accountable and inclusive institutions at all levels</p> <p>Goal 17. Strengthen the means of implementation and revitalise the Global Partnership for Sustainable Development</p>
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Eurostat (2018, p. 19)

2.1.1.2 Sustainability in the Tourism Industry

The development of the concept of sustainability in the tourism industry reveals certain parallels with the mainstream discussions of sustainability discussed previously. A review of contributions to a special issue of the *Journal of Cleaner Production* focussing explicitly on ST found that scholars consistently noted a lack of definition clarity pertaining to the concept of sustainability and ST (Budeanu, et al., 2016, p. 288; Hatipoglu, Alvarez and Ertuna, 2016; Ali, Murphy and Nadkarni, 2018, p. 139). Analogue to the UN milestones, sustainability awareness and political agency in tourism also initially evolved from a focus on ecology before moving increasingly to a broader concept encompassing a wider array of goals. However, one notable difference is that the focus of sustainability initiatives is directed at the praxis of tourism and much less on education for sustainability.

Table 2 demonstrates that the tourism community was slower in reacting to sustainability concerns in comparison to the international community which

were already active in the early 1970s (Moscardo, 2015b, p. 32). However, critical works such as George Young's *Blessing or Blight* (1973) or Jost Krippendorf's *The Holiday Makers* (1987) were drawing attention to the potential negative impacts of a burgeoning tourism industry.

Table 2: Timeline of Milestones and Declarations relating to Sustainability

International		Tourism related
1972: UN Conference on Human Environment (Stockholm Conference) 1977: UNESCO-UNEP Intergovernmental Conference on Environmental Education	1970s	Critical Literature: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Blessing or Blight (Young 1973) • The Holiday Makers (Krippendorf 1987)
1987: The World Commission on Environment and Development	1980s	1980: Manila Declaration (UNWTO) 1980: The Hague Declaration (UNWTO)
1992: UN Conference on Environment and Development (First Earth Summit)	1990s	1995: World Conference on Sustainable Tourism (UNESCO & UNWTO) 1999: UNWTO Global Code of Tourism Ethics
2000: UN Millennium Development Goals 2002: UN World Summit on Sustainable Development 2005: UN Decade of Education for Sustainable Development 2012: UN Conference on Sustainable Development 2015: UN 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development and the SDGs	2000	2002: International Year of Ecotourism 2002: Cape Town Declaration 2002: Sustainable Tourism – Eliminating Poverty Initiative 2005: UNEP Making Tourism More Sustainable 2015: UNWTO Conference on Sustainable Tourism 2017: UN International Year of ST for Development

Important UN milestones for sustainability in tourism were set in the late **1980s** with the **Manila Declaration** (UNWTO, 1980) and the **Hague Declaration** (World Tourism Organization, 1989). These milestones sought to define the role of tourism in contributing to human welfare and development. In the 1990s, there were several important political landmarks beginning with the **Publication of Agenda 21 for the Travel and Tourism Industry** and the **World Conference on Sustainable Tourism** in 1995 (UNESCO and WTO, 1995), culminating in 1999 with the publication of the **WTO Global Code of Tourism Ethics** (UNWTO, 1999). It was in this period that the term ST emerged and began to take form, initially in the context of ecotourism, but progressively more in association the broader set of global issues (Moscardo, 2015b).

Moving into the Millennium, the year 2002 marked the **International Year of Ecotourism** and the **Cape Town Declaration** in which the Triple Bottom Line

approach was officially adopted by the World Tourism Organization. It was also in 2002 that the **Sustainable Tourism – Eliminating Poverty Initiative (ST-EP)** was introduced which directly addressed the lack of progress with alleviating poverty through tourism development (UNWTO, 2002). In 2005, the publication **Making Tourism More Sustainable** offered guidelines for responsible business practices (United Nations Environment Programme, 2005).

With the announcement of the SDGs in 2015, the United Nations World Tourism Organisation (UNWTO) adopted a definition of ST as one 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” (UNWTO, 2015a, p. 1). This thesis adopts this definition, but acknowledges that other definitions of ST exist. UNESCO offers a ST concept “that respects both local people and the traveller, cultural heritage and the environment” (UNESCO, 2015a, p. 1). Hall, Gössling and Scott define ST as a “tourism system that encourages qualitative development, with a focus on quality of life and well-being measures, but not aggregate quantitative growth to the detriment of natural capital” (2015b, p. 490).

The UNWTO declared 2017 the International Year of Sustainable Tourism for Development and pinpointed five key areas for development:

1. Inclusive and sustainable economic growth;
2. Social inclusiveness, employment and poverty reduction;
3. Resource efficiency, environmental protection and climate change;
4. Cultural values, diversity and heritage;
5. Mutual understanding, peace and security (UNWTO, 2016, p. 5).

This important landmark in tourism history involving national governments and international organisations explicitly targeted tourism as a tool for “transforming the world into a place of prosperity and wellbeing” (UNWTO, 2016, p. 4).

Contributing to the achievement of Agenda 2030 and concomitant 17 SDGs was the driving force behind this UN initiative. Specifically targeted were educational policies that promoted ST development and that aimed to “enhance curricula development in line with the 2030 Agenda and SDGs” (UNWTO, 2016,

p. 13). However, as Novelli and Jones note, tourism's educational potential is largely neglected by the majority of tourism stakeholders including governments, policymakers and international development agencies, resulting in suboptimal programme offerings in this sector (Novelli and Jones, 2017, p. 27).

The 2017 declaration also identified the importance of tourism for achieving the targets specified in:

- SDG 8: Economic growth and productive employment;
- SDG 12: Sustainable consumption and production patterns;
- SDG 14: Conservation and sustainable use of oceans, seas and marine resources (UNWTO, 2015b; 2016).

However, as several tourism scholars argue, tourism impacts on various other issues related to the SDGs. These include:

- SDG 3: ensuring that tourism revenues are invested in accessible and affordable health care systems (Jaeger, 2017, p. 21);
- SDG 5: addressing prevalent gender inequalities in the industry (Alarcón, 2017, p. 34);
- SDG 6: the sustainable management of water and sanitation in the hospitality sector (Jennings, 2017, p. 39);
- SDG 16: contributing to safe, fair and equitable societies (Slocum, Dimitrov and Webb, 2019, p. 34).

Still other authors assert that tourism has the potential to impact on all of the SDGs (Boluk, Cavaliere and Higgins-Desbiolles, 2017, p. 1202). However, in the context of this thesis, the most relevant goals relate to education (SDG 4), and to employment (SDG 8) which are discussed in more detail in following sections.

Although the aims of the SDGs have been internationally recognised and commended, the lack of achievement of these goals in connection to tourism development has also come under considerable criticism. It has been argued that despite the spotlight on tourism in the SDGs, the industry is far removed from being sustainable (Bramwell and Lane, 2013; Weaver, 2014). Reasons relate to the unsustainable use of resources, extant North-South inequalities,

and negative socio-cultural and environmental impacts on tourism destinations (Moscardo, 2015b, p. 35). Additionally, the goal of ending hunger addressed in SDG 2 has not been achieved: critics argue that rather than promoting the local food industry, tourism has in some destinations actually led to a rise in imported goods and fast food chains with negative consequences for host lifestyles (Zerrudo, 2017, p. 16).

Finally an assessment by the organisation Tourism Watch found current tourism practices grossly out of alignment with the SDGs, arguing that the rapid growth in the industry was poorly managed; lacked local, national and international regulation; exploited workers; disrespected the rights of women and minorities and was negatively impacting on climate change (Berlin Deklaration, 2017).

In particular, tourism induced economic growth as a means of achieving the SDGs has attracted much criticism. Referring to the priority goal of the 2030 Agenda -- to end poverty in all its forms everywhere -- critical scholars argued that current expansionist practices in tourism were not creating the desired “trickle-down” effect but rather were exacerbating existing inequalities (Kamp and Mangalasseri, 2017, p. 10). Similarly, linking tourism growth to global warming, destination overcrowding, and inflation in destinations did not lend support to the argument that “trickle-down” and “spill over” effects would lead to the achievement of the SDGs (Canada, et al., 2017a). Other authors doubt whether even a balanced economic, environmental and socio-cultural approach that is grounded in economic growth ideology could be successful in achieving sustainability (Hall, Gössling and Scott, 2015a, p. 28).

In spite of the extensive criticism, tourism as a tool for development remains the focus of international and regional development policies. It seems pertinent at this point, therefore, to provide the theoretical context for understanding the connections between tourism-led growth, sustainable development and education. A full coverage of growth theories would, however, extend far beyond the scope and focus of this study. Thus, the following section will discuss a selection of economic theories in connection to SD and education, as these have been influential for international development and education policy making.

2.1.2 The Role of Education for Sustainability

This section does not attempt to resolve the ongoing, entangled debates connected to tourism-induced economic growth and SD, but rather it aims to explain the theoretical concepts motivating the international focus on economic growth and on education for achieving the SDGs. Section 2.1.2.1 begins by providing the theoretical context for understanding the connection between economic growth, SD and education. The various pathways in which TE contributes to the achievement of sustainability is then presented in 2.1.2.2. To conclude, section 2.1.2.3 gives an overview of the most relevant initiatives and concepts that have been established for promoting sustainability in TE.

2.1.2.1 Connecting Economic Theories to Education and Development

Although sustainability concerns are the focus of much contemporary debate, also among economists, discourse revolving around the topic is not a recent phenomenon. Early economic works criticising man's overuse of finite resources can be traced back to Thomas Robert Malthus' *An Essay on the Principle of Population* (Malthus, 1798) and George Perkins Marsh's *Man and Nature* (Marsh, 1864). There were several significant works in the 1960s that continued with the critical discourse on limited resources such as Rachel Carson's *Silent Spring* (Carson, 1962) or Paul Ehrlich's *The Population Bomb* (Ehrlich, 1968). The 1970s brought forth several influential economic works that challenged the rationale behind growth policies such as the *Limits to Growth* (Meadows, et al., 1972) or Herman Daly's essays that argued for a more balanced "steady state" approach to growth (Daly, 1972; 1974; 1991).

Although environmental concerns in the 1970s were largely dismissed by the mainstream economists of the day (Hall, Gössling and Scott, 2015a, pp. 24–25), the international community was responding with the various UN initiatives as previously outlined. However, it was not until the 1987 Brundtland Report that the term SD gained prominence in the economic growth discourse.

Whereas the terms "economic growth" and "economic development" are often used synonymously, some economists see these as distinct concepts.

Economic growth is seen to contribute to prosperity by raising standards of living through employment and is generally measured by increases in material

output or GDP per capita, i.e. the total GDP divided by the population (Eurostat, 2018, p. 153). More in alignment with the SDG principles is the concept of Economic Development which, analogous to SD, is defined as a concept that includes both economic and non-economic dimensions and emphasizes improving well-being through reducing inequalities and poverty; increasing incomes, health care and access to education; and protecting human rights and the environment (Van den Berg, 2016). More recently, eager to communicate commitment to the SDGs, terms such as 'green development' (Eurostat, 2018, p. 4) and 'green growth' (OECD, 2017), 'sustainable economic development' (Schaefer, 2018), 'sustainable growth' (Marmolejo, 2016) and 'inclusive development' (Pouw and Gupta, 2017, p. 104) have also been adopted.

Addressing the contention surrounding economic growth and economic development, other authors argue that these can be considered interrelated concepts because economic growth expands opportunities and benefits for societies as a whole, leading to increased education and employment which in turn fosters further growth (Oketch, McCowan and Schendel, 2014, p. 9; OECD, 2015, p. 20; World Bank Group, 2018a). Notable is that the main advocates of the economic growth for development school of thought include the UN Organisations, the World Bank, the Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD), as well as the International Monetary Fund (Van den Berg, 2016, pp. 46–47). For the purpose of this study, the concept of 'sustainable development' abbreviated to 'SD' is considered more appropriate and will thus be adopted. However, for clarity purposes, the terminology economic growth will be adopted where this is explicitly used in the cited literature.

However, across all schools of economic thought, education, in one form or another, plays a central role in the discourse. It is seen as a critical component for the achievement of SDGs functioning as a key driver for economic growth by increasing employability, productivity and innovation (Eurostat, 2018, p. 83). Similarly, a report from the OECD argued that achieving sustainability will ultimately depend on 'knowledge-led growth' which is influenced by the levels of human capital in a society (OECD, 2015, p. 20). The term 'human capital' is broadly defined in this context as the knowledge, skills, intellect, experience as

well as the human capacity for invention and innovation (Šlaus and Jacobs, 2011, p. 99).

Although economic theorists generally agree with the proposition that promoting education positively impacts on economic growth and subsequently development, there are differing explanations with regard to the dynamics of this process (Hanushek and Woessmann, 2015). These theories are important for understanding the differing paths in which education can impact on SD. The following gives a brief overview of the evolution of economic theories that have been influential in defining the field and framing economic as well as education policies.

Attention was turned to economic growth in connection to GDP levels after World War II and with the emergence of the Cold War. The predominant neoclassical theories emphasized free markets and free trade, and sought to demonstrate the superiority of Western economic systems over Eastern socialist economies (Van den Berg, 2016, pp. 44–46). Building on the works of mainly Solow (1956), the *augmented neoclassical growth theories* focussed on the role of education for improving human capital which in turn was seen to boost labour productivity and increase levels of income, resulting in a steady-state level of economic growth (Hanushek, 2016).

Closely connected to the neo-classical paradigm is *human capital theory* (Zamora, 2006) which originated from the work of Mincer (1970; 1974) but is predominately associated with the two Nobel prize winners Theodore Schultz (1961) and Gary Becker (1964). Human capital theory has been influential in framing national economic and educational policies since the 1980s and its impact continues to the present day (Gillies, 2014, p. 80). This ground-breaking work focussed on rates of return from education and emphasized the economic growth potential from investing in education (White, 2017, p. 12). Critics argued that the theory focussed on profit maximisation and failed to adequately address sustainability-related issues (Gillies, 2014). Later works by Becker, however, began to connect the potential benefits of education to broader society:

“Although important studies of the effects of human capital in the market sector can be expected, I anticipate that the excitement will be generated by studies of

its effects in the nonmarket sector. Major insights into the determinants of fertility, the production of health, the benefits from schooling to women who do not participate in the labour force, the productivity of marriage, and other topics will result from an integration of the theory of human capital with the allocation of time, household production functions, and the theory of choice.” (Becker, 1993, p. 10)

Further criticism was directed at inadequacy of Human Capital Theory to explain the long-term growth dynamics observable in various economies (Kruss et al., 2015). According to the neo-classical model, increases in human capital raises levels of income, but do not change the long-term growth rate (Hanushek, 2016). Endogenous growth theorists including Schumpeter ([1912] 2006), Lucas (1988), Romer (1990), Mankiw, Romer and Weil (1992) and Aghion and Howitt (1998) addressed the issue of long-term growth by shifting the focus to growth rates of income (or GDP per capita) in an economy. Proponents of endogenous growth theory emphasize how improvements in education levels trigger innovation and technological progress thereby generating exponential and continuous long-run growth (OECD, 2015, p. 68). Particularly in the context of increasing globalisation and the transition to ‘knowledge economies’, endogenous growth theory has made an important contribution to explaining how human capital development, particularly in the TE sphere, impacts on long-term growth in societies (Oketch, McCowan and Schendel, 2014, pp. 12–13). Broadening the discussion, endogenous development theorists such as Walter McMahon (2002), recognised the value of these long term benefits for society in the form of increased opportunities and standards of living.

Similar to neo-classical and endogenous growth models, human capital development is also at the core of the technological diffusion theories. Prominent theorists include Nelson and Phelps (1966), Welch (1970), Benhabib and Spiegel (2005) and more recently Rogers (2003). According to these theorists, economic growth depends on how efficiently and effectively new technologies can be adopted by organisations. Investments in education are seen as a crucial factor for accelerating the spread of innovations and the implementation of new technologies (Barro and Sala-i-Martin, 2003).

In the 1950s and 1960s, at roughly the same time as the growth theories gained prominence, the field of development economics began to emerge. This field of research drew from various disciplines including economics, political science and sociology. Influential scholars in development economics were Adam Smith, Paul Baran, Albert Hirschman, Karl Polanyi, Friedrich Hayek and Raul Prebisch (Currie-Alder, et al., 2014).

Less widely acknowledged than the mainstream neoliberal approach of the era, this school of thought focussed on issues pertaining to post-war reconstruction and decolonisation in Africa, Asia and Latin America. At the heart of the development approach was how to increase standards of living, reduce poverty and hunger, and address oppression and discrimination in these regions (Van den Berg, 2016, pp. 45–47).

Adherents of development theory criticise the ‘scientific reductionism’ and non-realistic assumptions of the dominant neoclassical theorists. Rather than seeing an economy as a self-contained system, development theorists argue that it involves the complex interaction of individuals, industry and governments. According to these theorists, one cannot assume stable welfare functions, fully informed and rational actors, and perfectly efficient, competitive markets. Instead of the reliance on a single paradigm, development economists advocate a heterodoxy approach, i.e., one that embraces holism, pluralism, multiple paradigms and interdisciplinarity (Van den Berg, 2016).

In particular, development theorists argue that the GDP is not a reliable measurement of human welfare as it neglects to take into account the negative impacts of growth (Scutaru, 2013, p. 39; Civil Society Reflection Group, 2018, p. 11). Addressing this deficiency, numerous alternative indicators for measuring human welfare have been put forward (Bertelsmann Transformation Index, 2018; Leboeuf, 2018; World Bank Group, 2018d). Perhaps the most prominent of these is the Human Development Index (HDI) developed by the UNDP which measures the weighted average of (1) real per capita income, (2) life expectancy, (3) the literacy rate, and (4) school enrolment rates (UNDP, 2018). Although the HDI is widely accepted by the international community, it does face substantial criticism relating to methodological considerations as well

as the omission of crucial indicators including equity, political freedoms, human rights, sustainability, ecological footprint and happiness (Klugman, Rodríguez and Choi, 2011; Neuenfeldt, Kirschke and Franke, 2012; Prakash and Garg, 2019). Alternatively, the Happy Planet Index (HPI) attempts to address these deficiencies by incorporating indicators such as perceived overall wellbeing, ecological footprint and income equality in addition to life expectancy (Happy Planet Index, 2019).

Further GDP critics including Nobel Prize authors Anand Sudhir and Amartya Sen, contend that economic growth has only extrinsic value, i.e., as a means of achieving what the authors refer to as 'human development'. For these authors, human development is measured by factors that increase the quality of life, and includes income levels as well as other dimensions incorporated in the HDI and HPI concepts. Central to their arguments is the role of education for raising productivity, generating higher incomes and thus creating more opportunities for improving human wellbeing (Sudhir and Sen, 2000):

“The importance of human capital indicates that the pivotal role of education, health, training, etc., in work and production must be kept firmly in view in considering alternative scenarios of sustainable development; human skill and agency would be important not just in raising productivity, but also in devising ways and means of dealing with environmental and other challenges. But, while taking full note of this instrumental importance of human quality in maintaining and expanding the material basis of human life, we must not lose sight of the central importance of the quality of human life as an end in itself. What is to be sustained is the nature of the lives that people can lead, and the fact that in that sustaining, human agency would be pivotal, does not reduce in any way the significance of human life as an end.” (Sudhir and Sen, 2000, pp. 2039–2040)

These ideas are also in alignment with development economists who argue that the human capital theory in the neoliberal discourse encourages a narrow view of education in terms of individual interests and economic activity, and that it neglects to acknowledge education's contribution to broader societal concerns such as civic responsibility, equity and environment protection (Gillies, 2014). Development ideologists, similar to orthodox economists, emphasize the crucial

role of TE for the development of countries, in particular through the advancement of innovative capacities and the adoption and spread of new ideas (Van den Berg, 2016).

In summary, the aforementioned economic theories all have as a common denominator an emphasis on education for promoting economic growth and thus potentially economic development. This was attributed to increased labour productivity in neoclassical theory, improved innovation and technology in endogenous theory, and the facilitation and distribution of these in technological diffusion theories (Hanushek and Woessmann, 2015). Although the less prominent economic development theorists (such as Jeffrey Sachs, Hernando de Soto Polar, and Nobel Laureates Simon Kuznets, Amartya Sen and Joseph Stiglitz) questioned the assumptions of the mainstream models, they were likewise in agreement with the proposition that education was crucial for economic development. These conclusions in turn offer the underlying rationale for international development policies that have increasingly focussed on promoting tourism-led growth and education for the achievement of the SDGs.

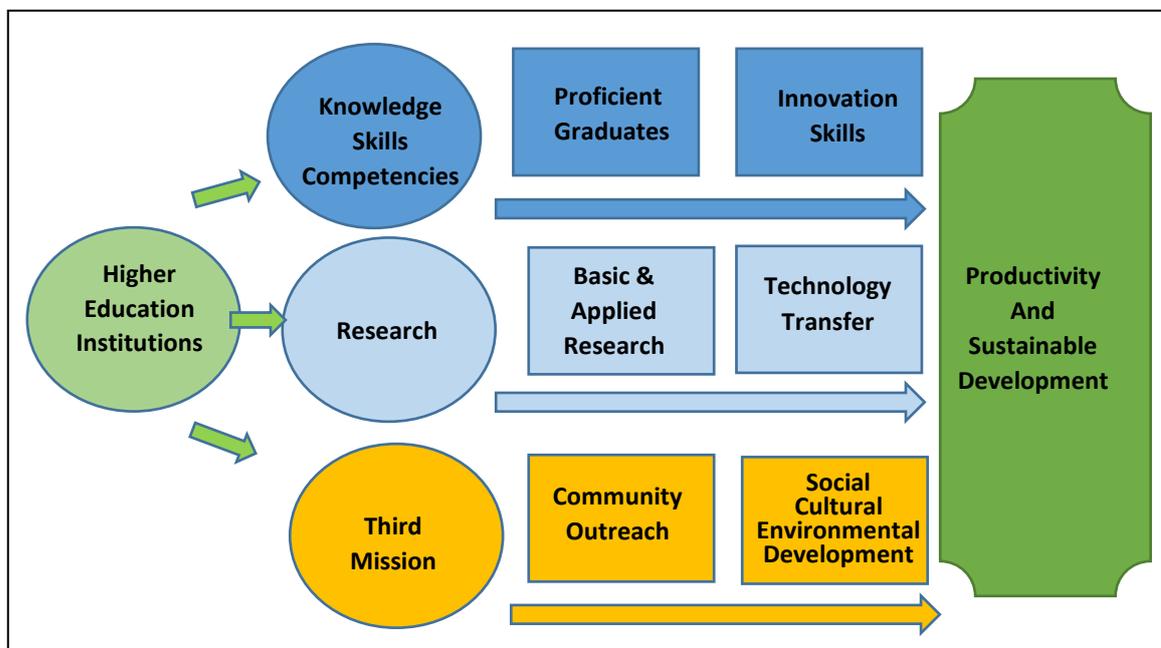
The preceding discourse also illustrates that although all of the economic approaches have their limitations and critics, they offer valuable insights into the various ways that education can impact on economic development, and thus facilitate a more comprehensive understanding of the significance of education. Whether economic development is discussed in terms of increased productivity and incomes, advanced technology or improved human welfare and empowerment, these theories underscore that relevant and accessible education on all school levels is a prerequisite. Furthermore, these economic theories all highlight the complexity of achieving SD and that a one dimensional perspective will not suffice. Rather, it is a wide range and combination of factors and approaches that need to be considered when addressing this study's central question of how tourism studies in TE can be designed to achieve more sustainability in the industry.

To facilitate this discussion, the next section reviews studies that explain the various pathways and potential positive impacts of TE on societies.

2.1.2.2 The Contribution of Tertiary Education to Sustainable Development

Building on the previous overview of how various economic approaches explain the relationship between education and development, this section now focusses specifically on the contribution of TE for SD. For the past two decades, the priority of the SDGs has been to promote basic education with the result that TE has slipped from the focus of research and international education discourse (Morgen, 2015, p. 39). However, the significance of TE for building human capital and contributing to long run growth and prosperity is gaining traction in the literature (Kruss, et al., 2015, p. 22).

Figure 3: Higher Education Diversified Roles



Adapted from Marmolejo (2016, p. 14)

The dynamics of how TE impacts on societies is often discussed within a framework of three main pillars or functions of TE institutions, i.e., teaching, research and the ‘third mission’ as illustrated in Figure 3. However, in practice these roles cannot be viewed independently from each other as they all are seen to contribute to SD in complex symbiotic and reciprocal ways (Marmolejo, 2016).

The goal of the **first mission, or teaching function**, of TE institutions is to develop the advanced knowledge, skills, and competencies of graduates seen as crucial for working in increasingly digitalized, knowledge-based societies

(Marmolejo, 2016). In accordance with Human Capital theory, investment in education increases labour productivity and results in higher earnings for individuals as well as economic growth for societies. A recent study based on World Bank Development data from 139 economies between 1970 and 2013 confirmed that measured in net benefits, private returns on TE investment yielded on average 16 percent more in comparison to 7.9 percent for secondary education (Montenegro and Patrinos, 2014, p. 8). Furthermore, the increased innovative capacities of TE graduates, in alignment with endogenous growth theory, contributed to progressively higher productivity levels (World Bank Group, 2017a).

Grounded in endogenous as well as technological diffusions theories is the discussion of how the **research function** of TE institutions impacts on economic growth by generating new technologies and facilitating their replication, adaption, and efficient implementation (Oketch, McCowan and Schendel, 2014). The benefits of TE in particular for less developed countries was confirmed in a broad survey involving 108 countries between 1975 and 2010. It indicated that a one year increase in TE on average in SSA would increase the long-term GDP level by 16 percent and, in addition, increase growth by 0.06 percent per year through technological progress (Bloom, Canning and Luca, 2014, p. 48).

Much of the research relating to the teaching and research functions of TE is centred on discussions pertaining to per capita incomes, GDP, and to a somewhat lesser extent on productivity and innovation; far less frequently researched are the societal benefits accruing from the **third mission function** (Oketch, McCowan and Schendel, 2014). Part of the problem is that third mission activities in TE have not been adequately documented (Henke and Schmid, 2016, p. 62) or measured (Zuti and Lukovics, 2015, p. 1209). Furthermore, several authors note that multiple interpretations of the concept exist resulting in confusion (Vorley and Nelles, 2009, p. 284; Koryakina, Sarrico and Teixeira, 2015, p. 63; Roessler, Duong and Hachmeister, 2015, pp. 5–6). The concept is further obscured by the diverse names used such as the 'Third Stream Activity' in the United Kingdom, as 'Communities Engagement' in

Australia and 'gesellschaftliches Engagement' (or social engagement) in Germany (Roessler, 2015, p. 46).

However, there is a general consensus that the third mission involves the interaction of TE institutions with communities, industry and society (Marmolejo, 2016, p. 24) to address cultural, social and political concerns (Roessler, Duong and Hachmeister, 2015, pp. 5–6; Gaisch, Noemeyer and Aichinger, 2019, p. 57; Kesten, 2019, p. 388).

Third mission activities have been positively associated with SD by promoting a wide range of benefits on individual, community and societal levels (Nyerere, et al., 2016; UNESCO, 2018d). These activities include increased access to TE for socially disadvantaged groups, science education, civic engagement as well as social entrepreneurship (Berghaeuser and Hoelscher, 2020, pp. 60–62).

However, capturing the full private and social contributions from TE to society has proven a difficult task (Economist, 2015). More reflective of the human development perspective, these broad positive impacts are often discussed in terms of *non-market private benefits* as well as *non-market social benefits*.

With regard to non-market private benefits, empirical studies from diverse regions such as Africa, Asia and the Middle East consistently confirm positive correlations between TE and improved health outcomes, such as better nutritional habits and hygiene, and more responsible behaviour with regard to communicable diseases (Oketch, McCowan and Schendel, 2014). Advanced education has also been found to have a positive impact on demographic trends: Higher levels of education raise socio-economic aspirations leading to reduced fertility rates. Female education, in particular, has been reported to lead to improved family health and reduced rates of child mortality (Šlaus and Jacobs, 2011).

In addition to non-market private benefits, TE also has a substantial impact on non-market social benefits such as raising awareness of environmental issues and mobilizing public agency. In an extensive study of 33 countries over two decades, Franzen and Vogl (2013) identified educational attainment as the most effective factor in triggering environmental concern. And higher levels of education increase the propensity of citizens to get politically involved: The

2010 International Social Survey Programme involving 32 countries found that 46 percent of TE graduates had taken part in environmental action compared to 26 percent with secondary level and only 12 percent with primary level education (ISSP Research Group, 2012). In addition, TE is seen as a key determinant in the creation and implementation of innovative solutions for ecological challenges and limited resources (Nyerere, et al., 2016). Advanced education was also associated with improved, efficient institutions and more stable governments: Empirical evidence from several countries revealed increasingly democratic attitudes in Pakistan, more political stability across Africa, and decreased tolerance for corruption in countries such as Nepal (Oketch, McCowan and Schendel, 2014).

Summarising their findings from the review of literature in this field, Oketch, McCowan and Schendel note that the benefits of TE for economic growth and SD have been vastly underestimated and that more research is needed in this area (Oketch, McCowan and Schendel, 2014, p. 7).

The empirical evidence presented in this section underscores the potential contributions of TE to economic development as argued from the various economic approaches outlined in the previous section (2.1.2.1). These TE benefits go beyond increased incomes, productivity and GDP levels to include non-market gains that are particularly relevant for the SDG discourse. Notable is that although the teaching and researching functions of TE have been well researched, the third mission function shows much uncharted potential for promoting sustainability concerns. Thus, in addition to teaching and research, third mission activities of TE are of particular interest for the investigation of how to effectively educate for ST.

Moving beyond the discussion of how TE impacts on SD, the final section in this chapter presents a brief description of the initiatives, milestones and concepts that continue to inform education policies and sustainability-related curricula development to date.

2.1.2.3 Tertiary Education Concepts for Sustainability

It was in the early 1990s that the promotion of sustainability began to play a prominent role in TE organisations. The overview of the most important of these presented in Table 3 demonstrate a shift in thinking with respect to sustainability on an international level as well as on a regional level ranging from Canada, the USA, Latin America, Europe, Africa, Asia to Australia (Tilbury, 2011, p. 22). The objectives of these activities also reflect an increasing commitment in universities to develop policies and strategies that aim to embed sustainability into curricula, research, processes and operations (Christie, et al., 2015, pp. 655–656).

Table 3: Key International Higher Education Declarations on Sustainability

Year	Declaration	Organisations	Objectives
1990	Talloires Declaration	University Leaders for a Sustainable Future (ULSF)	Reverse global trends in respect to the scale and speed of pollution and environmental degradation. Channels: education, research, policy, information exchange.
1991	Halifax Declaration	Consortium of Canadian Institutions, International Association of Universities (IAU) and United Nations University (UNU)	Endorse an ethical commitment to shape present and future SD.
1993	Swansea Declaration	Association of Australian Government & Universities	Recognize educational, research, public service roles and influence policy making.
1994	Copernicus University Charter for Sustainable Development (SD)	Association of European Universities	Commitment to interdisciplinary, broad outreach educational programmes; building of partnerships and technology transfer.
2001	Lüneberg Declaration	Global Higher Education for Sustainable Partnership (GHESP)	Development and dissemination of HE strategies and best practices; promotion of lifelong learning in sustainability
2002	Ubuntu Declaration	UNU, UNESCO, IAU, Third World Academy of Science, African Academy of Sciences and the Science Council of Asia, Copernicus University, GHESP and United Nations Security Force (UNSF)	Creation of global networks to develop strategies for policy reform in the areas of teaching, research and outreach.
2005	Graz Declaration on Committing Universities to SD	Copernicus University, UNESCO, Oikos International (Austria)	Institutionalize SD in university strategies and operations; use SD as a framework for the enhancement of social component of European HE.

2006	American College and University Presidents' Climate Commitment	Associate for the Advancement of Sustainability in HE (AASHE) (USA)	Integrate sustainability concepts into curriculum, university processes; publize plans, progress and emissions.
2008	Declaration of Regional Conference on Higher Education	UNESCO (Latin America and the Carribbean)	Promote SD for social progress in areas of cultural diversity, poverty, climate change and cooperation.
2008	G8 University Summit, Sapporo Sustainability Declaration	G8 University Network	Acknowledgement of HE's crucial role to educate and inform for sustainability; seek closer collaboration with policy makers and society.
2009	World Conference on Higher Education	UNESCO	Influence governments to increase investment in HE; increase diversity and strengthen regional cooperation.
2012	Higher Education Declaration for Rio+20	UN Department of Economic and Social Affairs (DESA), UNESCO, UNEP, UN Global Compact, UNU	Promote actions that underscore holistic approaches to achieving SD in HE practices and processes.
2012	The Peoples Treaty on Sustainability for HE	Copernicus Alliance, 35 HE organisations	Influence international negotiations and dialogues for achievement of SD.
2015	World Education Forum 2015 (Education 2030)	UNESCO, UNICEF, UN Women, UNDP, UNFPA, UNHCR, World Bank	Align monitoring of SD education with global and thematic indicators corresponding to targets of SDGs with aim of providing comparable data across countries

Adapted from Wright (2002; 2004); Holden (2008); Jones, Selby and Sterling (2010); Lozano, et al. (2013); Tilbury (2011; 2013); Boyle (2015); UNESCO (2015c)

Despite these numerous activities promoting SD, there are critics who doubt whether the initiatives in TE are sufficient. Several scholars noted that although universities are seen as catalysts for change, they often are reluctant to embrace changes, remaining very conventional in their practices and outlook (Amador, et al., 2015, p. 868; Wilhelm, et al., 2015, p. 71). Tilbury, for instance, draws attention to the paradox that it is HE graduates in the North who are mostly responsible for unsustainable development, and urges a re-examination of HE systems that serve to maintain current practices and the status quo (Tilbury, 2011, p. 23). Others call for fundamental changes in HE programmes in order to foster the skills, attitudes and agency necessary for sustainability (UNESCO, 2014c, p. 16; 2016, i).

Whereas some progress has been reported with regard to implementing sustainability into campus practices and daily operations, the integration into teaching practices has lagged behind (UNESCO, 2014c, p. 32). Causes for this

were thought to be inadequate education funding (Civil Society Reflection Group, 2018, p. 13), lack of practitioner demand (Holm, et al., 2015, p. 166), overcrowded curriculum, instructor resistance as well as contention surrounding the concept of SD labelled by some critics as an oxymoron or as a means of maintaining western hegemony (Christie, et al., 2015).

From the various initiatives, a plethora of conceptual frameworks and guidelines have since been developed by various UN organisations with the aim of ensuring sustainable, equitable and inclusive education (UNESCO, 2017b; 2018c, p. 25). Of particular relevance is Target 4.7 of SDG4 which aims to promote the core knowledge and skills necessary for achieving sustainability (UNESCO, 2018b, p. 9). The following discussion of the key concepts recommended for EfS reflect the UN guidelines as well as other scholars working in the field. These are of significance for this study as they form the foundation for the development of EfS in tourism studies (Moscardo, 2015a) which is discussed in more detail in chapter 2.2.

Several authors highlight the necessity of adopting holistic approaches to EfS that aim to mainstream sustainability concepts throughout the university system and curricula (Lozano, et al., 2013, p. 11; Lund-Durlacher, 2015b; UNESCO, 2018b, p. 7). Other authors contend that sustainability education should reach beyond the university boundaries to involve interaction with all the relevant stakeholders including government, communities and industries and, furthermore, that their perspectives should inform the content of study programmes (Talloires Declaration, 1990, p. 1; Holm, et al., 2015, pp. 164–165; Moscardo, 2015a, pp. 4–5; Rieckmann, 2018a, p. 8). To promote outreach and collaboration across national borders, others recommend the use of online learning tools such as Mass Open Online Courses (MOOCs) (UNESCO, 2014c, pp. 119–120; 2017b, p. 55; Quablan, 2018, p. 144).

The organisation of HE into highly specialised areas of knowledge and disciplines is not seen as conducive to effective sustainability education which requires a broader, interdisciplinary approach (Barth, et al., 2007, pp. 419–420; Tilbury, 2011, p. 18; UNESCO, 2014c, p. 118). Disciplines such as environmental science, biology, medicine, nutrition, geography, sociology,

economics, business and law were all seen to have relevance for the study of SD (Annan-Diab and Molinari, 2017, p. 77). Additionally, advocates of EfS would include liberal education content such as history, philosophy, critical and ethical studies (Gillies, 2014) as well as concepts relating to global citizenship education (UNESCO, 2014a, p. 5). Others argue for curricula content that prioritises climate change, biodiversity, poverty, disaster risk reduction, as well as sustainable production and consumption (Rieckmann, 2018b, p. 63; 2018c, p. 40). Newly created interdisciplinary modules on SD could be introduced into existing study programmes (Copernicus Campus, 2010, p. 20). The development of staff competencies to cope with the complexity of sustainability was seen as a crucial prerequisite (Amador, et al., 2015, p. 878).

Focussing on pedagogy for sustainability, there is also a strong emphasis in the literature on fostering skills and competencies in students. As previously indicated in section 1.4, this study adopts the definition of competence as provided by the European Parliament Council (2008, p. 4) which to recap is described as “the proven ability to use knowledge, skills and personal, social and/or methodological abilities, in work or study situations and in professional and personal development.”

However, this is by no means the only interpretation. Competence has been described as a “fuzzy concept” (Wilhelm, Förster and Zimmermann, 2019, p. 8) that is used differently across various disciplines and contexts (Shephard, Rieckmann and Barth, 2019, p. 544). Other authors make a distinction between general competencies for schools and professions, and key competencies which are seen as crucial for sustainability education (Wiek, Withycombe and Redman, 2011, p. 204). According to Haan (2010, p. 320), ‘Gestaltungskompetenz’ (‘shaping’ or ‘transforming’ competence) involves “the specific capacity to act and solve problems” and “... through active participation, to modify and shape the future of society, and to guide its social, economic, technological and ecological changes along the lines of sustainable development.” For Haan (2010), Gestaltungskompetenz thus involves, among other aspects, the ability to work in a forward-looking, interdisciplinary and collaborative manner, as well as the ability to make equitable, autonomous and collective decisions in complex and ambiguous situations. It also involves being

able to motivate, reflect, as well as show empathy and solidarity. Weinert (2001, p. 2435) attempts to make the concept of key competencies less abstract by defining them as “complex systems of knowledge, beliefs, and action tendencies, that are constructed from well-organized, domain-specific expertise; basic skills; generalized attitudes; and converging cognitive styles. However, more concrete examples of key competencies for EfS were described as critical and systemic thinking (UNESCO, 2014d, p. 12), empathy, intercultural, problem-solving and strategic competences (Rieckmann, 2018c, pp. 42–43) as well as entrepreneurial competencies (Rodríguez-Solera and Silva-Laya, 2017, p. 281).

Various scholars note how the plethora of key competency lists makes it difficult to select the most important for sustainability education. Wiek, Withycombe and Redman (2011, p. 212) criticise that the literature produces ‘laundry lists’ of competencies that “lack of empirical evidence, depth, and rigor in the discourse on key competencies.” Several others note that the ultimate selection of competencies for curricula will be influenced by the ontology, epistemologies, individual characteristics as well as societal values and norms of the educational context (OECD, 2001, pp. 3–4; Michelsen and Rieckmann, 2014, p. 5).

Competency-based education is viewed as the opposite to learning by rote which merely encourages the propagation of habits rather than the acquisition of new skills (Lozano, et al., 2017). Several authors note that competency-oriented approaches require different pedagogical approaches. Educators are challenged to their change roles from “sage on the stage to guide on the side” (Astleiner, et al., 2015, p. 10). In particular learner-centred, action-oriented, and transformative pedagogy was endorsed by several likeminded authors (UNESCO, 2017b, p. 7; Rieckmann, 2018c, p. 40; Wilhelm, Förster and Zimmermann, 2019, p. 6). Learning strategies involve contextual, problem-based inquiry (Haan, 2008, pp. 28–29; Heiskanen, Thidell and Rodhe, 2016, p. 219; Thomas and Depasquale, 2016, p. 738) as well as experience-based, student-centred and collaborative approaches (UNESCO, n.d.; Wright, Cain and Monsour, 2015; Caniglia, et al., 2016; Rieckmann, 2018c, p. 48). Furthermore, the competency-based approach embraces situated learning described as

“application-related, world-oriented and self-directed” (Haan, 2006, p. 25) in which the learner is actively involved in shaping the learning process (Barth, et al., 2007, p. 420; Michelsen and Rieckmann, 2014, p. 11).

UNESCO summarises approaches to EfS as

“an action-oriented transformative pedagogy, characterized by elements such as self-directed learning, participation and collaboration, problem-orientation, and inter and transdisciplinarity, as well as the linking of formal and informal learning. Such pedagogical approaches are essential for the development of competencies vital for promoting sustainable development.” (Rieckmann, 2018c, p. 40)

A further challenge noted by numerous studies was the lack of empirical data and conceptual frameworks for monitoring and evaluating sustainability education (UNESCO, 2014c, p. 184; World Bank Group, 2017a, p. 37; Ofei-Manu and Didham, 2018, pp. 105–106; Rieckmann, 2018c, p. 51). Seen as particularly challenging was the task of measuring the desired changes in student competencies, attitudes, values and behaviour (Rieckmann, 2018c, p. 51) as well as the fact that competencies, concepts and knowledge in sustainability education are emerging and dynamic (Lockhart, 2018, p. 216). Guenkorn (2013, pp. 5–6) noted that competence, as an abstract concept, was only measurable through performance or the achievement of tasks. Others argued that to facilitate assessments, key competencies needed to be operationalized by listing specific learning outcomes and developing evaluation schemes (Wiek, Withycombe and Redman, 2011, p. 212).

Recommended concepts for monitoring and evaluating sustainability programmes include conducting assessments on an international large-scale student level, a national level, contextualized HE levels, as well as on individual teaching and learning levels (UNESCO, 2014c, p. 184; Rieckmann, 2018c, p. 51). And rather than a one-size-fits-all approach, monitoring systems should consider specific national and regional contexts as well as stakeholder perspectives (UNESCO, 2015b). The online Sustainability Literary Test (SULITEST) offers one possible model for designing an assessment tool to

measure global and contextual knowledge as well as skills in sustainability (Sulitest, 2018).

Conclusion

The purpose of the literature review in section 2.1 has been to provide the context for understanding the interconnectivity of tourism, sustainability, and education. It described in 2.1.1, how concepts of sustainability and education have inextricably evolved and how this has informed the tourism sector. Highlighting TE, section 2.1.2 provided theoretical explanations for understanding how education contributes to SD and the underlying rationale for focussing on the tourism-led growth as a development tool. Furthermore, supported by empirical studies, this section illustrated how the potential of TE to contribute to the SDGs may have been underestimated and that more research is needed. The final section gave an overview of the various SD milestones and initiatives in TE which have been influential in the development of EfS concepts for tourism.

A discussion of the salient scholarship in this field is taken up in more detail in the following section of this literature review.

2.2 Approaches to Tourism Studies in Tertiary Education

Shifting focus from the broader discussions of sustainability, the tourism industry and TE, this chapter is concerned with how sustainability considerations have impacted on the current discourse relating to tourism studies in TE. Section 2.2.1 outlines major milestones in the development of tourism studies which have led to the dialectic discussions pertaining to employability and sustainability that are subsequently taken up in section 2.2.2. The following two sections review the various approaches to tourism TE in more detail. Starting with a discussion of firstly, the employability paradigm in 2.2.3, and secondly, concepts relating to educating for sustainability in 2.2.4, these sections describe the deliberations and rationale for tourism curricula from the various ideological and pedagogical perspectives.

2.2.1 Locating Tourism Studies in Academia

Since its beginnings just 60 years ago, tourism studies have evolved into a fully-fledged academic discipline. In universities across the globe, there has been a robust demand for increasingly differentiated graduate and undergraduate programmes (Caton, 2015, pp. 16–17; Pechlaner and Volgger, 2015, p. 85; Sheldon, 2015, p. 171). Tourism scholarship also grew from just a handful of journals in the 1970s to over 150 internationally accredited journals in 2011 (Pritchard, Morgan and Ateljevic, 2011, p. 942). These developments are a reflection of the rapid growth in the tourism industry from 165 million international visitors in 1970 to 1.4 billion in 2018 (Roser, 2019; UNWTO, 2019a).

Whereas the initial tourism programmes in the 1960s had a clear focus on vocational learning, the 1980s and 1990s saw greater involvement from other disciplines such as geography, anthropology and psychology (Airey, 2005, p. 17). The search for a disciplinary identity associated with this period is underscored by Tribe's (2005a, p. 28) UK study that found 86 percent of education scholarship between 1974 and 2001 focussed on curriculum design. With the millennium came what has since been termed the *critical turn* in tourism studies, bringing input from critical theory and gender studies (Bramwell and Lane, 2014). However, external forces such as funding competition and increased performance pressure have meant that, to a large extent, tourism curricula have remained vocationally oriented (Wattanacharoensil, 2013, p. 3; Airey, et al., 2015; Oktadiana and Chon, 2017, pp. 292–293).

Various conceptual approaches have developed over the past decades with the objective of explaining the emergence of tourism studies as an academic discipline. Goodson and Phillimore (2004) proposed a three stage explanation which comprise a positivist dominated *Pre-paradigmatic* stage; an holistic, multidisciplinary *Systems* stage; and lastly, a *Post-disciplinary* stage reflecting post-modern and deconstructionist thinking (Comic, Vicic and Kalmic, 2016, p. 11). Airey (2008, p. 3) offered a four stage model: an *Industrial Stage* (1960-1970s) demonstrating a strong business influence, a *Fragmented Stage* (1980-1990s) characterised by discourse relating to curriculum content and discipline boundaries, a *Benchmark Stage* (2000s) marking academic consensus, and a

Mature Stage (2010s) signifying increasing sophistication in tourism scholarship (Hsu, Xiao and Chen, 2017).

These attempts to broadly sketch the development of the tourism field can be best understood within the context of the well cited four-platform model by Jafar Jafari (Jafari, 1990). Jafari's theoretical framework traces changes in tourism scholarship and philosophies from its earliest beginnings (Barkathunnisha, Lee and Price, 2017, p. 177) and provides valuable insights into the development of the ST concept (Hardy 2002, p. 484). Originally based on the four platforms of Advocacy, Cautionary, Adaptancy and Knowledge, these have since been developed to include the Sustainability and Ethical platforms. The (1) *Advocacy* platform emerged at the end of the World War II and in the era of increasing industrialisation, economic development and subsequent growth in the tourism industry. The (2) *Cautionary* platform reflected the 1970s period in which there was rising awareness and criticism of the negative social and environmental impacts of the tourism industry. In the (3) *Adaptancy* platform of the 1980s there was a move towards alternative forms of tourism, and concepts such as ecotourism and ST were discussed. Calls for a more comprehensive, scientific approach to tourism research that drew on the praxis of tourism as well other disciplines were expressed in the (4) *Knowledge-based* platform of the 1990s (Jafari, 1990).

Building on Jafari's work, Macbeth (2005) proposed an additional (5) *Sustainable* platform as a reflection of the contemporary tourism scholarship which was engaged in issues relating to ethics and sustainability (Barkathunnisha, Lee and Price, 2017, p. 178). Finally, Macbeth (2005) also proposed an (6) *Ethics* platform that called for a reflective, ethical approach to tourism scholarship in order to foster a more responsible form of tourism.

A large body of scholarship exists that connects the developments in the field of tourism to the discipline of geography. Referring to the Jafari and Macbeth platforms, Saarinen (2014, p. 346) notes that the different phases in tourism research can be also traced to contemporary geographical approaches to the study of tourism. In particular the ethical platform, which emphasizes concepts relating to environmental protection, limits to growth, equity and inclusiveness,

is closely connected to current critical discourses on tourism in human geography, according to this author.

Other geography scholars argue that the interest in tourism can be traced back to the 1940s when tourism as a field of study was being established in academia (Hall and Page, 2009, p. 3). Although the discipline of geography is rooted in ancient times, modern geography which is attributed foremost to Alexander von Humboldt (1769-1859) and Carl Ritter (1779-1859), was initially mostly concerned with physical geography (Mitchell and Murphy, 1991, p. 57). It was not until the interwar years that the focus shifted to cultural geography with an increasing interest in human activities and their interactions with the physical environment (Mitchell and Murphy, 1991, p. 58). This broader view of geography is defined by John Matthews and David Herbert:

“Geography is the study of the surface of the Earth. It involves the phenomena and processes of the Earth’s natural and human environments and landscapes at local to global scales. Its basic division is between physical geography, which is unambiguously a science and analyses the physical make-up of the Earth’s surface. ... and human geography, where the focus is on the human occupancy of this area.” (Matthews and Herbert, 2008)

With this comprehensive approach, many scholars contend that tourism studies are best located within the discipline of geography. Williams and Lew (2015, p. 3) argue that tourism is a “fundamental geographic phenomenon” as it involves billions of domestic and international travellers that engage with other people, places and environments (Williams and Lew, 2015, p. 3). Che (2017) notes that geography is well suited to study the phenomenon of tourism as there are many aspects of mutual investigation such as the human transformation of environments and the movement of people, goods and services over time and space. Of particular interest for geographers is the study of spatial interactions or ‘tourist flows’ involving tourist-generating and tourist-receiving areas, as well as tourist routes (Boniface, Cooper and Cooper, 2016, pp. 6–10). Likewise of high relevance and interest for the geographer is the impact of tourism on perceptions and representations of other places and cultures (Williams and Shaw, 2000).

The increasing economic significance of the tourism industry led to the inclusion of tourism studies within the discipline of geography as a distinct sub-field known as 'tourism geographies' (Saarinen, 2014, p. 347). In line with development, a journal with the same name was established with the purpose of promoting new ideas, paradigms and interdisciplinary research on the environmental influences of tourism. Furthermore, this journal explicitly recommends that researchers incorporate related tourism research "under the unique perspective of geography as a holistic discipline that synthesizes both the social sciences and physical sciences in its understanding of places, regions and the world in which we live." (Tourism Geographies).

There has also been an enormous increase in other journals that include tourism geography research: there are currently approximately 230 to 260 journals compared to just 77 journals in 2004 (Lew, Hall and Williams, 2014). In another analysis, McKercher (2008), found that of the most cited tourism authors from 1970 to 2007, nine of the top 25 researchers had graduate degrees in geography. However, most of this research, as noted by Butler (2004), was located in tourism journals than in mainstream geography ones. Up until the early 1990s, tourism studies remained on the periphery of academic geography (Che, 2017), but in the 1990s this slowly began to change (Hall and Page, 2014).

With growing concerns about the environmental issues, geographers, in addition to human geography, renewed their focus on physical geography (Mitchell and Murphy, 1991) and began to address critical issues such as globalisation, neoliberal politics, as well as social inequalities (Scheyvens, 2012; Hall, 2013). Particularly in the field of sustainable tourism, geographers have made important contributions. These include academic works on the sustainable development of tourism (Butler, 1980), strategies to manage the negative impacts of tourism on the ecology, society and culture in destinations (Steinecke, 2014); tourism and climate change (Gössling, et al., 2010), and sustainability in the tourism-related food industry (Hall and Gössling, 2013). In the concluding part of his article, Butler (2015, p. 24) asserts that there is a definite need for researchers and academics to pay more attention to this underrepresented segment within tourism studies:

“If sustainable development is based on a triple bottom line, then tourism research needs to pay much more attention to the relationship between tourism and the environments in which it occurs. Such work is almost totally absent. Most of the major tourism journals approach the subject from a social sciences or management perspective. Only in the Journal of Ecotourism and the Journal of Sustainable Tourism, and to a limited extent Tourism Geographies, can one expect to find an occasional article which deals with this critical area of study.”

Drawing on this broad context, the next section reviews the recent developments and critical debates that are impacting on the discourse concerning the direction, purpose and content of current tourism education.

2.2.2 Factors impacting on the Development of Tourism Education

As previously indicated, the field of tourism is undoubtedly not a recent phenomenon with early travel journals dating back as far as to Herodotus in the 5th century or to Marco Polo in the 13th century (Butler, 2015, p. 21). Other authors point out that there is evidence of even earlier travel dating back to the Babylonian and Egyptian empires some 3,000 years ago (Holloway and Humphreys, 2012).

However, in the past 50 years, the world of tourism has undergone major changes. Megatrends include demographic shifts, political instability, increased migration, climate change, as well as rapid technological developments (Sheldon, et al., 2007, p. 64; Prebezac, Schott and Sheldon, 2014, pp. 94–95; Barkathunnisha, Lee and Price, 2017, p. 178). There have also been dramatic changes in the nature and the impact of the tourism industry. Noticeable are the overcrowding of destinations, economic exploitation, displacement of indigenous populations, resource depletion and environmental degradation. Juxtaposed to these trends are positive developments: consumer preferences are progressively shifting towards more responsible and meaningful forms of tourism (Pollock, 2013; Caton, 2014, p. 30; Weeden and Boluk, 2014; Kellee, 2015, p. 49), and, increasingly, more sustainable forms of tourism as drivers of economic development are being promoted by organisations such as the UNWTO (Sharpley, 2015, p. 172). The challenging task of contemporary

tourism educators is to how to prepare graduates effectively for the present day realities and challenges of the tourism industry.

In addition to radically changing face of the tourism industry, the current intellectual discourse relating to the role of HE in today's society is also impacting on tourism studies. Although the HE debate is not new and can be traced to philosophers dating back to Socrates, Aristotle, Cicero and John Locke (Belhassen and Caton, 2011, p. 1389), the past two decades have seen a revival of the core arguments. The discourse centres generally around the question of whether HE institutions should emphasize *banausos* versus *paideia* approaches to education. Whereas the Greek term *banausos* refers to a notion of education which focuses on providing graduates with technical skills and competences for the workplace, the term *paideia* is an holistic, well-rounded approach to education that aims to nurture critical, responsible, and fully developed citizens (Caton, 2014, p. 31; Kellee, 2015, p. 43).

Closely connected to this age-old *banausos* versus *paideia* discourse is the recent debate in tourism scholarship pertaining to whether there should be a focus on *vocational skills versus liberal studies* in tourism curricula (Lewis-Cameron, 2015, p. 88; Moscardo, 2015a, pp. 12–13; Sheldon, 2015, p. 171). Critics of the current system have pointed out that there is a uniform tendency in tourism management programmes toward a more pragmatic and utilitarian approach with economic considerations, and the development of vocational skills at the forefront (Dredge, 2010, pp. 5–6; Belhassen and Caton, 2011, p. 1389; Dredge, et al., 2015, p. 64; Munar and Bødker, 2015, p. 108; Pechlaner and Volgger, 2015, p. 86).

Although the value of this approach is widely recognized, increasingly tourism educators are questioning whether the broader social function of tourism is being adequately addressed in current tourism curricula (Caton, 2015, p. 18; Kellee, 2015, pp. 50–51; Pappalepore and Farrell, 2017, p. 144). Critics highlight that beyond economic activity, tourism involves interaction in culturally different spaces and has the capacity to effect positive economic and social change within societies (Caton, 2014, p. 26; Gretzel, et al., 2014, p. 3; Barkathunnisha, Lee and Price, 2017, p. 174). A growing number of scholars

are calling for radical changes in the way that tourism is currently being taught (Sheldon, Fesenmaier and Tribe, 2011; Joppe and Elliot, 2015; Hales and Jennings, 2017, p. 186). Others argue for more consideration to be given to curriculum space and methods of instruction in order to provide students with the relevant skills, capabilities and knowledge necessary to meet the challenges of the future tourism environment (Sheldon, et al., 2007, p. 63; Caton, Schott and Daniele, 2014, pp. 125–126; Prebezac, Schott and Sheldon, 2014, p. 65; Hsu, 2015, pp. 11–12).

In line with this pedagogical school of thought, other scholars argued that tourism education is in need of a paradigm shift from a knowledge-transfer operationalist concept of education towards one that sees knowledge as a dynamic, socially constructed process (Sheldon, 2015, pp. 170–171) which is viewed as especially important in dynamically evolving knowledge-driven societies (Belhassen and Caton, 2011, p. 1394). Moreover, in addition to meeting the concrete demands of the tourism market place, tourism studies need to incorporate “fuzzier types of knowledge” (Caton, 2015, p. 21) that aim to foster intellectual growth (Belhassen and Caton, 2011, p. 1394), social responsibility (Gillies, 2014, p. 93), critical thinking (Dredge, 2010, p. 14; Hsu, 2018, p. 181) and provide a solid grounding in values and ethics in order to address the less positive aspects of the tourism industry (Dredge, 2010, pp. 6–7; Cotterell, Arcodia and Ferreira, 2017, p. 375).

There is growing support for the idea that educating for sustainability in tourism is in need of a major rework with regard to curricula, pedagogy, and methodology in order to effectively prepare graduates for the changing context of the tourism industry (Dredge, 2010, p. 4; Prebezac, Schott and Sheldon, 2014, pp. 89–90; Kellee, 2015, p. 49; Sheldon, 2015, p. 171; Hsu, 2018, p. 181). The following sections review the various approaches that have been put forward for tourism HE in more detail. It begins in section 2.2.3 with a discussion of the employability paradigm as this provides the foundation for understanding the arguments put forth in the ensuing review of literature pertaining to ST education in section 2.2.4.

2.2.3 Tourism Studies and the Employability Paradigm

The employability paradigm is a well-documented area of research (Sumanasiri, Yajid and Khatibi, 2015, p. 78). Although not the specific focus of this thesis, the prominent role that employability plays in tourism TE and its interconnectivity with the concept of sustainability warrants a closer look at apposite scholarship in this area.

While definitions of employability abound and are by no means consistent (Wakelin-Theron, 2014, p. 2; Rufai, Bakar and Rashid, 2015, p. 43; Smith, Ferns and Russell, 2016, p. 200), for the purpose of this thesis, the term employability will be used to refer to the dynamic set of skills, knowledge and abilities considered important for the successful employment and advancement of graduates in their chosen careers (Wang and Tsai, 2014, pp. 126–127; Ali, Murphy and Nadkarni, 2017, p. 162). Furthermore, the substantial overlap of curricula content in both tourism and hospitality programmes permits that the terms be collectively referred to from herein simply as tourism programmes.

2.2.3.1 The Development of Employability in Tourism Academia

One of the most influential external factors that continues to impact on development of tourism programmes to date is the concept of neoliberalism (Young, Witsel and Boyle, 2017, p. 123). Emerging in 1970s-1980s, this school of thought advocates a system of free markets, individual liberty, and entrepreneurial freedom guided by institutional frameworks as the most effective and beneficial form of achieving human prosperity (Harvey, 2007, p. 2). The rise of neoliberalism can be traced back to the 1970s, a period in which university research was seen as a crucial factor for economic growth in the West and in which it concurrently faced fierce competition from the East (Ayikoru and Ruskin, 2015, p. 119). The widespread adoption and influence of neoliberal practices and policies was further bolstered by the emergence of the New Right in the 1980s in the United States and the United Kingdom (Caton, 2014, pp. 26–27).

Characterised by deregulation, privatisation and decreased state intervention, (Ayikoru and Ruskin, 2015, p. 119), neoliberal policies have had a profound impact on the development of TE institutions to the present day (Young, Witsel

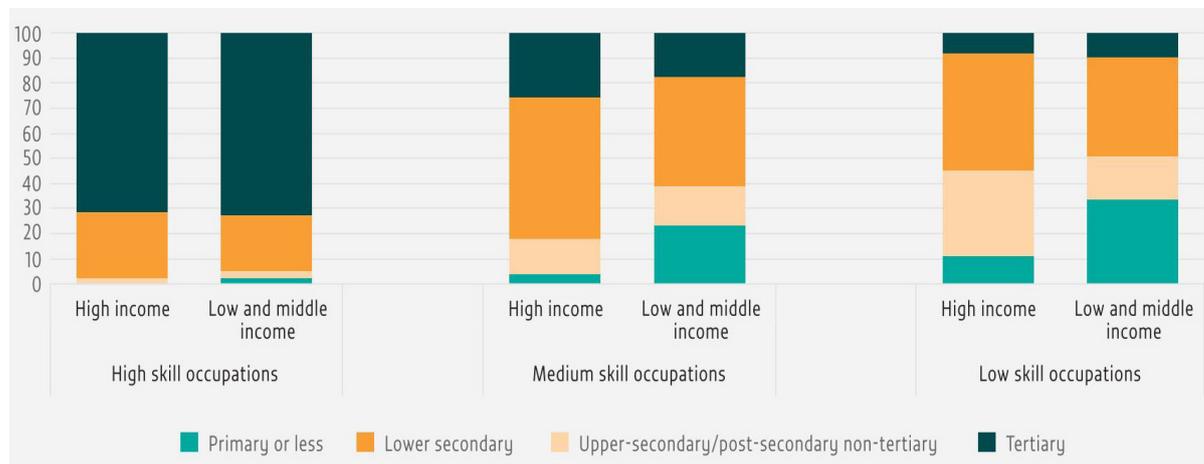
and Boyle, 2017, p. 123). The increased competition for declining government funding along with a stronger orientation toward performance, accountability and efficiency meant that universities have shifted strategy focus to internationalisation, student recruitment, and the achievement of quality and professional standards (Pappalepore and Farrell, 2017, p. 144). With the objective of stimulating economic growth through HE expansion, governments in leading economies in the 1990s began to liberalise university structures resulting in an increase in private universities such as polytechnics, community colleges and distance-education centres (Petrova, 2015, p. 383). In line with neoliberalist approaches, these new institutions as well as the traditional universities began to forge networks with industry and to adapt curricula to reflect a stronger focus on market relevant content (O'Mahony and Salmon, 2015, p. 131; Marmolejo, 2016, p. 24; Pappalepore and Farrell, 2017; Slocum, Dimitrov and Webb, 2019, p. 39).

Against this backdrop, scholars around the world began to examine the positioning of HE in the global competition discourse and, in particular, its role in achieving employability (Tran, 2016). Critics argued that HE curricula in general were too academically and intellectually oriented and did not meet the demands of the job market (Rufai, Bakar and Rashid, 2015, pp. 43–45). Writing in the context of South Africa, employability was viewed as the most important goal of HE institutions (Koloba, 2017, p. 76). Similarly, authors from the Middle East also confirmed the imperative of academic programmes to produce graduates with marketable skills (Osmani, Weerakkody and Hindi, 2017, p. 53). Tymon (2013, p. 848) contended that the survival of HE Institutions was dependent on the achievement of high employment levels. The importance of TE for employability was also the focus of a recent UNESCO report that emphasized the role of universities in preparing for high skill occupations such as managers, professionals, and technicians irrespective of whether the country had a high or low income level (UNESCO, 2016, p. 51) (see Figure 4).

These findings are confirmed by studies conducted in the EU (European Union): graduates with HE had an employment rate of 84 percent compared to 72 percent for secondary education, and 54 percent for lower levels of education (Eurostat, 2018, p. 156)

In an extensive review of the literature relating to employability over the past five decades, authors Sumanasiri, Yajid and Khatibi (2015, p. 86) observed that the operationalisation of the concept of employability in TE has proven difficult.

Figure 4: Occupation Skill by Educational Attainment



(UNESCO, 2016, p. 51)

They identified four frameworks that were developed for the purpose of conceptualising employability: the USEM Model (Understanding, Skills, Efficacy beliefs and Metacognition), the CareerEDGE model (Career development learning, Experience, Degree knowledge, Generic skills, and Emotional intelligence); the JET Model (Journey of Employment) and finally, the RAW Model (Rewarding, Ability, and Willingness). A significant finding from these models was the emphasis placed on the soft skills for measuring employability. However, as the authors noted, each model had its drawbacks, being either too theoretical (USEM Model), static in nature (CareerEDGE Model), or lacking empirical validity (JET and RAW Models) (Sumanasiri, Yajid and Khatibi, 2015, 77–78, 84). The soft skill focus was also confirmed by several other scholars (Hart Research Associates, 2016, p. 6; Martin, et al., 2017, p. 176) who mentioned skills such as effective communication, team work, problem solving, leadership qualities, self-management, critical thinking and creativity (Osmani, Weerakkody and Hindi, 2017, p. 55). An extensive review of studies on employers' perspectives identified socio-emotional skills as more important than cognitive skills, and even more important than technical skills (Cunningham and

Villasenor, 2014). Furthermore, these results were found to be robust across regions, countries, professions and education levels.

Focusing attention on tourism studies, the role of HE for employability has recently gained increasing attention (Eurico, da Silva and do Valle, 2015, p. 32). In a review of international tourism research from 2005-2014, author Hsu (2015, pp. 4–7) found that the development of employability skills was a prominent area of research. Empirical research in Asia also revealed that educators considered addressing stakeholder needs in tourism curricula as a priority (Oktadiana and Chon, 2017, p. 291). Other tourism scholars in countries ranging from India (Padurean, Das and Sharma, 2015) to Greece (Stergiou and Airey, 2017, p. 3) and South Africa (Wakelin-Theron, 2014, p. 1) also endorsed the view that tourism education required a professional, market-relevant based approach. Juxtaposed to these findings were empirical studies that questioned 217 employers in the South African tourism industry regarding employability and found graduates lacking in professionalism, problem solving and self-reliance skills (Zwane, Du Plessis and Slabbert, 2016, p. 1).

The continuously robust growth of the tourism industry and concomitant demand for work-ready graduates was furthermore seen to warrant the internationally strong focus of tourism curricula on professional and vocational development – which was often realised in the form of business and management courses (Sharpley, 2015, p. 171). Scholars argued that the deficiencies of relevant market skills was hindering the development and innovative capacity of the tourism industry (Airey, Dredge and Gross, 2015, p. 5). Tourism study programmes were needed that specifically targeted the skills gap in the job market (Ali, Murphy and Nadkarni, 2018, pp. 133–134) and that aimed to produce a wide range of flexible, dynamic, and professional skills (Dredge, et al., 2015, p. 64).

However, determining what exactly constituted employability skills in the tourism industry and how to measure the effectiveness of these skills has likewise proven challenging (Ladkin, 2014; Petrova, 2015, p. 391). Numerous studies underscored that focusing on business-related content such as economics, law, marketing, accounting and finance, and human resources management was the best approach for preparing students for their future professional life (Padurean

and Maggi, 2011; Tribe and Liburd, 2016, p. 48; Oktadiana and Chon, 2017, p. 294). Other researchers argued, similar to the mainstream employability scholarship, that employers were calling for graduates with a broader spectrum of skills and competences that included entrepreneurship (Ezeuduji, Chibe and Nyathela, 2017, p. 320), leadership, project and public relationship management (Wakelin-Theron, 2015, p. 249), as well as oral communication, teamwork and decision-making (Slocum, Dimitrov and Webb, 2019, p. 36). In addition to these skills, a review of the employability literature by Zwane, Du Plessis and Slabbert (2016, p. 2) revealed that tourism employers expected graduates to demonstrate commitment, flexibility, entrepreneurial spirit as well as social competence.

More recently, competency in informational technology (IT) has gained research attention and has been highlighted as a prerequisite skill for employment in tourism (Ali, Murphy and Nadkarni, 2018, pp. 134–135). Although IT skills were seen as critical for work in tourism, employers criticised that these essential skills were often lacking in graduates (Bilgihan, et al., 2014, p. 341).

Technology was purported to be transforming the business of the tourism industry on all levels from operational processes, through management practices to strategic considerations (Law, Buhalis and Cobanoglu, 2014, p. 743). In a recent study that examined the implications of information technology (IT) for tourism sustainability, Gössling (2017, p. 1036) noted that despite the ubiquitous use of technology in the industry, very little research had been conducted in this area.

2.2.3.2 The Interconnectivity of Employability and Sustainability

In a similar vein, only a few studies have dealt with the relevance of sustainability education for employability. Drayson (2015, p. 4) investigated the opinions of over 150 organisational leaders and recruiters and concluded that sustainability was considered important for employability but that one in five employers found these skills lacking in graduates.

Although there is wide acknowledgement that sustainability is a critical issue for the tourism industry with its intensive use of resources and potentially negative environmental and socio-cultural impacts, developing sustainability-related skills

has yet to be fully integrated into tourism curricula (Hatipoglu, Ertuna and Sasidharan, 2014, pp. 5031–5032; Chawla, 2015, p. 136). However, as Ali, Murphy and Nadkarni (2017, 166-167) reported, sustainability is slowly gaining ground as an important competency for employability. In their research which investigated 15 tourism stakeholders' perspectives on sustainability, these authors found that sustainability was seen as important but not a priority, except for when it offered competitive advantages in business (Ali, Murphy and Nadkarni, 2018, pp. 139–142). When investigating the perspectives of students with regard to sustainability in tourism curricula, a study involving over 50 undergraduates in Turkey revealed that, although this stakeholder group also believed sustainability to be important, they did not think companies placed any emphasis on the topic (Nazli, 2016, p. 345).

Adopting a broader societal perspective, other authors argued that educating for employability in tourism was crucial for the SD of societies. Although employment in the industry was seen to be closely connected to several of the SDGs (Baum, et al., 2016, p. 813), of particular relevance for tourism employment, according to Slocum, Dimitrov and Webb (2019, p. 34), was SDG 8 which aimed to “Promote sustained, inclusive, and sustainable economic growth: full and productive employment and decent work for all.”

To improve employment levels and create more just societies in South Africa, Marshall (2018, p. 1) called for HE programmes that aimed to address employability as well as SD issues such as gender relations, race and social class. Other authors drew attention to employment practices in the tourism industry that were not in alignment with the SDGs. These included issues such as working conditions and hours, remuneration, and exploitation – often in connection to women, children and minorities (Baum, et al., 2016, p. 820). These authors concluded current tourism practices were failing to achieve sustainable employment at the micro, meso and macro levels (Baum, et al., 2016, p. 823) and likewise called for tourism education that targeted the skills needed for both employability and responsible citizenship (Baum, et al., 2016, p. 817).

Authors Šlaus and Jacobs (2011, pp. 121–122) pointed out how high unemployment levels have been linked to increased poverty and crime;

declining health and education; as well as social, political and economic instability. Other scholars highlighted that achieving economic growth and prosperity was only possible if the educated workforce were able to find gainful employment (Asiedu, 2014, pp. 49–50). High unemployment was seen as particularly problematic in less developed countries (Rufai, Bakar and Rashid, 2015, p. 43), but also other countries including China, India, Tunisia and Jordan have previously experienced slow economic growth due to high graduate unemployability (World Bank Group, 2017a, p. 36).

2.2.3.3 Meeting Market Needs through Industry Collaboration

The issue of high unemployment rates has often been discussed in connection with HE and industry collaboration. According to Marmolejo (2016, p. 26), the development of relevant skills in TE was a crucial factor for boosting economic activity which could best be achieved in collaboration with the industry sector. Authors Hanushek and Woessmann (2015) noted that in particular young adults were over represented in unemployment statistics, and likewise recommended educational approaches that aimed at creating closer links to industry. Writing from a South African context, Koloba (2017, p. 85) investigated 485 students' perspectives on employability and concluded that to be effective, study programmes needed to build partnerships with industry and include practical, work-based learning components. Focusing on employers' views, a study involving 400 participants revealed that the majority of this stakeholder group advocated educating for a broad knowledge base coupled with praxis experience, preferably in the form of an internship or apprenticeship (Hart Research Associates, 2016, p. 3).

Scholars advocating collaborative approaches to TE were also prominent in tourism-specific literature. Whereas some authors focussed on forging connections specifically to industry (Ezeuduji, Chibe and Nyathela, 2017, p. 322), others argued that developing market relevant curricula could be best achieved by the inclusion of all tourism stakeholders including universities, students, governments, as well as communities (Wakelin-Theron, 2015, pp. 253–254; Tran, 2016, p. 61). Particularly in connection with innovation in tourism, collaborating with stakeholders was seen as crucial: the access to

outside tourism expertise, information and resources was a distinct advantage when seeking solutions for sustainability-related issues (Whitehouse, 2015, p. 128; Hsu, 2018, p. 181). Furthermore, building solid, long-term relationships with entrepreneurs and other tourism stakeholders helped to keep curricula current and offered opportunities to secure additional funding, according to Besana and Esposito (2017, pp. 378–380).

Related to the discussion on industry collaboration, various tourism scholars have focussed on the topic of work-integrated learning. This type of learning included internships, service learning and cooperative education, and was seen to be positively correlated with employability (O'Mahony and Salmon, 2015, p. 139; Rufai, Bakar and Rashid, 2015, p. 48; Wearing, et al., 2017, p. 402). Work-integrated learning has been described as beneficial for the development of professional skills (Fullagar and Wilson, 2012, p. 4), as well as for the reflection on and application of theoretical knowledge (Dredge, et al., 2015, p. 58). In an extensive study that analysed the content of 156 international tourism advertisements with respect to employers' perspectives on employability, the authors found that although academic qualifications were viewed positively, the most important criteria was reported to be relevant work experience (Padurean and Maggi, 2011).

Work experience in the form of internships, in particular, has received much attention in the literature (Stansbie, Nash and Chang, 2016, p. 27; Qian, Law and Li, 2019, p. 125). Authors Oktadiana and Chon (2017, p. 284), saw internships as a critical component of tourism education. Other tourism scholars highlighted how internships enhanced interpersonal skills and work-related competencies thus improving the chance of subsequent employment in the tourism industry (Wang and Tsai, 2014, p. 133; Hsu and Li, 2017, p. 103; Kim and Jeong, 2018, p. 120).

Another form of work-integrated learning gaining recognition is cooperative education – often synonymously referred to as workplace learning, industrial placements, employment-based schemes (Reinhard and Pogrzeba, 2016) or also work-based learning (Graf, 2017). Although cooperative education comes in various configurations, a common denominator of all is the combination of workplace or vocational training with TE learning (Graf, 2016, p. 2; Tran, 2016,

p. 62). The growth of cooperative education programmes on an international level is seen as a bottom-up response to the increased global economic competition in the 1990s, rapid technological changes and the concomitant demand for well qualified, flexible professionals (Graf, 2017, pp. 89–90).

Author Helyer (2015, p. 16) contends that cooperative education offers increased employability over traditional vocational programmes by training for higher level skills such as problem-solving, critical analysis, entrepreneurial capacity and self-reflection. Other authors highlight how effectively constructed curricula in cooperative education could successfully enhance the employability dimensions of professionalism, collaboration, decision-making, lifelong learning, theory-practice integration and work readiness (Smith, Ferns and Russell, 2016, p. 206). Cooperative education was also seen to improve work performance in three critical aspects considered essential for organisational success.

Mentioned were (1) proactive performance (a self-starter, independent problem-solver), (2) adaptive performance (ability to deal with ambiguous situations and emergencies); and (3) prosocial performance (collaborative and social behaviours) (Drewery, et al., 2017, p. 301).

Various models of cooperative education have emerged across the globe. Long established cooperative education programmes in the United States and Canada are generally characterized by alternating phases of study and praxis (Reinhard and Pogrzeba, 2016). In Austria and Switzerland, cooperative education typically leads to a vocational education training certificate as well as a HE entrance certificate (Graf, 2016, p. 2). Known as dual study programmes (Duale Studiengänge), cooperative education in Germany can lead to a vocational certificate and an academic degree, or just an academic degree. First established in 2009 in the State of Baden Württemberg, the Cooperative State University (or Duale Hochschule) is now the largest university in the state, with over 34,000 students enrolled and over 9,000 collaborations with regional and global companies (Statistisches Landesamt Baden-Württemberg, 2018, p. 16). The German model, which provides students with contracted salaries for the entire three years of study and claims a 85 percent employability success rate (Duale Hochschule Baden-Wuerttemberg, n.d.), has attracted much attention for development work (Bundesministerium für Bildung und Forschung,

2014, p. 98). For example, it has been used as a benchmark for Thai universities in the process of developing cooperative education programmes (Reinhard and Pogrzeba, 2016) and is also at the focus of a current European Commission sponsored project that aims to assess the compatibility and transferability of the German dual study system to universities in South Africa and Mozambique (LaTFURE, 2018).

Conclusion

This section reviewed literature that focussed on the factors contributing to the dominance of the employability paradigm in tourism TE. In the course of this review, several aspects emerged that have implications for this study. Notable was the substantial discourse across the globe on the necessity to align TE curricula (including tourism TE curricula) with market needs in order to increase employability. However, although there was no consensus on what employability skills are, studies show that most scholars and practitioners equate employability skills with soft skills. Furthermore, studies revealed that soft skills as well as critical IT skills were often found lacking in the tourism graduates. Strategies that connect industry with TE such as WIL were identified as particularly effective for fostering crucial soft skills and preparing graduates for their professional lives. A final noteworthy finding was that although studies indicated that the goals of employability and sustainability are inextricably interrelated, this connection is only slowly gaining recognition and attention by employers and researchers in the field of tourism.

Broadening the TE discussion of tourism studies in general to ST studies in particular, the next section reviews recent scholarship pertaining to the various approaches and criticisms in the field.

2.2.4 Educating for Sustainability in Tourism

“The value of an education in a liberal arts college is not the learning of many facts, but the training of the mind to think something that cannot be learned from textbooks.” Albert Einstein (Frank, 2002).

Extending the discussion beyond employability, there is growing recognition among academics that the tourism industry can play a transformational role in modern society. Adequately managed, it is viewed as having the potential to contribute to cultural understanding, world peace and economic prosperity (Caton, Schott and Daniele, p. 125; Wohlmuther and Wintersteiner, 2014; Dredge, et al., 2015, p. 59; Hsu, 2015). Especially in the HE context, tourism studies are seen as a “powerful nexus of potential influence” (Dredge, 2010, p. 3). Yet despite this widespread acknowledgement, sustainability concepts have still not been widely integrated in current tourism programmes (Moscardo, 2015a, p. 13; Boyle, 2017, p. 391). Gradually, however, attention is turning to the connection between tourism studies in HE and sustainability (Hsu, 2015).

Over the past two decades, numerous peer-reviewed journals with tourism education as a specific focus have emerged, along with influential Think Tanks such as the Tourism Education Futures Initiative (TEFI) and the Building Excellence in Sustainable Tourism Education Network (BEST EN) (Caton, 2015, p. 17). This international collaboration of academics, scholars and industry leaders is at the forefront of the continuing discourse relating to innovations and challenges for ST education (Prebezac, Schott and Sheldon, 2014, p. 1; Moscardo, 2016, p. 538). Their vision, along with the various concepts, approaches and ideas from further tourism educators and researchers form the basis of the discussion in the following sections.

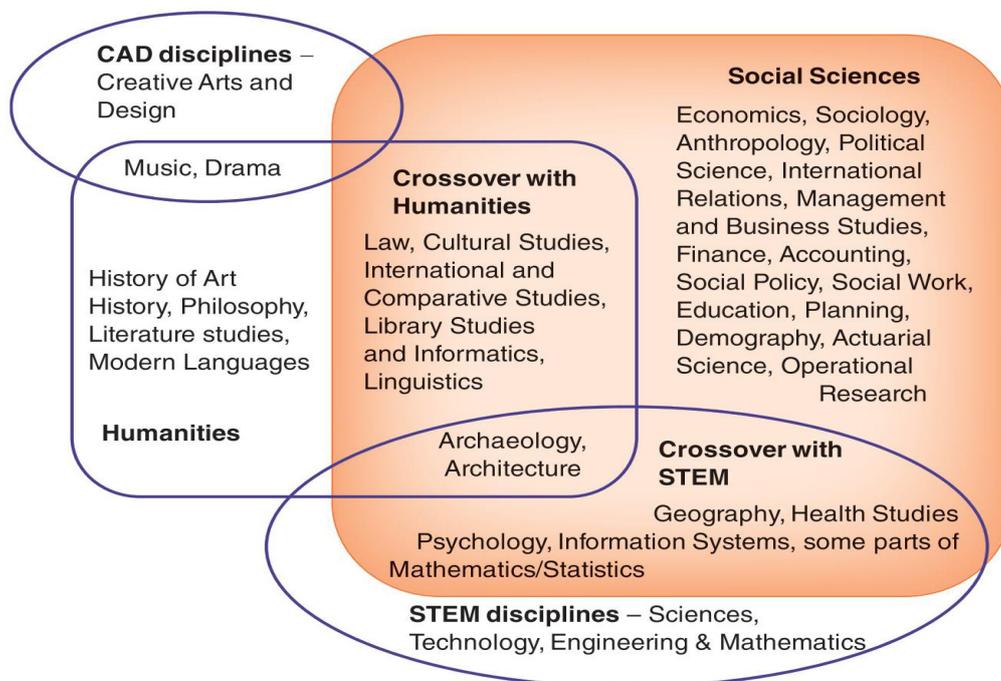
2.2.4.1 Liberal Arts

In order to reap not only the economic, but also the full potential social and environmental gains of tourism industry, scholars are calling for a return to a paideia-oriented approach in tourism (Caton, 2014, p. 31; Kellee, 2015, p. 49). They argue that, although the field of tourism draws on a broad and diverse set of social science disciplines such as geography, anthropology, sociology, and cultural studies, it is business management that has become the focal and

predominant discipline in tourism curriculum (Forristal 2012; Caton, 2015, pp. 17–18; Kellee, 2015, p. 44). Although the organisation of disciplines can vary in the literature, for the purpose of this thesis, the following categorisations of social sciences, humanities, CAD and STEM will be adopted (see Figure 5).

Einstein allegedly once remarked that not everything that counts is countable and not everything countable counts. In reference to this statement, author Caton (2015: 21) highlighted the importance of teaching beyond discrete, operational skills typically associated with vocational studies to foster less tangible competencies such as compassion, imagination and the ability to critique (Caton, 2015, p. 21).

Figure 5: The Social Sciences and Relationship to other Disciplines



Bastow, et al. (2014, p. 3)

Closely connected to this line of thought is the concept of a liberal education which combines the social sciences with the humanities and aims to provide a broad base of general and disciplinary knowledge as well as to promote intellectual and critical reasoning competencies (Dredge, et al., 2015, pp. 56–57; O’Mahony and Salmon, 2015, p. 132). A liberal education was seen to foster empathy, creativity, and responsible citizenship – considered essential attributes for today’s evolving tourism environment (Kellee, 2015, pp. 49–50).

A number of critics lament that humanity disciplines such as history, philosophy, art and literature (Bastow, et al., 2014, p. 3) have largely been neglected in tourism curricula (Caton, 2014, p. 26; Kellee, 2015, pp. 44–45). Reasons given for this were concerns about relevancy for employability (Dredge, et al., 2015, p. 69), but also the perceived lack of faculty expertise to teach humanity content (Caton, 2015, p. 32). Advocates of this approach, highlighted how the humanities facilitated the ability of students to see tourism as a socio-cultural phenomenon rather than just an economic activity (Caton, 2015, pp. 35–36) and to consider the bigger picture of tourism-related environmental and ethical issues (Hsu, 2015; Kellee, 2015, p. 50).

Caton noted that, in particular, the disciplines of philosophy and arts were rarely incorporated in current tourism curricula (2015, pp. 18–19). Philosophy was seen as a powerful tool to develop crucial decision-making and leadership competencies such as self-reflection and logical reasoning (Caton, 2014, p. 29; 2015, p. 22; Kellee, 2015, pp. 45–46). These authors highlighted how the inclusion of arts complemented philosophy by facilitating autonomous and creative thought. The imaginative and safe environments created by the arts allow for cognitive play whereby students can try out new ideas and solutions unrestrained by reality (Caton, 2015, pp. 22–23; Kellee, 2015, p. 47).

Furthermore, various art forms such as drama, storytelling and literature were viewed as being highly effective in engaging attention and emotions which, through dialogue, helped to develop empathy and critical awareness (Caton, 2014, pp. 30–31; Kellee, 2015, pp. 46–48). These skills and competencies were viewed as especially important for future tourism professionals facing potentially complex challenges in the tourism industry.

Ethics as a related branch of philosophy is also deemed to hold much potential for educating for sustainability. Writing in the context of ethics in tourism, Fennell (2015, p. 52) notes that “education without character” was listed as one of Ghandi’s deadly social sins. Further scholars argued that global problems such as climate change, terrorism, and poverty required global responses, and that there was a moral imperative to educate for ethical responsibility (Belhassen and Caton, 2011, p. 1394; Šlaus and Jacobs, 2011, p. 136; Caton, Schott and Daniele, 2014, p. 124).

The inclusion of ethics in tourism studies offers students an effective platform for contemplating the global impacts and broader social implications of the tourism industry (Caton, 2015, p. 22; Kellee, 2015, p. 50; Hsu, 2018, p. 182), and could contribute to the promotion of sustainable forms of tourism that were in alignment with the UN's vision for tourism development (Caton, 2014, p. 30; Barkathunnisha, Lee and Price, 2017, p. 178).

Although ethics has not traditionally played a central role in tourism education, it is gradually gaining attention as a key competence for future tourism graduates (Dredge, 2010, p. 11; Padurean and Maggi, 2011; Fennell, 2015, p. 50). The paucity of ethics in tourism studies has been attributed to the different focus and priorities for curricula set by universities on the one hand and industry on the other (Padurean and Maggi, 2011; Fennell, 2015, p. 52). However, in the past two decades, ethics has been the topic of much academic discussion (Fennell, 2015, p. 50), and the last decade has brought a substantial increase in tourism organisations concerned with ethics in tourism including Tourism Concern (Tourism Concern, 2019); the International Centre for Responsible Tourism (The International Centre for Responsible Tourism, n.d.); The Global Sustainable Tourism Council (Global Sustainable Tourism Council, n.d.); Planeterra Foundation (Planeterra Foundation, 2020); Forum anders reisen (Forum anders reisen, 2020) as well as the UNWTO's Committee on Tourism Ethics (UNWTO, n.d.c).

2.2.4.2 Critical Studies Approach

A central objective of ST education is the critical appraisal of the local and global social, cultural and environmental impacts of the industry (Wilson and von der Heide, 2013). This objective is also at the heart of the critical studies approach to tourism education which is grounded in critical theory and critical pedagogy (Wilson, 2015, p. 204). Following in the footsteps of European critical theorists such as the Frankfurt School of Habermas and Marcuse, these scholars adopt an ontological view of reality as one that is subjective and deeply embedded in historical, economic, political, and social contexts (Ayikoru, 2009, pp. 73–74) According to these theorists, it is largely the interplay of power that determines the legitimacy of worldviews (Grimwood, Arthurs and Vogel, 2015,

p. 363). The ultimate aim of critical studies is to produce societal change by exposing, interpreting, and understanding the privilege-disadvantage dialectic within societies (Martin, Nakayama and Flores, 2002, pp. 10–11; McLaren and Kincheloe, 2007, p. 2; Pappalepore and Farrell, 2017, p. 145).

Critical tourism scholars complained that, although critical theory is frequently adopted in tourism research, it has not widely been used in current tourism education (Wilson, 2015, p. 201; Crossley, 2017, p. 428). This led to the founding of the network of *Critical Tourism Studies* comprising of a group of scholars with a shared vision of incorporating critical studies into the tourism practice, education and research (Critical Tourism Studies, 2015; Young, Witsel and Boyle, 2017, p. 123). These scholars, more recently coined as “Academy of Hope” or “hopeful tourism”, (Higgins-Desbiolles and Whyte, 2014, p. 132), have as an overriding goal the promotion of social justice, human rights, and democracy at heart (Pritchard, Morgan and Ateljevic, 2011, p. 950; Munar and Jamal, 2016, p. 17).

Also referred to as the *critical turn* in tourism studies (Higgins-Desbiolles and Whyte, 2014, p. 132; Lew, Hall and Williams, 2014, p. 132), critical theory scholars argue that in order to address the complexity of issues pertaining to tourism and sustainability, students need to engage with critical concepts relating to positionality, emancipation, representation as well as gender, class and racial equality (Wilson, Small and Harris, 2012, pp. 48–49; Schweinsberg, Wearing and McManus, 2013, p. 56; Young, Witsel and Boyle, 2017, p. 123). The critical turn followers question whether the alignment of tourism studies primarily with industry concerns was conducive to the promotion of sustainability in tourism (Rouzrokh, et al., 2017, p. 163). These scholars argue, furthermore, that SD calls for the acceptance of multiple worldviews that included indigenous and minority perspectives as well as the adoption of collaborative rather than competitive approaches to education (Boluk, Cavaliere and Higgins-Desbiolles, 2017, pp. 1201–1202).

Several authors have highlighted how critical studies fosters higher level soft skills such as critical thinking (Hsu, 2018, p. 181). These skills are seen as important for understanding and promoting ST concepts (Boluk, Cavaliere and

Higgins-Desbiolles, 2017, p. 1202; Hales and Jennings, 2017, p. 193) that challenge power differentials, privilege, hegemony and unfair practices not in alignment with the egalitarian and inclusive practices promoted in the SDGs (Dredge, 2010, p. 13; Sharpley, 2015, p. 178; Wilson, 2015, p. 202; Boluk, Cavaliere and Higgins-Desbiolles, 2017, p. 1201).

A key challenge voiced by critical studies scholars was that the inclusion of critical epistemologies in tourism education is often crowded out by neoliberal ideologies that frequently view critical approaches as polemic, overtly negative and incompatible with economic demands (Fullagar and Wilson, 2012, p. 2; Young, Witsel and Boyle, 2017, p. 123).

A connected theoretical construct gaining traction in current tourism education discourse is *critical pedagogy*. Critical pedagogy builds on the foundational works of critical theorists including Freire (2000), Shor (1980) and Giroux (1983). It advocates a turn to a more holistic approach to education that is egalitarian and, in line with critical theory, seeks to achieve inclusive and democratic societies (Pappalepore and Farrell, 2017, p. 145). These theorists hold the view that educational spaces are ambiguous, biased, political constructs that require skeptical and critical appraisal (McLaren and Kincheloe, 2007, p. 16; Grimwood, Arthurs and Vogel, 2015, p. 366; Crossley, 2017, p. 431). They argue, furthermore, that the goal of education should be to develop the capacity of students to question existing knowledge (Kincheloe, 2011, p. 387; Mihalič, Liburd and Guia, 2014, p. 201) as well as internalized assumptions (McLaren and Kincheloe, 2007, p. 2).

Advocates of this approach highlight how the broader aims of critical pedagogy are compatible with those of EfS (Moscardo, 2015a, p. 9). Through analysis, critical reflection and debate, students were encouraged to become agents of societal change striving for social justice, equality and emancipation (Belhassen and Caton, 2011, p. 1390; Miedema and Bertram-Troos, 2012, pp. 3–4). In particular, *critical reflexive practice* – a process involving critical self-analysis and self-reflection – was seen as an effective methodology to raise awareness of dominant hegemonies and social inequalities in connection with

tourism (Fullagar and Wilson, 2012, p. 2; Stoner, et al., 2014, p. 159; Wilson, 2015, p. 203; Crossley, 2017, p. 432).

Integral to the concept of the critical pedagogy approach is the idea that knowledge should be co-created and inclusive (Kincheloe, 2011, pp. 388–390; Pritchard, Morgan and Ateljevic, 2011, p. 953). Scholars concerned about the business focus of tourism studies call for a shift from a positivist orientation to a *constructivist approach* that is socially critical, democratic and emancipatory at core (Belhassen and Caton, 2011, p. 1392; Pappalepore and Farrell, 2017, p. 144). Defined as the process in which individuals create meaning from knowledge and experiences (Pernecky, 2012, p. 1120), constructivists argue that tourism is by nature a socially constructed space informed by social, cultural and historical contexts that necessitate an interdisciplinary, values-led, and reflexive approach to education (Barkathunnisha, Lee and Price, 2017, p. 176). Central to constructivism is the idea that students become active agents in their own learning process, co-creating tourism curricula in collaboration with educators, based on existing knowledge and competency levels (Benckendorff, Moscardo and Murphy, 2012; Barkathunnisha, Lee and Price, 2017, p. 181; Cotterell, Arcodia and Ferreira, 2017).

The value of reciprocal learning in which students and teachers learn from each other is gaining recognition among critical tourism educators (Pappalepore and Farrell, 2017, pp. 145–146). Students and teachers were encouraged to assess their own roles in perpetuating hegemonic systems within the classroom and university (Mott, Zupan and Debbane, 2015, p. 1262). The changing role of students from passive recipients of knowledge to critical, co-creative actors also encourage students to challenge their assumptions regarding knowledge production (Dredge, 2010, p. 14; Fullagar and Wilson, 2012, p. 3) and thus facilitate social inclusion by permitting multiple worlds and realities into the curriculum space (Pappalepore and Farrell, 2017, p. 144). A constructivist approach was seen not only to contribute to increased confidence and agency for students, but also offered opportunities for teachers to engage in reflexive discourse (Cook-Sather, 2011) .

Authors Jamal and Camargo pointed out how there may be academic resistance to focussing on highly critical aspects in tourism education (Jamal and Camargo, 2018, p. 207). Yet, despite this and other concerns such as curriculum assessment, quality controls and student expertise levels, critical ideology is gaining traction in contemporary tourism education (Critical Tourism Studies, 2015; Pappalepore and Farrell, 2017, pp. 146–151). Indicative of this is the wide range of examples describing applications of critical approaches that were presented in a recent special issue of the *Journal of Hospitality, Leisure, Sport and Tourism Education* (Young, Witsel and Boyle, 2017, p. 124). The topics range from inverted hierarchies in tourism education that challenge existing teacher-student power relations in the classroom (Pappalepore and Farrell, 2017) to the inclusion of indigenised-related content in tourism sport curricula (Young and Maguire, 2017).

2.2.4.3 Global Orientation

With a growing awareness of the potential negative global impacts of the tourism industry, other tourism scholars turned their attention to how to educate students to take on roles as proactive leaders of positive change (Caton, Schott and Daniele, 2014, p. 125; Prebezac, Schott and Sheldon, 2014, p. 1; Dredge, 2015, p. 75). In line with critical approaches to education, these academics focussed on a tourism leadership concept that emphasized fostering independent and critical thought, empathy as well as ethical behaviour (Gretzel, et al., 2014, p. 4; Kellee, 2015, pp. 50–51). These competencies were seen as crucial for the creation of a desirable future tourism industry (Fullagar and Wilson, 2012, p. 4).

Central to these ideas is the concept of *global citizenship* which involves cultivating a sense of social responsibility for humanity as a whole, increasing awareness of issues that are global in nature, and encouraging civic engagement and collaboration across national frontiers (Stoner, et al., 2014, p. 152). In the tourism context, this pedagogical approach aims to raise awareness of the global socio-cultural and economic dimensions of the industry (Caton, Schott and Daniele, 2014, pp. 124–126; Wearing, et al., 2015, p. 103), and to foster “sustainability sensitivity” by teaching about environmental

challenges on a global level (Caton, Schott and Daniele, 2014, p. 127; Gretzel, et al., 2014, pp. 2–3; Ali, Murphy and Nadkarni, 2018, p. 134). Effective global citizenship also necessitates a solid understanding of democratic principles and values as well as relevant competencies for political agency (Miedema and Bertram-Troos, 2012, p. 3; Barkathunnisha, Lee and Price, 2017, p. 179). The ability to embrace alternative worldviews and beliefs was also viewed as promoting a global citizenship orientation (Stoner, et al., 2014, p. 160).

Related to this line of thinking is the concept of a *global mindset*, defined as a frame of mind that is characterized by inquisitiveness and duality (Black, 2005, p. 181), openness to diversity across cultures (Boyacigillar, et al., 2004, p. 81), and the ability to synthesize across multiple perspectives (Gretzel, et al., 2014, p. 7). Both the global citizenship and global mindset concepts underscore the importance of building cross-cultural competence and empathy skills (Caton, 2014, p. 30; Gretzel, et al., 2014, pp. 7–8). The ability to engage competently across cultures was viewed as crucial in view of increasingly internationalized workplaces (Scherle and Reiser, 2017, p. 313) and tourism growth in emerging countries (Hsu, 2018, p. 182). The closely connected theme of *diversity* is also gaining recognition in tourism research and education. Diversity education aims to increase awareness and tolerance for differences in race, ethnicity, sexual orientation, disabilities and religion (Kim and Jeong, 2018, p. 120).

In connection with the concept of a global-oriented approach to tourism education, a number of like-minded scholars have turned their attention to the issue of how to achieve effective *governance* in EfS in tourism. Governance is defined in tourism literature as the coordinated actions of various stakeholders including government, business, educational institutions and citizens with the purpose of achieving beneficial goals for society as a whole (Beaumont and Dredge, 2010; Hall, 2011, pp. 439–440; Dredge, 2015, pp. 78–82). In the context of the tourism industry, good governance involves effective resource allocation, policy making, and regulation of the industry (Jamal and Camargo, 2018, p. 206). The challenging task for tourism educators is how to prepare graduates to work collaboratively on global tourism issues characterised by ambiguity, complexity and change (Dredge, 2015, pp. 75–76), and often

involving wide jurisdiction areas and contesting policy objectives (Caton, Schott and Daniele, 2014, p. 126; Dredge, 2015, pp. 82–83).

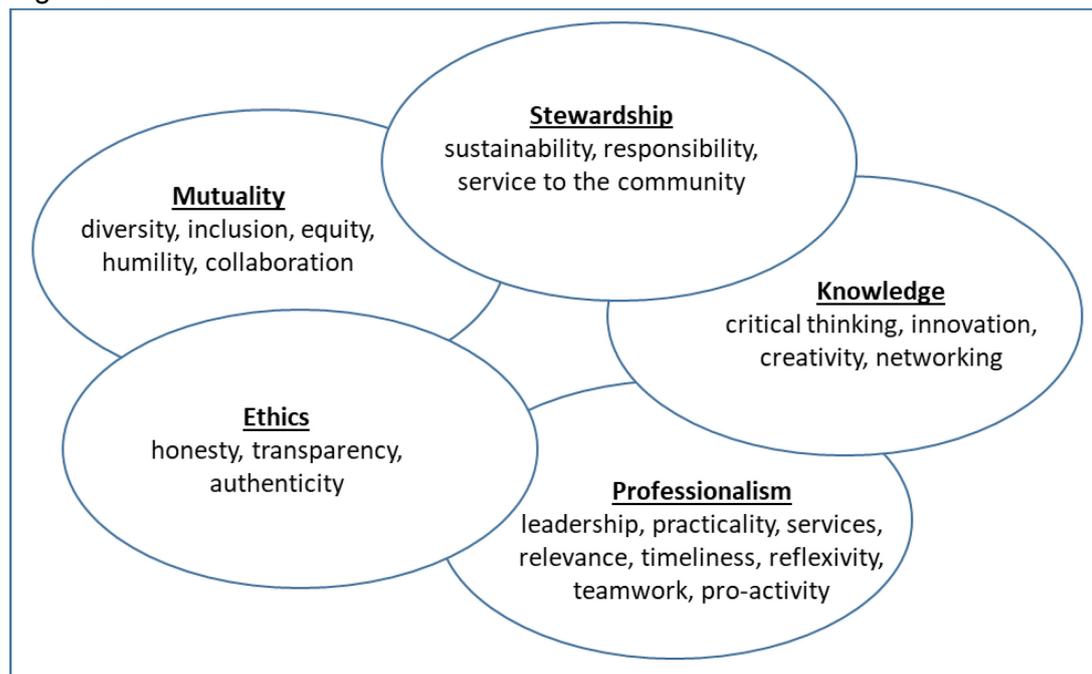
Over the course of the last decades, tourism scholars have proposed an extensive list of the diverse knowledge, competencies and skills considered essential for achieving effective tourism governance (Dredge, 2006; Dredge and Pforr, 2008; Moscardo, 2011). Key areas identified included expert local, global and professional knowledge, ethical orientation, stakeholder engagement, critical thinking, creative problem solving, conflict resolution, and leadership skills (Prebezac, Schott and Sheldon, 2014, pp. 100–103; Benckendorff and Moscardo, 2015, p. 273; Dredge, 2015, pp. 76–87). Additionally, the TEFI group viewed networking, team-building and communication skills as well as cross-cultural competence as essential for effective tourism governance (Sheldon, et al., 2007, pp. 66–67; Dredge, 2010, pp. 14–15). These skills and competencies correspond to the Organisation of Economic Cooperation and Development's (OECD) concept of EfS that advocates fostering creative, critical, and collaborative skills as well as promoting character building attributes such as empathy, curiosity, and courage (OECD, 2015, p. 9).

The concept of a *value-based approach* to tourism education has also received considerable attention in related tourism scholarship (Sheldon, et al., 2007, pp. 66–67; Schweinsberg, Wearing and McManus, 2013, p. 55). These authors argued that global issues such as climate change, migration, equitable income distribution, and the representation of minorities required a global-oriented leadership concept that is grounded in a solid foundation of values (Dredge and Schott, 2013; Caton, 2014, p. 29; Prebezac, Schott and Sheldon, 2014, p. 67; Wearing, et al., 2015, p. 103). Values can be defined as idealistic modes of conduct (Dredge and Schott, 2013; Fennell, 2015, p. 46; Wilson, 2015, p. 206), informed by experience (Šlaus and Jacobs, 2011, pp. 135–136) that offer guidance for decisions and actions (Moscardo, 2015a, p. 6).

Scholars have pointed out that tourism graduates face uncertain future world scenarios (Dredge, 2010, p. 9) with averse stakeholders who uphold market values such as profit and competition which are in direct conflict with the values of other stakeholders who prioritise community values such as cooperation and

equity (Fennell, 2015, p. 46). Particularly prominent in the values debate is the TEFI group (Fennell, 2015, pp. 50–51) which provided a broad framework of values for tourism education including stewardship, ethics, knowledge, mutuality and professionalism as defined in Figure 6 (Dredge, 2010, pp. 19–21; Barkathunnisha, Lee and Price, 2017, p. 181). This inclusive and interdisciplinary values framework (Forristal, 2012) was seen as a particularly effective education tool for teaching and guiding responsible leadership in destinations (Padurean and Maggi, 2011; Dredge and Schott, 2013; Schweinsberg, Wearing and McManus, 2013, p. 55; Wearing, et al., 2015, p. 102). TEFI values are considered consistent with the values defined as important for sustainability by the UN which include freedom, equality, solidarity, tolerance, respect for environment, and social responsibility (Torbjörnsson, Molin and Karlberg, 2011, p. 98; UNESCO, 2013).

Figure 6: TEFI Values Framework for Tourism Education



Dredge (2010, p. 9)

Conclusion

The scholarship reviewed up to this point in section 2.2.4 focussed on ontological debates in tourism education which are primarily concerned with issues relating to the underlying ideological beliefs and values of the discipline.

The literature in section 2.2.4.1 argued for the case for a broader liberal arts approach to ST education that incorporates topics such as the arts, philosophy and ethics. Section 2.2.4.2 discussed the inclusion of critical studies and pedagogies in tourism education that aim to encourage students to become critical, proactive agents both in their studies and beyond in their professional work. Finally, section 2.2.4.3 reviewed literature that advocated a broader global orientation toward ST education that includes themes relating to global citizenship, civic engagement, diversity and climate change.

Although these three approaches address diverse concepts and content, there were some unifying aspects that are of high relevance for this study. Firstly, although the numerous studies endorse the afore-mentioned approaches, these studies also reveal that the approaches have not been, to date, widely integrated into tourism education. Secondly, all three of the approaches question the dominance of business management in tourism curricula and advocate a broader, sustainability-oriented approach to tourism education. Thirdly, an overriding conclusion from the three discussed approaches is the emphasis placed on fostering crucial competencies in students in order to prepare them for their roles as critical change agents in their professions. Particularly emphasized across all approaches were intellectual and critical reasoning, empathy, ethical and cross-cultural competencies and skills.

The next sections extend the discourse on education for ST by firstly, in 2.2.4.4, discussing conceptual approaches that attempt to integrate the differing and often contentious schools of thought, and secondly, in 2.2.4.5, by reviewing the various methods and tools that have been advocated for ST education.

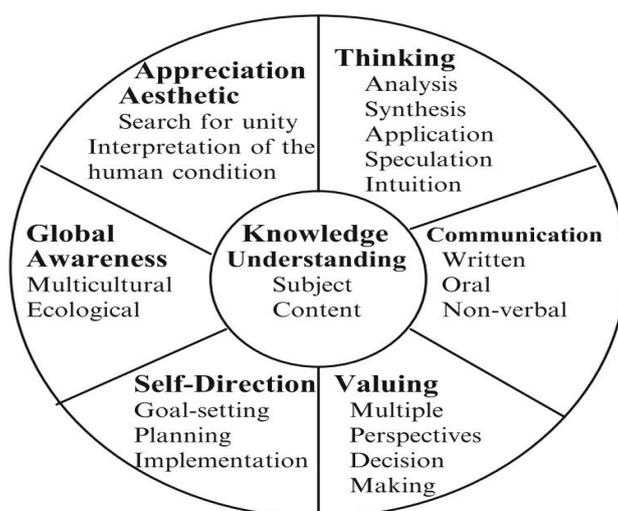
2.2.4.4 Integrative Approaches

This section broadens the debate by including a review of the literature concerned with the epistemological domains of ST education. The focus is on the knowledge, skills, methods and tools that have been developed specifically for ST education.

Numerous studies exist on curriculum design for tourism education as well as for EfS in general. However, until recently significantly less attention has been devoted to developing conceptual frameworks specifically for ST education

(Moscardo, 2015a). Although scant research exists on achievements with regard to the integration of sustainability into tourism curricula, various challenges have been documented (Hatipoglu, Ertuna and Sasidharan, 2014, pp. 5030–5031). In their empirical studies, Wilson and von der Heidt (2013) found that the most frequently mentioned reason was a lack of time and space in an already tightly packed tourism curricular which had core business skills such as economics, marketing, and accounting as a priority. These authors also noted that respondents indicated a lack of support in addressing sustainability issues from within tourism departments as well as from the organisation as a whole. Jones, Selby and Sterling (2010, p. 9) saw as a major challenge staff resistance to what was perceived as interference in academic autonomy when teaching in own areas of specialisation. Furthermore, according to these authors, academics signalled a lack of confidence, expertise and experience with regard to teaching the complex, interdisciplinary topic of sustainability. A lack of consensus regarding core learning content and goals was identified by Canziani, et al. (2012, p. 9) as one of the main inhibitors to the inclusion of sustainability in tourism curricula. Finally, unclear definitions and conceptualisations of the term sustainability were seen as problematic and thought to contribute to the reluctance to include the concept in tourism curricula (Boyle, 2017, p. 393).

Figure 7: Elements of Tourism Education for a Sustainability Approach



Wearing, et al. (2015, p. 105)

More recently, tourism scholarship has begun to address issues relating to the content, disciplinary approaches, ideologies and methodologies seen as effective for tourism curricula (Oktadiana and Chon, 2017, p. 282). Whereas some scholars maintained that the starting point for any curriculum design must be axiological considerations regarding what knowledge is of value and for what purpose (Morris and Adamson, 2010), others contended that it is essential to reflect on who as well as what defines curriculum space (Young, 2013, p. 107).

One helpful attempt to conceptualise components for ST education is provided in Figure 7. In order to address the social, economic and environmental dimensions of tourism adequately, these authors advocate a turn to the core disciplines of tourism such as geography and sociology and offer a framework of the relevant skills and competencies for ST education clustered together for the purpose of curriculum design (Wearing, et al., 2015, p. 105). These themes are in keeping with critical and global awareness research as well as other EfS related literature covered in previous sections, which included critical thinking, intercultural competence, innovation, and values.

Table 4: BEST EN Educating for Sustainability in Tourism

Skills and Capabilities	Knowledge	Teaching/Learning strategies
Education of stakeholders: employees, government, tourists	Sustainability: principles, environmental, socio-cultural and impacts, challenges	Role playing
Leadership	Communication: media, persuasion	Debates
Community engagement	Stakeholders: motivation, collaboration	Experiential Learning
Innovation	Interconnectivity: business, community, diversity	Simulations
Reflection: values, role as change-agents	Future: challenges, developments, risks	Case Studies
Dealing with complexity		Sustainable practices in classroom

Adapted from Moscardo (2015a, pp. 10–11).

Addressing the challenge of determining the learning content and goals for ST education Canziani, et al. (2012), suggested adopting a holistic learning systems approach such as represented by the organisations BEST EN and

TEFI which aimed to promote sustainability through a combination of cognitive and practical knowledge that is informed by tourism practitioners.

Reporting on the findings of a BEST EN conference on tourism and sustainability (BEST EN, 2011), Moscardo (2015a, pp. 10–11) provided a summary of the main themes, knowledge, as well as skills and capabilities considered important for advancing ST education (see Table: 4). The themes were also largely consistent with the general frameworks laid out for EfS (in section 2.1.2.3, except for the emphasis placed by these authors on values-based education.

2.2.4.4.1 Multidisciplinarity, Interdisciplinarity and Postdisciplinarity

Critics of the current system argue that the dynamically evolving field of tourism had far reaching social-cultural and environmental impacts that necessitate new approaches to teaching (Barkathunnisha, Lee and Price, 2017, p. 182). They point out that although the epistemological domain of tourism covers a broad spectrum of disciplines (Fidgeon, 2010, p. 708; Schweinsberg, Wearing and McManus, 2013, p. 55; Kellee, 2015, p. 44), these disciplines have not so far been consistently included in tourism curricula (Hsu, 2015).

Discussions of disciplinary inclusion in tourism is often entangled in terms relating to *interdisciplinarity*, *multidisciplinarity* and *postdisciplinarity*. Several tourism scholars point out distinctions between the terms. Multidisciplinarity has been defined as an approach that views phenomena independently from within the delineated boundaries of each discipline, whereas interdisciplinarity involves dynamic interaction and a synthesis of knowledge and methods from two or more disciplines (Darbellay and Stock, 2012, pp. 452–453; Munar, Pernecky and Feighery, 2016, p. 344). In comparison to the more frequently applied multidisciplinary approach (Comic, Vicic and Kalmic, 2016, pp. 10–11) which allowed for more scope, the interdisciplinary approach was seen to provide more depth for the study of tourism (Wattanacharoensil, 2013, p. 11).

However, in the reviewed tourism scholarship these terms were often used interchangeably. Several authors mention interdisciplinarity or multidisciplinarity as effective approaches to educating for sustainability in tourism (Benckendorff and Moscardo, 2015, p. 276; Hsu, 2015; Pechlaner and Volgger, 2015, p. 85;

Barkathunnisha, Lee and Price, 2017, p. 180). These approaches were seen to permit a more comprehensive view of the various interconnected political, social, and cultural dimensions of tourism (Comic, Vicic and Kalmic, 2016, p. 12).

In particular, the inclusion of a broad band of disciplines such as environmental (Hales and Jennings, 2017, p. 185), business and socio-cultural studies (Forristal, 2012), as well as geography (Schweinsberg, Wearing and McManus, 2013, p. 56) was seen to contribute to an improved comprehension of the multi-faceted and complex concept of sustainability (Boley, 2011). Other disciplines thought to contribute to ST education included anthropology, history, heritage and cultural tourism (Forristal, 2012). An improved grasp of the complexities of sustainability was seen to result in increased graduate flexibility and thus greater employment opportunities (Tarrant, et al., 2015, p. 236; Hsu, 2018, p. 181). Tribe (2005b, p. 52) described tourism curriculum as an interconnected space encompassing knowledge from the spheres of management sciences as well as liberal arts including sociology, anthropology, heritage and global cultural studies.

Rather than designing separate components, several authors advocated integrating sustainability-related content into the overall tourism programme design (Benckendorff, Moscardo and Murphy, 2012; Wearing, et al., 2017, p. 413). Often referred to as the *hidden curriculum*, this approach communicated sustainability values indirectly by embedding these in practices and curricula throughout the institution (Lund-Durlacher, 2015b, p. 93; 2015b, pp. 99–100; Moscardo, 2015a, p. 5).

Extending the discipline debate beyond multidisciplinary and interdisciplinarity, the *postdisciplinarity* approach is also considered in tourism studies. Several authors note that there is an increasing tendency to adopt postdisciplinarity approaches in tourism research and education (Coles, Hall and Duval, 2016, p. 378; Comic, Vicic and Kalmic, 2016, p. 19). Postdisciplinarity scholars view disciplines as having overlapping, diffuse borders (Munar, Pernecky and Feighery, 2016, pp. 344–345), thus enabling holistic, pragmatic approaches to problem-solving (Tribe and Liburd, 2016, p. 49). The emphasis is placed on the

knowledge gained rather than the location of the discipline (Comic, Vivic and Kalmic, 2016, pp. 15–16). Chambers (2018, pp. 193–195) argues that tourism education must move beyond imperialist constructions of disciplinarity to adopt postdisciplinarity approaches in order to achieve transformation and progress. Others maintain that the myriad of major global challenges in the tourism industry necessitates creative, collaborative responses that draw on theories, ideas and methodologies located in other domains (Coles, Hall and Duval, 2016, pp. 374–378; Munar, Pernecky and Feighery, 2016, p. 346). To conclude, Butler (2015, p. 20) astutely notes how the heterogeneity of disciplines associated with tourism, while beneficial for knowledge production, has led to some scepticism about whether tourism can be considered a discipline in its own right.

In sum, irrespective of whether the term interdisciplinary, multidisciplinary, or postdisciplinarity was mentioned, there was a general concurrence in conclusions. Firstly, these discussions all underscore that tourism is a complex, multifaceted field that is best studied through the lens of multiple disciplines. Secondly, the integration of multidisciplinary perspectives has not yet been widely implemented in tourism studies.

2.2.4.4.2 Balanced Curriculum Concepts

Tourism curricula are not developed in a vacuum but are influenced by the cultural and social context; economic needs; local, national and global policies; as well as environmental and technological aspects (Dredge, 2010; Wattanacharoensil, 2013; Oktadiana and Chon, 2017). In addition, tourism stakeholders including students, industry, government and NGOs play a significant role in the development of curricula (Wattanacharoensil, 2013). Barkathunnisha, Lee and Price (2017, p. 175) similarly argue that tourism curricula are a socially constructed space determined by the contexts, interests, ideologies and the power of the various stakeholders.

The underlying philosophical position also plays a significant role in determining whether curricula emphasize vocational education with a leaning toward business studies, or non-vocational education with an academic and critical focus, according to Tribe (2015). However, studies suggest that stakeholder

power is not equally distributed as business studies tended to dominate in tourism education (Oktadiana and Chon, 2017, pp. 292–293).

Tribe (2015, p. 17) summarizes the influences on tourism curricula as the 12Ps:

- Power;
- Pals;
- Patronage;
- Precedent;
- Pragmatism;
- Pleading;
- Parochialism;
- Parsimony;
- Prospects;
- Popularity;
- Politicians;
- Path dependency.

Several conceptual approaches have been put forward that attempt to resolve the contention of whether tourism curricula should emphasize theoretical as opposed to practical knowledge. Whereas some academics advocate a balanced theory and practice oriented approach to tourism education (Schweinsberg, Wearing and McManus, 2013, p. 54), others have been accused of adopting binary perspectives whereby theoretical knowledge is viewed as competing with applied knowledge (Fullagar and Wilson, 2012, p. 1). Referring to the teachings of Aristotle, Dredge (2015, pp. 85–86) pointed out that sustainable forms of tourism require a phronesis approach, that is, one that strives for virtuous actions through the joint application of objective, scientific knowledge (episteme) and technical capabilities (techne) (Dredge, 2015, pp. 85–86). Combining theoretical with applied knowledge was seen as particularly beneficial for preparing students for contemporary dynamic and digitalised working environments (Barkathunnisha, Lee and Price, 2017, p. 176).

At the heart of the debate is the question of how students can be educated to meet the needs of the job market that demands practical, vocational skills (Sharpley, 2015, p. 171), and that at the same time satisfies educators who aspire to equip their students with the necessary higher order knowledge and

intellectual capacities to cope with sustainability challenges (Airey, Dredge and Gross, 2015, p. 5). The complex future scenarios confronting tourism graduates will invariably involve a variety of stakeholders with differing interests and agendas (Benckendorff and Moscardo, 2015, p. 273) all of which need to be accommodated in a tightly packed tourism curriculum space (Dredge, et al., 2015, p. 59).

The integration of critical management studies in traditional business-oriented tourism education was offered as one solution for this apparent dilemma (Fullagar and Wilson, 2012, p. 5; Wilson, 2015, p. 209). This integrated approach aimed to foster additional intellectual and ethical perspectives to encourage students to consider not only how to increase productivity but also how to contribute to more equitable practices in business (Belhassen and Caton, 2011, pp. 1390–1395).

In addition to critical thinking, the fostering of creativity, innovation skills and flexibility was seen as crucial for preparing students for the ambiguities and challenges ahead (Sheldon, et al., 2007, pp. 66–67; Dredge, 2010, p. 12; Airey, Dredge and Gross, 2015, p. 3). Other scholars criticised the widely adopted traditional teaching approaches such as lecturing, tutorials or case studies and argued for the inclusion of business simulations, field studies, and guest lecturers from the praxis (Ahmad, Abu Bakar and Ahmad, 2018, p. 14). Recommended was also the inclusion of creative projects that aimed at knowledge creation rather than knowledge consumption and that nurtured innovative capacities. One such example is represented by *makerspace*, a virtual platform which offers students the opportunity to collaboratively experiment with ideas, construct prototypes, and hone project management and problem-solving skills (Hsu, 2018, p. 183). Social entrepreneurship projects, in which students work collaboratively with tourism stakeholders on real life projects in the field, offer another example (Hsu, 2015).

The concept of *Corporate Social Responsibility* (CSR) has also received much attention in connection with ST education. CSR has been defined as a voluntary business strategy that addresses social and environmental concerns in collaboration with stakeholders (European Commission, 2011). Central

issues of CSR are also at the core of the ST education debate and include environmental protection, equitable working conditions, resource management, community development, capacity building, and the protection of minors and indigenous people (Benckendorff and Moscardo, 2015, p. 273; Lund-Durlacher, 2015a, p. 68). The relevance of CSR for tourism studies is demonstrated by the numerous organisations offering guidelines for the industry such as the World Travel and Tourism Council (World Travel and Tourism Council, n.d.), the German Travel Association (German Travel Association, n.d.), International Standards for Environmental Management (International Organization for Standardization, n.d.), and the Global Sustainable Tourism Council (Global Sustainable Tourism Council, n.d.). Integrating CSR concepts into tourism classes and providing real-life application opportunities were seen as constructive for training analytical and innovative skills and providing invaluable learning experiences for students (Buijtendijk and van der Donk, 2015, p. 242).

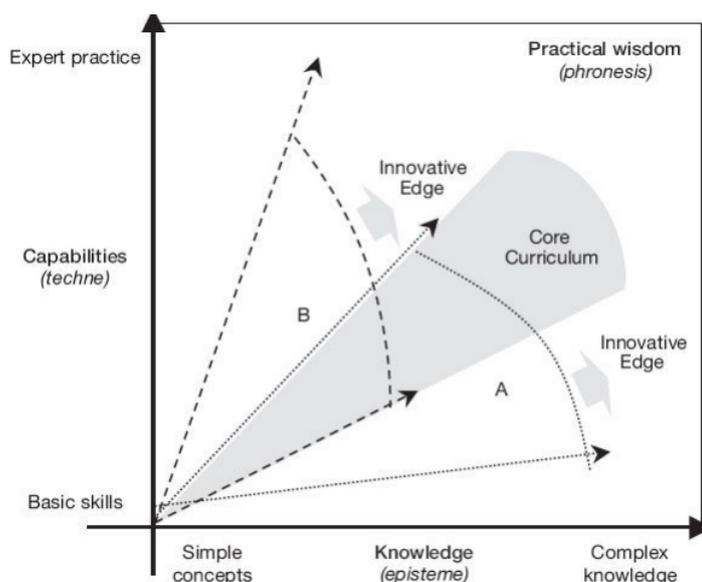
Other tourism scholars offered frameworks that illustrated how vocational and business education could be combined with liberal arts studies (Caton, 2014, p. 32). Building on the previous work of Tribe (2002b) and Schon (1982; 1983), authors Dredge, et al. (2015, p. 55) proposed an updated model of *Philosophic Practitioner Education* that integrated vocational, professional, social science and humanities content in tourism curricula. Drawing attention to critical global developments such as HE reforms, climate changes and geopolitical instability, the model attempted to address the need for more flexible, dynamic and differentiated approaches to knowledge and skill development in tourism education (Dredge, et al., 2015, p. 61). At the core of this model is the idea that vocational and liberal arts approaches to education can be reconciled, and that knowledge and skill development is a dynamic process. Figure 8 demonstrates how institutional preferences can influence the positioning of core curriculum space (shaded area). The y-axis represents levels of skills and capabilities (or techne) from basic to advanced, and the x-axis represents levels of knowledge (or episteme) from simple to complex. A stronger emphasis on research and humanities oriented knowledge is represented by position A whereas a stronger focus on vocational skills is shown by position B. However, rather than postulating an ideal, static trade-off point between vocational skills and

theoretical knowledge, this model argues that the positioning of core curricula can be dynamically adapted and optimised according to market demands, internal objectives, preferred ideology, as well as improvements in institutional capacities and capabilities as represented by the innovative edge in the Figure 8 (Dredge, et al., 2015, pp. 66–68).

Building on these ideas and previous models, Oktadiana and Chon (2016) offer an alternative visualisation in their *Curriculum Framework Model* (Tribe 2002, 2015; Dredge et al. 2015; Young 2013, 2014; and Doll 1993, cited in Oktadiana and Chon, 2016, p. 238). For these authors, determining the underlying philosophical framework was essential before other components of the curriculum design such as content and methods of instruction could be considered (Oktadiana and Chon, 2016, p. 238).

The model is based on a combination of four educational philosophies identified as influential for designing tourism curricula: (1) perennialism with a focus on rationality and ethical studies, (2) essentialism which emphasizes cognitive development and conceptual thinking, (3) progressivism that fosters individual development and problem-solving skills, and (4) reconstructionism aimed at addressing societal challenges through critical thinking skills (Oktadiana and Chon, 2016, p. 237).

Figure 8: Different Institutional Positioning within the Curriculum Space

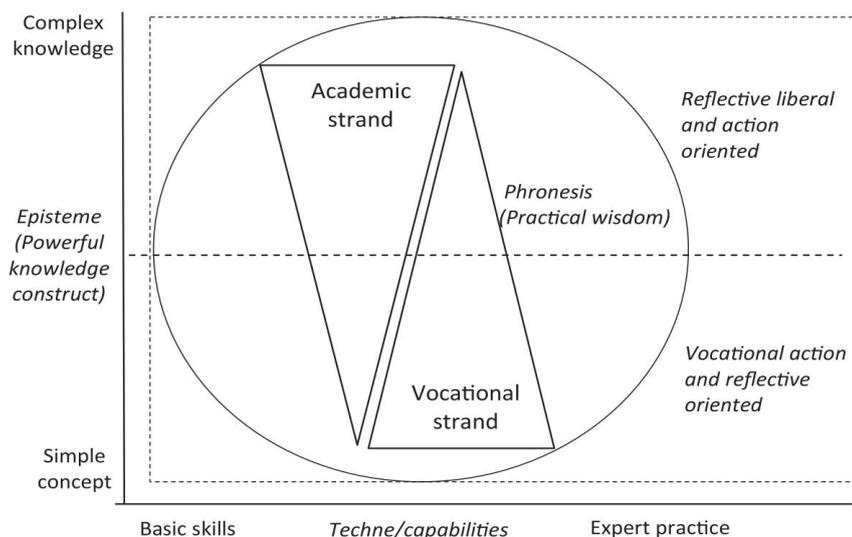


Dredge, et al. (2015, p. 67)

Similar to Dredge *et al.* (2015), these authors (see Figure 9) maintain that effective tourism education requires academic studies involving liberal arts approaches such as critical thinking and ethical studies (represented by the academic strand), as well as vocational education involving application-oriented, practical knowledge for maximizing employability (represented by the vocational strand). The curriculum design is dependent on the prevalent institutional ideology and objectives which will define the influence of episteme (scientific knowledge) on the y-axis in relation to techne (skills and capabilities) on the x-axis. The central idea of this model is that irrespective of institutional ideology, the goal of education should be to impart phronesis, i.e., pragmatic wisdom that has morality and ethics at its core (demonstrated by circle) (Oktadiana and Chon, 2016, p. 238).

With the aim of broadening tourism curricula to incorporate a more comprehensive and holistic representation of tourism phenomena, Wattanacharoensil (2013, p. 17) proposes a *Systems Approach* to tourism curriculum design (see Figure 10). This model draws on the curricula design concepts of John Tribe (2002b), as well as Denis Lawton (1989) who argued that curricula choices are inevitably embedded within the larger macro-economic context as well as the cultural and value systems of societies.

Figure 9: Curriculum Framework Model

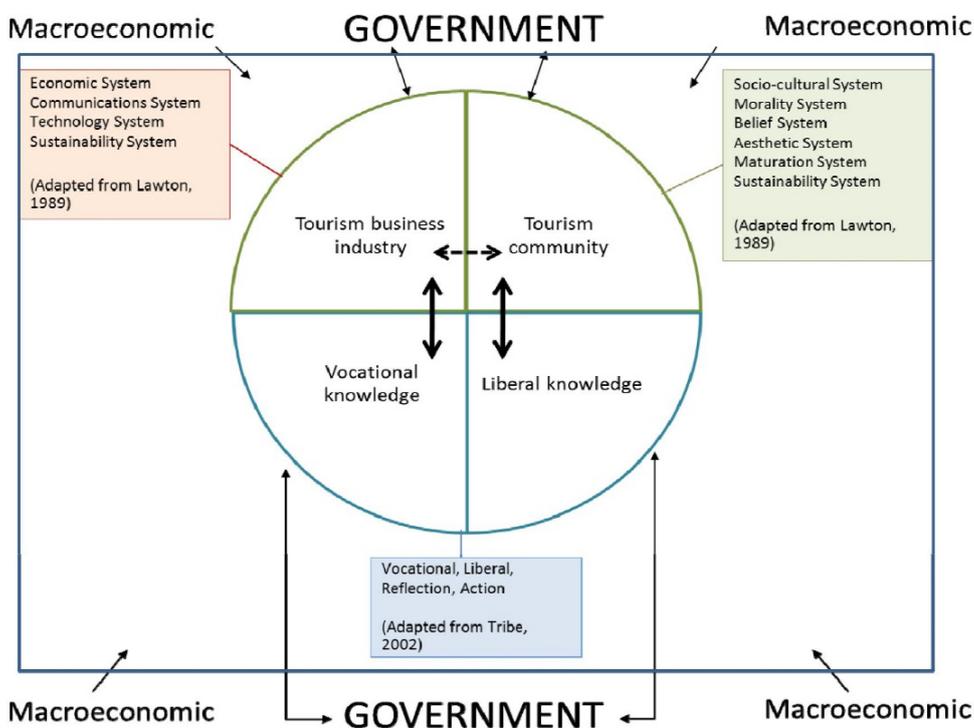


Oktadiana and Chon (2016, p. 238)

The model demonstrates how, on the one side, the economic, communication, technological and sustainability systems impact on the tourism business industry, and, on the other, how the socio-cultural, morality and aesthetic, maturation (traditions relating to growing up), and sustainability systems impact on the tourism community. The curriculum space (represented by the circle in the centre) is informed by the knowledge gained from both the tourism industry and tourism community. The combination of liberal and vocational education aims at fostering a sense of ethical citizen responsibility while at the same providing professional, market-relevant skills for the tourism industry.

The distinguishing aspect of this model is that it synthesizes input from external macro-economic sources with contextual knowledge from communities, academia and industry. The resulting curriculum design represents a negotiation between economic indicators, tourism trends, available resources, government funding, cultural preferences and preferred educational ideologies (Wattanacharoensil, 2013, pp. 17–18).

Figure 10: Systems Approach to Tourism Curriculum Design



Wattanacharoensil (2013, p. 17)

The unifying idea of the tourism frameworks discussed here is that vocational, practical education should be equally juxtaposed with liberal, intellectual

education in order to nurture competent and responsible graduates who can effect positive societal change in the field of tourism. The epistemological and ontological scope of the curriculum will ideally draw from the broader field of tourism and will represent the interests of all tourism stakeholders from efficient business practices to social equality and environmental responsibility (Fidgeon, 2010, p. 709).

2.2.4.5 Methods and Tools of Instruction

Instructional methods for teaching tourism have had extensive coverage in tourism literature and extend beyond the focus and scope of this thesis. This section will therefore provide a brief overview of the previous related scholarship for tourism in general, before focussing on teaching methods and tools that have been highlighted as especially conducive for ST education.

The choice of methods and tools was identified as having a significant impact on the attainment of learning outcomes (Han, Ng and Guo, 2015). Hsu and Li (2017) provide a summary of their research which lists methods and tools typically implemented in tourism and hospitality education (Table 5).

This summary illustrates how tourism education draws on a broad variety of methods that include traditional teacher-centred (lectures, group discussions), student-centred (peer evaluation, journaling) and experiential (fieldtrips, internships) methods; as well as learning tools that range from traditional low-tech (videos, photographs) to more advanced high-tech (E-learning and simulation software) (Hsu and Li, 2017, p. 105). Findings from these authors' studies reveal that traditional teaching methods still dominate in the tourism classroom (Hsu and Li, 2017, p. 112) although collaborative learning and interactive methods such as drama and role-play were seen as highly effective (Todorina, 2011). Similarly, familiar and well-established teacher-centred approaches were reported to be preferred over student-centred approaches (Kim and Davies, 2014).

Analogue to the broader educational field, the debate in ST education continues regarding the most effective teaching methods and how to best implement these (Schweinsberg, Wearing and McManus, 2013, p. 55). In accordance with studies on teaching EfS in general (see section 2.1), reflective methods such as

Table 5: Methods and Tools for Tourism Education from Previous Studies

Method/Tool	Sources
Teaching and learning methods	
Traditional/teacher-centered methods	
Lecture (lecturer delivers course content by talking)	Ballantyne et al. (1999), Okumus & Wong (2004)
Formative quiz (ungraded, with instant feedback)	Gröschl (2004)
Guest lecture	Deale et al. (2009)
Panel/symposium/forum of invited guests	Deale et al. (2010), Okeiyi et al. (1994)
Demonstration/experiment	Deale et al. (2009), Okeiyi et al. (1994)
Peer learning methods	
Discussion/brainstorming	Gilmore (1992), Okeiyi et al. (1994)
Peer evaluation (student evaluation of other's work)	Knowd & Daruwalla (2003)
Cooperative learning (e.g., peer tutoring, collaborative learning)	Ballantyne et al. (1999), W. Cho et al. (2002)
Debate	Ballantyne et al. (1999)
Group project	Deale et al. (2009)
Self-learning methods	
Individual project	Deale et al. (2009)
Self-evaluation (student evaluation of his or her own work)	Dimmock et al. (2003), Gröschl (2004)
Reading	Okumus & Wong (2004)
Article critique	Okumus & Wong (2004)
Reflective writing/journaling	Fleming & Martin (2007)
Experiential learning methods	
Problem-based learning (asked to provide solutions to a real-life problem)	Bethell & Morgan (2011), Duncan et al. (2013)
Fieldtrip	Wong & Wong (2009), Yan & Cheung (2012)
Internship	Lee et al. (2006), Petrillose & Montgomery (1997)
Case study	Deale et al. (2010), Okumus & Wong (2004)
Service-learning (as part of a class)	Deale et al. (2009)
Interactive methods	
Drama/play/role play	Ballantyne et al. (1999), Okeiyi et al. (1994)
Game	Deale et al. (2010), Okumus & Wong (2004)
Storytelling (e.g., giving real-life examples)	Okumus & Wong (2004)
Student presentation	Deale et al. (2009)
Student-centered teaching (e.g., selection of course topics by students)	Kim & Davies (2014), Taylor & Ruetzler (2010)
Teaching and learning tools	
Traditional low-tech tools	
Chalkboard/whiteboard	American Hotel & Lodging Educational Institute (2014), Deale et al. (2010)
Artifact (e.g., objects, toys)	Deale et al. (2010)
Concept/mind map	American Hotel & Lodging Educational Institute (2014)
Video/movie	Goldenberg et al. (2010)
Overhead projector (used together with a transparency)	Deale et al. (2010)
Music	Goldenberg et al. (2010)
Photographs	Goldenberg et al. (2010)
High-tech tools	
Presentation software	
Microsoft PowerPoint	American Hotel & Lodging Educational Institute (2014)
Prezi	Strasser (2014)
E-learning software (e.g., interactive video instruction)	Deale et al. (2010), Sife et al. (2007)
Simulation software (e.g., HotS, RevSim)	Sife et al. (2007)
Mobile devices	Gikas & Grant (2013)
Web-based communication platform (for teacher-student and student-student interactions)	Okumus & Wong (2004)
Computer game software (e.g., Second Life, Monopoly)	L. Hsu (2012)
Course/learning management system (e.g., WebCT, Blackboard)	American Hotel & Lodging Educational Institute (2014)
Online resources (e.g., hyperlink to newspaper, other Web sites)	American Hotel & Lodging Educational Institute (2014)
Podcast	Cebeci & Tekdal (2006)
Virtual tour	Y. H. Cho et al. (2002)

Hsu and Li (2017, p. 105)

role playing, debates, experiential learning, simulations and case studies (Tribe, 2002a) as well as critical thinking and problem-based learning (Christie, et al., 2013) were deemed as highly effective for ST education. A particular emphasis was placed in ST education on *collaborative learning* i.e., a teaching concept that promotes interaction between students, tertiary institutions and tourism stakeholders (Lund-Durlacher, 2015b, p. 98; Barkathunnisha, Lee and Price, 2017, p. 181). Other authors advocated creative classroom spaces that involve

the use of film, artwork and photography (Caton, 2015, pp. 36–37; Mott, Zupan and Debbane, 2015, p. 1277).

Particularly prominent in ST education scholarship was *transformational* pedagogy (Pavlova, 2013; Stone and Duffy, 2015) which is often associated with the works of Jack Mezirow (2000). For Mezirow, intellectual growth and development—or transformative learning—can be achieved by engaging with others in reflective discourse and critical thinking (Mezirow, 2000).

In contrast to *transmissive* pedagogy which aims at disseminating accepted knowledge to passive students, transformative approaches encourage students to become critical change agents and innovators (Stone and Duffy, 2015, p. 205). Furthermore, transformative education aims at fostering social engagement (Lewis-Cameron, 2015, p. 93; Barkathunnisha, Lee and Price, 2017, p. 176) and seeks to equip students with the capacities to solve complex sustainability problems in the tourism field (Cotterell, Arcodia and Ferreira, 2017). Transformational pedagogy has been described as learner-centred, collaborative, problem-based and global in orientation (Moscardo, 2015a, p. 4).

For education to be truly transformative, other authors have argued that students need to go beyond their familiar frames of reference and to engage with alternative worldviews and perspectives (Stoner, et al., 2014, p. 154). Wearing *et al.*, maintained that *experiential learning* provided transformative experiences for students and is an effective method for teaching ST (2015, p. 102). In his seminal work, David Kolb defines experiential learning theory as going beyond a *learning by doing approach* to involve a process in which knowledge is created through discovery, comprehension, and transformation of experiences (Kolb, 1984) .

Research by Kim and Joeng indicates that there is a strong tendency among tourism educators to adopt experiential learning (2018, p. 120) which includes activities such as cooperative education, community projects, field trips, internships and study abroad (King and Zhang, 2017, p. 210). Problem-based approaches also provides students with experiential learning opportunities through engagement with real-life problems in realistic scenarios (Duncan, Smith and Cook, 2013). Educational travel (such as field trips) represent a

further possibility for experiential learning by facilitating situational learning and collaboration with other cultures (Tarrant, et al., 2011; Schott, 2015, pp. 213–214). An innovative example of experiential learning is being provided by the annual *International Tourism and Hospitality Academy at Sea* programme (ITHAS, n.d.) in which globally recruited students sail as study units to various destinations around the world (Čavlek, 2015, pp. 101–102).

In particular, study abroad programmes were emphasized as effective experiential learning opportunities as they expand student perspectives and fostered a sense of global citizenship (Stoner, et al., 2014, pp. 150–151; Tarrant, et al., 2015, p. 235). This was seen as especially effective in connection with reflection on travel experiences and group discussions on sustainability issues (Hales and Jennings, 2017, p. 187). Although the benefits of international field trips for promoting intercultural competence and soft skills have been widely acknowledged by a number of tourism educators (Scherle and Reiser, 2017, p. 305), others note that they have not been frequently implemented due to lack of funding, scheduling issues and logistical challenges (Griffin, 2017; Hsu and Li, 2017, p. 108).

Various authors noted how due to the complexity of the tourism field with its diverse stakeholder interests, *quality assurance* in tourism programmes posed considerable challenges (Airey, et al., 2015; Oktadiana and Chon, 2017, pp. 284–285). Several international accreditation schemes have been developed such as the UNWTO TedQual (UNWTO, n.d.b) or the recent THE-ICE: International centre of Excellence in Tourism and Hospitality Education (THE-ICE, n.d.). However, as several authors note, there is no consensus among tourism educators (Hsu, Xiao and Chen, 2017) with regard to core learning content (Canziani, et al., 2012), performance criteria, professional standards, or the adoption of a universally accepted accreditation agency (Dredge, et al., 2013, p. 96).

Author Sheldon (2015, p. 172) highlights that in order for EfS to be effective in tourism, educators needed to keep up to date with current ideological, pedagogical as well as technological developments in the field. Although technology is rapidly changing the face of the educational landscape, scholars

reported that tourism programmes have failed to keep up with this trend (Hsu, 2015; Murphy, et al., 2017, p. 154). Similarly, Munar and Bødker (2015, pp. 109–110) argue that even though information technology plays a central role in the phenomenological world of tourism, it has yet to be adequately integrated into tourism's epistemological world. Where technology has been implemented in tourism programmes, this was found to be typically in the form of e-learning software, social media, web-based communication platforms, mobile devices, podcasts, virtual tours and simulation software (Hsu and Li, 2017, p. 110).

The use of technology in the tourism classroom is seen as in alignment with the current *Zeitgeist* which has shifted toward more constructivist and collaborative approaches to tourism education (Benckendorff and Moscardo, 2015, p. 279; Sheldon, 2015, pp. 170–171). Marchiori and Cantoni (2015) highlight how online learning tools facilitate collaborative and experiential learning and also improve intercultural competencies by connecting tourism students with global communities. Web 2.0 technology is also seen to play an important role by facilitating learning and the exchange of knowledge through networks, blogs, wikis, and social media (Miralbell, 2014, p. 56; Montserrat, 2014, p. 15; Tribe and Liburd, 2016, p. 51).

Further ideas for online learning in tourism-related studies include the use of smartphone applications to gain access to digital geography resources and better understand spatial patterns (Falk, 2016, p. 1), or to facilitate collaborative learning about cultural heritage sites (Fermoso, et al., 2015). Another innovative idea exploits online geodata using geovisualisation tools and geocollaborative portals in collaborative e-learning tourism courses (Sigala, 2012). Villarejo, et al. (2014) described how augmented reality enhanced student engagement in real-life projects that resulted in the creation of digital points of interest in Spain. The use of QR codes (bar code technology) was seen to improve learning by enabling quick access to additional digital content on more challenging topics (Kou and Lui, 2019).

Simulations were seen as a particularly effective educational tool for ST education. They provide a safe place for students to try out creative solutions to

complex CSR or sustainability issues thereby honing critical reflection and ethical decision-making skills (Benckendorff and Moscardo, 2015, p. 280). Simulation software such as *OpenSim* or the *Google Field Trip App* offered cost-effective, life-like field trip experiences and underscored a collaborative learning approach (Schott, 2015, pp. 214–215).

Best practice examples illustrating how online technologies promote ST education are provided by BEST EN (BEST EN, n.d.) and INNTOUR (INNTOUR, n.d.) who offer free educational materials and opportunities for stakeholder networking on their sites (Murphy, et al., 2017, p. 158). Holladay (2017, pp. 146–148) describes how TEFI values could be effectively integrated into tourism curricula using online technologies.

A common theme running through related literature was how the use of educational technology in tourism can contribute to the achievement of the SD goals. Through cost-sharing, online programmes could permit a more cost effective and broader access to HE than traditional brick and mortar institutions (O'Mahony and Salmon, 2015). Furthermore, with online courses, students could have reduced mobility expenses, equal access to high-quality instructors and electronic materials, and could set their own learning pace (Šlaus and Jacobs, 2011, pp. 127–128; Hsu, 2018, p. 183). Technical savvy was also seen as essential for preparing students for responsible leadership in the tourism industry, by equipping them with the knowledge, practice and vocational competencies to cope with sustainability-related communication systems (Ali, Murphy and Nadkarni, 2018, p. 135).

Massive Open Online Courses or MOOCs as a relatively new educational tool have also gained attention in tourism scholarship (Murphy, et al., 2017, p. 154). Again, however, tourism programmes are lagging behind: from a worldwide count of 4,121 MOOCs, these authors found only 25 MOOCs (0.6 percent) offered in tourism and hospitality, of which just four (0.1 percent) had sustainability-related content (Murphy, et al., 2017, p. 159). Further critic is expressed by these authors was the relatively low MOOC completion rate of around 10 percent, and the fact that MOOCs tended to originate from English-speaking, male dominated, elitist universities (Murphy, et al., 2017, p. 164).

Additional challenges confronting MOOCs included a potential lack of combined technical and tourism expertise (Munar and Bødker, 2015, pp. 108–109), quality assurance issues, funding, as well as the formal accreditation of study programmes (O'Mahony and Salmon, 2015, pp. 135–137).

Conclusion

The preceding discussion shows that there is increasing recognition among tourism scholars that in addition to the widely accepted concept of employability, sustainability issues need to be more effectively integrated into tourism curricula. As discussed, more attention has been given in the past decade to the ontological, epistemology, and pedagogical approaches to ST education. However, as this section also revealed, there is a dearth of literature pertaining to what extent sustainability has been incorporated into tourism programmes. This thesis aims to contribute to research in this area, by focusing on how sustainability has been incorporated into tourism programmes in SSA. Furthermore, it will develop a framework for ST education that is informed by the scholarship reviewed in this section and also by tourism stakeholder perspectives which is the next area of investigation.

2.3 Exploring the Impacts of Stakeholders in the Tourism Sector

2.3.1 Stakeholder Theory in the Organisational Context

The preceding discussion illustrated that despite scholarly discussions pertaining to what constitutes effective ST education, the employability paradigm continues to dominate in tourism studies. This section continues with this theme and explores how stakeholder influence, a ubiquitous theme in tourism scholarship, can offer explanations for this apparent paradox. However, in order to understand the dimensions and dynamics of stakeholder influence in the tourism context, a brief review of relevant models and concepts of stakeholder theory (SHT) is necessary.

As defined in section 1.4, this study adopts the broadly accepted definition of SHT as one that describes the interaction of human actors engaged in value co-creation which, through the alignment of values, norms, and ethics, contributes to efficient and effective organisations. Thus SHT can be seen as a

comprehensive view of business that reflects an awareness of short and long term societal impacts (Freeman, Phillips and Sisodia, 2018, p. 7).

Accredited to the Stanford Research Institute in 1963, SHT was originally designed as a business strategy tool but has since been applied to diverse areas such as finance, accounting, marketing, business law, public policy as well as environmentalism (Freeman, et al., 2010). This broad application of SHT to a myriad of fields and disciplines has led, however, to some scepticism among scholars with regard to its validity as a theory (Barney and Harrison, 2018, pp. 2–3).

A renewed interest in SHT in the 1990s brought forth further refinements and concepts to the field. SHT was defined as *descriptive* in that it describes the functions, interactions and interests of stakeholders in an organisation; *instrumental* in that it establishes a framework for the management of the various stakeholder interests in order to achieve performance goals; and *normative* in that it accepts the interests of stakeholders as legitimate and of intrinsic value, that is, existing in its own right and not merely as a means to promote the interests of others (Donaldson and Preston, 1995, pp. 66–67). Other authors emphasized that SHT reflects a collaborative approach by crossing institutional and disciplinary boundaries (Berman and Johnson-Cramer, 2017, p. 2) and a normative approach by considering the moral and ethical dimensions of organisations (Friedman and Miles, 2002, p. 3; Phillips, Freeman and Wicks, 2003; Freeman, et al., 2010).

Various stakeholder models have since been developed that attempt to explain the dynamics of stakeholder interactions. Extending the social contract model of Archer (1995), authors Friedman and Miles (2002) offer explanations of how and to what extent stakeholders influence organisations as well as how this influence can change over time. According to this model, the interactions between the various stakeholders and the organisation is determined on the one hand, by motivations or *interests*, and on the other, by relationships or *connections*. The stakeholder interests are further classified as either *compatible* or *incompatible* with the organisation which in turn will determine the extent to which these groups collaborate or conflict with each other in the

pursuit of goals. The stakeholder connections within the organisation are further defined as either *necessary* or *contingent*. Whereas necessary stakeholders are internal to the organisation, contingent stakeholders are external or not fully integrated (Friedman and Miles, 2002, pp. 5–6).

The model illustrates how stakeholders whose personal interests are supported by the overall success of the organisation and who hold key or ‘necessary’ positions (such as top managers, business partners and shareholders) will tend to be the most powerful. Conversely, on the other end of the spectrum are stakeholders whose interests are conflicting or ‘incompatible’ with those of the organisation. Conflicting interests could revolve around environmental or social impacts as well as the use of resources. Lacking contracts and institutional support, the influence of this contingent stakeholder group is usually weak. These stakeholders may include NGOs, community members, or aggrieved public members.

The model has been useful in explaining stakeholder dynamics in the real world. Using the example of the NGO Greenpeace, the model illustrates how this organisation through seeking alliances, media work and increased professionalism was able to gain public support and thereby increase their influence within large corporations.

Thus SHT can contribute to our understanding of the power dynamics of stakeholder relationships and thereby offers valuable insights for this study. It demonstrates that business interests dominate because these powerful stakeholders tend to have more decision-making power in organisations. Furthermore, it offers reasons for the lack of voice and participation of less influential stakeholders who are potentially impacted by these decisions. The reviewed model by Friedman and Miles (2002) underscores that increasing empowerment for less influential stakeholders involves learning how to organise, network and effectively utilise resources.

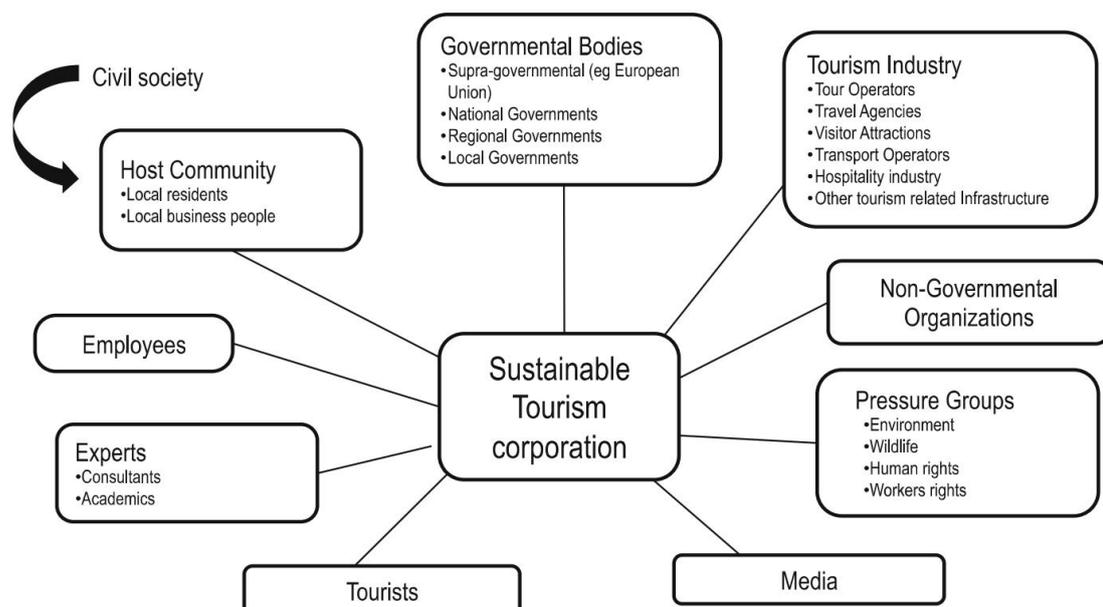
2.3.2 Stakeholder Management in the Tourism Sector

Not only in business management but also in the field of tourism, stakeholder concepts have gained much attention. Especially in the phenomenological field of tourism, stakeholder management has become a well-established theme

(Moscardo, 2011; Hardy and Pearson, 2018, p. 247). However, more recently scholars have begun to draw connections between SHT and the field of SD (Hörisch, Freeman and Schaltegger, 2014, p. 341). Both concepts are seen to embrace a collaborative approach (Saito and Ruhanen, 2017, p. 190), as well as an ethics-based approach which considers the long term socio-cultural and environmental impacts of economic activities (Hörisch, Freeman and Schaltegger, 2014, p. 331).

Applying stakeholder concepts to ST development, Jamal and Camargo (2018, p. 207) note that tourism development crosses spatial, temporal and cultural boundaries that requires the coordination of diverse stakeholder interests and values. Dredge emphasized that tourism stakeholders with differing sets of priorities, resources and power needed to build trust and mutual respect to be effective in tourism development (Dredge, 2015, p. 76). To alleviate poverty through tourism development, stakeholder approaches are advocated that include vulnerable and marginalized communities (Kamp and Mangalasseri, 2017, p. 13). Lund-Durlacher maps out key stakeholders in the field of tourism in Figure 11 and describes how all of these are considered instrumental in developing and implementing CSR strategies and projects (2015a, p. 64).

Figure 11: Stakeholder Approach to Corporate Social Responsibility



Adapted from Swarbrooke (2005, p. 17); Lund-Durlacher (2015a, p. 64).

Adopting a more critical stance, several authors argue that the stakeholder approach has yet to be fully implemented in tourism development and that in reality top down approaches prevail (Canada, et al., 2017b). There is also scholarly discord with regard to the extent of stakeholder participation in tourism projects, with various authors criticizing the insufficient inclusion of either government officials (Benckendorff and Moscardo, 2015, p. 275) or destination communities (Domínguez-Gómez and González-Gómez, 2017). Lyon, Hunter-Jones and Warnaby note that from the four main stakeholder groups of tourists, residents, local government and entrepreneurs, that NGO voices are all too often neglected although they are seen as particularly important for ST projects (Lyon, Hunter-Jones and Warnaby, 2017, p. 237).

A major barrier to stakeholder management in tourism, according to several scholars, are differing stakeholder interpretations and a lack of common vision with respect to the concept of sustainability (Sakellari and Skanavis, 2013; Budeanu, et al., 2016, p. 288; Hatipoglu, Alvarez and Ertuna, 2016; Hultman and Säwe, 2016). This difficulty is attributed to the fragmented, diverse, and cross-boundary nature of tourism (Moscardo, 2015b, p. 38) and is further exacerbated by the fact that even within their groups, stakeholders do not necessarily share the same views (Hardy and Pearson, 2018, pp. 255–256). Others conclude that despite the general consensus regarding the relevance and urgency of sustainability in tourism, competing stakeholder interests and power differentials have made a shared vision very difficult to achieve (Wijesinghe, 2014, p. 32; Hatipoglu, Alvarez and Ertuna, 2016, p. 316).

Issues relating to *power*, *influence* and *saliency* are recurring themes not only in the mainstream stakeholder literature but also in the tourism stakeholder discourse (Lyon, Hunter-Jones and Warnaby, 2017, p. 235). *Power* was defined hereby as the ability to impose one's will or interest over others and *saliency* as the urgency attributed to particular stakeholder claims. Saito and Ruhanen (2017, pp. 189–190) note that research indicates a lack of agreement on the types of power involved in tourism stakeholder collaborations although understanding the dynamics of power was seen as crucial for ST development. These authors described four types of power in tourism: (1) *coercive power* possessed by the public sector and exerted through policies and regulations, (2)

legitimate power possessed by the tourism industry sector such as destination management organisations and airlines and exerted through campaigns, media and other events, (3) *induced power* possessed by governments and exerted through the allocation of funds, and (4) *competent power* possessed by research and educational institutions and exerted through trainings and study programmes (Saito and Ruhanen, 2017, p. 194).

Domínguez-Gómez and González-Gómez (2017) distinguished between *primary stakeholders* who were influential and held broad decision-making power, and *secondary stakeholders* who were less influential and possessed limited, localized decision-making power. These authors note that the views put forward by influential stakeholders conformed to traditional growth-led development discourse whereas non-influential stakeholders took a more critical and differentiated perspective, juxtaposing the positive economic benefits with the potentially negative impacts on local values, culture and environment (Domínguez-Gómez and González-Gómez, 2017). Adopting a similar narrative, Lyon, Hunter-Jones and Warnaby (2017) discussed power in terms of *active* stakeholders who influenced tourism development decisions and *passive* stakeholders who were influenced by these policies. For these authors, tourism development was interconnected with critical discourse relating to social conflict, to control as well as to unequal power and knowledge distribution among stakeholders.

Increasing stakeholder influence and power through knowledge was a common theme running throughout the ST development literature, and thus of particular relevance for this thesis. Several authors highlighted how stakeholder legitimacy and participation could be improved with education programmes (Hatipoglu, Alvarez and Ertuna, 2016, p. 316; McComb, Boyd and Boluk, 2017, p. 288). Authors Slocum, Dimitrov and Webb (2019) note that although government officials are recognized as key stakeholders in tourism development, they are often criticized for their lack of relevant knowledge and experience in the practice of tourism. Criticism was also directed at NGOs who, although knowledgeable with regard to environmental and cultural issues, were seen to be deficient in the business and financial aspects of tourism (Benckendorff and Moscardo, 2015, p. 277). In particular, the education of

destination community stakeholders was seen as crucial for increasing empowerment in tourism decision-making processes (Dredge, 2015, pp. 77–78; Moscardo and Murphy, 2015, p. 135). Still others argued for ST education on all stakeholder levels including tourists, residents, entrepreneurs, and local government (Sakellari and Skanavis, 2013, pp. 9–10; Cárdenas, Byrd and Duffy, 2015, p. 264).

Imperative for sustainable tourism development, according to Novelli and Jones (2017, p. 30), was providing quality education that aimed to nurture experts and teachers well versed in all aspects of the tourism business such as management, entrepreneurship, environmental issues and cultural studies. Although tourism stakeholders were frequently mentioned in the TE curricula discourse (Oktadiana and Chon, 2017, p. 281), others point out that tourism educators have tended to dominate the discussion and call for a fuller inclusion of all stakeholder perspectives (Dredge, et al., 2015, p. 58; Lewis-Cameron, 2015, p. 96; McComb, Boyd and Boluk, 2017). Taking a more cautious stance, Lyytinen, et al. (2017) point out that stakeholder discourse in the HE context is in its nascence and that balancing the various stakeholder interests poses a real challenge. According to these authors, HE's dependency on influential stakeholders such as funding bodies and industry may lead to contesting ideas with regard to appropriate curricula content and quality standards (Lyytinen, et al., 2017). Acknowledging the problematic, Kettunen (2015) counters that neglecting stakeholder relationships in HE strategies likewise runs the risk of insufficient quality assurance in HE.

Conclusion

From the preceding discussion, it becomes apparent that SHT offers a rich context for explaining stakeholder impacts both in the business management as well as in the tourism development field. The brief description of selected concepts and models, demonstrate that SHT and ST have overlapping concerns relating to egalitarianism, inclusive collaboration and ethical business practices. Additionally, SHT acknowledges the crucial role of education—also TE—for equipping tourism stakeholders with the necessary knowledge to become fully active and competent participants in ST development decision-

making. This section has highlighted how gaining an understanding of the stakeholder saliency, influence, and power issues can provide valuable insights into the dynamics of stakeholder impacts on tourism curricula. These insights will be juxtaposed with the findings from the stakeholder surveys and interviews in Chapter 4, and will furthermore inform the proposed framework.

2.4 The Sub Saharan African Context

As has been previously noted, tourism curricula are not developed in a vacuum, but need to be aligned to the context of their application. Therefore, section 2.4.1 will provide an overview of the economic importance of tourism for SSA before turning to, in section 2.4.2, a discussion of the current challenges facing the TE landscape in SSA as well as the strategies that have been developed to resolve these.

2.4.1 The Economic Significance of the Tourism Sector

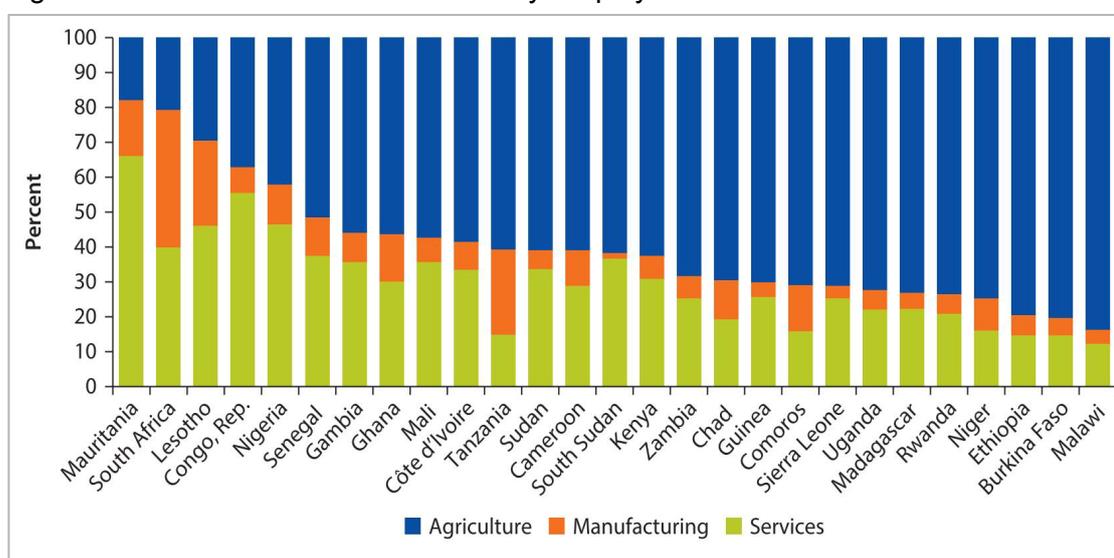
Poverty is perhaps the most prominent aspect dominating the international development community discourse with regard to SSA. In 2015, it was estimated that more 40 percent of the population still live on an income of less than \$1.25 per day. Around 80 percent of the world's most impoverished people are reported to be living in either Asia and SSA (United Nations, 2015a, p. 15).

Other studies in the last decade have painted a more promising perspective heralding SSA as a “continent of opportunities” with reported improvements in the field of primary and secondary education, positive socio-economic changes and strong GDP growth (British Council, 2014, pp. 2–3; World Bank Group, 2017b, pp. xii–xiv). Economic growth in SSA increased in 2017 from 2.3 percent to 2.7 percent in 2018, and forecasts for the region remain positive (World Bank Group, 2019, p. 1). Reasons include increased demand for raw materials, improved political stability and an expanding service sector.

As illustrated in Figure 12, agriculture remains the most prominent economic sector in SSA, employing around half of the total labour force and contributing to around one fifth of the regional GDP (World Bank Group, 2017b, p. 17). However, whereas agriculture's contribution to GDP has been slowly declining

over the past two decades, the tourism industry has contributed to steady growth within the service sector (African Tourism Monitor, 2018, 14). International tourism arrivals increased from 11.5 million in 1995 to 41 million in 2017, representing an annual growth rate of 5.8 percent between 2005-2017 (UNWTO, 2018b, p. 5). In 2017, tourism's total contribution to GDP was 7.1 percent and to employment 5.8 percent (WTTC, 2018, p. 1), thereby creating 17.2 million jobs in the region (African Tourism Monitor, 2018, 5). Furthermore, in 2018 increases in international tourist arrivals in SSA grew by 6 percent (UNWTO, 2019a).

Figure 12: Economic Structure of SSA by Employment



World Bank Group (2017b, p. 17)

Table 6 illustrates the tourism sector's total contribution to GDP for the period of 2011-2014 according to data available in the various SSA countries. Three countries stand out in terms of total contribution to GDP: Seychelles with 62 percent, Cabo Verde with 43 percent and Mauritius with 27 percent (UNCTAD, 2017, p. 25). Other countries with a significant tourism industry (contributing 10 to 21 percent of the GDP) were Botswana, Comoros, Ethiopia, Gambia, Kenya, Lesotho, Madagascar, Namibia, Reunion, Senegal, Tanzania and Zimbabwe. Less promising countries with a tourism contribution to GDP of 4 percent or lower included Democratic Republic of the Congo, Gabon, the Niger, Burkina Faso, Chad, Nigeria and Angola, all of which (except for Burkina Faso) are oil exporting countries (UNCTAD, 2017, p. 25). In comparison to 2015, countries with substantial tourist growth rates in 2016 included Sierra Leone with 126

percent, Nigeria with 50.5 percent, Burundi with 42.7 percent, Eritrea with 24.6 percent, Togo with 23.8 percent and Madagascar with 20 percent (African Development Bank Group, 2019, p. 1). In 2017, continued double-digit growth

Table 6: Total Contribution of Tourism to GDP, by Country, 2011-2014

Country	Share of Tourism in GDP
Angola	4.0
Benin	6.0
Botswana	11.3
Burkina Faso	3.5
Burundi	5.6
Cabo Verde	43.4
Cameroon	6.6
Central African Republic	6.4
Chad	3.8
Comoros	11.9
Democratic Republic of the Congo	1.7
Congo	4.3
Côte d'Ivoire	5.0
Djibouti	...
Equatorial Guinea	...
Eritrea	...
Ethiopia	10.6
Gabon	2.4
Gambia	20.5
Ghana	7.7
Guinea	4.5
Guinea-Bissau	...
Kenya	10.9
Lesotho	13.2
Liberia	...
Madagascar	12.3
Malawi	7.1
Mali	9.4
Mauritania	...
Mauritius	26.7
Mozambique	7.2
Narnibia	14.7
Niger	3.3
Nigeria	4.0
Rwanda	8.7
Sao Tome and Principe (Reunion)	15.9
Senegal	11.4
Seychelles	61.5
Sierra Leone	5.6
Somalia	...
South Africa	9.1
Swaziland	4.3
Togo	8.9
Uganda	8.5
Tanzania	11.0
Zambia	6.3
Zimbabwe	10.9

Adapted from UNCTAD (2017, pp. 24–25).

in tourists arrivals was reported for Seychelles and Cabo Verde as well as for Reunion, and strong growth recorded also for larger tourism destinations such as Kenya, Côte d'Ivoire, Mauritius and Zimbabwe (UNWTO, 2018b, p. 12).

Despite the substantial developments in the sector, the tourism industry in SSA is considered in its nascence with predictions of future potential contributions to GDP running at \$269 billion and new job creation at 29 million by 2026 (African Development Bank Group, 2019). In recognition of the enormous potential as well as risks, regional economic cooperations such as the Organisation of African Unity (OAU) and New Partnership for Africa's Development (NEPAD) have recently put the promotion of tourism, in particular ST, as a priority on the economic agenda (African Tourism Monitor, 2018, 14). One such example is the Tourism Action Plan (TAP) which has the goal of creating an inter-regional ST concept for the African continent (African Tourism Monitor, 2018, 15).

The foregoing discussion of tourism as the engine for economic growth and development underscores the imperative for adequately preparing the next generation of SSA tourism graduates for leadership in this field. This in turn creates new demands for an already strained TE landscape in SSA.

2.4.2 An Overview of the Tertiary Education Landscape

The TE sphere in SSA is confronted with a myriad of challenges that include issues relating to demographic trends, inadequate human resources, low enrolment rates, funding issues and a lack of common quality standards (DAAD, 2014, p. 3).

The demographic changes in the youth population of SSA is of particular relevance for the TE sphere. There was a 16 percent annual youth increase from 1991 to 2006 (Asamoah and Mackin, 2015, p. 12), and forecasts that this youth will culminate in a labour force growth of one billion by 2040. Adequately educated, this youth has the potential to contribute to Africa's economic growth. However, without employment, there is also a high risk of societal and political instability (World Bank Group, 2017b, xiv).

The concomitant increased demand for TE from these young adults creates financial challenges, in particular, for the publicly funded universities (World

Bank Group, 2017c, p. 2). Although there is substantial regional divergence, investing in education is seen as a priority in SSA. As illustrated in Table 7, public education expenditure in SSA for 2017 was 16.5 percent compared to the world average of 14.3 percent; and investment in TE was nearly 10 times higher per student than for primary education (UNESCO, 2018a, p. 237). Despite this investment, however, demand for TE in SSA is reported to be far higher than supply (World Bank Group, 2017b, xvi). Furthermore, several scholars doubt whether meeting the increased TE needs can be carried without sacrifices in the quality of education (Marmolejo, 2016, p. 23).

Table 7: Public Education Expenditure by Country Income and Region

	As share of GDP (%)	As share of total public expenditure (%)	Per student (constant 2015 PPP US\$)		
			Primary education	Number of illiterate (millions)	Tertiary education
World	4.4	14.1	2,028	2,716	4,322
Sub-Saharan Africa	4.1	16.5	268	476	2,485
Western Asia and Northern Africa	3.8	12.3	4,392	4,911	5,150
Central and Southern Asia	3.9	15.7	764	1,048	1,951
Eastern and South-eastern Asia	3.4	13.5	2,645	7,700	6,165
Latin America and the Caribbean	5.1	18.0	1,800	2,287	2,517
Oceania	4.7	14.1
Europe and Northern America	4.8	11.6	7,416	7,890	8,621
Low income	4.0	16.1	194	276	1,675
Lower middle income	4.4	16.4	985	1,104	2,029
Upper middle income	4.1	13.9	2,155	2,498	3,185
High income	4.9	12.9	7,990	8,955	10,801

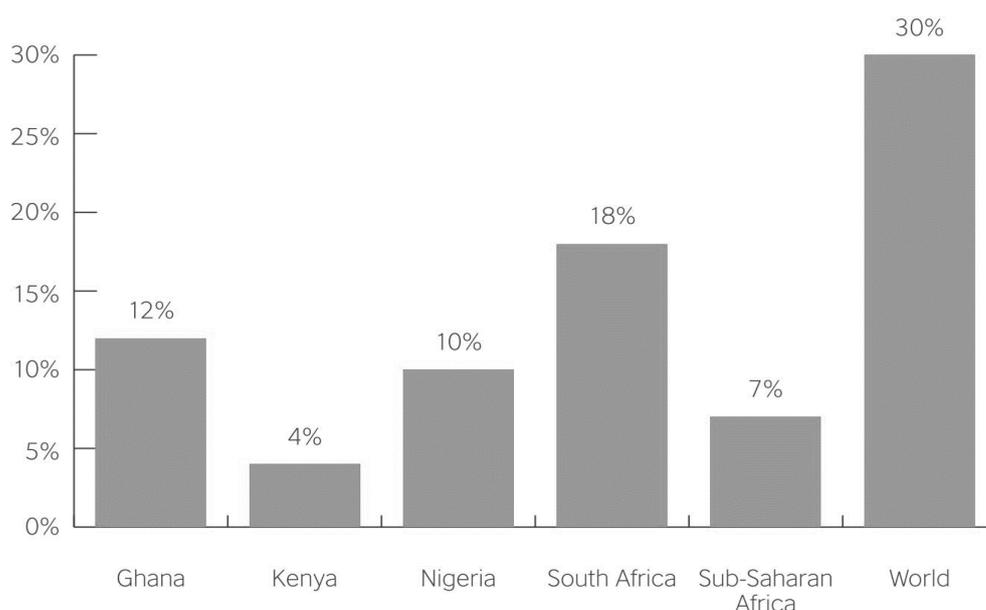
UNESCO (2018a, p. 236)

Similarly, other authors question whether the rapidly growing number of private TE institutions which have sprung up in response to the burgeoning TE demand can adequately meet national quality standards (Bloom, Canning and Luca, 2014, p. 32). According to Oketch, McCowan and Schendel (2014, pp. 31–32), not only the quantity, but also the quality of TE is crucial to facilitate the economic growth needed for Africa to catch up globally. The region was reported to be critically short of skilful, experienced and disciplined academic staff to teach in universities (Asamoah and Mackin, 2015), with currently 50 percent more students per lecturer than the global average (British Council,

2014, p. 3). There were also calls for qualified TE staff to train teachers for other levels of education where quality was also reported to be notoriously low (Global Education Monitoring, 2019, p. 1). The problems are further exacerbated by brain drain: an estimated one third of all graduates leave SSA and frequently do not return (Engelhardt, 2018). This lack of scholars, in turn, results in fewer academic publications and research – much needed to help position African universities in the global academic community (Bloom, Canning and Luca, 2014, p. 28; Asamoah and Mackin, 2015). A review of world university rankings revealed that none of the African universities were listed in the top 500 institutions (World Bank Group, 2014).

The enrolment rates in SSA were also seen as a further critical issue in the TE landscape. Even with recent rapid increases, enrolment in this region remains one of the lowest globally (Asamoah and Mackin, 2015, p. 7). Since 1965, enrolment increased from 1 percent (World Bank, 2000) to just 7 percent today (see Figure 13). However, again there are wide disparities between countries, with Malawi, Chad, Niger and Tanzania reaching not more than 2 percent TE enrolment in 2010 (Bloom, Canning and Luca, 2014, p. 27) and contrastingly, South African with TE enrolment scoring as high as 18 percent (British Council, 2014, p. 4).

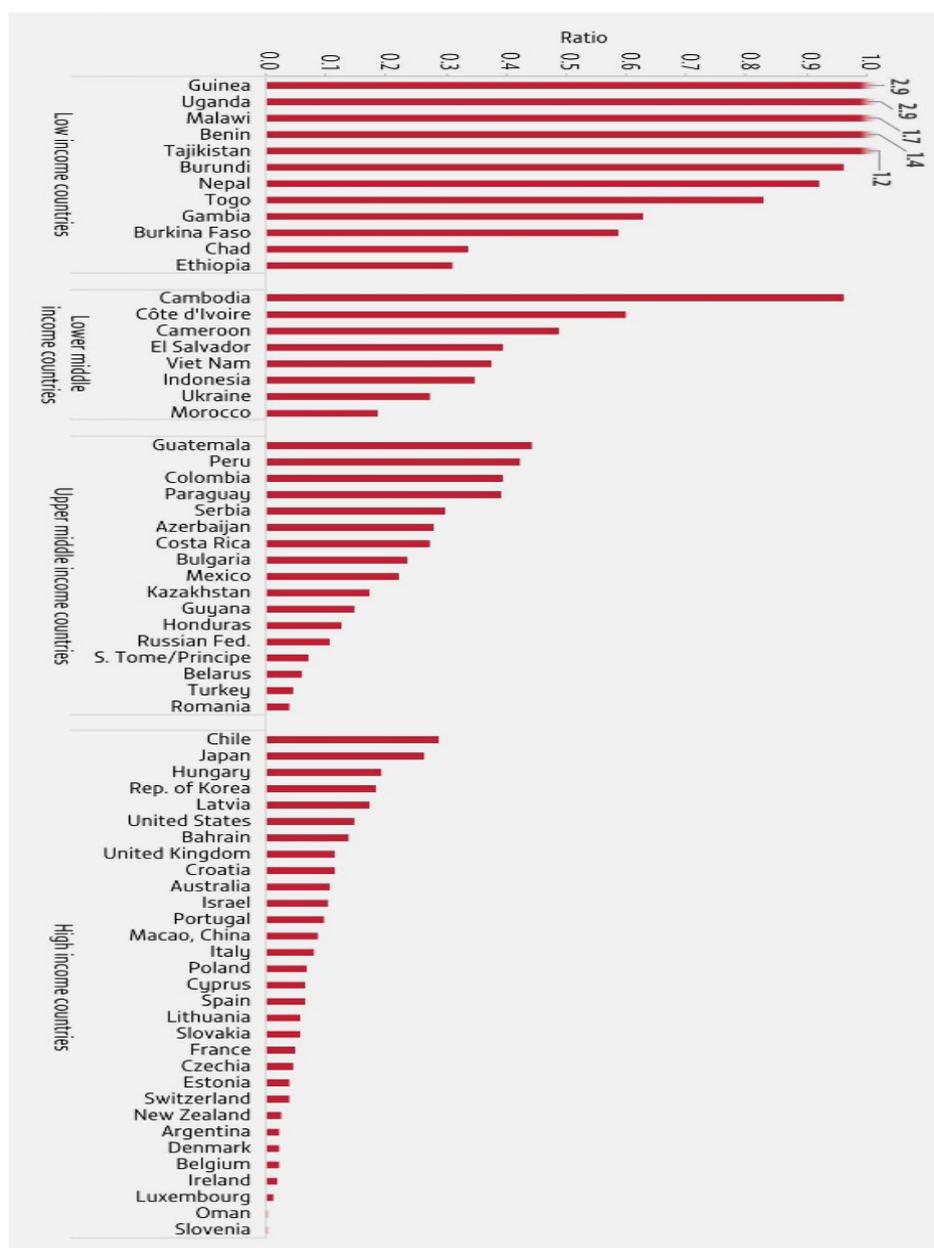
Figure 13: Tertiary Education Enrollment Rates in SSA



UIS (2014); British Council (2014, p. 4)

High costs are seen to be one of the major causes for the low TE enrolment rates. As depicted in Figure 14, TE is the most affordable in Europe and least affordable in SSA, with net private costs exceeding 60 percent of the average national income in 7 out of 11 SSA countries (UNESCO, 2018a, pp. 148–149), inevitably excluding students from lower income households (World Bank Group, 2017c, p. 2). It also more frequently results in the exclusion of

Figure 14: Ratio of Household Expenditure per Tertiary Education student to Average National Income for Selected Countries, 2006-2015



UNESCO (2018a, p. 149)

females rather than males (World Bank Group, 2017b, xiv): Only an estimated 38 percent of all TE enrolments in SSA are female (British Council, 2014, p. 3).

Frequently debated in connection to TE in SSA is the high unemployment rate among graduates. Several authors questioned, however, the accuracy of this claim, pointing to a lack of empirical data (British Council, 2014, p. 5) or structural changes in labour markets as plausible explanations (Oanda and Ngcwangu, 2018, p. 271). Authors Oketch, McCowan and Schendel (2014, p. 39) reported on studies conducted in Malawi, Tanzania, Uganda, and Zimbabwe and that found all graduates were employed in positions directly related to their university education (Oketch, McCowan and Schendel, 2014, p. 39). Contrastingly, others scholars argue that graduate unemployability is the direct consequence of a skills mismatch and lack of close collaboration with industry (Engelhardt, 2018). In line with current mainstream TE discourse, curriculum content in SSA is also seen to be too theoretical, not problem-based and not in alignment with industry needs (Asamoah and Mackin, 2015). Criticism was also directed at the tourism sector for a lack of national coordination of quality criteria and curricula content (Novelli and Jones, 2017, p. 28). A recent study by the African Center for Economic Transformation (2016) revealed that 50 percent of the 10 million graduates from universities in Africa do not get jobs, and that, in general, TE graduates from SSA needed longer to find employment than in other regions (Oanda and Ngcwangu, 2018, p. 266). Still other scholars criticized the market-driven approach in SSA, arguing that HE's mission is to serve humanity rather than industry (Mayaka and Akama, 2015).

The role of African universities, which were established in the late colonial era, has traditionally been to educate prospective employees for the public sector, leaving vocational training to tertiary colleges. The male dominance reflective of the colonial era is held responsible, in part, for the extant gender inequalities prevalent in TE in SSA (World Bank Group, 2017b, p. 29). Further criticism is directed at past hegemonic influences on the emerging TE systems which have resulted in a TE disconnect to indigenous and traditional African forms of knowledge and education (Mayaka and Akama, 2015, p. 238).

More recently, education discourse in Africa has focussed on the critical role of TE for securing economic success and long term development (Asamoah and Mackin, 2015, p. 7; Nyerere, et al., 2016, pp. 17–18; Hansen, Matiang'i and Ziob, 2017, p. 1). After years of focussing on primary and secondary education, the international development community has shifted its focus to TE, also in SSA. The World Bank committed to increasing the TE allocation of total education spending from 7 percent in 1999 to 30 percent in 2008 (Bloom, Canning and Luca, 2014, pp. 28–29). In particular, China (Engelhardt, 2018) and Germany (DAAD, 2014, p. 4) have become increasingly active in SSA, forging numerous partnerships with African TE institutions in the last decade.

Although many of the SSA countries have their own national initiatives, several significant inter-regional commitments and strategies have been developed to address TE challenges on a broader scale. A selection of these are provided in Table 8. Common themes running throughout these initiatives relate to inter-regional quality assurance and accreditation, improving research strategies, increasing student and faculty mobility, forging industry collaborations, increasing STEM subjects and improving African TE competitiveness in the global arena.

These initiatives all underscore a strong commitment to improving TE and thus to promoting SDG 4: ensuring inclusive and quality education for all.

Table 8: Inter-regional Strategies for HE Reform in Africa

Timeframe	Description	Objectives
1968	The Africa and Malagasy Council for Higher Education (CAMES). Consists of 19 member nations in Francophone countries in Africa.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Integration of HE systems • Coordination and standardization of operations in emerging universities • Quality assurance (CAMES, n.d.)
1980	Inter-University Council for East Africa (IUCEA)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Facilitate networking among universities in East Africa and other regions • Establish internationally comparable education standards (Inter-University Council for East Africa, n.d.)
1981	Arusha Convention in Arusha, Tanzania	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Provides legal framework for the recognition of studies and degrees in HE in Africa • Promotes close cooperation among the HE initiatives • Adopts criteria for comparability of credits, certificates, diplomas and degrees

		(UNESCO, 1981)
2004	Accra Declaration on General Agreement on Trade in Services (GATS) and the internationalization of HE in Africa. Conference with participants from 16 African countries, Europe, the Middle East and Canada.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Explore implications of GATS for HE in Africa • Identification of research gaps • Promote internationalisation (Association of African Universities, 2004)
2005	Southern African Regional Universities Association (SARUA) Association of Vice-Chancellors of public and private universities in the Southern African Development Community (SADC). Consists of 57 members from 14 countries.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Act as a catalyst for innovation in HE in SADC • Develop collaborative networks and partnerships • Strengthen interaction between HE and industry • Develop a shared agenda for region (SARUA, n.d.a; SARUA -, n.d.c)
2006-2015	Maputo Declaration of the Second Decade of Education for Africa	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Develop education management information systems • Focus on tertiary, technical and vocational education • Quality management • Second Decade of Education Action Plan emphasized role of HE for sustainable development (African Union, 2006; Jowi, et al., 2013)
2007	The Nyerere Programme, African Union (AU) together with the European Union (EU)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Increase access to HE • Promote the intra-African integration of students through scholarship and mobility initiatives (Nyerere programme, 2011)
2009	The African Quality Assurance Network (AfriQAN) Initiative of Association of African Universities (AAU) and the Global Initiative for Quality Assurance Capacity (GIQAC).	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Foster collaboration between quality assurance bodies within Africa • Facilitate international recognition of qualifications (Association of African Universities, 2019)
2011	The Pan-African University (PAU). Initiative of the AU.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Promote research and innovative capacity in five regions • Increase science, technology, innovation, social sciences and governance programmes • Enhance the mobility of students and academic staff. (African Union, 2011a)
2011	African Harmonization and Tuning Project In Nairobi, Kenya Collaboration between African Union Commission (AUC), European Commission, and key HE stakeholders	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Harmonize of political, functional and organizational processes in HE in Africa • Consider applicability of Bologna Process (African Union, 2011b)
2013	<i>Convention on recognition of studies, certificates, diplomas and degrees in HE in Africa</i> AUC Initiative in Addis Ababa, Ethiopia	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Reaffirm understanding and cooperation among African peoples (as proclaimed in AU) • Focus on Second Decade of Education for Africa (2006-2015) goals • Encourage internal and external quality assurance mechanisms • Harmonize accreditation systems

		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Facilitate student and faculty mobility • Incorporate Information and Communication Technologies (ICT) (UNESCO, 2014b; 2017a, p. 1)
2014	The African Centers of Excellence (ACE) World Bank committed \$150 million to finance 24 ACE's in 8 countries in West and Central Africa.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Promote advanced skills and knowledge in science, technology, engineering and mathematics disciplines • Improve competitiveness in international markets (World Bank Group, 2014; 2015, p. 2; 2017c, p. 3)
2016/2017	<i>German Academic Exchange Service (DAAD) with SARUA</i> in Addis ababa, Ethiopia. Cooperation with Southern African Quality Assurance Network (SAQAN) and Pan-African Quality Assurance and Accreditation Framework (PAQAF)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Promote quality assurance in SADC • Establish African Standards Guidelines • Define HE activities for 2015-2020 • Capacity building • Strengthen synergies and co-operations (SARUA -, n.d.c; DAAD, 2014, p. 2)
2017	<i>Partnership for Skills in Applied Sciences, Engineering and Technology (PASET)</i> in Nairobi, Kenya. Involves investors from China, Korea and India.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Rebalance HE to include more applied sciences, engineering and technology programmes • Collaborate with governments, financiers and private sector (Hansen, Matiang'i and Ziob, 2017, p. 2)
2017	<i>Kilgari Initiative</i> Conference of HE officials and governments	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Address funding, infrastructure and quality challenges in Africa • Position at least 25 African universities among world top 300 by 2030 • Recognize the potential of ICTs for HE • Contribute to SDGs and Agenda 2063 (Kigali Conference, 2017)

Although sustainability issues have not yet been given a prominent role in TE policy making, some progress has been reported with regard to teaching and research initiatives (UNESCO, 2014c). One notable example is the Education for Sustainable Development in Africa (ESDA) programme in which eight SSA universities in collaboration with the Africa Development Bank (AfDB) created curricula based on sustainability-related content and concepts (Nyerere, et al., 2016, p. 27). Gaining more attention in TE reforms is the potential offered by application of Information Communication Technologies (ICTs) which was reported to reduce costs, provide quality education in rural areas, and address equity issues and infrastructure challenges (Asamoah and Mackin, 2015). Since the founding of the African Virtual University in 1997, several countries in SSA have embraced ICT based programmes and open universities including Ghana (Distance Learning and Open Schooling), and also South Africa, Nigeria, Tanzania, Zambia and Zimbabwe (Bloom, Canning and Luca, 2014, pp. 41–42;

Asamoah and Mackin, 2015). Authors Mayaka and Akama (2015, 237) note that distance learning is a “double-edged sword” which, on the one hand, provides African students with broader access to HE, but on the other hand, runs the risk of losing valuable tuition fees to foreign online universities.

In conclusion, there is a general consensus within Africa and the international development community that TE in the region is in a state of crisis and in urgent need of reform (Bloom, Canning and Luca, 2014; World Bank Group, 2017b, p. 25). The lack of accurate statistical data on TE in SSA makes reliable policy making additionally difficult (British Council, 2014, p. 7), and although attempts have been undertaken by AUC to address these deficiencies, these have to date had limited success (Oanda and Ngcwangu, 2018, pp. 262–263). The TE landscape across African countries remains highly fragmented, with much variance in quality standards and university processes (SARUA, n.d.b; DAAD, 2014, p. 3). Table 8 demonstrates that there are numerous sub regional TE collaborations such as the CAMES, IUCEA, SADC, and SARAU. The lack of a joint, cohesive TE policy, compounded by the fact that many countries have yet to implement national-level quality assurance systems, poses continuing challenges for a continent-wide harmonisation of TE systems (Woldegiorgis, Jonck and Goujon, 2015, pp. 247–248).

Chapter conclusion

From the brief overview of the economic importance of the tourism industry for SSA, it becomes clear that, adequately managed, the industry has much potential for contributing to the long term growth and SD of the region. Section 2.4.1 underscored the imperative for educating for leadership in the ST field. Section 2.4.2 drew attention to the current multifold challenges confronting TE systems in SSA. It is within this context, that EfS in tourism curricula must evolve. The current status of academic tourism studies in SSA with respect to sustainability content is the focus of Chapter 4. Prior to this, Chapter 3 provides a description of the research methodology adopted for this study.

3 METHODOLOGY

“The knowable world is incomplete if seen from any one point of view, incoherent if seen from all points of view at once, and empty if seen from nowhere in particular” (Shweder, 2003).

As described at the beginning of this thesis, this study aims to assess the status of ST education in SSA. With this purpose in mind, this study investigates, firstly, the extent to which sustainability content is currently being integrated into tourism degree programmes; and secondly, the relevance of these programmes from the perspective of tourism stakeholders. This chapter commences with a description of the methodology which forms the broader strategy and underlying philosophy of the study (Bailey, 2008), before providing a description of the specific methods of data collection and analysis.

3.1 Framing the Research and Researcher

This research begins with reflections on paradigmatic positionality as this will inevitably influence the choice of, design, and possibly the findings of the study (Hesse-Biber and Leavy, 2011, p. 36). As described in chapter one, paradigms refer to a set of beliefs, values, and techniques shared by a community of researchers (Kuhn, 1970) which are informed and framed by ontological, epistemological and axiological considerations. In the context of research, ontology is concerned with how reality is perceived; epistemology considers how knowledge is obtained and constructed as well as the relationship between the researcher and the participants; and axiology examines the values attached to knowledge and how this impacts on the research process (Biddle and Schafft, 2015, p. 321).

Social research adopts a wide variety of paradigms (Bailey, 2008). However, the scientific-positivist, interpretive and critical paradigms are of particular significance when researching tourism curricula (Tribe, p. 2).

Although this study engages with critical studies in connection with ST education (as described in section 2.2.4.2), the central goals of the critical paradigm, that is, exposing power differentials, and promoting societal change and emancipation (Bramwell and Lane, 2014, p. 1) are not the focus of this

study. Rather, the intention is to obtain a combination of objective and subjective insights into ST education in SSA which can best be achieved working within the positivist and interpretative paradigms respectively.

Positivism (also referred to as the scientific-positivism or social science paradigm) has its disciplinary roots in physical science and psychology, and aims to describe and predict studied phenomena. The methods, which are frequently quantitative in nature, involve questionnaires, tests, observation techniques, as well as reviews of previous research to systematically collect data. The ontological approach of this paradigm is that reality can be reduced to tangible, calculable units or variables (Martin, Nakayama and Flores, 2002). The epistemological world view of positivists is that knowledge can only be gained from impartial, objective and value-free research in which the researcher takes on the role of an “outsider” in the research process (Hammersley, 1992).

In contrast, the interpretive paradigm aims to understand and describe rather than to predict studied phenomena. This paradigm has its theoretical underpinnings in the fields of anthropology and philosophy. The ontological approach is to view reality in a more holistic, contextual, and subjective manner. In the context of this paradigm, multiple realities can exist which are seen as dynamic, co-created, and reciprocal in nature (Martin, Nakayama and Flores, 2002, p. 9). The epistemological view of these researchers is that knowledge is best gained through qualitative methods such as by observing or interviewing the research subjects in their natural environment (Altinay and Paraskevas, 2015). Also referred to as ethnography, researchers aspire to gain unique and deep insights into participants’ meanings through close interaction or becoming an ‘insider’ in the research process (Hammersley, 1992).

Reflecting on my own role as a researcher in this study, it becomes apparent that I am influenced by two seemingly contrasting paradigms with respective ontological, epistemological and axiological perspectives. On the one hand, adopting a deductive, positivist approach I intend to objectively identify courses and content relating to sustainability on TE websites. The aim is to acquire factual data which will then be coded and presented in a statistical format. On the other hand, adopting an inductive, interpretivist approach, I wish to gain

multiple perspectives on effective ST education through stakeholder interaction. This empirical data will be obtained through surveys and interviews and will reflect the opinions and values of the participants.

However, not only the values of the participants, but also the values of the researcher can influence the inquiry. Researchers bring into the research their own world views and co-creation of knowledge necessitates that the researchers engage in reflexivity with respect to their own beliefs, values as well as positionality (Bakas, 2017, p. 127). Moon (1996) argues that the positionality of researchers should be made explicit at the outset of the research project as researchers are potentially multi-faceted individuals with differing positionality in terms of gender, social-economic, and ethnic backgrounds, all of which can influence the choice, process and outcomes of their research work.

This concept is particularly relevant for myself when I consider my own positionality with regard to this research. I have a dominant white and a non-dominant black ethnic background; I have a working class socialization and am university educated; I have lived in Germany most of my life and am of British-Caribbean (African and Indian) descent. Furthermore, I am conducting research on TE in SSA from a European university. My responsibility here, as with any researcher, is to reflect on how much my perspective, interaction as well as interpretation of research findings is influenced by this background. Reflections on this are taken up in chapter nine.

Self-reflection work is also called for with regard to the suitability of the adopted paradigmatic framework for myself as the researcher. The combination of the positivist and interpretive paradigms fits well with my professional profile and areas of research interest. I hold a Master's degree in Economics and Business studies, a field of study that frequently places an emphasis on positivistic approaches to research (Altinay and Paraskevas, 2015). I also hold a Master's degree in Intercultural Relations, a field in which ambiguity, multiple realities, and diversity is central. These aspects are more typically associated with interpretive and critical paradigms (Martin, Nakayama and Flores, 2002). As the nexus of where business meets culture has always been at the heart of my teaching and research interests, it is therefore in keeping with this profile that I

adopt a research approach that involves the use of quantitative and qualitative methods for this study in the multifaceted field of ST.

Commenting on research in the context of sustainability, Christie, et al. (2015) confirm that the interdisciplinary nature of the subject warrants the application of both positivist and interpretive research methods. Tilbury (2011, p. 22) notes that sustainability research involving stakeholders needs to be conscious of the dominant “expert” role of the researcher and should aim to adopt inquiry techniques that are “undertaken with people rather than on people.” Thus a mixed research approach is appropriate in this context as it involves combining diverse epistemologies, axiologies and stakeholder perspectives (Mertens, 2014, p. 3). Whereas the quantitative analysis aims to provide a broad, objective overview of current ST education, it is acknowledged that these findings may be restrictive in terms of depth and context (Altinay and Paraskevas, 2015, pp. 89–90). Used in tandem, the qualitative approach aims to reduce this deficiency by including a subjective analysis of stakeholder opinions and experiences (Williams, Hall and Lew, 2014, p. 752).

The adoption of a mixed method approach in this study proved to be conducive to the overall goals of the study. The quantitative data obtained through a web based content analysis provided objective, factual data on the current status of ST education in SSA. This could then juxtaposed with the qualitative, subjective views of how ST *should be* according to tourism stakeholders gained through surveys and personal interviews. Although using quantitative and qualitative methods was time consuming in terms of preparation, implementation and analysis, the insights offered by this approach justified the effort. A detailed discussion of the findings is taken up in chapter 5, 6 and 7. Working within positivist and interpretive paradigms as a researcher had the added advantage that the research process remained engaging. Where collecting data from over a thousand websites for several months ran the risk of becoming tedious, the personal interaction with stakeholders came as a welcome change. On the flip side, making sense and categorising the multiple, diverse statements from the interviews and surveys was certainly more challenging than analysing and presenting the hard data produced in the content analysis. However, once these tasks had been completed, it was

possible to address the central goal of this study which is to assess the current status of ST education in SSA. Thus, in conclusion, although the chosen strategy has advantages and disadvantages, it can be considered successful in achieving the study's objectives and thus is recommended for similar research.

3.2 Phase One: Literature Review

In alignment with Altinay and Paraskevas (2015), the literature review aimed to present the history, vocabulary, employed methodologies, various perspectives as well as relevant theories for this study. This information, presented in an logical, critical and reflective manner, aims to provide the foundation on which the study can be built.

The literature review examines books, journals, press releases, websites, conference proceedings and other scholarly works relevant to the focus of this study. Searches of university library data banks in Africa and Germany provided mostly international works, though African publications were given preference if available. An emphasis was placed on the most recent research, i.e., within the past five years, however, important earlier scholarship such as seminal works were included as appropriate. The overriding objective of the literature review is to provide the broader context, previous research, and relevant theories and models that underscore the motivation and rationale for this study. In particular, the literature highlights critical voices with regard to how ST education is currently being taught and reveals several notable research gaps in the field.

3.3 Phase Two: Content Analysis of Online Tourism Curricula

This next research phase commences with an online content analysis of all accredited TE institutions in SSA. The objective is to assess how well sustainability concepts have been included in tourism curricula in SSA. It is acknowledged that sustainability concepts may be embedded into existing courses without being explicitly referred to, rendering these concepts undetectable in this search. However, the underlying rationale for this analysis strategy is that the explicit, rather than the implicit, signifies the importance given to the sustainability content in curricula. This is in alignment with the arguments presented in studies of sustainability content in tourism curricula by

Chawla (2015, p. 141) who argues that given the potential impact of the tourism industry, sustainability should not play an adjunct or even subordinate role but should be given a prominent and visible position in tourism curricula. In a similar study, also involving a content analysis of sustainability in tourism curricula, a research strategy was adopted based on the assumption that the most important values are those which are most frequently mentioned (Padurean and Maggi, 2011).

Content analysis is a widely established research technique that has been previously employed in a broad array of research disciplines including psychology, sociology, education and business (Berg, 2009). Across the globe, researchers have also endorsed content analysis as an effective technique to investigate sustainability-related content in TE curricula. This has taken on various forms including an examination of course prospectuses in the UK (Busby and Fiedel, 2001), mission statements of graduate programmes around the world (Padurean and Maggi, 2011), tourism curricula analysis in Australia (Day, et al., 2012) and the U.S. (Deale and Barber, 2012), and the table of contents in undergraduate tourism textbooks (Forristal, 2012). More recently, similar to this study, Chawla (2015) analysed information published on official websites of selected British universities. These studies mostly concluded that vocational content was the dominating feature of tourism TE curricula. However, with regard to the study at hand, to date the researcher knows of no similar study involving a content analysis of online tourism programmes in accredited TE institutions in SSA.

Content analysis is seen as an appropriate research strategy for this part of the study as it is considered a flexible method of data collection that can be employed to identify and classify patterns, themes, and meanings in a wide range of textual data including printed materials, survey questions, manuals, books and articles (Berg, 2009). Furthermore, the technique facilitates both quantitative and qualitative data collection and analysis (Neuman, 2014, 371-372). Particularly useful in the context of this study are quantitative, deductive methods that involve the counting of words or phrases using predefined codes, as well as qualitative, inductive methods that allow for themes and patterns to emerge (Krippendorff, 2004).

The technique adopted for the content analysis in this study was a combination of quantitative and qualitative methods. Drawing on a similar study by Slocum, Dimitrov and Webb (2019, p. 37), it began by counting relevant content according to a tentatively defined list that had evolved from the readings in the literature review (see Appendix 1 Initial Coding Scheme). However, this study also integrated other sustainability-related courses as they inductively emerged in the process of the content analysis, as described in previous tourism research by Hsu, Xiao and Chen (2017). These courses were later refined into a final framework of categories in order to facilitate the analysis and presentation of data as provided in chapter 4 as well as the discussion of these as given in chapter 5.

The profile of the population for the content analysis is defined as follows:

- Target Population: All accredited TE institutions in SSA;
- Accessible Population: Tourism curricula published online;
- Inclusion criteria: Bachelor and Master Degree tourism related programmes;
- Exclusion criteria: Non-official website information.

In the process of the content analysis, I undertook the following steps:

- (1) Consulted the German database Anabin and located accredited TE institution web links for each of the SSA countries;
- (2) Created separate Excel worksheets for each of the 47 SSA countries and added the names of all accredited TE institutions;
- (3) Visited the official TE websites and searched for tourism degree programmes in the various faculties, schools and departments. Also used “tourism” as a search term in the website search tool. Added relevant information such as programme descriptors, faculty/school affiliation, websites, email contacts, and the dates the sites were visited to Excel worksheet;
- (4) Checked the located tourism programmes for online curricula and if these were available, counted and documented sustainability-related course names;

(5) Consulted national education authorities (such as Ministry of Education) databases for lists of accredited TE institutions or accreditation agencies in individual countries in SSA;

(6) Located and added to existing Excel country worksheets any additional accredited TE institutions that were not included in the Anabin database;

(7) Repeated steps 3-4.

The tourism programmes on TE websites were located by searching the websites with various relevant Boolean phrases and keywords. This was search conducted in English (where possible) or in the host language which was mostly French. Included in the study were part time, full time, and online Bachelor and Master degree tourism programmes as well as related programmes such as hospitality, leisure or events management if tourism was the defining discipline.

Websites for TE institutions were taken from either the German Anabin database or the individual national accreditation boards in SSA, if available. Otherwise, a search was conducted with an online search engine (such as google) using the TE name and country. If the official TE website could not be located on the first two pages of the search results, “not available” was then entered in the Excel worksheet. Facebook entries, blogs, and other non-official sources were not consulted for this study. Non-English websites were translated with the aid of a translator. Where other names were mentioned for the same TE institution, this was documented in the notes section of the Excel worksheet. This was the case, for example, when the TE name had changed or the institution had merged with another. The resulting TE population size of $n=1619$ is based solely on information obtained from these sources.

The content analysis begins with the Anabin database search as this site provides a structured and transparent approach to finding TE institutions which are accredited in the respective home country as well as in Germany.

The database Anabin, a German acronym for “Recognition and Assessment of Foreign Educational Certificates”, is a regularly updated databank established by education authorities in Germany, Austria and Luxembourg. Its goal is to enable efficient and reliable quality assurance assessments of foreign

educational institutions and qualifications. It documents the status of more than 25,000 institutions, 22,000 tertiary degrees and provides 25,000 assessments of individual accreditation cases. Its creation and development has been supported by the EC and it is being used as an authoritative source pertaining to assessments of educational quality and qualifications in Germany and the European Union (Anabin, n.d.). Thus the use of the Anabin database is seen as justified because of its (1) present size, coverage and impact, (2) proven reliability (3) efficient mode of usability and (4) ongoing updates and modifications.

However, this study is conscious of the 'academic colonialism' arguments put forth by Altbach (2015, p. 3) who questions the applicability of foreign accreditation systems for other contexts. This author argues that American accreditation systems evolved in the American context and inevitably reflect the history, norms and values of this country (Altbach, 2015, p. 5). Therefore, in an attempt to address this criticism, national accreditation databases in SSA were also consulted where possible. However, as indicated in the literature review (section 2.4.2), the TE system in SSA is highly fragmented and lacks centrally harmonized TE processes and standards (SARUA, n.d.b; Bloom, Canning and Luca, 2014; Woldegiorgis, Jonck and Goujon, 2015). The challenges encountered here along with the study findings are described in chapter 4.

To conclude this description of the online content analysis, issues relating to trustworthiness and ethics are discussed. Closely associated with trustworthiness are the terms of *reliability* and *validity*. Whereas reliability ensures the consistency of results if a study is repeated under similar conditions, validity refers to the accuracy of the instrument in measuring what it aims to measure (Mayring, 2016, p. 140)

Similar to the study by Chawla (2015), the reliability and validity of research findings for the online content analysis are addressed by consulting only official websites obtained from reliable sources. As previously noted, these are (1) the official German database Anabin, (2) the official national accreditation boards in the respective SSA countries and (3) official TE institution websites.

However, it is acknowledged that reliability of online curricula findings is also connected to how frequently and accurately the TE websites are serviced. During the data collection process, several challenges were encountered in this respect. Web links located from official sources frequently did not open, or those that functioned the first time round were later unavailable or had information removed. This often made it necessary to conduct a time-consuming search on the internet. Additionally, there was much variance in the presentation of information on websites, making it challenging to locate curricula. This ran the risk that tourism curricula were overlooked and thus not included in this study. With the aim of improving reliability, curricula located online were downloaded to the computer and analysed from there. Furthermore, in order to ensure transparency, the dates each of the websites visited were documented in the Excel worksheets.

Several other challenges were encountered that have potential relevance for the findings and generalisability of the research and therefore merit inclusion here. A major challenge was the heterogeneity found in regard to the structures, locations and accreditation of tourism programmes across TE institutions within, and across, countries in SSA. Tourism programmes were located in a wide variety of faculties, departments and schools, often making them difficult to find online. Furthermore, there was a lack of consistency in how programmes were constructed: the amount of courses and credits as well as duration of the tourism programmes varied greatly. Locating the relevant accreditation boards to verify accreditation of programmes also proved time consuming and in some cases, not possible. For example, the SADC Qualification Framework: Identifying Credible Institutions in SADC (SADC, 2017) stated that no information on “credible institutions” was available for several countries such as Angola, The Democratic Republic of Congo, Madagascar, Malawi, Swaziland and Tanzania. Therefore caution needs to be exercised when making comparisons between tourism programmes across TE institutions and across countries in SSA.

Addressing ethical concerns in this part of the research was not an issue. Individuals were not directly consulted and only published data on TE websites

was included thus incurring no risks to confidentiality and anonymity (Neuman, 2014, p. 390).

Despite the drawbacks and challenges encountered in the data collection process, the findings provide valuable insights into the status of tourism TE in SSA, not only in respect to the content, format and positioning of information on websites, but also in view of the fact that several TE institutions had no web presence at all.

3.4 Phase Three: Eliciting Tourism Stakeholder Perspectives

The next phase of the research process had the objective of eliciting stakeholder perspectives on effective ST education in SSA. This involved 11 semi-structured in-depth interviews and 29 surveys with key stakeholders in the tourism industry. The timeframe for both the surveys and interviews was June to August, 2019. The conceptual framework for the survey and interview instruments is illustrated in Appendix 2 and described in detail in the following sections 3.4.1 and 3.4.2.

As previously noted, stakeholders can be classified as either primary/active with significant influence or as secondary/passive with less influence (Domínguez-Gómez and González-Gómez, 2017; Lyon, Hunter-Jones and Warnaby, 2017). Furthermore, this status is not seen as static but subject to shifts over time (Friedman and Miles, 2002). In order to obtain diverse perspectives on effective ST education, the opinions of both more influential but also less influential stakeholders were actively sought for this study. This target population includes representatives from the tourism industry including tour operators, hotel managers, tourism board members; tourism educators employed in TE institutions; and international development organisations involved in tourism projects in SSA. The underlying motivation is to be as inclusive as possible in this research.

Similar to a tourism stakeholder study by Hatipoglu, Alvarez and Ertuna (2016), this study sample attempts to give a broad geographic representation and involve interested, available, and apposite experts from the field. These experts were recruited from existing university networks, established contacts in international project collaborations, as well as professional events such tourism

trade fairs and conferences. The current study found however, as with the tourism research conducted by Bakas (2017, p. 129), that it was challenging to locate experts in the tourism branch who were willing and able to find the time in their, all too often, long and busy working days. The non-random purposeful sampling approach adopted in this study is a common method used in social-science disciplines, especially where focused, specific and expert knowledge is required (Long, 2007, p. 47).

The sampling strategy for both the surveys and interviews can be summed up as follows:

- Accessible Population: Available and willing tourism stakeholders;
- Inclusion criteria: Experience/knowledge in tourism field;
- Exclusion criteria: No experience or connection to SSA.

The advantages of using both surveys and interviews has been documented as an effective method of generating multiple stakeholder perspectives in tourism research (Knollenberg and McGehee, 2016). Interviews allow for an in-depth analysis of tourism stakeholder perspectives, however, they can be restrictive in terms of sample size so that caution needs to be exercised when making generalisations from the findings (Ali, Murphy and Nadkarni, 2018).

As a means of increasing the sample size of stakeholder perspectives, surveys were therefore also included in this study. Whereas the interviews adopted an open, flexible approach to obtaining general opinions toward ST, the surveys targeted specific questions that had emerged as central to this study. However, as Knollenberg and McGehee (2016, p. 5) point out, using data from several research instruments requires close attention to detail in order to effectively synthesize and make meaning out of the responses. How this was addressed is described in chapter 4 and 5.

An additional challenge presented by the mixed method approach is the differences in methods of establishing validity and reliability. In quantitative research, this is achieved by making explicit the measurement tools and procedures in order to facilitate replication. Findings are often displayed graphically in charts, tables and graphs. In qualitative studies, on the other

hand, a flexible, diverse mix of measures is considered acceptable practice to establish validity and reliability (Neuman, 2014, p. 218).

In comparison to quantitative studies, reliability (consistency) in qualitative research is not so clear cut as the evolving researcher-respondent interaction. Moreover, the situational and subjective nature of qualitative inquiry, can result in differing research outcomes over time. To improve reliability, carefully constructed concepts, using multiple indicators and pilot testing are recommended (Neuman, 2014, p. 213). Similar to the study by Altinay and Paraskevas (2015), the reliability of the survey and interview instruments in this study was addressed by pre-testing, evaluating and reformulating unclear questions (Altinay and Paraskevas, 2015).

This pre-test was facilitated by two experienced tourism faculty members and a tour operator working in Tanzania. Their recommendations included making the survey more concise by shortening the background information section, and more precise by reformulating question 10 to ask for specific recommendations for ST course content. This advice was addressed respectively by dropping questions relating to gender and age as this extended the survey unnecessarily, and supplying specific course content for ST education that could then be ranked by participants. However, contrary to advice, question 7 which asked for participants' understanding of 'sustainable tourism' was not dropped from the survey as a review of the literature had indicated that this could have important implications for the study – which was later confirmed.

Whereas validity equates with accurate measurement in quantitative research, in qualitative studies it is more closely associated with "authenticity", that is, with honest, plausible representations of multiple, sometimes overlapping, realities or truths (Neuman, 2014, p. 218). Validity is achieved in qualitative research through establishing credibility, integrity and trustworthiness by providing transparent, accurate descriptions and consistent documentation of studied phenomena and by cross-checking data (Mayring, 2016, pp. 144–147).

The successful recruitment of participants hinges on establishing credibility and building trust with respondents (Oktadiana and Chon, 2017, pp. 285–287). This was realised in this study by either drawing attention to mutual networks and

trusted contacts or by providing official web links and other information that verified the authenticity of the research and researcher. Furthermore, following similar ST-related studies, every attempt was made to produce “morally adequate descriptions” (Lyon, Hunter-Jones and Warnaby, 2017, p. 238) by adopting a *localist* approach to the research which considered context, culture and diversity (Ali, Murphy and Nadkarni, 2017, p. 164).

Finally, in this study, the anonymity of respondents is respected by using identification numbers and confidentiality will be protected by securing personal data with codes.

3.4.1 The Survey Process

Surveys are one of the most frequently used forms of social science research and are employed in various forms including phone interviews, in person, or online. Online surveys have the advantage of being broad in scope, inexpensive, fast to implement, and flexible in design (Blackstone, 2014).

The aim of the online survey in this study was to obtain diverse stakeholder perspectives from the broadest possible outreach. As achieving a representative sample of all tourism stakeholders in SSA for the survey would have been an unrealistic goal, this study focussed instead on obtaining views from accessible and experienced individuals in the field. The survey was intentionally kept to a concise format in order to facilitate its completion within approximately 15-20 minutes. Although the brevity of the survey may have reduced depth and detail, it achieved its purpose of recruiting respondents from an otherwise difficult to access population. A profile list of respondents is provided in chapter 4.

Heeding advice to adopt accurate bookkeeping and labelling in survey research (Mayring, 2016, pp. 144–145), the process commenced with the creation of an Excel worksheet which listed all the potential participants and provided a means of keeping track of invitations, responses, reminders and relevant participant details. The potential respondents were prioritised and then sent a survey invitation via email along with a letter of information (see Appendix 3). Information pertaining to the study was repeated on the survey website before participants entered the survey tool. This information was presented in a

different font and colour to distinguish it from the survey questions (Neuman, 2014, p. 340). For non-responders, a follow-up reminder was sent after two weeks, and repeated again two weeks later.

Table 9: Survey Groups and Questions

Group	Questions
A. Background Information	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Please write the name of your organisation below and your own name (optional). 2. What is your general field of work? 3. How long have you been working in this field? 4. Please describe your main responsibilities and tasks (especially in connection to sustainable tourism if applicable).
B. Sustainable Tourism general	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 5. What are your/your organisation's major achievements relating to the field of sustainable tourism? 6. In the context of your work, what do you see as the major challenges facing the field of sustainable tourism? 7. Please define in your own words your understanding of the term "sustainable tourism."
C. Sustainable Tourism in Tertiary Education	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 8. Do you think there is a need for sustainable tourism programmes in higher education? Please explain why/why not. 9. Do you think key tourism stakeholders should play a role in shaping tourism academic programmes? Please explain. 10. How would you rank the relevance of the following items? <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • employability skills • ethics (morals/values) • soft skills (teamwork/social/communication/problem-solving) • environmental studies • work-integrated learning (internships, coop. education) • critical thinking skills • cultural studies (heritage, intercultural communication) • liberal arts (history, philosophy, arts) • technological skill (computer software, social media, data banks) • entrepreneurial skills • corporate social responsibility • multidisciplinary approach (combination of all above) 11. Do you think that there are courses, content or any other aspects missing from current academic tourism studies? Do you have any further recommendations?
D. Additional Comments	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 12. Do you have any other comments relating to this study or the field of sustainable tourism that have not been covered in this interview? 13. Finally, do you have any advice for me with regard to this study?

As illustrated in Table 9, the survey was structured into four groups with a total of 13 questions. The survey consisted of structured, closed-ended questions involving 5-Point Likert scales and drop down menus which aimed to elicit precise responses to central questions that had emerged from the literature review. The inclusion of open-ended questions allowed for more depth and clarification of opinions. Mixing both closed and open ended questions in one instrument offers variety and can help to maintain interest (Neuman, 2014, pp. 332–333). The first group of questions (*A. Background Information*), had the purpose of eliciting information pertaining to respondents' experience and expertise levels in their own work in the field of ST. The second set of questions, *B. Sustainable Tourism General*, broadened the perspective from respondents' personal experiences to probe for information regarding their own and their organisations' general orientation, approaches to and understanding of ST in the broader context. Section *C: Sustainable Tourism in Tertiary Education*, took a more focused approach and, using a combination of open-ended and closed-ended questions, asked for personal opinions regarding the perceived relevancy of ST in TE, the role of stakeholders, curricula content as well as potential educational gaps in this field. Included in this set of questions were specific courses that had emerged in the process of reviewing the literature in the field. Respondents could rate the proposed curricula content from "highly relevant" to "not relevant" or opt out with "not sure". A brief overview of these courses is provided in Table 9. Finally, Section *D. Additional Comments* of the survey instrument asked broad, open-ended questions that aimed at giving respondents the opportunity to provide additional opinions, insights, ideas, suggestions and advice pertaining to researcher as well as research in general. The conceptual framework for the survey and interview questions is provided in Appendix 2.

An analysis of the findings from the surveys is presented in chapter 4 and is followed by a discussion of these in the context of the research questions in chapter 5.

3.4.2 The Interview Process

The inclusion of interviews in this study aims to yield richer insights into participants' perspectives, experiences, values and attitudes and to elicit ideas and concepts not previously considered (May, 2011, p. 135). In line with the surveys, purposeful sampling was also implemented in this part of the research. As recommended by research scholars, the interviews targeted, in particular, prominent and knowledgeable stakeholders who could provide unique or additional perspectives on the research questions (Long, 2007, p. 47; Robinson, 2014, p. 32). A profile list of stakeholder interviewees is provided in chapter 4.

Similar to the surveys, an Excel worksheet was created at the outset in order to maintain an overview of the process, and document procedures and data. This worksheet included a list of potential respondents and their personal details, dates of contact and interview schedules.

All potential participants were either asked in person or contacted per email to request an interview. They were also sent prior to the interview, the interview questions, the goals and the relevance of the study for the field. Also communicated was the value placed on their perspective as a stakeholder as well as assurance of anonymity and confidentiality with regard to their responses (Appendix 3). Additionally, before commencing with the interview, this information was repeated verbally in a more concise format.

Appointments were made at the participants' convenience in the time-frame of June to July 2019, which, due to unavailability, was later extended to August, 2019. The interviews were conducted face to face where possible or via a communication software tool such as Skype or WhatsApp, and were either in the German or English language, as preferred. Although the interviewees were given the option of stopping the interview at the pre-arranged time of 20 minutes, all of the interviewees voluntarily extended to between 30 and 90 minutes.

The interview process involved semi-structured questions – the most frequent choice in qualitative research methods (Ali, Murphy and Nadkarni, 2017, p. 164). The semi-structured nature of interview aimed at promoting a conversational, personal atmosphere. The purpose of the closed-ended

questions was to elicit respondent responses to themes that had developed in the review of the literature. The open ended questions, on the other hand, allowed for a more flexible and interactive approach and incorporated new concepts and ideas as they emerged (May, 2011, p. 134).

The interview questions followed a similar group structure to the survey instrument though in a more concise format:

- A. Professional insights from work in the field of ST;
- B. Perspectives on effective ST education;
- C. Additional comments.

This structure was adhered to during the interview process in order to aid the flow and provide interviewees with a clear structure for orientation (Neuman, 2014, p. 338). An interview guide is provided in Appendix 4. In contrast to the survey, the interviewees were not given a choice of sustainability-related courses to choose from, but were rather asked for their opinions on effective ST education. The purpose was to investigate which content non-educators see as important for tourism education. Also, as employability was a dominant theme in both the SSA and ST discourse, interviewees were asked specific questions relating to this.

In order to reduce interviewer bias and enhance data collection accuracy during the interviews, recommended techniques were employed including attentive listening, probing ambiguous responses, rephrasing questions, and avoiding leading questions. Descriptive validity was addressed by recording interviews where permitted, or otherwise taking extensive and meticulous notes. Every effort was made to make these notes as close as possible to the actual words spoken, avoiding summarizing or paraphrasing responses in order to not to lose information or distort data. Following the interview, transcribed notes were checked with participants as advised by Mayring (2016, p. 147).

In review, the chosen strategy of combining interviews with surveys proved advantageous as it enabled broader access to key stakeholders in the field and provided adequate and valuable data for the study.

Although the interview process provided in depth insights as anticipated, convincing interviewees was a challenge and required persistence and several follow up emails. However, once the interview started, most participants willingly went beyond the prearranged time and engaged in ardent discussions about their work and ST in general. As only a few interviewees were comfortable with being recorded, detailed notes were taken and transcribed as soon as possible in order not to forget context and details.

Whereas the survey tool met with greater initial resonance among those approached to contribute to the study, not all who agreed actually went on to complete the survey. A few participants indicated in follow up comments that the survey took longer than the time specified and this, thus, may have been the cause for discontinuation by other respondents. In hindsight, even though survey was kept as concise and clear as possible, language barriers among non-native speakers may have played a role in the length of time needed to understand and complete the survey.

In sum, although the number of interviews and surveys conducted was restricted due to time, space and resource limitations, several dominant and recurring themes emerged indicating that more data may not have produced any additional, novel insights.

The data collected from the interviews and surveys as well as the online content analysis is presented in chapter 4 and subsequently discussed within the context of the research questions in chapters 5, 6 and 7.

4 DATA ANALYSIS AND FINDINGS

The focus in this chapter is on analysing and presenting the findings from the data collection instruments which include the online curriculum content analysis, as well as stakeholder surveys and interviews. According to Neuman (2014), data analysis seeks to organize emerging patterns, relationships, and themes in the data and to interpret these in the context of the research questions. The process involves categorising, comparing and synthesising the data within a coding scheme (Neuman, 2014, pp. 477–487).

Thus, before data analysis can commence, a clearly defined method of coding the data needs to be developed. However, as Belotto (2018, p. 2628) points out, there is no one best way to achieve this. Several methods have been put forward such as organising the data into macro themes with sub themes (Pappalepore and Farrell, 2017, p. 149), or using primary codes for broad categories with secondary codes for more specific information (Campbell, et al., 2012, pp. 300–301). The coding process in this study adopted general, broad and specific categories, deductive and inductive approaches, and remained open and flexible to emerging themes.

The research instruments furthermore integrated *open* coding, *axial* coding as well as *selective* coding as defined by Neuman (2014). Open coding is described as the initial process of assigning tentative, flexible labels to specific terms and concepts found in the literature or research. Axial coding, on the other hand, builds on these previously constructed codes and aims to connect, integrate and cluster the collected data for analysis. The final stage of selective coding involves a higher level of abstraction and aims to focus on data and code constructs that have high relevance for the study objectives (Neuman, 2014, pp. 481–484).

In order to achieve reliability and increase the credibility of the study, it is important that coding transparency is achieved, not only in respect to how the codes were developed, but also with regard to how they were applied. As the data collection and coding for this study was conducted entirely by the author, intercoder reliability was achieved. Intra-coder bias was addressed by following recommendations to verify findings with multiple data sources and have experts

check the objectivity of coding categories (Slocum, Dimitrov and Webb, 2019, p. 37). A discussion of the specific coding methodology for each of the data collection instruments along with a presentation of the data findings is presented next.

4.1 Analysis of Online Tourism Curricula Content

4.1.1 Coding Online Curricula Data

In order to facilitate replication and improve reliability in content analysis studies, Neuman (2014, p. 374) recommends that the rules devised for coding data into mutually exclusive, exhaustive categories be explicitly formulated in writing.

With this in mind, documenting the coding process and rules became an integral part of the data analysis. Heeding advice to incorporate ideas and concepts emerging from the literature review into the analysis (Long, 2007, p. 141), the coding process began by re-reading the literature review and creating a list of course content considered effective for ST education. At this stage, an inductive approach employing open coding with very general categories was adopted. Next, working with previous educational frameworks developed for conceptualising sustainability concepts (UNESCO, 2006, pp. 18–21; Chawla, 2015, p. 141; UNWTO, 2015a), a rough framework of categories for this study was created. Where there were conflicting approaches with regard to the categorisation of sustainability terms between these frameworks, a rule was formulated and consistently applied to the sustainability content found in the literature review (see Appendix 1). For example, the term ‘poverty’ was assigned to the ‘Economic’ category by UNESCO (2006) and UNWTO (2015a), but to the ‘Socio-Cultural’ category by Chawla (2015). With the application of the rule defined for the ‘Economic’ category in this study which included ‘content relating to fair income distribution and stable employment’, the term ‘poverty’ was considered more appropriate in the newly created category of ‘Economic/Management’. The final coding for sustainability content employed the four main categories of *Environment*, *Socio-cultural*, *Economic/Management* and *Integrative Sustainability Courses*.

The next stage of the analysis involved categorising the sustainability-related content located in tourism programmes in SSA in accordance with this coding framework. This involved a further refinement of the rules in order to integrate all of the new sustainability-related courses. The final rules for categorising the content is displayed in Table 10.

Table 10: Coding Rules devised for Content Analysis

Environment	Socio-cultural	Economic/ Management	Integrative Sustainability Courses
<i>Content relating to optimal use of natural resources, preserving environmental integrity and managing natural heritage and bio-diversity.</i>	<i>Content relating to the education and preservation of cultural identities and traditional values; the promotion of peace and tolerance, socio-cultural equity; as well as to overall human well-being and quality of life.</i>	<i>Content relating to fair income distribution and stable employment, as well as the development and management of viable, ethical and sustainable economic policy-making and business practices. This content has relevance for micro or meso, (i.e., individual, organization, community or regional) levels.</i>	<i>Content that is broader in scope covering at least two of the socio-cultural, economic or environmental categories, but that cannot be assigned exclusively to any individual one. This content has macro (i.e., national or global) relevance.</i>

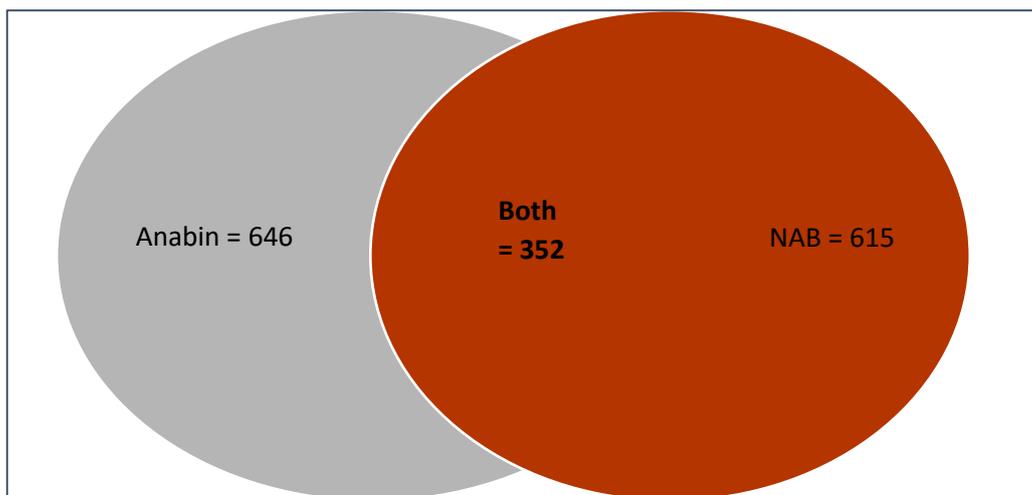
Adapted from UNESCO (2006); UNWTO (2015a); Chawla (2015)

With the collected data organized into these four general categories for analysis, *manifest* coding involving a frequency count of sustainability-related courses could commence. *Latent* coding, which seeks to identify underlying or implicit meanings in the data (Neuman, 2014, p. 374), was restricted by the limited availability of course information posted on the TE websites. Although this poses a limitation to the findings of the content analysis, the results permit, nevertheless, informative insights into where and what is being taught in tourism programmes in SSA as well as how much information is being made available about these programmes. The collected data is analysed in the context of (1) the programmes titles, (2) the affiliations of the tourism programmes within the institutions, and (3) the course descriptors.

4.1.2 Sustainability in Tourism Programmes and Titles

This study examined 1619 accredited TE institutions in 47 different countries in SSA with the goal of examining to what extent sustainability concepts have been implemented into tourism curricula. An overview of the distribution of these universities and their accreditation sources per country is presented in Appendix 5.

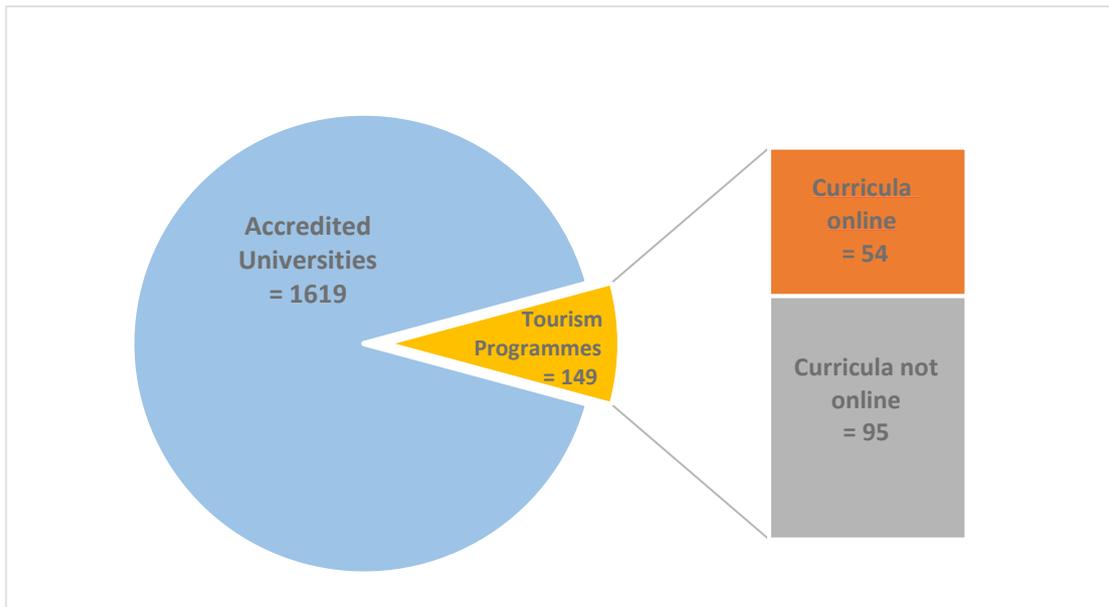
Figure 15: Total Tertiary Institutions according to Accreditation Body



As previously indicated, the accreditation sources for this study drew from the German Anabin database as well as the national accreditation agencies. Altogether, 646 TE institutions were accredited from Anabin, 615 from the respective national accreditation boards (NABs), and 352 institutions were accredited by both databases as illustrated in Figure 15. For 6 institutions, no information could be located.

In order to determine the sustainability content of tourism programmes, it was first necessary to locate the tourism programmes and to ascertain which have published curricula information online. Figure 16 reveals that from the 1619 TE institutions examined, 149 offered tourism programmes, for which online curricula were located for 54 programmes. For 95 programmes, even after extensive searches, no online curricula or course content could be found. This search included a scan of all faculty, department and school web-pages, the use of the web-page search tool with relevant keywords, and also an inspection of the student handbooks, if available.

Figure 16: Online Tourism Programmes in Tertiary Education Institutions



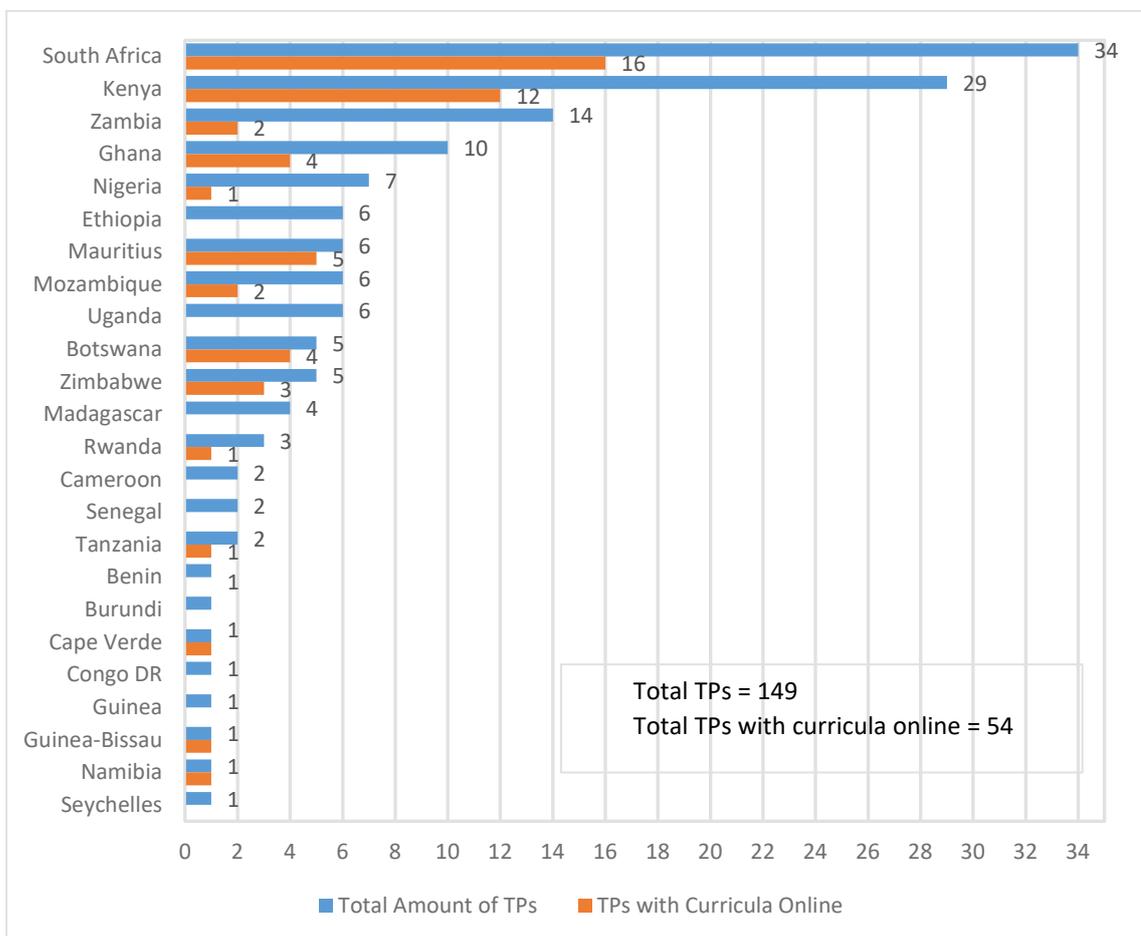
An overview of how the 54 tourism programmes were distributed per country both with and without curriculum online, is provided in Figure 17. Altogether 24 of the 47 SSA countries in this study offered tourism programmes. The findings reveal that South Africa offered the most tourism programmes with altogether 34 programmes of which 16 provided the curricula online. South Africa was followed by Kenya with 29 programmes (12 online curricula) and Zambia with 14 programmes (two online curricula). Ghana, Botswana, Nigeria, Ethiopia, Mozambique, Uganda, Madagascar, Mauritius, Zimbabwe and Rwanda all offered between 3 and 10 tourism programmes of which curricula online ranged from none to four. Cameroon, Senegal and Tanzania offered two tourism programmes each for which only Tanzania had one curriculum online. The remaining countries of Benin, Burundi, Cape Verde, Congo DR, Guinea, Guinea-Bissau, Namibia and Seychelles all offered one tourism programme each, whereby only Cape Verde, Guinea-Bissau and Namibia provided the curricula online.

Although for 23 countries no programmes could be found, this does not necessarily indicate that there are no tourism programmes being offered in these countries, but only that they could not be located online.

The countries for which no tourism programmes could be located were:

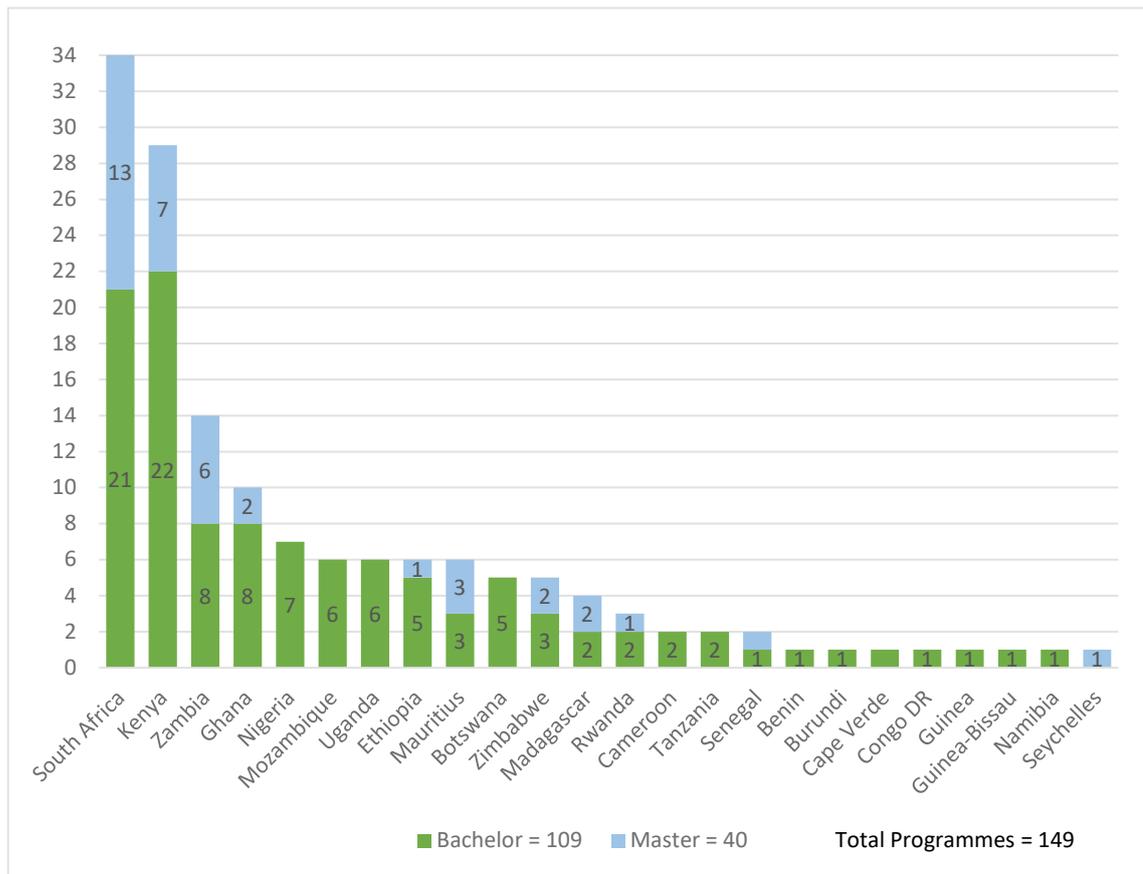
- Angola
- Burkina Faso
- Central African Republic
- Chad
- Comoros
- Congo
- Djibouti
- Equatorial Guinea
- Eritrea
- Gabon
- Gambia
- Ivory Coast
- Lesotho
- Liberia
- Malawi
- Mali
- Mauritania
- Niger
- Reunion
- Sierra Leone
- Somalia
- Swaziland
- Togo

Figure 17: Countries offering tourism programmes with/out Curricula online



Based on the information provided on the official websites of the respective TE institutions, the study found altogether 109 Bachelor and 40 Master programmes. These were distributed among the 24 countries as demonstrated in Figure 18.

Figure 18: Total Bachelor and Master Tourism Programmes per Country



South Africa offered the highest number of tourism programmes with altogether 34 programmes. The most bachelor programmes were offered in Kenya (n=22), South Africa (n=21), Ghana (n=8) and Zambia (n=8). The majority of Master programmes were offered likewise in South Africa (n=13), Kenya (n=7), Zambia (n=6), followed by Mauritius (n=3) and Madagascar (n=3).

The bachelor and master tourism programmes revealed a broad array of programme titles which, for reasons of clarity, are listed separately for bachelor programmes in Appendix 6 and master programmes in Appendix 7 respectively. However, in order to facilitate the data analysis, the programmes were clustered together under the categories provided in Table 11 along with the rules for the respective classifications. From this clustering, it is apparent that around two thirds (n=101) of the tourism programmes being offered in SSA centred around management in combination with a tourism-related fields. This included programmes in *Hospitality, Hotel and Tourism Management* (n=80) as well as *Other Tourism-related Management* (n=21) categories. There was an equal

distribution of programmes with in either *Tourism General* (n=24) or *Culture/Environment/Heritage/Sustainable/Responsible* (n=24) categories. Whereas the category of *Other Tourism-related Management* focused on programmes that listed other aspects of tourism including *adventure*, *technology*, and *marketing* in combination with *management*, the category *Tourism General* identified tourism programmes that did not explicitly mention *management* in the title. The category *Culture/Environment/Heritage/Sustainable/Responsible* emphasized programmes that contained sustainability-related content as indicated in the category title. Of particular interest for this study is to establish to which extent these programmes categories contained sustainability-related content.

Table 11: Bachelor and Master Tourism Programmes according to Titles

Tourism Management/Hospitality/Hotel = 80 (focus on management in connection with hotel, hospitality or tourism)			
Hospitality and Tourism Management (x6)	Hospitality Management (x2)	Hospitality Management and Tourism (x2)	Hotel and Hospitality Management
Hotel and Tourism Management (2)	Hotel Management and Tourism	International Tourism Management (x2)	Management in Tourism and Hotels
Tourism Business Management	Tourism and Hotel Management (x4)	Tourism and Hospitality Management (16)	Tourism Management (x39)
Tourism Management and Hospitality Studies	Tourism Planning and Management	Tourism Management and Planning	
Other Tourism-related Management = 21 (management courses with various tourism-related themes)			
Adventure Tourism Management	Entrepreneurship with Hospitality and Tourism Management	Leisure and Tourism Management	Leisure, Tourism and Hotel Management
Technology in Tourism and Travel management	Tourism and Events Management	Tourism and Travel Management (x2)	Tourism Development and Hotel Management
Tourism Development and Management	Tourism Management and Marketing		Tourism Market Management
Tourism Marketing and Management		Tourism, Travel and Hospitality Management	Travel Agency, Tourism and Operations management
Travel and Tour Operations Management (x2)	Travel and Tourism Management (x3)	Travel, Tourism, and Hospitality Management	

Tourism General = 24 <i>(focus on general tourism and tourism related topics (other than management))</i>			
Hospitality and Tourism (x7)	Tourism (x7)	Tourism and Gastronomy	Tourism and Hospitality
Tourism Studies	Tourism Studies with major in "Geography, Environmental Studies and Tourism"	Tourism Information	Travel and Tourism
Tourism, Hospitality and Marketing	Tourism and Hospitality Studies	Tourism Development	Tourism Excellence (International MBA)
Culture/Environment/Heritage or /Responsible/Sustainable = 24 <i>(includes either socio-cultural, environ-mental or sustainable/responsible aspects of tourism)</i>			
Anthropology and Cultural and Heritage Tourism (x4)	Culture and Tourism	EcoTourism Management (x5)	Ecotourism And Hospitality Management
Ecotourism and Wildlife Management	Eco-Tourism, Hotel and Institution Management with IT	Heritage and Cultural Tourism (x3)	Hospitality, Tourism and Culture
Management of Tourism and Culture Activities	Tourism and Environment	Tourism, Hotel and Environment	
Responsible Tourism Management	Sustainable Tourism and Hospitality Management	Sustainable Tourism Management	Tourism and Sustainable Development
Total Bachelor and Master Programmes = 149			

In order to assess the sustainability-related content in the programmes, the courses within these programmes were analysed and counted for relevant content as identified in the coding scheme previously described. These were then juxtaposed with courses that made no explicit mention of sustainability-related content in their descriptors. The results are presented in Table 12 and graphically displayed in Figure 19.

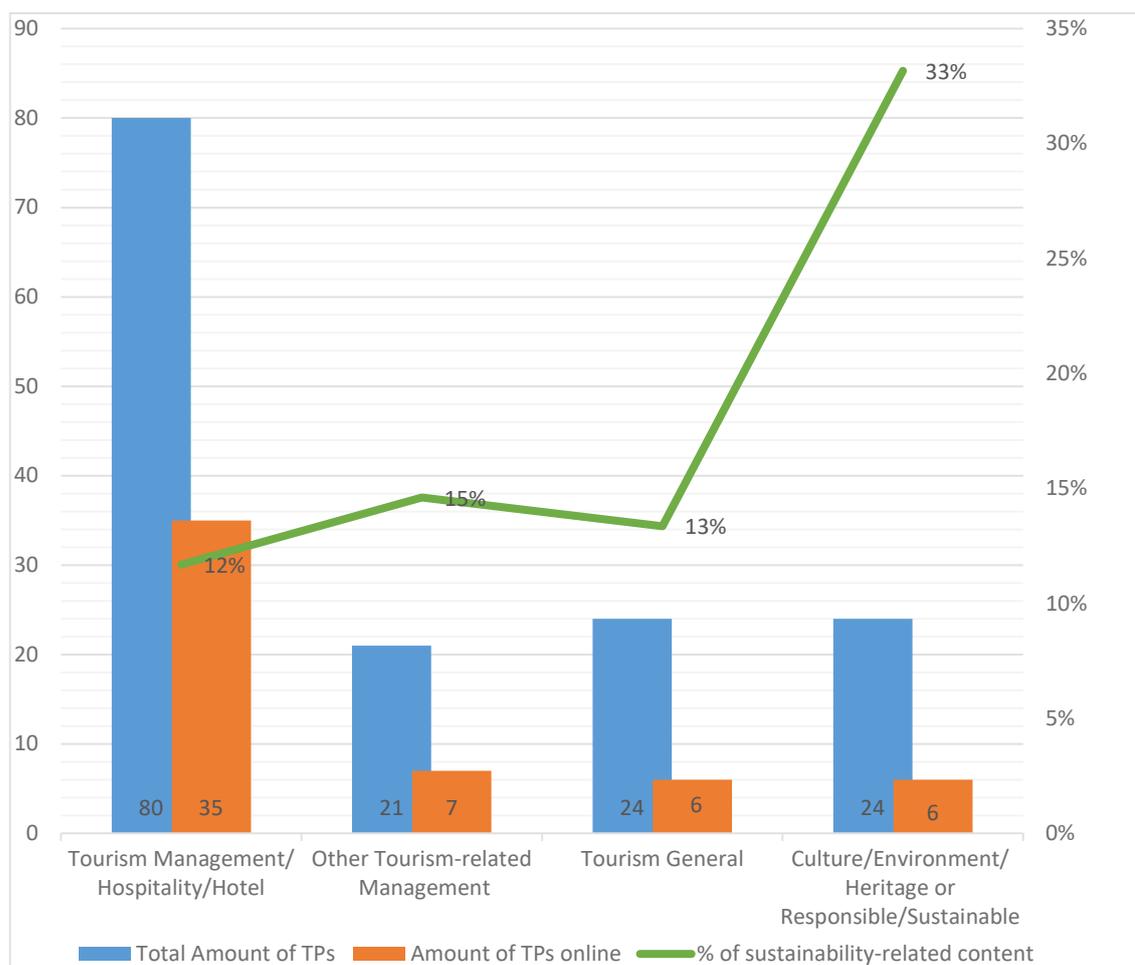
Figure 19 shows that in both the Management related categories, there were altogether 42 programmes with online curricula that contained between 12 percent and 15 percent of the overall sustainability-related content found for all programmes. General tourism courses that did not mention management in the programme titles (n=6) showed similar findings with 13 percent for online curricula. As expected, significantly more sustainability content (33 percent) was found in the last category which consisted of tourism programmes that explicitly mention sustainability-related terms in the programme titles (n=6). Although generalizing is limited by the small sample size, the findings would tend to indicate that tourism programmes with explicit references to

sustainability in the programme titles have substantially more sustainability content within.

Table 12: Sustainability-related Content by Programme Title

Programme Title Category	# of TPs	# of TPs online	TPS with Sustainability-related courses	# of ST courses	# of total courses	% of sustainability-related content
Tourism Management/Hospitality/Hotel	80	35	29	122	1044	12%
Other Tourism-related Management	21	7	7	33	226	15%
Tourism General	24	6	8	29	217	13%
Culture/Environment/Heritage or Responsible/Sustainable	24	6	6	66	199	33%
	149	54	50	250	1686	15%

Figure 19: Sustainability-related Content by Programme Title



4.1.3 Sustainability and Tourism Programme Affiliations

However, not only the programme titles, but also the affiliations of the tourism programmes within the respective TE institutions were of interest to ascertain whether this had any influence on the extent of sustainability content in the tourism programmes offered. Again, the analysis of data was enhanced by reducing the large number of affiliation names (n=104) into five manageable categories. This categorisation, described in Table 13, was informed by the classification of disciplines according to Bastow, et al. (2014, p. 3).

Table 13 demonstrates that tourism programmes were affiliated with variety of faculties, schools and departments within the TE institutions. In order not to inflate the amount of affiliation names, these are listed once per institution irrespective of how many tourism programmes were offered. The figures in parenthesis indicate how often the affiliation name was found across different TE institutions.

Almost half (n=50) of all the affiliations listed (n=104), included *Business Management/Economics* or related descriptors such as *Commerce* or *Vocational* in their affiliation names. This was followed by the *Social Sciences/Humanities* category (n=21) which contained affiliation descriptors that referred to a variety of social sciences disciplines such as Geography, Archaeology, Politics and Law. Affiliation names with *Tourism* (but without *Management*) in the descriptor were almost as common (n=19). Explicit mentions of *Environment/Agriculture/Natural Resources/Sustainable* (n=13) in the affiliation descriptors were fewer. Only one affiliation name referred to *Distance Learning*, and, although for three other tourism programmes no affiliation information could be found, they were still included as they contain other relevant programme information.

A summary of the findings from the affiliation analysis is presented in Table 14 and graphically display in Figure 20.

Table 13: Affiliation Names for Bachelor and Master Tourism Programmes

Business Management/Economics = 50 <i>(includes terms "business, management, commerce, vocational or economic" in affiliation name)</i>			
Business Administration	Business School (x4)	College of Business and Economics (x2)	College of Economic and Management Sciences
Department of Business and Management	Economy, Management and Tourism Division	Faculty of Business	Faculty of Business and Commerce
Faculty of Business and Development Studies	Faculty of Business and Economic Sciences (x2)	Faculty of Business and Economics	Faculty of Business and Management (x2)
Faculty of Business Sciences	Faculty of Commerce	Faculty of Commerce and Development Studies (x2)	Faculty of Commerce and Law
Faculty of Economic and Management Sciences	Faculty of Management and Business Administration	Faculty of Management Sciences (x7)	Faculty of Vocational Sciences
Institute of Economic and Business Sciences	Management Studies (x2)	School of Business (x2)	School of Business and Economics (x3)
School of Business and Management Sciences	School of Business Studies	School of Commerce	School of Economics and Business
School of Economics and Organizational Sciences	School of Home Economics, Tourism and Hospitality Management	School of Management Sciences	School of Management Studies and Commerce
School of Professional Studies			
Tourism = 19 <i>(includes "tourism" without management as well as various tourism-related fields in affiliation name)</i>			
Department of Hospitality and Tourism	Department of Travel and Tourism Management	Department Tourism and Hospitality	Faculty of Creativity in Tourism & Hospitality
Hospitality, Tourism and Leisure	Institute of Tourism	Institute of Tourism and Hospitality	School of Hospitality and Tourism (x3)
School of Hospitality, Tourism, and Leisure Studies	School of Sports, Events, Tourism and Hospitality	School of Tourism	School of Tourism and Hospitality
School of Tourism, Hospitality, and Events Management	School Tourism and Hospitality	Tourism School (x2)	Tourism, Hospitality and Marketing
Social Sciences/Humanities = 21 <i>(includes or combines "Social Science, Humanities" with Management and/or a related field in affiliation name)</i>			
College of Applied Food Science and Tourism	College of Social and Management Sciences	College of Social Sciences and Humanities	Department of Geography and Rural Development
Faculty of Arts	Faculty Of Arts And Social Sciences (x2)	Faculty of Economic and Social Sciences	Faculty of Human Sciences

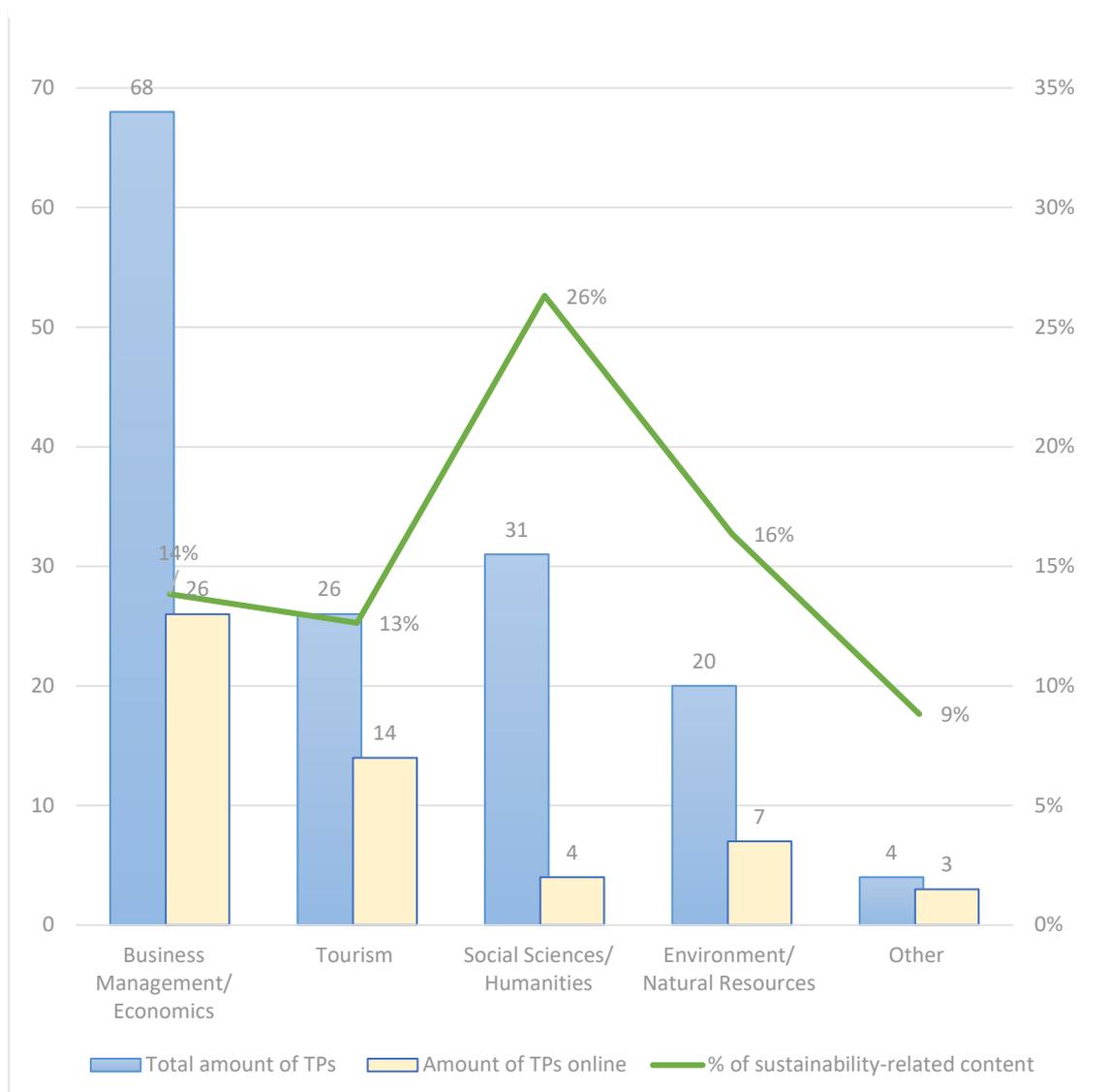
Faculty of Humanities	Faculty of Social and Human Sciences	Faculty of Social Sciences	Faculty of Social Sciences and Technology
Faculty of Social Sciences, Department of Geography and Planning Services	Family and Consumer Sciences	Institute of African Studies, Social sciences and Management	Institution of Archaeology and Tourism
Law School	Political Institute	School of Social Sciences	Social and Management Sciences
Environment/Agriculture/Natural Resources = 13 (includes "environment/agricultural/natural resource/Sustainability" and other natural science related fields in affiliation name)			
Environment and Tourism Management School	Faculty of Agribusiness and Commerce	Faculty of Agriculture and Tourism	Faculty of Environment and Resource Development
Faculty of Science	Faculty of Science and Agriculture	Institute of Paleo-environment and Heritage Conservation	School of Agriculture and Environmental Sciences
School of Natural Resources Department of Ecotourism, Recreation and Hospitality	School of Tourism and Natural Resource Management	Faculty of Business and Sustainable Development	Faculty of Hospitality and Sustainable - Tourism
School of Sustainable Development and Tourism			
Other = 4 (incorporates distance learning and others with no affiliation information)			
Centre for Open and Distance Learning	Not specified (3)		
Total amount of programme affiliation names = 104 (for 3 programmes, no information given)			

Figure 20 shows that almost half (n=68) of the total of 149 tourism programmes were located in the *Business Management/Economics* category. For the 26 programmes with online curricula in this category, 14 percent of the course content was sustainability-related. For the 40 programmes with a general *Tourism* (non-management) affiliation descriptor, the 14 curricula published online revealed 13 percent sustainability-related content. Substantially more sustainability content was found (26 percent) in the online curricula of 4 programmes (from a total of 31) with Social Science/Humanities descriptors. Interestingly, the affiliations with descriptors relating to *Environment/Natural Resource/ Sustainability* showed 16 percent of sustainability-related content

Table 14: Sustainability-related Content by Programme Affiliation

Affiliations of Bachelor and Master Tourism Programmes in TEIs in SSA	Total amount of TPs	Amount of TPs online	# of ST courses	# of total courses	% of sustainability-related content
Business Management/ Economics	68	26	115	831	14%
Tourism	26	14	57	451	13%
Social Sciences/ Humanities	31	4	45	171	26%
Environment/ Natural Resources	20	7	27	165	16%
Other	4	3	6	68	9%
	149	54	250	1686	78%

Figure 20: Sustainability-related Content in by Programme Affiliation



in the online curricula. With the explicit mention of sustainability-related descriptors in the affiliation names, a higher percentage of sustainability-related content may have been expected. However, a closer inspection of the content of the tourism programmes in this category confirmed that for several programmes, the programme title (as opposed to affiliation name) was more indicative of the programme focus. For example, one programme entitled *Hospitality Management* which was affiliated with the *Faculty of Hospitality and Sustainable Tourism* had four courses with sustainability-related content compared to 29 courses that focussed on hospitality-related content.

4.1.4 Sustainability-related Course Content

This final section of the content analysis focuses exclusively on the 54 tourism programmes with curricula information online. Contained in these programmes were a total of 1868 courses of which 250 were explicitly sustainability-related and 1436 were in the field of general business studies.

Table 15 and Figure 21 provide an overview of the distribution of sustainability-related courses and non-sustainability-related courses across countries. This data demonstrates that although Kenya has the highest amount of courses (n=417) and the most sustainability-related courses (n=75) in absolute numbers, Ghana with 44 from 157 courses has the highest percentage (28 percent) sustainability-related content for all countries.

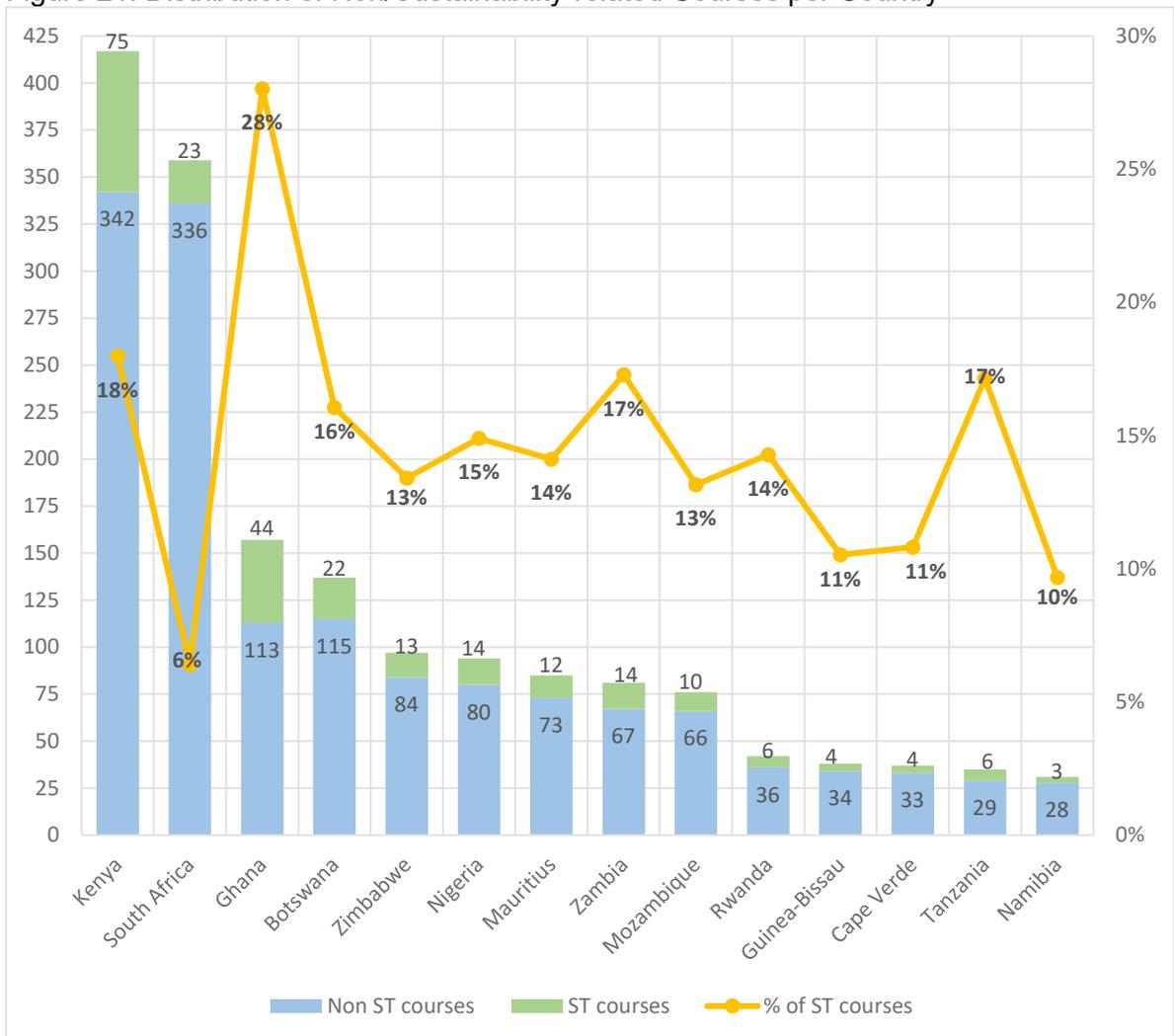
Table 15: Distribution of Sustainability-related Tourism Courses across SSA

Country name	# of TPs with curriculum online	Total courses per country	Sust.-related courses	Non sust.-related courses	% of sust.-related courses per country
Kenya	12	417	75	342	18%
South Africa	16	359	23	336	6%
Ghana	4	157	44	113	28%
Botswana	4	137	22	115	16%
Zimbabwe	3	97	13	84	13%
Nigeria	1	94	14	80	15%
Mauritius	5	85	12	73	14%
Zambia	2	81	14	67	17%
Mozambique	2	76	10	66	13%
Rwanda	1	42	6	36	14%
Guinea-Bissau	1	38	4	34	11%

Cape Verde	1	37	4	33	11%
Tanzania	1	35	6	29	17%
Namibia	1	31	3	28	10%
Totals = 14	54	1686	250	1436	Avg. 15%

For all other countries, published curricula information revealed between 10 percent and 17 percent of explicitly mentioned sustainability-related content. Interestingly, South Africa had the second highest amount of tourism courses for all countries (n=359) but the lowest percentage (6 percent) of courses that explicitly mentioned sustainability in the course descriptors. Again, caution needs to be taken when making broad generalisations about specific countries from this limited data set. However, this data indicates that for all countries across the SSA, sustainability-related content in published tourism curricula constitutes an average of 15 percent of the total courses offered.

Figure 21: Distribution of Non/Sustainability-related Courses per Country



Shifting focus to content of the 250 sustainability-related courses, further coding refinement (axial coding) was undertaken with the objective of achieving a more detailed analysis. This involved clustering the courses in order to gain an overview of which types of sustainability-related courses were being offered across all accredited TE institutions in SSA.

From the four main categories of *Socio-cultural*, *Environment*, *Economic/Management* and *Integrative Sustainability Courses*, the courses were clustered, labelled and counted according to course descriptor as illustrated in Table 16. A complete list of all the 250 courses sorted according to the main and sub categories is provided in the Appendix 8.

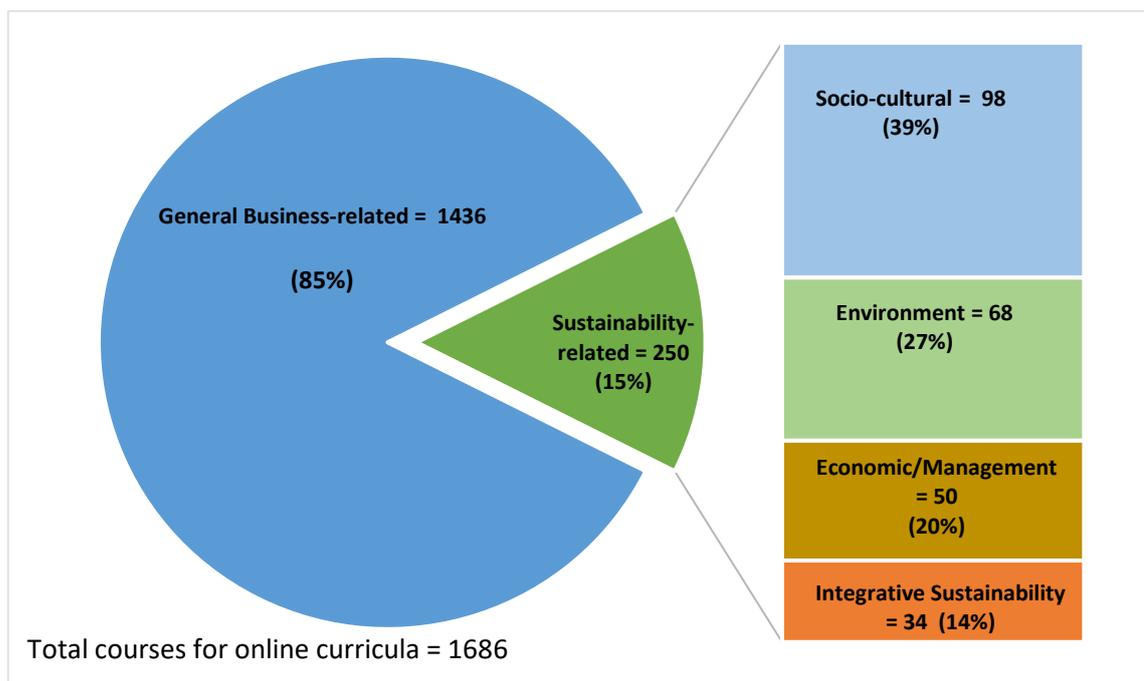
Figure 22 provides an overview of the distribution of sustainability-related courses in comparison to general business-related courses. As can be seen, the majority (85 percent) of all courses for tourism programmes in SSA contained general business-related courses with no explicit reference to sustainability-related content. Of the 250 sustainability-related courses, most (39 percent) were in the sub category of *Socio-cultural* with 98 courses. This was followed by the sub categories of *Environment* with 68 courses (27 percent) and *Economic/ Management* (with sustainability-related content) with 50 courses (20 percent). Finally, 34 courses (14 percent) of all the 250 sustainability-related courses were in the sub-category of *Integrative Sustainability Courses*.

Table 16: Overview of Sustainability-related Courses by Sub categories

Main Category	Sub category	Total Courses	% of all sustainability-related courses
Socio-cultural			
(= 98)	Cultural/Heritage/History	43	17%
	Anthropology/Sociology	14	6%
	African Arts/Music/Dance	12	5%
	Philosophy/Ethics/Religion	11	4%
	Community	5	2%
	Cultural/Human Geography	4	2%
	Health/Food	4	2%
	Gender/Inclusion/Diversity	4	2%
	Psychology	1	0%

Environment			
(= 68)	Ecology or Environment	37	15%
	Wildlife and Area Conservation	17	7%
	Natural Resources	6	2%
	Fauna and Flora	5	2%
	Coastal	3	1%
Economic/Management			
(= 50)	Entrepreneurship	26	10%
	Sustainable Tourism Management	15	6%
	Business Ethics/Laws/CSR	7	3%
	Information/Communication	2	1%
Integrative Sustainability			
(=34)	Sustainable/Responsible Tourism Development	16	6%
	Geography	14	6%
	Environment/Culture/Economic	4	2%
Total		250	

Figure 22: Proportion of General Business-related courses to Sustainability-related courses for Tourism Programmes with Online Curricula

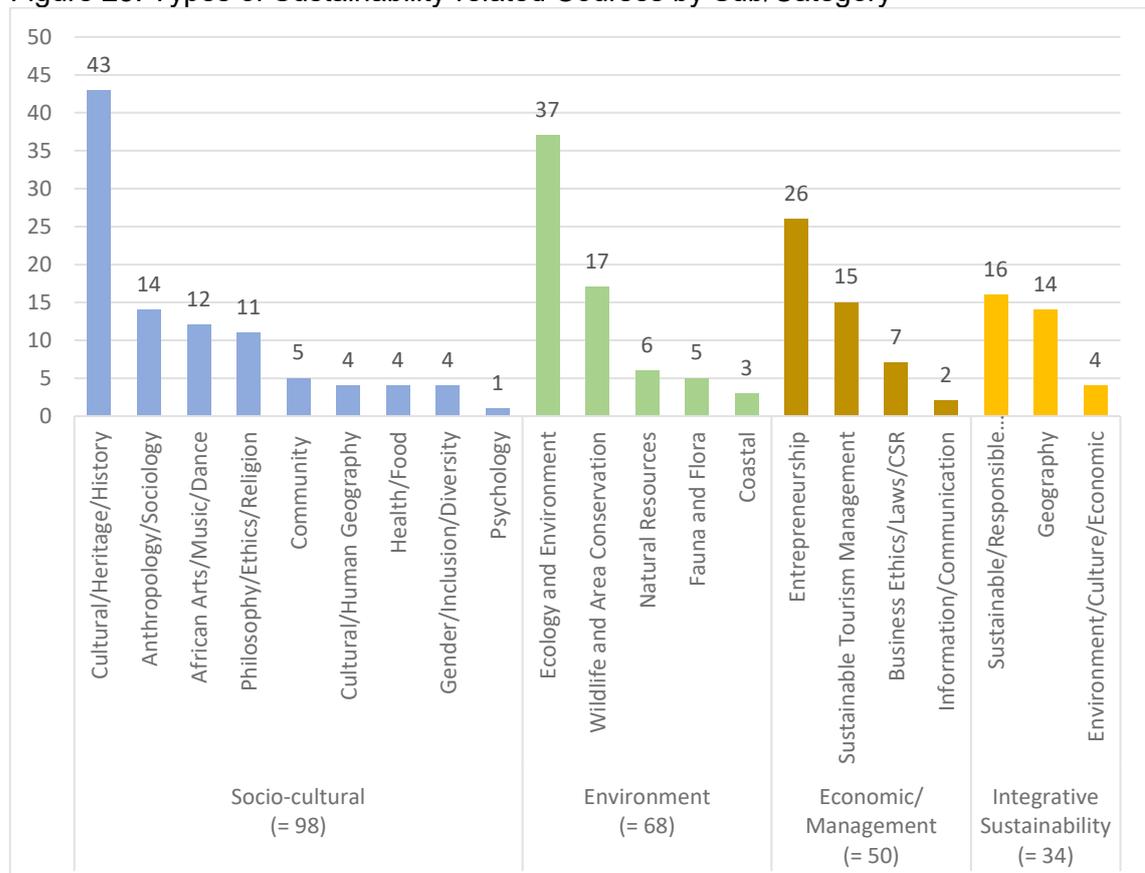


A more detailed analysis of this data is displayed graphically in Figure 23 which shows the frequency and content of sustainability-related courses broken down by main category and sub categories. As illustrated, there was a broad array of

sustainability-related courses offered across SSA. However, the most frequently offered courses contained the labels of *cultural, heritage or historical* (with 43 courses within the Socio-cultural category), *ecology or environment* (with 37 courses within the Environment category), *entrepreneurship* (with 26 courses within the Economic/Management category) and *sustainable or responsible tourism development* (with 16 courses in the Integrative Sustainability Courses). Combined these sub categories have a total of 122 courses and thus represent almost half (49 percent) of all sustainability-related courses being offered across SSA.

Substantially less represented with between two and four courses were courses with descriptors referring to *Cultural/Human Geography, Health/Food, Gender/Inclusion/Diversity, Coastal, Information/Communication* and (in combination) *Environment/Culture/Economic*. Only a single course with the descriptor of *Psychology* was found.

Figure 23: Types of Sustainability-related Courses by Sub/Category



As discussed in the literature review, the inclusion of the humanities has recently been prominent in the discourse relating to educating for ST. Therefore, to complete the content analysis, Table 17 provides an overview of humanities-related content located in online tourism curricula. This categorisation draws on the definition of humanities according to Bastow, et al. (2014, p. 3). As illustrated, 15 courses contained relevant humanities descriptors. Various history related courses were found ranging from environmental aspects to cultural heritage (n=6), slightly less philosophy-related courses were found (n=5), even fewer in the area of music, dance and literature (n=4), and no courses at all relating to drama or the history of art. Altogether these 15 humanities-related courses represent 6 percent of all the 250 sustainability-related courses (n=250) or less than 1 percent of all the tourism courses found in online curricula (n=1686).

Table 18 shows that soft skill courses represented 15 percent of all 250 ST related courses whereby most of these were entrepreneurial courses, followed by ethics and citizenship and critical thinking. Just one leadership and intercultural communication course was found.

Table 17: Humanities-related Content in Online Tourism Curricula in SSA

Humanities	Course names	Frequency
Music/Literature	African Music and Dance	4
	African Music Appreciation	
	Music/Literary appreciations	
	Literature and Culture	
History	Natural History of East Africa Flora and Fauna (x2)	6
	History and Culture African	
	History and Culture of Mozambique	
	History of African Traditional Systems	
	History of the African Diaspora	
	Oral History of Africa	
Philosophy	African Philosophy and Thought	5
	Philosophy and Critical Thinking	
	Philosophy and Ethic of Tourism and Hospitality	
	Christian Philosophy	
	Introduction To Philosophy And Logic	
Drama	--	0
History of Art	--	0
Total		15

Table 18: Soft Skill Courses in Tourism Programmes

Soft skills	#
Entrepreneurship	23
Ethics and Citizenship	10
Critical Thinking	2
Leadership	1
Intercultural Communication	1
	37

Conclusion

The preceding analysis of tourism curricula published online viewed the collected data through various lenses which involved looking at (1) tourism programme titles, (2) tourism programme affiliations within respective TE institutions, and (3) the descriptors of courses in the tourism programmes. The aim was to gain an overview of how sustainability is being addressed in tourism programmes across all accredited TE institutions in SSA.

Although, as previously indicated, caution must be taken when making generalisations from the restricted data available, namely, curricula published online, several tendencies can be noted. In general, across all sections of this data analysis, categories that explicitly mentioned either *management*, *business* or *economic* in connection with tourism studies were the most dominant. This was the case for tourism programme titles (68 percent), affiliation names (47 percent) and course descriptors (85 percent). Juxtaposed to this are the findings for programmes that indicate a broader disciplinary or sustainability-oriented approach to the study of tourism. The remaining related categories combined made up 32 percent of all programme titles, 53 percent of all affiliation names and 15 percent of the overall course descriptors.

For all tourism programmes with online curricula, the collected data identified an overall average of 15 percent of sustainability-related content. In sum, the findings of this analysis suggest that the more explicit the reference to sustainability in programme title, affiliation name and course descriptor, the higher the likelihood that sustainability-related content is being addressed.

Having completed the examination of what *is* currently being taught in tourism programmes, the next section turns to what *should* be taught from the perspective of various tourism stakeholders working in the field of tourism in SSA.

4.2 Stakeholder Perspectives on Sustainable Tourism

4.2.1 The Analysis Process

The previous examination of online tourism curricula content involved collecting, reviewing and coding the data according to emerging topics and themes which were then further refined and combined to enable analysis. In a similar vein, the search for themes and synergies for coding the survey and interview responses began early in the research process.

The survey and interviews involved mostly qualitative data collection for which numerous coding methods have been suggested. Long (2007, pp. 132–133) advises to commence by thoroughly reviewing the data collected several times before attempting to organize into “meaningful structures” which can then be summarised and paraphrased according to the research questions. Similarly, Neuman (2014, p. 480) suggests that the research questions provide a guiding hand in the organisation of raw data into conceptual categories (Neuman, 2014, p. 480). This advice was heeded in this study, along with the recommendation from Belotto (2018, p. 2625) to create a codebook to document how responses were interpreted. The codebook provided in Appendix 9 reveals recurring and overlapping themes which facilitated the discussion and conclusion of this thesis. Numerous highly recommended computer programmes have been developed to assist with qualitative research including Atlas/ti, Max.txt, QCMap and Sonar Professional (Mayring, 2016, pp. 138–139) as well as Quirkos, MAXQDA and Quiqqa (PAT Research, 2020). Though all of these programmes have their advantages, this study found, in concurrence with Belotto (2018), that with a manageable amount of data, the use of the Microsoft Word functions to highlight, comment and code the transcripts can be equally as effective.

For this study, Excel software was used to collect, categorise, sort and filter responses according to themes for analysis. Furthermore, in accordance with

the content analysis, this part of the research combined open and axial coding (Neuman, 2014, pp. 481–484). Where similar questions were asked in the survey and interviews, the responses were analysed together, otherwise these were presented separately. Survey respondents were assigned identification codes beginning with “S” and interviewees with “I”. The original wording of the responses was used (with minor grammatical errors included) in order to represent the stakeholders in their authentic voices.

4.2.2 Profiles of Survey and Interview Respondents

This section begins by providing an overview of the survey and interview respondents who contributed to this study. This information is intentionally broken down into separate categories which, although possibly limiting in terms of information transparency, was seen as necessary in order to maintain confidentiality.

Altogether 86 individuals were contacted directly for the survey, from which there were 83 responses (see Table 19). At first glance, this would seem an extremely high response rate. However, 63 percent (n=52) of these respondents either briefly glanced at the survey or discontinued after entering some data. Completed responses from all those who began the survey was 37 percent (n=31). According to Cárdenas, Byrd and Duffy (2015, p. 258), response rates can be as low as 10 to 15 percent for postal questionnaires due to lack of interest or the length. With the increasing use of surveys as a research tool, response rates have also decreased and although there is much variance, response rates can range from 67 to 75 percent for academic organisations (Neuman, 2014, p. 342). Reasons given for the increasing resistance to surveys include, according to this author, over-usage, fear of strangers, loss of privacy, distrust, and misuse of surveys for selling purposes.

Conscious of these potential pitfalls, the survey instrument in this study was kept concise with just 13 questions that could be answered in around 10-15 minutes. Also, as previously described, much effort was invested to establish credibility and trustworthiness by providing professional credentials and information about the study in advance.

Table 19: Overview of Responses for Survey Tool

Category	Amount	% of all responders
Total Contacted	86	
Total Responses	83	97%
Completed responses	31	37%
Incomplete responses	52	63%
Disqualified	2	2%
Used in Study	29	35%

Another aspect that warrants mentioning is that this study involved not only academic organisations but also government authorities (Ministries, Embassies), tourism providers (such as tour operators, guides, business owners) and NGOs active in the tourism field. Furthermore, the survey tool was distributed across SSA where English is not necessarily the native language. This was a significant handicap for some as I learned later from one interviewee (I10). Also, reading through the written survey responses, it was apparent that some respondents had struggled with the language although their meanings were, with very few exceptions, always clear. Thus, altogether the response rate of 37 percent can be considered adequate. The final analysis discarded all incomplete responses and two of the complete responses. These two respondents did not qualify for inclusion as, although they had experience of working in the ST field, they were not active in SSA.

For the interviews, 18 potential candidates were contacted from which 11 (61 percent) agreed to give an interview. Two of the interviews were conducted in person while the remaining were conducted with online software such as Skype or WhatsApp.

The complete stakeholder list, as illustrated in Table 20, shows that altogether 40 individuals from 14 different countries and the region of SSA were represented in this study.

Table 20: Country and Recruitment Information for Surveys and Interviews

Location of Work	Research tool	Recruitment
Botswana	Survey	ITB Contact
Cameroon	Survey	DHBW Contact
Cameroon	Survey	Survey forwarded by respondent
Ethiopia	Survey	Trinet-Network Member

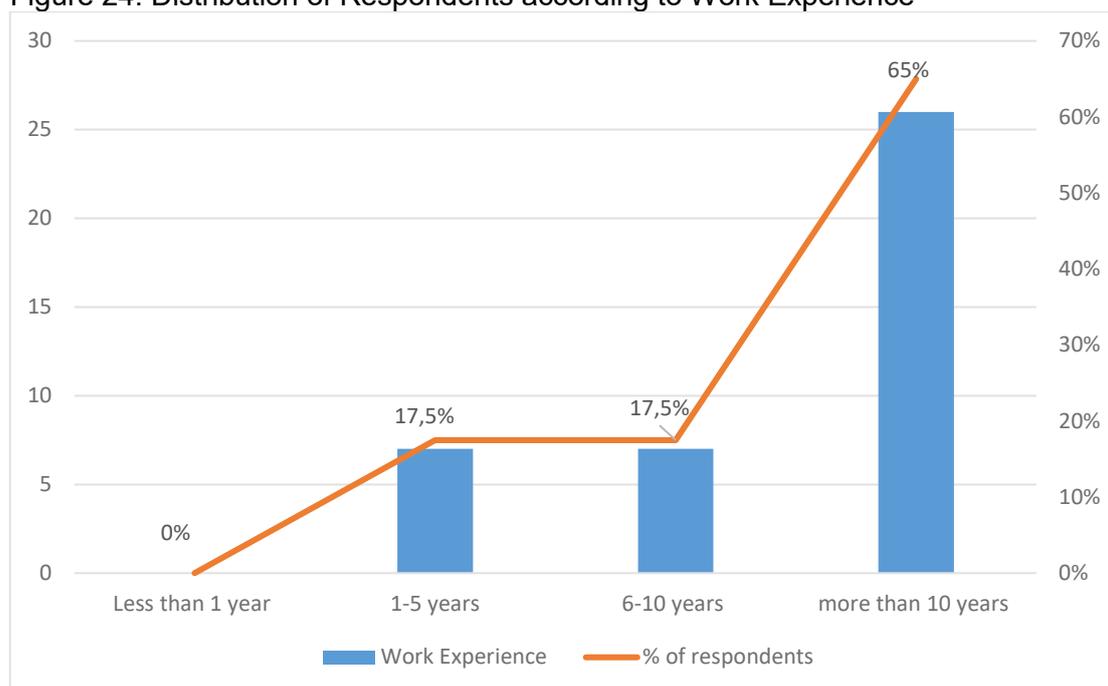
Ghana	Survey	Survey forwarded by respondent
Ghana	Interview	DHBW Contact
Kenya	Survey	Gems of Kenya Website (ITB contact)
Kenya	Survey	Gems of Kenya Website (ITB contact)
Madagascar	Survey	ITB Contact
Madagascar	Survey	Survey forwarded by respondent
Malawi	Survey	DHBW Contact
Mauritius	Survey	Trinet-Network Member
Mozambique	Survey	LATFure member
Mozambique	Survey	LATFure member
Mozambique	Survey	LATFure member
Mozambique	Interview	LATFure member
Mozambique	Interview	LATFure member
Namibia	Survey	DHBW Contact
Namibia	Survey	Survey forwarded by respondent
Namibia	Survey	Survey forwarded by respondent
South Africa	Survey	ITB Contact
South Africa	Survey	ITB Contact
South Africa	Survey	Survey forwarded by respondent
South Africa	Interview	DHBW Contact
SSA	Survey	ITB Contact
SSA	Survey	ITB Contact
SSA	Survey	DHBW Contact
SSA	Interview	ITB Contact
SSA	Interview	DHBW Contact
SSA	Interview	Personal Contact
SSA	Interview	DHBW Contact
SSA	Interview	Interviewee Contact
Tanzania	Survey	Survey forwarded by respondent
Tanzania	Survey	Survey forwarded by respondent
Tanzania	Interview	Personal Contact
Uganda	Survey	ITB contact
Zimbabwe	Interview	ITB Contact

Identification numbers for respondents were kept separate in order not to compromise confidentiality. However, to promote transparency (and possible replication), this table provides information on how the respondents were recruited for this study. Most of the contacts (n=14) were established through the German International Tourism Fair (Internationale Tourismus-Börse or ITB) – the largest global tourism trade fair that takes place in Berlin, Germany every year. Other respondents were recruited from DHBW current projects such as

the previously mentioned LATFure project or other department contacts who are active in the SSA region (n=13). Various respondents generously heeded the request to forward the survey to appropriate tourism stakeholders (n=8). Two survey responses came from the Trinet-Network – an international tourism research network with members distributed across the globe (TRINET, 2019). Finally, two interviewees were established through personal contacts and one through another interviewee.

Figure 24 demonstrates that the respondents in this study represented a group with much professional experience in their respective fields. There were 26 respondents (65 percent) with over 10 years of work experience, followed by seven respondents with 1-5 years of work experience and seven respondents with 6-10 years (17,5 percent). None of the respondents in this study had less than one year of work experience.

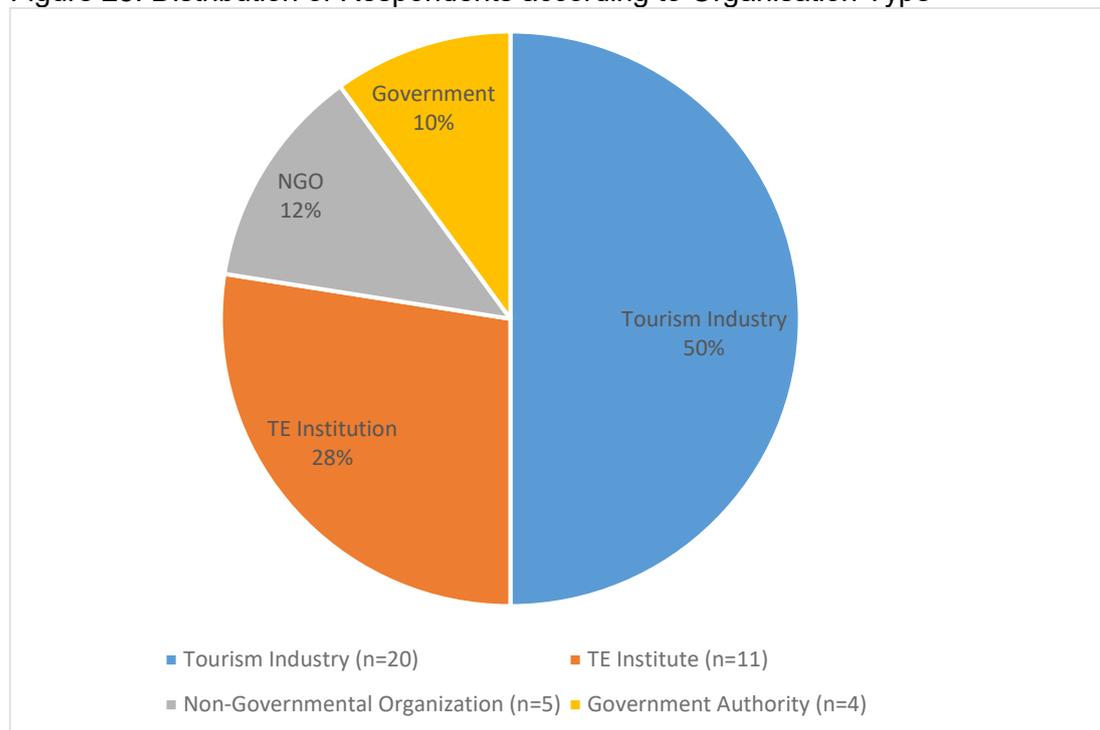
Figure 24: Distribution of Respondents according to Work Experience



An overview of the distribution of organisations represented in this study is presented in Figure 25. This shows that the majority of participants came from the tourism industry (50 percent). The next largest respondent category was from the TE field (28 percent), followed by NGOs (12 percent), and finally, the smallest group was represented by respondents working for national governments in connection with tourism (10 percent).

Table 21 illustrates the positions and the professional fields of work of the stakeholders included in this study. Although several positions and responsibilities had overlapping functions, for purposes of analysis, these were sorted according to *Business, Education, and Community Development* categories. Also not all the respondents explicitly mentioned their position titles, though most provided adequate descriptions of their responsibilities in connection with sustainability to reveal tendencies. Survey respondents were indicated with (S) and interviewees with (I).

Figure 25: Distribution of Respondents according to Organisation Type



This overview confirms the findings from the preceding Figure 24 that, overall, the stakeholders in this study represent the upper levels of expertise in their respective fields. Half of the job titles included descriptors such as *managers, head of, director, executive, owner, professor* or *rector*. However, the other half included descriptors such as *consultant, coordinator, and lecturer* which also indicated high levels of responsibility. Although this study also actively sought the voices of less influential stakeholders, the final selection of respondents were self-selective.

There was a wide range of responses to the question regarding their main tasks and responsibilities in connection with sustainability. Most of the responses fell

into *business-related* responsibilities such as product development, marketing, quality management, and various operational activities such as coordination of suppliers and handling of complaints. In the *Education* field, responsibilities mostly revolved around *research, teaching, trainings* and the *supervision* of students. Several respondents indicated that they were involved in the development of their communities with work relating to community-based tourism development, destination management and planning as well as policy-making and monitoring. Altogether the respondent profiles show a broad range of positions and activities in the field of sustainable tourism in SSA.

Table 21: Overview of Respondent Job Descriptors and Responsibilities

	Business	Education	Community Development
Job Descriptors	Business Development (S)	Coordinator of Tourism Programme (S)	Destination Management (Sx2)
	Business Manager (S)	Educator (S)	Government Tourism Authority (S)
	Consultant for Tourism (S)	Head of International Affairs (S)	Project/Programme Director (S)
	Head of CSR and Sustainability (S)	Head of Tourism Department (S+I)	Executive Director (I)
	Lodge Manager (S)	Lecturer (Sx2)	Managing Director (I)
	Managing Director (S)	Professor of Tourism Studies (S)	
	Marketing Director (S)	Coordinator for Education (I)	
	Owner and Manager of Company (S)	Senior Executive for Enterprise, Productivity and Vocational Training (I)	
	Safari Tour Operator (S)	Rector and Director of Centre for Innovation and Training (I)	
	Tour Consultant (S)	Scientific Deputy Director (I)	
	Tour Guide (I)		
	Business Director (I)		
	Operations Manager (I)		
	Sustainability Manager (I)		
	Business	Education	Community Development
Responsibilities and Tasks	Coordination with suppliers (S)	Education in development of tourism (S)	Community-based Tourism development (Sx2, +Ix2)
	Improvement of ST management practices (S)	Education and knowledge transfer on sustainability (S)	International project management (S)

	Marketing (S+I)	Educational tours (S)	Monitoring of tourism activities in community (S)
	Development of sustainable tours (Sx2)	Research/Teaching/Supervision (S x3,+I)	Destination marketing (S)
	Complaints/Emergency handling (S)	Staff training on sustainability (S)	Community development (S+I)
	Itinerary planning (Sx2,+I)	Development of tourism curricula (Sx2)	Planning of Government activities (S)
	Product Development (Sx4)	Trainings on child protection and human rights (I)	Regulatory responsibilities (community) (S)
	Promotion of ST (S)	Educating locals and visitors on ST practices (I)	ST Law enforcement (S)
	Quality Management (S+I)	Professional skill development (I)	Coordinate initiatives on protecting endangered species (S)
	Quoting and booking of tours (S)	Coordination of 2 Centres: Biodiversity & Innovation (I)	Tourism policy making (S)
	Sales (S)		Sustainability coordinator (Sx2)
	Digital Marketing (S)		Visitor centre management (S)
	Communications (I)		Support government authorities (S)

4.2.3 The Praxis of Sustainable Tourism: Achievements and Challenges

In order to assess how sustainability is being addressed in SSA and what is required for effective ST education, this study asked stakeholders for a brief description of their achievements in this field. The question specifically asked “What are your or your organisations' major achievements relating to the field of sustainable tourism?” Table 22 provides the responses from the survey and interview respondents combined, which - although in summarised form - closely follow the original wording of the responses. These responses have been grouped together using the coding scheme previously established for describing sustainability concepts in the content analysis which, as a reminder, are *Socio-cultural*, *Environment* and *Economic/Management*. The statements have been thematically clustered in order to identify trends in the findings.

Sustainable practices in the area of *Socio-cultural* related to the support of the local communities through various activities relating to the development of sustainable forms of tourism, in particular cultural tourism. Furthermore, many stakeholders were also involved in providing education for schools, tourists, and academia. Two of the respondents reported achievements in the area of

Table 22: Achievements in Sustainability reported by Tourism Stakeholders

Socio-cultural		
community development	education	Gender relations
Financial contribution to schools, health centres, infrastructure	Creation of school awareness programme	Promotion of Gender Balancy
Support of Community based tourism projects (x2)	Education of locals	Promotion of young women in the areas of sport and tourism
Establishment of community-based homestays	Education of "clueless European clientele" on ST	
Consideration of socio-cultural diversity	Education of travellers on ST	
Supportive of ST development initiatives	Education of tourism students in ST (x3)	
Creation of cultural tourism product	Organization of field trips and research in ST field	
Allowance of time for cultural tourism	Graduates studies in field of ecotourism and cultural heritage tourism	
Avoidance of mass tourism	Establishment of International Center for ST and Hospitality	
Promotion of exchanges between tourists and local communities (donations support infrastructure, education, health projects)	Research, articles and books on ST	
Development of weak, rural regions	Initiation of several degree programmes focussing on ST development	
	Integration of sustainability in overall study programme	
	Education of local trainees in sustainable tourism	
	Develop teacher training programme with GIZ	
	Development of education programmes with NGO	
Environment		
resource use	environmental protection	environmental education
recycling and power reduction measures	Creation of climate neutral travel line	Created programme linking education and geotourism
Optimizing of environmental resources	Use of public transportation where possible	Research and publications on ecotourism
Paper waste management measures	Monitoring and control of visitor numbers	Active in raising awareness of landscapes, geological processes, fossils
Introduction of carbon-based compensation model	Support of reforestation projects	Creation of student association for management of environment
Planning and monitoring of community local natural resources	Establishment of guidelines for minimizing impacts on environment (wildlife	Creation of Dual Study programme in Eco Tourism

	protection, energy consumption)	
Recycling practices in office (plastic, paper, water, energy)	Supportive of "Green Seat" buttons for trees in national parks	"Plant a tree" per visitor Project
Replacement of plastic bags with "green bags" and water bottles (x2)	Contribution to the protection and conservation of environment	
	Active in conservation areas and zoos	
	Supportive of local forest projects (x2)	
	Conservation of natural heritage and diversity	
	Supportive of Rhino trust (x2)	
	Received award for human-wildlife conflict programme	
	Supportive of several social and ecological projects	
	Water quality improvement projects	
	Contribution to agricultural projects	
Economic/Management		
operations	poverty/incomes	certification
Embracement of sustainability as quality management tool	Insured long-term, stable, fair incomes (poverty alleviation)	Green Leaf Eco Standard Certification
Integration of sustainability as selection criteria for suppliers	Fair salaries paid above the minimum wages	Travelife Certification (x3)
Promotion of viable, long-term economic operations	Employee turnover lowered through good working conditions	Green Tourism Certification (x2)
Prioritisation of suppliers that adhere to ST principles	Development of unique product that embrace sustainable practices	Eco-Awards Certification
Integration of regional products and partners	Embracement of "purpose beyond profit"	Sustainable Tourism Award
Acquisition of local products		World Responsible Tourism Award
Achieved commitment from travel industry for protection of children		CSR Certification from TourCert
		Establishment of guidelines for hotel and lodge certification
		BMZ project establishing binding sustainability standards
		Golden Palm Award

gender equality. The findings also reveal achievements especially with respect to *Environmental* issues. Most of the achievements were reported in the area of environmental protection which ranged from transport initiatives, reforestation measures and various flora and fauna projects. Respondents also reported a broad array of practical activities relating to the optimal use of resources on daily office operational levels as well on community levels. Finally, several respondents reported achievements in the area of environmental-related education. In the category of *Economic/Management*, stakeholder achievements involved embracing sustainability into business operations, providing stable, fair incomes for employees, and signalling commitment with various certification schemes.

In summary, this part of the data analysis indicates that the stakeholders participating in this study are very much aware of the importance of sustainability for their professional work. They are actively involved in a wide variety of sustainability-related business practices, development projects and educational programmes. Furthermore, they are conscious of the need to make this explicit in their business communication strategies. This need for transparency was also evident in the extensive and detailed stakeholder responses provided for this study.

Juxtaposed with these achievements are the challenges that the tourism stakeholders encountered in their professional lives. These challenges are of significance for this study, not only because future graduates of tourism need to be adequately educated to continue building on the established achievements, but also because they need to be equipped with the skills and competencies necessary to handle the challenges ahead. Following this line of thought, the next question in the survey and interviews asked:

“In the context of your work, what major challenges have you encountered or do you foresee with regard to the field of sustainable tourism?”

The responses to this question were analysed in the context of five broad areas of overlapping concerns, which in the order of importance were seen as: **(1) education; (2) business; (3) environment; (4) socio-cultural; and (5) stakeholder participation.**

(1) Education. Most of the responses to the issue of challenges encountered revolved around the lack of knowledge or the need for education for the ST field. This knowledge gap was purported to be on all societal levels including community, general public, tourists, businesses and government. One **tourism operator** argued that the “lack of knowledge and information on sustainability [was] a big challenge” (S95), whereas another referred to a “lack of transparency in general” (S75). **Several educators** agreed that there was a “no know-how [and] a lack of education in this field” (I11) or a general “misunderstanding with regard to the concept of sustainable tourism” (I19). **Others** remarked that there was a “lack of understanding on the practices in the society that affect sustainability, cultural practices that are actually thought to be good but are not sustainable to a given community.” (S95); or that there was “no functional knowledge of sustainable tourism” and few “policies [and] strategies that deal with this explicitly” (S96).

The local lack of understanding regarding the *benefits of sustainable tourism* was seen as problematic by several **tourism providers**. One noted “Most Africans are poor and will kill animals such as elephants for sale of ivory to the overseas market” (S27), others that:

“Poverty plays a big role and lack of education. On the one hand local communities benefit from tourists/tourism but on the other hand it is more lucrative to poach, break down, deforest and so on.” (S51)

“People in [this country] are very poor, they need this opportunity for development; to improve, to better the lives of local peoples. Rich people build their own hotels, but don’t employ local people, locals are not involved. So locals do not see the opportunities or advantages of tourism.” (I11)

Governments also came under criticism especially among **educators** who argued that “government agencies at the local/district levels do not understand the sector well and its importance” (S38), or that there was a “lack of research on tourism sustainability by the responsible tourism bodies” (S65). Another **educator** expanded on this topic, commenting that there was a:

“lack of knowledge at admin levels. People . . . at different administrative position had poor attitude and knowledge of sustainable tourism ... they see

tourism just from political and economic perspective ... they do not worry about its future ... There are no official sustainable tourism initiative.... and even no institution who give accreditation for industry practitioners At national level, there hadn't been sustainable tourism strategic plan.” (S88)

Offering **government** perspectives, several respondents noted that the concept of sustainable tourism was usually misunderstood which *resulted in limited funding availability for projects*, as one expressed:

“Benefits are long term in nature thus it is difficult to carry communities through the full project cycle: if tourism is not flowing, then there is less income, less hotels, restaurants, and gift selling. This results in the poaching of animals and stripping of environments. The problem is how do the people survive in the meantime? Rural communities are lagging behind in tourism development. Therefore it is difficult to resolve human and wildlife conflicts in poverty stricken areas.” (I6)

On a similar note an **educator** remarked that, in particular, funding was not available for citizens living in rural areas who were frequently less well educated:

“50 percent of population have no education or very little education. It is difficult to develop projects and ideas without funding. This is related to education problem: people who cannot read, cannot find funds. So the more educated people are, the more funding opportunities there will be. So it is important to increase education levels.” (I10)

The importance of increasing knowledge in the field of sustainable tourism was taken up by several other respondents. This was seen as important on a vocational as well as on an academic level. An **educator** commented “We need to educate, to train, to develop the area as an economic opportunity” (I11).

Similarly, **other educators** expressed concern about the “unqualified personnel at the tourist attractions” (S38) and “lack of awareness on tourism sites and other attractions” (S65). Training was seen as especially necessary in the Lodges and Establishments sector where ST is emphasized: “the next step is the training and informing of the staff” (S37). Working in the area of skills

development, one **NGO** respondent drew attention to time constraints and pressures to get trainings finished: “Governments can be pushy, it is important to allow sufficient time to implement programmes. Social dialogue with all the partners important” (I7). Another **NGO** saw the fast-changing dynamics of the tourism industry as the biggest challenge with regard to trainings:

“A huge challenge, especially in tourism, is that it is a very dynamic area, that things change so quickly, that is in travel habits, but also in the filling positions, when I work to raise awareness, it could be that the next year someone else is sitting in the position. This is a challenge for us. Especially in the training areas. But also the dynamics in companies such as Uber or Air B&B, that don’t see the importance for themselves to get involved. Also other trends such as bookings over Internet that happen anonymously. There we see challenges.” (I1)

Concluding the education-related comments, an **NGO** respondent advocated introducing “sustainable tourism development in the education/curricula of tourism” (S55), whereas an **educator** respondent argued that sustainability education was too theoretical and that the “students lack practical skills” (S88).

A further **educator** noted that the field is better understood by academics and is “less understood by practitioners . . . Moreover, when people talk about sustainable tourism, [they] normally focus more on the financial gain as a key pillar” (S82).

(2) Business. The opinion that developing sustainable tourism concepts was—at least for some—secondary to the goal of profit-making was discussed by several respondents. A **tourism operator** noted that “Humans are known for selling their soul when they can make a couple of extra bucks” (S75) which was similar to the **educator** comment: “I think people [are] just thinking about how to get money, not how to make tourism sustainable” (S88).

A lack of coherence with regard to sustainability concepts was seen in the development and marketing of ST products. Looking to the future, one **tourism operator** anticipated *challenges meeting demands*:

“[The] Digital generation have little patience, want immediate gratification, and have little knowledge of sustainability issues ... Our main challenges are: human beings in the digital world want to get their wishes to be fulfilled just a moment after they have thought of it! Some do not want to wait anymore, cannot concentrate and cannot understand if they do not get it in that moment” (S18).

But also on the supply side, several challenges were highlighted. **One tourism provider** noted the difficulty of “bringing together decision-makers in knowledge and goals” inside and outside of the organisation (S15). Another **tourism provider** acknowledged that while there was a “rising trend in demand for responsible products and services among consumers” that the “level of awareness about this very important concept with the supply chain is not at par with the demand for green products” (S93). Further **business-related practitioner** comments included “our suppliers don’t have a sustainable policy in place” (S41) and

“Basically there should be a simple and easy certification system with simple assessment on the realities. Without falling in the trap of excessive administration ... which is a total deterrent for people in the field.” (S75)

From *non-praxis respondents*, an **NGO** noted that it was difficult “to influence the market according to standards of sustainable tourism” (S55), and one **government official** remarked:

“There is the issue of leakages – that is much money is staying in the companies and how much is reaching the communities? The problem is how to enhance the value chain. Even though there less foreign owned and more local owned hotels, and more tourism organisations in [our country], there are still leakages.” (I6)

Summarizing the challenge of introducing sustainability concepts into the tourism business, an **educator** concluded:

“Going Green is not an easy and cheap thing. It takes time, money and dedication. The real challenge is convincing someone that sustainable tourism

is the way forward and where most are leaning towards there, there is still a small group going the other direction.” (S99)

A crucial criterion for the successful implementation of ST concepts was *ensuring long-term employment* in the field, as noted by one **tourism provider**:

“Another challenge is to create sustainable employment for the youth within the tourism industry to enable them to maintain and manage the resources, the nature, wildlife and attractions of our country for future generations.” (S100)

(3) Environment. References to environmental issues were the third most frequently mentioned challenges by respondents. Most of these comments related to problems associated with the *protection of flora, fauna and landscapes on tourist, local, and government levels*.

Two respondents working in the **tourism industry** called attention to increased poaching, both on a domestic (S68) and international level (S23). Others saw tourist transportation arrangements as a critical aspect and expressed difficulties “convincing tourists to travel differently (S78), and “converting clients to sustainable travelling” (S15). Another elaborated:

“We would prefer to show/guide guests to Namibia. There is a big desire for couples/tourists to drive themselves, go wherever they like. This means many more cars/less control, and problems for the environment.” (S51)

Challenges were also reported by **tourism providers** with regard to convincing tourists to offset their environmental impacts:

“We wanted to offer our customers the chance to compensate, to offset their carbon emissions with 1 percent compensation scheme, however, this was unsuccessful. In practice, they just don’t do it.” (I8)

“A major challenge is to reduce the carbon footprint (flights, transport etc.) and still attract tourists to Africa and show them the beauty of our country.” (S100)

Environmental-related criticism was also directed at the government level, in particular with regard to mass tourism policies, as one **educator** commented:

“Government emphasize increase[s] in tourist arrivals (mass tourism) without considering the carrying capacity of its tourist attractions. This has lead to tearing and wearing of infrastructures.” (S65)

Similar criticism came from a **tour operator** who elaborated on this discussion:

“[The] Ministry has a different concept of sustainable tourism. . . . [it] often wants to make profit now or soon. . . . There was recently a large meeting with ministers, tour guides and others. They wanted to implement a “mass tourism” concept that involves investors from China and USA that would mean building a cable car to the top of the Kilimanjaro. This would risk the around 1500-2000 guides and 6000 workers employed directly in the industry. There are even more indirectly employed. . . . Why not tell the people about the other less known areas, and not promote the already well known and overcrowded areas. There are 17 National parks in Tanzania that are bigger than the Serengeti, less known, and have more animals and much to offer.” (I2)

Contrastingly, one **tourism provider** noted that

“Local agencies in Madagascar are getting more interested in sustainability as they are aware of the fact that it is really important to preserve the nature . . . in order to ensure the tourism sector continuity.” (S16)

Shifting focus to the local population, one **tourism provider** remarked that “changing the habits of villages to adopt more ecological ways of living” (S78) was challenging. More specifically, a tour guide stated “there is often land degradation/clearance for new settlements, this results in destruction of national parks and blocking of animal routes (who can no longer wander to find food and water). Animals leave the area and visitors stay away.” (I2)

(4) Socio-cultural. However, not only with respect to environment but also in respect to socio-cultural issues, respondents saw several challenges that revolved around the *disintegration of traditional ways of living*. One **tourism provider** remarked that

“People are changing their lifestyles. They see tourists as rich who will pay for photos. Therefore locals don’t want to work, they want money without work. They want easy money. This is a challenge.” (I3)

Another **tourism provider** saw poverty as the underlying cause of this behaviour:

“Poverty encourages mass tourism: people build houses close to the road and to visitor routes. They often change their lifestyles to attract or appeal to visitors. They fake their culture to appeal to them. In Tanzania, there are relatively less visitors in comparison to USA, therefore locals need to make money from them.” (I2)

Another **tourism provider** saw the brevity of tourist visits as the defining factor for how culture is being represented in destinations:

“Time limits today mean that people travel farther but they don’t dig deeper into culture. Travellers want to travel everywhere but not in depth. The trend is more travel but less time spent there. Often people come and just compare places with others.” (I5)

Not all locals see tourists as a positive influence as one **educator** pointed out, “Big companies come in and are seen as a second colonisation. People see these as a threat, they are afraid. People are afraid to lose their lifestyles, their culture, their land. They are afraid they will be forced to move for hotels, parks, for tourist attractions.” (I11)

Offering a way forward, this respondent added “We need to combine lifestyles. Tourists need to respect culture, the lifestyles of locals. But locals also need investments – so we need to combine both areas. Glocalisation is the key, that is, to combine global tourism concepts with local people interests.” (I11)

A further socio-cultural challenge was seen as *how to respect local food culture* as well as providing a more sustainable food concept. One **tourism operator** remarked “South Africa has great food including meat and maize. We try to use suppliers that avoid mass tourism, that use locals and are proud of their culture” (I5). Another **tourism provider** said that they had reduced food waste by offering a menu instead of a buffet in their hotels but that the real challenge was how “to implement these projects more broadly, in other hotels. . . . More widespread impact is difficult.” (I9)

A final socio-cultural related challenge came from a **tourism provider** who drew attention to the risks associated with the *neglect of human rights* in larger organisations and the challenges associated with “aligning with international workers standards” (I8).

(5) Stakeholder Participation. With a few exceptions, not many respondents commented on the challenges associated with stakeholder participation in the field of ST. Although stakeholder cooperation was seen as necessary, as noted by a **tourism provider**, there was a

“lack of commitment on a national level. Addressing the negative impacts of tourism requires co-operation among ALL tourism industry stakeholders. There has not been any commitment forum in my country to address this crucial issue and yet there is a rising trend in demand for responsible products and services among consumers [emphasis in original].” (S93)

Similarly, an **educator** remarked:

“At national level, there [hasn’t] been [a] sustainable tourism strategic plan ... It is just this year that the Ministry of Culture and Tourism started to develop a five year strategic plan for ecotourism in which I was part of the committee who was responsible for its development yet it is not done.” (S88)

Finally, another **educator** agreed that “Tourism as a field of study is not given respect and attention by government compared to other fields of study” (S65).

Conclusion

As can be seen from the foregoing discussion, the issue of challenges was one that triggered extensive and detailed responses from the stakeholders included in this study.

Although responses varied greatly according to stakeholder type and professional focus, the main concern revolved around inadequate education and knowledge of sustainability all societal levels. Further issues related to a lack of commitment and strategy in the praxis of tourism and the negative impacts of tourism on the environment and traditional lifestyles. A few respondents noted that was insufficient stakeholder cooperation in the field of

ST. The picture that emerges is that ST is a multi-faceted field, with a wide range of complex, interrelated issues that need to be addressed.

It also becomes apparent that the task of preparing students for education in this field offers no simple, clear cut, one size fits all solution.

4.2.4 The Relevance of Sustainable Tourism for Tertiary Education

One of the central objectives of the qualitative part of this analysis was to elicit stakeholder perspectives on effective ST curricula content. However, conscious of my leanings as an educator and researcher in this field, it seemed appropriate to begin by checking stakeholder perspectives on whether, if at all, stakeholders agreed with the underlying assumption that ST education is necessary in the TE sector. Therefore, the next question aimed to give stakeholders the opportunity to voice their opinions on this aspect. One needs to bear in mind, however, that given the focus of the research—educating for ST in TE—respondents may be tempted to give socially desirable answers.

The question specifically asked:

“Do you think that there is a need for sustainable tourism programmes in higher education? Please explain why or why not.”

All of the respondents with the exception of one tourism provider answered this question in the affirmative. These responses were frequently expressed in an emphatic tone or with an emphasis such as “Yes!”, “Of, course”, “Definitely, yes”, “Yes, absolutely”, or “YES (in capitals please)”.

Most of the explanations accompanying these opinions were connected to **(1) education** themes, closely followed by comments pertaining to **(2) leadership**. Much fewer responses related to **(3) business and/or environment** aspects.

(1) Education. The majority of education-related explanations were justified by highlighting *knowledge deficiencies in the field*—a recurrent theme throughout this data analysis. Several **educators** argued the need for TE in order to clarify or “to improve understanding” (S96) with regard to concept of sustainability. Similarly, another **educator** remarked that “people need to understand what

sustainable tourism is and why it is important. I think this is important because the concept is less understood” (S82).

There was a broad agreement among **tourism provider** respondents on the *need for tourism studies in TE* in order to promote sustainability in the praxis of tourism:

“Yes I believe so ... at least to better define the concept to start with. As the word is (over)used and often not correctly. And once defined, to translate into what it means in the field.” (S75)

“Sustainable tourism should become the normality and as long as people do not understand that, education is necessary.” (S68)

“More and more people are now venturing to the tourism industry and are not knowledgeable of how to sustain the environment.” (S27)

“Many colleagues have no knowledge and they do not know how to do it in practice. Therefore this would be very helpful, if practical parts are a main part of higher education with sustainable tourism.” (S18)

However, **NGO** respondents also concurred that ST in TE was important for broadening knowledge in the industry. Criticised was the *neglect of human rights issues as well as theoretical and practical approaches* in tourism studies.

“Definitely yes. . . .Speaking from another perspective perhaps, but often destinations are dependent, or at least to a great degree dependent on tourism, so it is important that tourism has continuity. Therefore I believe this is an important point and that’s why sustainability should be included in the study programme. This is just as important as accounting in my opinion. So that tourism remains a viable branch. From this perspective, but also as I said in the beginning, in the area of human rights. I think the human rights are an important theme in tourism, therefore, I think that budding tourism professionals should be informed. This asks then, ‘what does that mean? What is our responsibility, and what can I do?’ To get involved in a topic means to reflect and not to be sceptical or to have prejudices with regard to the topic. In a programme of studies, one should not only present the positives but also the negatives and risks. Our experience with students is that our topics are always

welcome and accepted. Even if students cannot identify with the topic, or see it as not as important, at least they are aware and informed.” (I1)

“There is a deficiency in scientific, systematic theory. I say this as a practitioner. And there is also a deficiency in knowledge about practical approaches in almost all fields of tourism education (from gastronomy towards politics).” (S55)

One **tourism operator**, speaking from personal experience, elaborated on the lack of sustainability content in tourism programmes in TE, and called for *more visibility* on this in tourism curricula:

“[Students] should be taught this at the beginning of their studies so that they learn the concepts at the start. Sustainability should be organized, formalized and integrated into tourism studies. I missed this in my own studies, some lecturers talked about it, but briefly, not in depth, more like scratching the surface. I missed courses on how to strategically implement sustainability into business processes. In my own work in the product development team, it has been the learning by doing approach. I think specific sustainability courses should be included into the study programme because there are always other priorities, other topics and content that need to be squeezed into the plan and sustainability content is then left out. Sustainability should be given priority.” (I8)

Similarly, another **educator** argued for the *integration of sustainability concepts into existing programmes*, however, not as stand-alone courses:

“Yes. But my point of departure or difference in my opinion is that one should guard against repackaging of existing programmes. You should mainstream sustainability into all components of programmes. . . . Sustainability needs to be weaved into all other courses: It should involve environment, culture, people, society. Sustainability should be a central theme in all its dimensions – not as a stand-alone course. The bottom line: environment, people, economy should all be integrated.” (I4)

Several respondents argued that ST programmes in TE were necessary in order to facilitate the spread of know-how on a broader societal level. Whereas

one **NGO** pointed out that ST was “important for research purposes.” (I7), others focussed on the outreach function of TE:

“If we talk about sustainability then we need higher education. Extensions are then possible into schools, connections to communities.” (I10)

“Education has a particular focus in [our organisation]. It has a high priority. We have worked . . . on projects relating to tourism education in Asia. Mostly with vocational schools though not HE, but one does not work without the other. You need the teachers for these schools. This is just as important.” (I9)

“There is need for sustainable tourism programmes in higher education to not only the students but to the community, stakeholders and governments. The programmes will equip the students with knowledge to work and do tourism businesses while ensuring that tourism is sustained. The community and stakeholders cannot be left out because as beneficiaries of the tourism industry they need to understand how to interact with the tourism environment positively. This will reduce the destruction of tourism while carrying tourism developments and investments. Governments need to be aware of the negative and positive impacts of tourism. And since governments develop tourism policies they need to know the measure for tourism sustainability.” (S65)

(2) Leadership. Closely connected to the previous education-related discourse, were further responses that advocated ST in TE to *promote leadership* in the field. Speaking in a general context, one **tourism provider** commented “. . . by teaching we can make a difference.” (S41) While another **tourism provider** remarked:

“The higher education levels have voices – they can advise policy makers, they become future leaders, advisers, ministers, people listen to educated doctors and heads of departments. Learning does not end in the class. Their learning should be passed on to those who don’t know.” (I2)

An **educator** argued that ST in TE was necessary because “the personnel at the helm of affairs concerning tourism needs to understand what it takes to ensure the sustainability of the industry. Therefore [there is a] need to train people at the higher level to fit into those positions.” (S38)

A more context-specific rationale for sustainability in tourism TE was provided by an **educator**:

“Yes there is a need. Because people need to be educated about problems. Chinese people in Mozambique are only looking at exploitation, but profit should benefit present and future generations, there should be solidarity. It should not be egotistic, but for everyone. Sustainable tourism is not to gain money, not “capitalism” that is only for profit. Everyone should participate in tourism. [The] Chinese are cutting the forests, exploiting the environment. They have overfished the prawns in the ocean, they are all gone. The government protects this type of investment, people object and make protests but are beaten down. We need sustainable tourism education in Mozambique.” (I11)

There were also frequent comments with explicit references to the need to prepare tourism students for “*future*” *leadership* in the industry. In particular, several **government** stakeholders answered affirmatively to the research question with statements such as “Yes, as we need some brand-new thinkers who will ensure the future of sustainability in the tourism sector” (S16), “Yes it is important to educate our future leaders at the right age group so they grow with a focused mind to manage our sustainably.” (S23) and further “Yes, the earlier knowledge and skills are imparted, the easier it becomes to convince future leaders, opinion makers, practitioners etc. as there would already be a foundation laid for the practice of sustainable tourism.” (S30). A further **governmental official** elaborated:

“Everyone has a role to play and youth constitute a higher percentage in higher education institutions, these are the leaders of tomorrow. They need to master [sustainable tourism] now. They need to make sustainable tourism or responsible tourism a habit, we need to start growing a culture of sustainable tourism.” (I6)

Several **tourism providers** were likewise of the opinion that ST programmes in TE would have positive impacts on leadership in the future:

“I think it is necessary to make all aware what damage we as humans do and to motivate children/people/future generations to figure out ways of using the earth without damaging it.” (S51)

“There is a need for sustainable tourism programs in higher education. This will bring the knowledge and understanding of the importance of sustainability into the minds of the people and once this knowledge is acquired early will help change the society positively. We are struggling with sustainability now because we were not made aware from the beginning that the society, the environment etc. at all costs must be protected even for the future generations to come.” (S95)

“I feel there is a big need for sustainable tourism programmes in higher education. In higher education they touch on the basics such as definitions. . . . students are not prepared enough, in order for to grow and exceed we need to have the in depth meaning of what it is we need to do and what we strive towards in our set industries.” (S99)

(3) Business and/or Environment. In comparison to the comments put forth relating to education and leadership, relatively fewer respondents affirmed their support of sustainable tourism in TE with arguments based on business and related environmental themes.

The business-related rationale for ST in TE included several statements touching on *topics ranging from marketing to trends and environmental challenges in the industry*:

“Sustainable Tourism programs must be part of the course work in higher education because it is the only future! In this age of accountability, sustainability reporting is the best marketing strategy and sustainability is also a core part of the experiences that should be offered by tourism stakeholders.” (S93)

“The environment and sustainable tourism is becoming an increasing trend to travellers. They are looking for the most eco-friendly places to stay at. Especially for students who want to work in the tourism industry should be aware of this trend and its importance”. (S37)

Contrastingly, one **educator** argued that *other pressing issues relating to the tourism development and employment should be attended to* before the focus can be turned to ST in TE:

“There is already at some Universities in Ethiopia for instance. But the problem is why people should worry about sustainable when the mass tourism is not yet flourished to the extent expected ... the other thing is there has to be structure or some sort of governmental support in recruiting graduates ... I do not think there is ... Still tourism is at infant stage ... enough we provide our students sustainable tourism related courses in the program of tourism and hotel managements I think we have to first develop tourism products/new destinations and promote them and get more tourists.” (S88)

Comments from ***tourism practitioners*** that focussed mainly on the environment covered aspects relating to *climate change, resource use, as well as environmental and species protection*:

“Sustainability is more important than ever before, and it gets more and more important, if you take the example of the schools protesting for more climate protection. Many species of animals are dying, we should direct our activities to this. This should be reflected in curricula, it shouldn't just be greenwashing.” (I3)

“We [don't] want future generations to be able to get as overwhelmed by this country as we are by it today. Already, many animals and plants are threatened by extinction and cultures and traditions could be lost.” (S22)

“Absolutely, the impact of cruise ships or thousands of charter flights to small islands is stretching the resources of some cities and areas to the absolute limit. I think stricter controls and limits should be enforced to protect nature and heritage sites and scholars should learn about the impact of tourism (positive and negative) as early as possible. In South Africa there are many school camps, some of them in the bush, and students can learn a lot about the importance of preserving wildlife, nature, etc., as well as how to implement sustainable living at home and in school.” (S100)

To wrap up the discussion on whether respondents perceived ST as necessary in TE, a ***tourism provider*** affirmed:

“Yes, absolutely, sustainability is a global problem that needs a complex understanding of many areas, therefore higher education is needed.” (S15)

Conclusion

Responses to the question of whether tourism stakeholders saw ST as necessary in TE was answered with an unequivocal and emphatic affirmative. Most of the responses, as in previous analysis, revolved around issues relating to a lack of knowledge or education on the concept of sustainability. Respondents likewise emphasized that sustainability education should be promoted on all societal levels. However, opinions varied on how sustainability should be implemented. Whereas one respondent argued that sustainability courses should be made more visible in curricula, another advised against stand-alone courses and recommended integrating sustainability into existing curricula. In the context of this discussion, leadership emerged as a new and prominent theme. Respondents thought educating for leadership in connection with sustainability was important on all levels of society but particularly with regard to preparing the youth for their future roles as opinion makers and influential members of societies. In the area of business, several respondents underscored the imperative for adequately marketing and developing ST destinations, while others emphasized that curricula should address the negative environmental impacts of the industry.

The detailed rationale and elaborations provided by respondents to the research question indicates that the responses were authentic and sincere and that therefore, initial concerns regarding socially desirable responses were unfounded.

4.2.5 Stakeholder Participation in Curricula Development

Shifting focus from the relevance of ST in TE, the next question in the study sought to elicit respondent opinions on the importance of stakeholder involvement in curricula development. Asking stakeholders for their opinions of whether they think they should be involved in developing curricula for ST education, may, at first glance, have seemed a redundant question. However, the literature review had revealed conflicting ideas with regard to curricula design in tourism. In general, industry interests predominated in tourism studies although numerous scholars disagreed with this focus. Thus, the question of

whether all stakeholders should have a say in TE curricula development seemed a pertinent one to ask. The question thus was posed:

“Do you think tourism stakeholders (for example, the tourism industry, higher education institutions, development organisations, and government officials) should play a role in shaping tourism academic programmes? Please explain.”

Responses to this question consisted of issues broadly relating to **(1) societal benefits**, **(2) employment** and **(3) praxis relevancy**. The majority of the respondents answered the question in the affirmative, although three respondents made no further comments other than “yes” and a few made only brief remarks such as “Yes I think [it] was necessary to including all” (S56), or “Yes, because sustainable tourism is everybody responsibility” (S78).

However, most of the respondents elaborated on their opinions to this research question. A final fourth category **(4) reservations** included five respondents who advocated stakeholder participation albeit with some doubts and one respondent who explicitly disagreed with the idea.

(1) Societal benefits. The most frequent responses related to the perceived benefits to society resulting from the inclusion of all stakeholders in curriculum development. Though answers were diverse, the most prominent in connection to this discussion was again broadly related to the theme of *leadership*, illustrated in a response by a **government authority**: “Yes all were important stakeholders who closely collaborate for the benefit of the nation and future generations.” (S23). Several **tourism providers** focussed on *leadership in the context of policy making*:

“Education ministers must come up with programs / policies to ensure that tourism programs are those that will positively affect the society, the institutions must ensure that the programs are actually effectively being taught in their institutions and the tourism industry must give platforms to the society to practice these sustainable policies.” (S95)

“Yes, very confident, yes. Organisations have the opportunity to change policies, to enforce the law, they should guide sustainable tourism education; they can put policies into action.” (I2)

Others referred to societal benefits through leadership in the context of *educational policy*, as illustrated by the following **educator respondents**. These emphasized how education policies should steer TE to serve the needs of broader society rather than individual interests:

“The purpose of higher education is to solve societal problems. Higher education programmes should be designed with stakeholders in mind. . . . The National Accreditation Board in Ghana demands proof that programme developers have engaged with all relevant stakeholders; they need to bring proof of meetings that they have conversed with the likely targets of their programme. If not, then the courses will not be credited. Higher education should make society better.” (I4)

“I strongly believe they are much responsible bodies in shaping tourism academic programs ...You know what people do in universities, when they finish their Master or PhD they go for "demand survey" to open [a] program just for their interest not for industry not for students ... If stakeholders are really involving in curriculum development I hope they will shape in better way ...” (S88)

One **tourism destination manager** pointed out that to foster future leadership in sustainability, adults in key positions across all spheres of society need to act as *role-models*:

“Yes, scholars should learn about the impact of tourism (positive and negative) as early as possible. However the "adults" and the various stakeholders in the ministries, school, universities play a vital role to educate the youth of the importance of preserving wildlife, nature etc. as well as how to implement sustainable living at home and in school. Adults must be role models and show the younger generation the way to a more sustainable future in tourism.” (S100)

Other respondents focussed on the potential economic impacts to society from an *inclusive stakeholder approach* to tourism curricula design, as seen by a **practitioner** working in tourism as well as an **educator**:

“Yes. Better to have an educated nation especially [as] our country depends on tourism and is the number 2 revenue income generator after Diamonds In Botswana.” (S27)

“Yes, tourism needs all stakeholders. Everybody has a role to play because tourism is very pervasive in nature and it cuts across so many other sectors of the economy.” (S82)

Placing the research into the broader perspective, one *tourism provider* compared the relative importance of attending to sustainability in a country that had several pressing issues. This respondent noted how individuals struggling to make a living in SSA may have *other economic priorities*:

“Yes I believe they should. It is just a matter of priorities as here in Namibia we have drought, poverty, hardship and under these circumstances all are focused on their own survival and not of nature’s survival. In a first world country it may be easier as all have the luxury to focus on other things, as the basics such as a home, food and security are taken care of.” (S51)

(2) Employment. The idea that stakeholder involvement could lead to increased employment opportunities through improved curricula was a related theme that resonated with both *tourism providers* and *educators*:

“A combined synergy will indeed produce the right curriculum and content of study that will not only be relevant but also job market-ready.” (S93)

“Whether from industry, NGOs, ministries, this can only bring advantages, I don’t see any disadvantages. The quality of work, the employment possibilities will all be improved by this.” (I9)

“For sure they have to be involved because they are the future employers of the tourism graduates. In [our university] we engage these bodies when developing and reviewing tourism academic programmes. So we develop curricula depending on the needs of stakeholders. We invite them on brainstorming and feedbacks on our graduates working with them. Therefore, in my country our students are good employees because of this involvement of stakeholders.” (S65)

“Definitely, this would help to increase the relevancy of education programmes. All stakeholders are equally important. Industry is getting the products from higher education and therefore need to be involved.” (I10)

“Yes so that academic programmes remain relevant and institutions train personnel that fulfil the needs of the industry; it also ensures that people who receive relevant training stand a better chance of being employed in the sector.” (S30)

Stakeholder involvement was argued not only to improve curricula content, but also market-relevant skills and thus employment chances. This was illustrated in a comment from a **government** interviewee and the two following comments from **practitioners** in the field:

“Practitioners should share their practical experiences. Otherwise, we may produce students that are not really needed in industry. Academia, businesses, NGOs all have different perspectives and should have a say otherwise we may teach redundant skills. We need the different perspectives also from industry. We need to take trending into account, what is current? We also need to adapt to the industry vision: what are the strategies in 5 to 10 years?” (I6)

“We have a programme in Tunisia in which stakeholders are involved from the very beginning. They shape the tourism programmes. Otherwise you may be creating personnel that are removed from real-life. We heard from our project partners that when the students come to the hotel, they often have to be retaught from the beginning. We need to include as many people as possible from the beginning. As many stakeholders as possible. This exchange is fruitful; you get various opinions, a colourful picture, and more ideas on the table.” (I8)

“These programs will provide the skills and knowledge for the students to apply for the relevant jobs in the tourism industry.” (S37)

(3) Praxis relevancy. In particular, involving stakeholders from the praxis of tourism was seen as advantageous and was the second most frequently mentioned aspect in the context of stakeholder participation in curricula design. One **NGO** argued that “practitioners . . . ought to share their practical

experiences” (S19) as this added value to tourism programmes. This idea also resonated with an **educator** who thought that “[stakeholders ... know by experience what is the need of tourist and [weaknesses] of a system” (S60). Another **educator** remarked that “tourism is multi-sectorial in nature, it therefore needs all tourism stakeholders on board to bring out their views on is needed in the industry so that it can be inculcated into the schools/universities curricular” (S38).

In a similar vein, several **tourism providers** agreed that input from the praxis of tourism would be beneficial for tourism education:

“I do feel tourism stakeholders should play a role. It is through them that we gain the knowledge and skills needed. Who better to show you than those dealing with the topic each and every day. (S99)

“Theoretical knowledge is important – but it should be balanced. Praxis experience in addition to this is important. Guest speakers, product managers, etc., are important and bring the students closer to the topic.” (I3)

Yes - it should be a combined effort of institutions as well as stakeholders, as the institutions can follow guidelines that the businesses on the ground experience on a day to day basis.” (S22)

Stakeholder input from the praxis of tourism was also seen as especially useful for providing concrete examples for tourism classes:

“[Stakeholders ... have to shape the tourism academic programs as they are the ones that are aware of what is happening during trips, what is important for customers in each destination (beach, nature, etc.), and what is the trend regarding international tourism.” (S16)

“People are not really aware of what has to be done in tourism. They need to be trained by different people (stakeholders). They bring ideas, concepts and problems to the courses. All this can help to develop better courses.” (I11)

“Yes, we shall participate because we can give first-hand information from the field to students that have a different look on the case.” (S15)

(4) Reservations. Although five respondents endorsed stakeholder participation in curricula development, they also expressed various *reservations*. Three **NGOs** with differing areas of professional focus expressed concern about imbalances in stakeholder influence:

“In my opinion, yes. Because the government, civil society and companies should be in dialogue regarding this theme and should have a say. . . . It is important in order to select topics and to provide expertise. That way we can well prepare tourism students in that we are contact with government educational officials and companies. I think especially in special topics, such as ours, it is important to look at who is the expert and to remain in a dialogue, to learn from each other. It is important that industry doesn’t dictate input but that all stakeholders have a say.” (I1)

“I cannot imagine tourism education (btw any education) without inputs by the mentioned stakeholders. It depends rather which influence they should given.” (S55)

“Yes. Absolutely. But allow for enough time and make sure that people are heard, that all actors are involved.” (I7)

Similarly, one **tourism provider** advised that all stakeholders be involved as “otherwise only profit and turnover will play a major role...” (S68). Another thought that educators and tourism providers should be involved but was sceptical with regard to other stakeholders “As for education ministries and development organisations from my experience. . . they too often live in a bubble of their own ... and miss the point” (S75).

To conclude the discussion on stakeholder participation is a comment from a **tourism provider** who disagreed with the idea that all stakeholders should be included in curricula design. However, from the statement, it was not clear which stakeholders were perceived as having a negative impact on ST education:

“No - I think they [stakeholders] already play a role, but in the wrong direction. They do not seem to see the reality we live in. They do not prepare the actual curricula for their students in the way that they will survive long term also in the

international competition. Daily working reality seems to be changed into a school system which I think will be problematic. Where they would be necessary - e.g. in bringing in the actual needs into the curricula, they think they need to initiate new developments and do not see reality and fields where their students will get jobs.” (S18)

Conclusion

The majority of the respondents across all stakeholder groups in this study saw stakeholder involvement in curricula design as beneficial, and were eager to elaborate on their opinions. The varied responses mirrored the diversity of the stakeholders’ professional experiences and interests. However, several themes emerged as prominent in the discussion. These revolved broadly around the perceived benefits to society through more coherent national and education policy-making in the ST field, the importance of role-models for improving ST education, and the endorsement of an inclusive stakeholder approach.

A further prominent theme was the perceived increased employment opportunities resulting from the inclusion of stakeholders in ST education. This was attributed to improved curricula through increased market-relevancy of content as well as closer praxis orientation. Noteworthy was that although some respondents included NGOs and ministries as stakeholders in their statements, there were substantially more references to ‘industry’ as a key stakeholder. Reservations about the dominance of business stakeholders were expressed, perhaps not surprisingly, mostly from NGOs but also from one practitioner.

4.2.6 Appropriate Curricula Content for Sustainable Tourism Education

4.2.6.1 Stakeholder Definitions of Sustainability

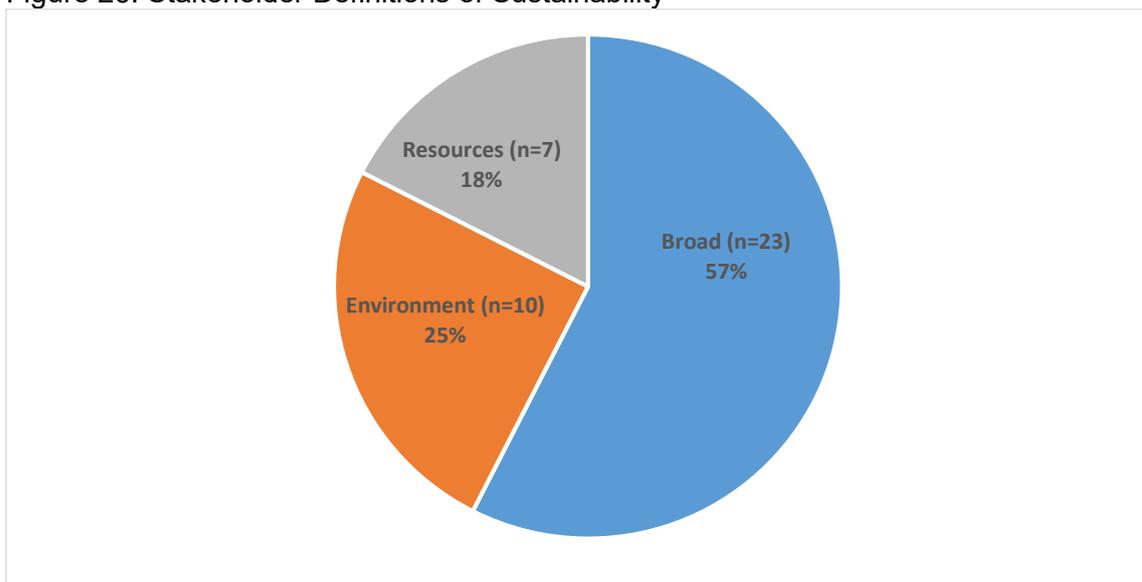
From the broader context of respondent opinions on the relevance of stakeholder participation in the TE sphere, this analysis shifted focus to what sort of curricula content was considered effective for ST education. However, as the literature had revealed a lack of conformity with respect to how sustainability was conceptualised, it seemed appropriate to first gain insights

into how the various tourism stakeholders defined ST. Therefore, the next question asked was:

“Please define in your own words your understanding of the term ‘sustainable tourism’.”

Most of the stakeholders’ definitions of ‘sustainable tourism’ revolved around the UN definition that embraces the concept of the three socio-cultural, economic and environmental pillars. Figure 26 illustrates that 23 (57 percent) of respondents referred to ST within this **(1) broad context** using either general statements or referring to at least two of UN dimensions in their descriptions. In comparison ten respondents (25 percent) focussed entirely on the **(2) environment** and seven (18 percent) solely on the effective use of **(3) resources**.

Figure 26: Stakeholder Definitions of Sustainability



(1) Broad context. Within the ‘broad context’ definition category, a wide range of descriptions were put forward by respondents. A selection of these are presented, clustered according to stakeholder group, beginning with **tourism educators**. As anticipated, this group of respondents were able to express themselves in the vernacular typically associated with sustainability discourse even though several were non-native English speakers:

“Sustainable tourism is doing and carrying on the business of tourism with commitment to avoid negative impacts on the tourist sites, respecting and preserving peoples culture, traditions manners and destination's image. Sustainable tourism is ensuring that tourism as an industry survives for future generations both to tourists and host destinations.” (S65)

“A tourism activity that does not compromise the future generations desire and utilization for tourism. It is new and future concept/form of tourism dedicated for low or minimum impact on destination. Aimed at seeing: tourists are satisfied, local community benefited, no or minimum impact on socio-cultural and environmental element of the destination being visited ...” (S88)

“ST is a type of tourism that ensures the sanctity of the tourism process. Physical environment, economy, people, community should all be included in the concept. It is a fluid concept that involves all the stakeholders. It is holistic, if one stakeholder is left out, it is less than optimum.” (I4)

“ [It] is a concept that] cares for the environment (keeps integrity, it preserves). It involves the economic development of communities [and] also the social and human development, it uplifts the human condition. This is all relating to transportation, accommodation, agriculture. There are already regulations in Mozambique that:

- Prevent exploitation
- Must develop the community
- Must be of benefits to country
- Promote small businesses

The biggest problem is to increase education levels and standards.” (I10)

“[Sustainable tourism] is a form of tourism that benefits hosts and guests without compromising the ability of the future generation for the same. In the course of attaining financial benefits (for hosts) and in the course of spending money (for guests) it does not harm the environment and culture of the people upon which it is built.” (S82)

However, the definitions of ST from **tourism providers** revealed that they also were conscious of UN definitions and, barring a few exceptions, readily applied these in various ways in their responses:

“Sustainable tourism has 3 aspects: socio-cultural, economic, and environmental and these should all be in balance. Sustainable tourism should minimize the negative impacts on the environment and maximize the positive aspects. I think a 100 percent achievement of sustainability is impossible, but we could achieve more sustainability though.” (I8)

“Sustainable tourism is a type of tourism that involves preserving nature, enhancing local people culture and history as well as promoting tourism as a successful and promising economic field thanks to the jobs it creates and the currency entry it ensures for developing countries.” (S16)

“The concept is actually very broad and I am not that good at words. I would say a form of tourism that generates a globally positive revenue to ensure that it is viable from all perspectives being nature conservation, local communities, education, empowerment, procurement, etc. Said differently a form of tourism that leaves a positive balance sheet after visiting a place.” (S75)

“Sustainable tourism is all about making a positive impact on the environment, the society and the economy as a tourist thus ensuring that the future generation will enjoy the same.” (S95)

“To me sustainable tourism attempts to minimize the impact on the environment and even local culture in order for the future generation to also benefit from this, and still generate in income and conservation of local ecosystems. It is in plain words ‘going Green’, trying to make the carbon footprint smaller and healing the earth or stopping the ongoing damage at least.” (S99)

“[Sustainable tourism] is tourism that consumes in a more responsible way, it minimizes negative social and environmental impacts, but also tries to generate economic benefits for the area and the locals. I avoid five star hotels and stay instead in local guesthouses. The locals benefit from this type of tourism.” (I2)

“It means responsible travel, whereby for experiencing nature and observing wild animals is central ... It means long term, ecological, economic viability. It

should be environmentally friendly and 'gentle.' The positive ecological impacts should be increased and the negative impacts reduced. It should involve financing protected areas and nature reserves [and] should consider the culture, animals, flora, landscapes, and the disadvantages of tourism for these aspects. Also the value from tourism should stay in the country." (I3)

The briefer comments from **tourism providers**, mostly touched on the benefits of ST, stating, for example, that ST "... is tourism that increases the benefits and reduces the negative impacts caused by tourism for destinations" (S93) or that "benefits both people and nature in the long run" (S68) or again that ST should be of "benefit for everybody (tourists, local people, my company and my employees)." (S78)

Responses from several **NGOs and a government official** likewise revealed that these stakeholder groups had embraced UN definitions of sustainability: One NGO contrasted perceived definitions of ST from the industry with perceived definitions from 'concerned' people before offering an own definition:

"I will not repeat the many given overarching general definitions. In general there are 2 perspectives, the one comes from the tourism industry the interest of which is to gain profit from tourism products as long as possible, and the other is from concerned people, who want to conserve the human environment (with the cultural and ecological assets) as long as possible. In my understanding "sustainable tourism" is a short term for tourism for sustainable development, covering all three spheres: ecological and social sustainability and economic development." (S55)

Yet another **NGO** focussed on economic and environmental issues:

"[Sustainable tourism] involves various aspects, it is a form of tourism that delivers employability long term, over many years. [It is] tourism that is in line with environmental concerns, involves no erosion and considers infrastructure: in touch with existing structures and doesn't destroy these [and] should be run by nationals, not outsiders. Financial benefits should be shared by sector in country, and not a 'packaged holidays' concept." (I7)

A third **NGO** working in the human rights field, not surprisingly had this topic at the centre of their ST definition:

“Sustainability in tourism covers three pillars, that is environment, social and ethics. Whereby we are concerned with human rights. And we work in this small niche under the SDGs and UN guiding business principles. And sustainability in tourism means for us, in the area of environment, to watch over the environment; in the area of social, working conditions and fair incomes, local employment. Concrete this means to respect local human rights and to involve the local population. . . . Sustainability means to be in harmony with nature, with the local population, that nothing gets destroyed, not the environment but also not the rights of the people.” (I1)

To compete this category is a definition of ST provided by a **government authority** which likewise leans closely on UN definitions of sustainability:

“Sustainable tourism is the practice of tourism from both the demand and supply side that ensures the resources are not depleted and future generation will enjoy the same if not better products. Sustainable tourism ought to support and ensure that local communities benefit, the tourists enjoy authentic unspoilt products/experiences, the environment is protected and enhanced, businesses remain viable and the planet is protected by all the interaction.” (S19)

(2) Environment. In comparison to the stakeholders who referred to the preceding broader definitions of ST, there were relatively fewer stakeholders who focussed solely on environmental or resource use in their definitions. For the purposes of analysis, these were again clustered according to stakeholder group. **Two educators** used very brief and similar terminology in their descriptions, defining ST as a “type or a form of an activity [that] takes care to the environment today and tomorrow” (S71, S73).

Other environment-related definitions from **tourism providers** made references to aspects such as landscapes, and flora and fauna preservation:

“Sustainable tourism is providing a service to guests, but taking into consideration and focusing on the having a low impact on the surrounding

environment. This includes taking care of the Fauna and Flora in the surrounding environment” (S37)

“Making and allowing the natural environment to sustain its self and those that depend on it and avoiding destruction.” (S27)

“As I understand it is the use of the country/nature/environment for the benefits of tourism/to make money in such a way so that it can continue indefinitely into the future without harming/damaging/breaking down anything.” (S51)

“In the context of our work - sustainable tourism is using our potential in a way and with activities and products across geotourism that we safeguard our site for the needs of future generations, but without destroying the potential or changing it [so] that future generations cannot get a link to our work today or [can] no longer understand its importance.” (S18)

“This means that places don’t get destroyed, that they are preserved. People need to realise what the country has to offer, tourism is underdeveloped here, we must retain the nature for future generations, so that people have a future with tourism. Locals often don’t go on holiday, so we need to preserve the landscapes for them, for their future. It is difficult to generalize, people are different but tourism for locals should be developed. Lodges are overpriced, the locals cannot pay. . . . Europeans often pay €400-900 per night/per person for all-inclusive offers with food and drink. This includes two game drives and luxury accommodations. This is unreachable for locals, Europeans can afford to pay more.” (I5)

Other ***tourism providers*** mentioned ecology and carbon footprint aspects of environmentalism in their definitions of ST:

“It’s tourism that works within the boundaries or possibilities of a global ecosystem taking care or keeping the routes of its societies and people. Sustainable means a self-organized and renewing cycle that gives humans limits for their behaviour. Sustainable tourism works within exactly those boundaries to keep nature and or planet alive as we know it.” (S15)

“The impact of excess visitors to an area and how to curb this footprint they leave.” (S41)

“We take care to only use suppliers that adhere to our standards and values, we do not support any hunting farms and we do not book or advertise any animal interaction (petting of baby lions etc.) or activity that is unnatural for the animal (e.g. elephant back safaris). We support lodges and hotels that are trying to reduce their carbon footprint and re-use and re-cycle as much as possible. The local population, municipalities, and wildlife & nature should benefit from tourism without exploiting and destroying the environment and be responsible to maintain their living space and sites for the future.” (S100)

(3) Resources. To complete this analysis of stakeholder definitions of ST are several comments that focus solely on the effective use of resources. These included statements from (respectively) an **NGO** and a **government official**:

“Sustainable tourism means to be aware of the use of resources. All resources such as food, water, energy should be considered. It means a better inclusion of local community in tourism projects [and] maximizing the benefits and minimizing the negatives in resource usage.” (I9)

“Tourism undertaken in a responsible manner that allows for the appropriate use of available resources in such a manner that will allow the future generations to also enjoy these.” (S30)

In addition, **four educators** similarly referred to resource use in statements that were either very brief such as a description of ST that is a “Non resource consumptive form of tourism.” (S96) or “using resources but with responsibilities to thinking for the [future]” (S56), or more elaborate such as:

“Use of tourism resources for the benefit of the current generations while making sure that future generations will have opportunities to benefit from the same resources.” (S23)

“Sustainable tourism involves developing and using tourism resources in an optimal way, so that the resources can be utilized by the current generation without denying the future generations the opportunity to enjoy the resources as well.” (S38)

Conclusion:

Responses to the question of how stakeholders define ST revealed a variety of topics with much overlapping content. Nearly all of these responses related closely to the UN definitions of ST. In order to make sense of these statements, these were analysed according to three categories of definitions which, to recap were, *broad*, *environmental* and *resource* use. These categories were then further clustered according to the stakeholder groups of educators, tourism providers, NGOs and government officials. The purpose was to see if there were differences in how sustainability was defined between the stakeholder groups.

This analysis shows that the broader definitions of ST that included social, environmental and economic dimensions were used by most of the stakeholder groups. Responses relying solely on environment-related aspects were made mostly by tourism providers. Definitions referring exclusively to resource use were made by educators, NGOs and government officials, but not by tourism providers. These findings are interesting in view of a notable comment that came from an NGO who thought that tourism providers often defined sustainability in terms of achieving long term profit rather than the long term environmental conservation. However, this impression was not supported when placed in the context of all the responses from tourism providers who referred to a variety of social and economic and, in particular, environmental aspects of sustainability in their definitions.

These findings indicate that, in general, all stakeholder groups are aware of the broader dimensions of ST and are able to articulate these clearly. Whether the findings are an indication of the relative importance that the various stakeholder groups place on environmental and resource issues, however, is not really clear. The next question in the survey was designed to elicit more precise responses to this question.

4.2.6.2 Perspectives on Relevant Sustainability Content

The survey respondents were asked to consider a list of the various approaches and concepts that have been suggested for ST in TE. The interviewees were not given these categories but instead were asked an open-ended question which is analysed at the end of this section.

The survey participants were thus asked to rank the items listed in Table 23 as either *very relevant*, *somewhat relevant*, *less relevant*, *not relevant*, or *not sure*. The listed concepts were based on the opinions of scholars writing in the context of tourism curricula design—which was extensively covered in chapter 2.2 of the literature review.

Table 23: Overview of Survey Responses to Suggested Curricula Content

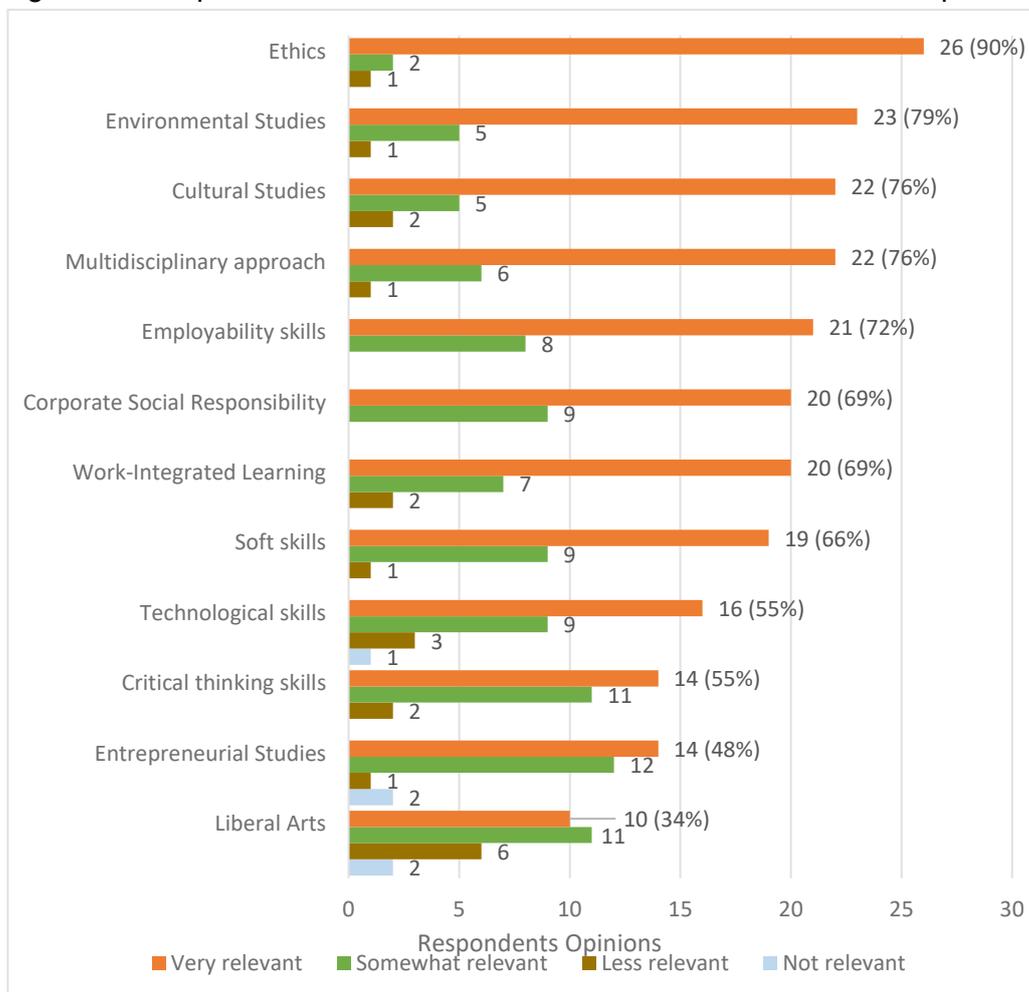
10. Below is a list of the various approaches and concepts suggested for sustainable tourism in higher education. Please rank the items for yourself by ticking the appropriate box.										
	Very relevant		Somewhat relevant		Less relevant		Not relevant		Not sure	
	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%
Ethics	26	90%	2	7%	1	3%	0	0%	0	0
Environmental Studies	23	79%	5	17%	1	4%	0	0%	0	0
Multidisciplinary approach	22	76%	6	21%	1	3%	0	0%	0	0
Cultural Studies	22	76%	5	17%	2	7%	0	0%	0	0
Employability skills	21	72%	8	28%	0	0%	0	0%	0	0
Work-Integrated Learning	20	69%	7	24%	2	7%	0	0%	0	0
Corporate Social Responsibility	20	69%	9	31%	0	0%	0	0%	0	0
Soft skills	19	66%	9	31%	1	3%	0	0%	0	0
Technological skills	16	55%	9	31%	3	10%	1	4%	0	0
Entrepreneurial Studies	14	48%	12	41%	1	4%	2	7%	0	0
Critical thinking skills	14	55%	11	38%	2	7%	0	0%	0	0
Liberal Arts	10	34%	11	38%	6	21%	2	7%	0	0
Totals	217	66%	83	27%	14	6%	3	2%	0	0%

The respondents were not required to rank the items against each other, thus, the concepts were evaluated individually and not comparatively. These concepts were *Ethics* (incorporating morals, values), *Cultural Studies* (including heritage, intercultural communication), *Environmental Studies*, *Multidisciplinary approach* (combination of all approaches listed), *Employability skills*, *Corporate Social Responsibility*, *Work-Integrated Learning* (e.g. internships, cooperative education), *Soft skills* (e.g. teamwork, social, communication, problem-solving), *Critical thinking skills*, *Entrepreneurial Studies*, *Technological skills* (e.g.

computer software, social media, data banks, etc.) and *Liberal Arts* (e.g. philosophy, history, arts, etc.). A clearer picture of preferences emerges with the presentation of this data in graphic form.

Figure 27 clearly shows that for all of the concepts suggested for ST education, ethics was viewed by the majority of respondents as the most relevant (90 percent) followed by environmental studies (79 percent), cultural studies and multidisciplinary approaches (76 percent), employability skills (72 percent), CSR and Work-integrated learning (69 percent), soft skills (66 percent), technological skills and critical thinking skills (55 percent), entrepreneurial (48 percent) and least of all with liberal arts (34 percent).

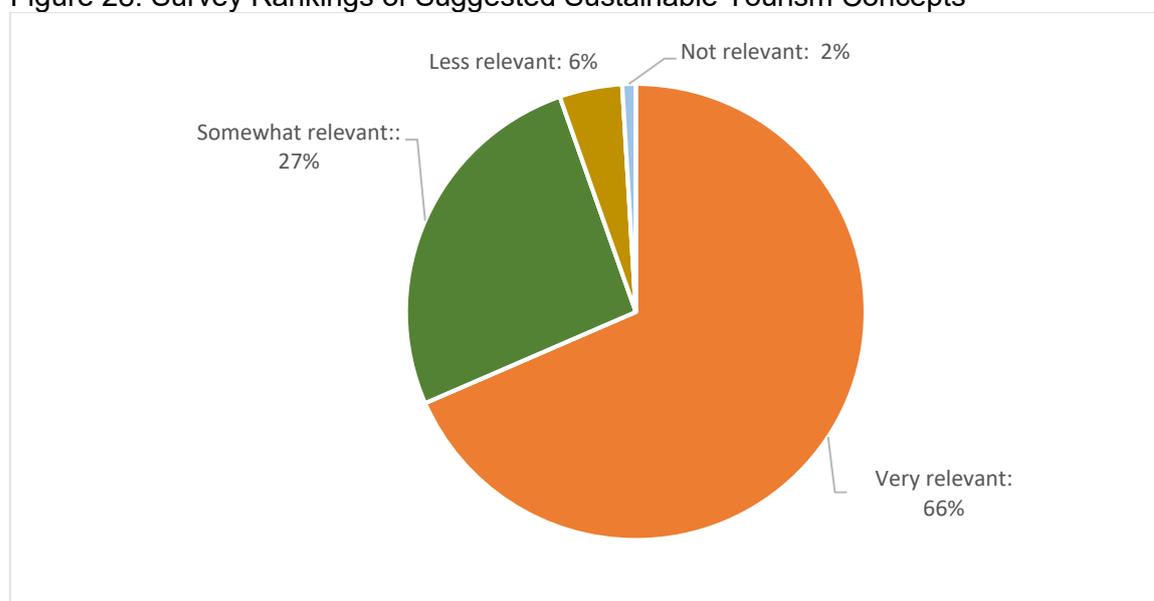
Figure 27: Respondent Views on Sustainable Tourism Education Concepts



Of significance is that all of the concepts suggested were seen as very relevant to most of the respondents, albeit to various degrees. Figure 28 shows that the 66 percent of the respondents ranked the suggested concepts overall as very

relevant compared to 27 percent of respondents who saw the topics as somewhat relevant. In contrast, very few respondents ranked the concepts overall as less relevant (6 percent) or not at all relevant (2 percent). Concepts viewed as not relevant by altogether five respondents were entrepreneurial studies, technological skills and liberal arts studies. Notable was that liberal arts education was viewed as the least relevant of all suggested concepts. In summary, these findings indicated a general consensus among the tourism stakeholders participating in the study that ST education should include these concepts.

Figure 28: Survey Rankings of Suggested Sustainable Tourism Concepts



With the objective of broadening the curricula content discussion and eliciting further stakeholder ideas, the next question in the survey asked for suggestions and recommendations in this context. This was formulated as:

“Do you think that there are courses, content or any other aspects missing from current academic tourism studies? Do you have any further recommendations?”

The interviewees were also asked this open-ended question but were not asked to rank the concepts. The intention was, without leading the interviewees, to hear their opinions on relevant curricula content. The responses from the surveys and interviews are presented together. These were roughly equally distributed between the following four broad categorisations of **(1) not sure**, **(2) business/management**, **(3) context relevant** and **(4) various** other topics.

(1) Not sure. Altogether ten survey respondents answered the question by saying they had either no suggestions to make, thought the previously suggested categories were sufficient, or were not sure what else to suggest. In particular *non-academics* indicated that they were uninformed with regard to what was being taught: “I am not sure as I don't have insight into these. I can only judge from what is out there in market-place and there is a lot missing” (S22), or “Not sure. I would need to see the curriculum” (S41). Referring once again to a lack of knowledge in this field, one *tourism provider* remarked:

“I am not too sure as I never looked into the actual curriculum of specific tourism studies. From my own experience and what I have seen ... the word sustainable tourism is used but very few people have any idea about what it actually translates to.” (S75)

The remaining suggestions are discussed in the broad categories of *business/management*, *context relevant*, and *various*.

(2) Business/management. Four respondents suggested business related topics that ranged from *risk and crisis management to quantitative research skills*, as well as *product development and implementation*. This is illustrated by several *tourism provider* responses:

“Studies on UNESCO Global Geoparks are missing in the field of ‘What are the successful elements’ and how to define quantitative criteria and get information on them in a simple way for the Managers.” (S18)

“Product development is what we have noticed most college graduates do not have skills. Not sure if they are given skills on this, if not then we would recommend this.” (S95)

“I would suggest a course that shows you how to implement sustainable tourism. It is one thing to know how something works, but to work with it is something different.” (S99)

Similarly, one *educator* remarked:

“Well you could have stand-alone courses such as environment, culture, economics but this would not be sufficient, better would be if the elements such

as economics, built environment, natural environment, business etc. would all be built into a typical tourism management programme.” (I4)

Related to the business/management ideas were suggestions from further respondents who saw the necessity to *promote ST from a business perspective*.

Two tourism providers noted:

“I did not study tourism myself, but there are interns that intern at the Lodge who have studied Tourism. The practical application behind sustainable tourism as well as the long term benefit of why sustainable tourism is important lacks.” (S37)

“I think a module on social aspects of sustainability should be included, this is often neglected, it is mostly green tourism in classes. Or a course on how sustainability benefits business, how to measure the benefits and outcomes. These tools are missing in tourism, this could help to sell sustainability better. I often hear that “you are only costing money, where is the gain?” (I8)

An **NGO** similarly noted:

“It is important to raise an awareness and understanding of sustainability in this region. You should be able to point out the advantages for guests, the region, and also for everyone practice. For personnel working in management level, it is important that you can explain the what, why and advantages of sustainability to partners, that you can show them how to develop projects.” (I9)

(3) Context Relevant. Local or context relevant content was also a prominent theme suggested for ST curricula by **four educators**. Ideas included learning about *local culture, wildlife and environments* as well as “tourism governance at the local level” (S38).

“I think there is still a lack of content that is more of the local cultural and social dimension, mainly in the African context in general, and Mozambican in particular.” (S57)

“I believe most off curricular plans are imported and not reflect in specific approach of the country is implementing. Environment economics. Animal population dynamic.” (S60)

“Yes, I feel like local voices are missing. for tourism to be sustainable it has to benefit the local people who are the custodians of the tourism resources. If local people are not benefitting, they becomes spectators and not participants. So the missing part is local inclusiveness.” (S82)

Government officials and one **destination manager** focussed mostly on *local environment/wildlife* curricula content:

“We need to check whether the product of higher education is applicable to the market. Modules need to be developed based on where Africa is, the situation, the resources, levels of development. The advanced world often wants to dictate to the developing world, saying don’t cut the trees, don’t kill the animals, but where are the original trees and animals in the advanced world? All gone.” (I6)

“While there a variety of educational courses in many academic institutions there is a serious gap of learning and appreciation about environment without pressure from schools to pass, from organisations to avoid being punished for wrong doing and from government.” (S23)

“Yes. I think. Use sustainable of resource local.” (S56)

“I think the subject of animal interaction, captive breeding and canned lion hunting etc. should be discussed and publicised much more.” (S100)

Three **tourism providers** similarly suggested *context-oriented content* for tourism curricula that mainly related to environmental and wildlife protection but also to geographical, social and cultural content:

“Teach basic professional guiding practical skills in the bush.” (S27)

“Tourism studies are a little vague in Namibia. Most young people go and look for work in the tourism industry with little or no training. The idea would be to get the government on board and help implement programs. But here self-interest is the priority for politicians so if for example they can make money with illegal activities that damage the environment, they would probably do so.” (S51)

“Students should learn about other cultures, nations, and how to interact. They should be more aware of other countries and their habits and customs. Often

they only hear South African news. They need education about geography, culture, and not just about where these countries are but also who the people are. They need intercultural training, they need to work with and understand clients from other cultures. For example, Italians want their food after 9 o'clock, the Germans before 7 o'clock. The Indians won't split up their children." (S5)

(4) Various. The remaining respondents listed several diverse courses in their responses, which, in order to provide an overview, are listed together. These suggestions were equally distributed across ***all the stakeholder groups***.

Business-related:

- Customer care
- Entrepreneurial Studies (x4)
- Business communication
- Tourism Management skills (front office skills, cultural awareness)
- Economics
- Quality management
- Intellectual property rights

Soft skill related:

- Leadership skills
- Conflict management (x2)
- Communication skills (x2)
- Teamwork
- Soft skills (in general)

Socio-cultural related:

- Ethics (x2)
- Human rights
- Social studies
- Languages (French, English, other relevant languages)

Praxis-related:

- Practical examples
- "wilderness responder" or to get "wilderness survival skills"
- Praxis experience (x3)

ST related:

- Sustainability foundations
- Sustainable tourism (transportation, intercultural exchange)
- Sustainability in every day life
- Cultural Studies (x2)

Environment related:

- Animals and endangered species
- Climate change
- Use of resources
- Environmental studies (x2)
- Natural resources

Technology-related:

- Technical programmes (that you need for the job):
- Basic IT skills
- Digital tourism marketing

Concluding this section is a comment from an **NGO** that touched on the problem encountered in the literature review regarding how to delineate between employability education and ST education.

“Coming back to the above list: I thought it misleading as there were mentioned attributes, which are no specifics of Sustainable Tourism Programmes but of any academic education (like e.g. team work procedures, skills, employability).”
(S55)

Conclusion

As can be seen from the above compilation, stakeholder suggestions were varied and covered a wide range of topics. The most frequently mentioned topics were in the area of business, followed closely by soft skills, and environmental related themes. However, stakeholders also recommended socio-cultural, ST-related and to a lesser degree, IT courses. Several respondents thought that the praxis of tourism should be given a more prominent role in academic programmes.

The preceding presentation of stakeholder responses similarly demonstrates that stakeholders across the tourism field have, to varying degrees, distinct opinions regarding the content of ST education in universities in SSA. Several interesting findings emerged from the survey responses to rankings topics. In particular, ethics was seen as the overall most important concept for inclusion in ST education by 90% of the respondents. Most of the other proposed concepts were ranked as very relevant (66%) with the exception of entrepreneurial studies, technological skills and liberal arts. However, when asked for further suggestions, entrepreneurial studies and IT skills were mentioned. Given the

emphasis placed on these subjects in the reviewed literature, especially liberal arts, one may have expected more emphasis on these aspects in this part of the research.

A further interesting finding from the survey question that asked for a ranking of concepts was that not one of the respondents answered with 'not sure' although 21 from 29 (or 72%) of the respondents were not educators. Thus all of the respondents had definite opinions on the topics proposed. As a comparison: when all of the respondents (from surveys and interviews) were asked for further suggestions for curricula content without being given pre-set categories, it was mostly the non academics who answered with 'not sure.' This could mean that the suggested topics adequately covered what respondents thought was relevant for ST education. However, it could also indicate that non-academic respondents had not given much thought to this topic previously and were challenged when prompted to reflect beyond the pre-set topics.

Other prominent topics suggested by respondents for curricula related to how to develop and implement ST products in the praxis as well as how to effectively communicate the benefits, also in terms of profits, of such concepts. An equally important theme was the recommendation for context relevancy of curricula in SSA. Here, contributions came mostly from educators, but also from government officials, who advocated the inclusion of locally relevant themes relating to environmental and wildlife protection but also to geographical, social and cultural content.

Having elicited stakeholder views on relevant curricula content for tourism education, the next question aimed to gain insights into how stakeholders viewed the concept of employability, as well as if they saw this concept in conflict with ST education.

4.2.6.3 Employability versus Sustainability Education

To explore stakeholder opinions on the relevancy of employability for ST education, both the survey and interview respondents were questioned. Whereas the survey respondents were, as previously described, given Likert Scale evaluation options (from 'not sure' to 'very relevant'), the interviewees were asked to describe what they believed to be **(1) important employability**

skills before elaborating on their opinions with regard to its **(2) relevancy for ST education**. One reason for this research strategy was to limit the survey completion time to 10-15 minutes with the goal of increasing the response rate. Another consideration was that the interviewees, in particular, had been recruited from the top levels of their respective organisations and thus it was hoped would have valuable ideas to contribute on this topic.

(1) Important employability skills. Thus the first question aimed to gain insights into how the interviewees viewed the frequently mentioned term of 'employability skills:

"Employability skills (i.e., skills that graduates need for the job) are often discussed in connection with tourism education. In your opinion, what are the most important employability skills?"

Nearly all of the interview respondents (9 from 11) from across the stakeholder groups mentioned soft skills as the most important employability skills. Two of these respondents briefly mentioned business skills but emphasized soft skills. Only two respondents focussed solely on business skills.

These business-related skills, according to a **government authority** and an **NGO**, included *entrepreneurship, digital skills, and learning local craftsmanship*:

"We need to move from getting employed to getting entrepreneurial skills. In [our country], there are few companies, there is mostly an informal sector. Students need the skills for self-employment, these include:

- Technical
- Practical (for tour guiding, sustainable tourism)
- Digital skills (for marketing with non-printed materials)
- Teaching (tourists but not in a boring way)
- Students could learn about crafts and interior design and décor
- They could learn how to use local crafts and materials
- Designs should be traditional but adapted to modern tastes

Hotels could be designed in this way: the impacts of tourism are not reaching communities. Menus, materials, skills are not from the community." (I6)

"Practical experience is important but also the length of the programme. [Our] 'gold standard' is at least one year and should involve a contract, social

security. There should be structured learning both in the theory and practice. Combination of both is best ‘earn while you learn.’ Entrepreneurial skills are very important, especially for countries such as Sub Saharan Africa (knowledge such as how to gain access to credit, banks very important).” (I7)

An **educator** and an **NGO** briefly mentioned business-related content before emphasizing that soft skills had priority:

- “Geography skills
- Number crunching skills
- Dealing with people
- Negotiations skills because tourism has many stakeholders
- Bilingual skills
- But number one is soft skills
- Soft skills such as intercultural competence, empathy, social and communication skills.” (I4)

“In the context of tourism, to be aware of the implications of tourisms, both in positive and negative areas and especially in tourism, intercultural competence, that is, culture and language. From my opinion, accounting and marketing are important skills, that is important, but does not have priority in my opinion, the other topics, in my personal experience, to be interested in other cultures and countries is really important. If I have intercultural competence, this means, that I mostly probably will have empathy for the people in those locations, and for the protection of the environment in those locations.” (I1)

Soft skills were, by far, the most frequently mentioned skills in connection with employability. Prominent themes were intercultural competence, empathy, and social skills, but also openness, flexibility, curiosity, self-motivation, teamwork and communication skills. Languages were also seen as important employability skills. Two illustrative **tourism provider** responses are presented next, followed by a complete list of all the important employability skills as perceived by **all interviewees** in this study (Table 24).

- “Openness for other countries, situations;
- Patience – in Africa things take longer;
- Stress-resistance – sometimes emergencies occur such as changes in bookings, strikes, accidents, early morning calls;

- Act as role models (for example by using trains when possible - forget the status associated with flying);
- Commitment with customers – this is important for customers;
- Availability also on weekends or for travel fairs, for example;
- Ability to handle people – plans get changed because of weather for example, not everything works out, how to deal with difficult customers?
- Intercultural competence;
- Team competence – to be seen as a team also in the destination, communication tone;
- Empathy – to be able to place yourself in someone else’s shoes;
- Language competence, especially English” (I3).

And:

- “Typing courses, schools don’t have computers and don’t see the necessity of it – it works with 2 fingers. They should offer a 10 fingers typing courses;
- They should learn languages such as English and Afrikaans. African schools can have high levels of education, it depends on the area and it varies. Private schools often have a sports focus. It all depends on finances of the families, what you can afford. Education in South Africa is not free. I already mentioned intercultural skills;
- Self-motivation, curious, inspiration;
- Students should be able to study on their own, they should read more, learn to do something to further their own knowledge levels, you often have to motivate them;
- They should learn to take the initiative to self-study;
- Tribal challenges: They should learn to take pride in their own identities. People are losing their tribal backgrounds, losing their own cultures, values, identity. They are watching too many American soaps;
- African values are admirable, without them it often ends in crime.” (I5)

To conclude this section, a response from an **educator** referring to a joint DHBW capacity-building project, underscores that although employability skills remain an ill-defined concept, it was seen by most as important:

“These types of advanced skills are not really developed in universities in Mozambique. We need to improve in this area. Hopefully with Erasmus projects such as LATFure?” (I11).

Table 24: Important Employability Skills According to Interview Respondents

Business-related skills	Soft Skills	Other
Entrepreneurial (x2)	Empathy (x3)	Languages (x3)
Number crunching	Communication skills (x3)	Culture
Accounting	Intercultural Competence (x2)	Identity pride
Marketing	Flexibility (x2)	Continued learning
Typing	Self-initiative (x2)	Advanced skills
Technical	Enthusiasm (x2)	Teaching
Digital	Openness	Practical experience
	Curiosity	Geography
	Self-motivation	
	Teamwork	
	Patience	
	Stress resistance	
	Commitment	
	Inspiration	
	Social skills	
	Negotiation	
	Collaborative	
	Responsibility	
	Resourceful	
	Independent	

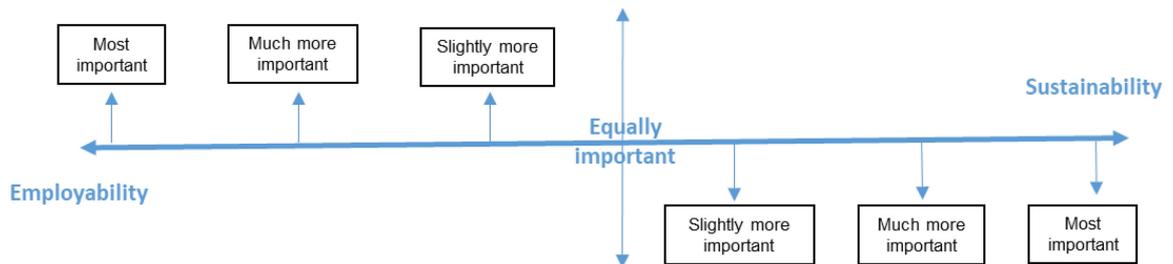
(2) Relevancy for ST education. Having elicited stakeholder opinions on what constitutes important employability skills, the next question in the interview asked respondents to evaluate the importance of employability in comparison to sustainability education. The question and justification for asking was formulated subsequently as:

“In tourism curricula, sustainability content is sometimes seen as competing or in conflict with employability content. How would you rate the importance of educating for sustainability versus educating for employability in tourism studies?”

The interviewees had been previously sent this question with the graphic below (Figure 29). Within this framework, the respondents could decide on the

relative importance of employability content versus sustainability content, and were also given the opportunity to elaborate on their opinions.

Figure 29: Rankings of Employability versus Sustainability for Curricula



The responses revealed, that from altogether 11 interviewees, eight thought that it was ‘equally important’ to educate for sustainability and employability, two believed that sustainability was ‘much more important’ and one respondent thought sustainability was ‘slightly more important’.

Most interviewees justified their statements with brief comments. The comments from respondents who thought that both employability and sustainability content were equally important, varied slightly depending on the professional focus as seen in the following responses from **three NGOs**:

“Equally important. In our studies, we had a course in destination management in which the theme of sustainability was mentioned but there wasn’t a separate course on this. There are differences, but in general there is not enough being taught here as we . . . have the goal of seeing that the educational institutions are competent to teach sustainability in all its areas. That isn’t the case at the moment. There could be more.” (I1)

“Equally important. I don’t see these concepts as competing. You need both skills in the branch: sustainability is an advantage for employment, it is a topic that is important for companies. Sustainability is a qualification, it is being asked for by companies, it is a critical aspect that will give an advantage. Companies need graduates with sustainability qualifications, this is important now but will be even more important in the future. It is an employee skill that will give an advantage over others.” (I9)

“Equally important. Sustainability needs to be integrated into employability to achieve ‘quality’. Productivity arguments should be considered (which can take up to one, two or more years to achieve). [We] need to show this in connection to sustainability (it needs to be integrated). We need to marry productivity and sustainability to achieve quality. Both are equally important, we need to accomplish both. Finding a compromise is important, it is often difficult, but necessary.” (I7)

A **government** official similarly referred to the improved employment chances through ST education that incorporated both concepts equally:

“Both are equally important. Employment needs to be sustainable and sustainability education should lead to employment. To be sustainable in business, you need employability skills (for example, how to reduce costs, increase profits, and introduce sustainability practices).” (I6)

Two educators also commented on why they thought there should be a balance of both concepts in ST education:

“Equally important. We need to create conditions for employment because people need work in Mozambique. But sustainability is very important for the future. To combine both would be ideal.” (I11)

“I believe employability and sustainability are equally important. I cannot comprehend how the two concepts are pitted against each other. In Ghana, this is not a debate.” (I4)

Coming from the praxis, **two tourism operators** likewise argued for a balanced approach:

“One does not exclude the other. We need to change our attitudes, our ways of thinking in the direction of climate change. I would say both are equally important.” (I3)

“A balance between the two is best: Without sustainability, there would be no jobs in the future: And without employment, tourism would die: One aspect feeds the other: Employability is important in tourism to maintain the industry.” (I5)

Juxtaposed with the preceding statements were two responses arguing that educating for sustainability was 'much more important.' This came from an **educator** who remarked:

"Sustainability skills are 'much more important'. Employability skills are not necessarily contributing to sustainability. Students must be well educated about sustainability to be effective. High employability is ok but it is better to learn sustainability skills." (110)

As well as from a **tourism provider**:

"Sustainability is much more important." It is about gaining knowledge about something which is more important than learning just to get the job." (12)

A final statement, again from a **tourism provider**, argued that sustainability content in ST education was 'slightly more important' as this was often less of a priority for students:

"Sustainability is at least equally important, but rather I would say sustainability is slightly more important. It is important to raise awareness of sustainability, employability is often more dominant because students are thinking of their careers." (18)

Conclusion

The preceding discussion illustrates that 'employability skills' although much discussed, are defined differently by tourism stakeholders. This was true within and across the various stakeholder groups participating in this study. However, in general, these findings indicate that most stakeholders equate 'employability skills' with 'soft skills'.

Frequently mentioned soft skills were empathy, intercultural competence and communication skills followed by flexibility, self-initiative and enthusiasm. Noteworthy was also that entrepreneurial and IT skills were mentioned by several respondents which was in contrast to the previous survey results that ranked these aspects as relatively less important. The importance of attending to context relevancy was again an important aspect mentioned by all respondents.

The findings also reveal that most of the respondents thought sustainability and employability content was 'equally important' for ST education. A few remarked that sustainability was either 'slightly more important' or 'much more important.' Interestingly, not one of the respondents in the study argued that educating for employability was more important than educating for sustainability. This could be, as previously mentioned, due to the social desirability factor given the focus of the study, or to the fact that the interviewees who agreed to participate in the study were more likely to be interested in sustainability issues. However, it could also be argued that these opinions, coming from a group of experienced and mature professionals, are the product of serious reflection and can, therefore, be taken at face value.

4.2.7 Concluding Stakeholder Comments and Advice

To conclude this chapter on the qualitative data analysis and findings, both the survey and interview respondents were given the opportunity to make open-ended comments or to provide advice on any aspect related to the study at hand or to the ST field they deemed important. The purpose was to allow unstructured responses to aspects that I had not previously considered in my research design. The interview and (slightly adapted) survey question was:

“Do you have any other comments or advice relating to this study or the field of sustainable tourism that have not been covered in this interview?”

To facilitate analysis, the comments and advice from both the survey and interview respondents to this question were discussed together. The majority of comments (n=23) related to **(1) the research or study** itself, slightly fewer comments (n=21) referred to various aspects of a **(2) future ST programme or curricula**, and almost as many (n=20) involved **(3) no comments** responses.

(1) Research or study. Responses that addressed the design or goals of the research came from *all stakeholder groups* and were, with one exception, *positive or encouraging* in tone. These included very brief statements such as “Great Work, THX” (S15), “Good initiative” (S96), or “viel Erfolg! [Wishing you success!]” (S55). Other respondents elaborated slightly saying:

“It is a very interesting topic and I wish you all the best for your research”. (S37)

“Thank you for your survey. It is a legitimate way of engaging the masses in the agenda for Sustainable Tourism for Development.” (S93)

“We need studies like this, otherwise we will never be able to grow, like the saying goes, our eyes are useless when the mind is blind. Keep pushing especially with University students”. (S99)

Two educators working on joint projects with the DHBW were very enthusiastic about using the research as a *basis for continued cooperation* in the future:

“Come to Mozambique and bring this study along so that we can start a sustainable tourism programme in [our university].” (I10)

“[We] would welcome the possibility of cooperations with the DHBW in the future. To help develop ST courses and content for our tourism industry, we would welcome this opportunity.” (I11)

One **tourism operator** used this forum to express ideas of *tourism marketing in South Africa*:

“The questionnaire is very good, inclusive and extensive. Perhaps bring awareness to the world about how South Africa wants their country to be seen, this is a marketing issue. Tourists should increase their awareness of other aspects, of local destinations in South Africa. People are misled about distances in South Africa, about how far you have to travel.” (I5)

Several respondents representing **all stakeholder groups** expressed interest in receiving the completed research with comments such as “It would be good to share findings once complete” (S30) or “Please send the results of your survey to ... [email address]” (S78) or again “Just keep going and please, share the results with your surveys....I mean people like me who fill the questioners.” (S60). One **government** authority advised to share the research more broadly:

“I may advise to interact and share with different countries National Tourism Associations, Government bodies in charge of tourism and the relevant Tourism Ministries.” (S65)

Three respondents provided *useful contact names* for further NGOs and TE institutions, as well as general advice for the study. Another respondent, a

tourism provider, urged that “We have no time, let's push it together and convince the majority of the people to act.” (S15). Finally, a *critical voice* from another **tourism provider** who remarked that “the questions put are very general” and that they could not “see the link to the title of the work” (I18).

The response that perhaps resonated and impacted most with regard to the research approach came from a female **tourism provider** who advised to “Be tenacious” (S22). This advice was well heeded and helped to keep the research on track throughout the process.

(2) Future ST programme or curricula. Almost as many comments or advice were given with regard to the development of a ST programme or curricula. The majority of these comments were connected to various aspects of the UN’s ST social, economic or environment criteria. The inclusion of *environmental and resource management related issues* in tourism curricula was recommended by **four government** officials:

“I see a page of study whereby researchers need to find out the best methods acceptable and user friendly to educate the young generations about sustainable management uses, not only for the dream, good, but importantly socio-economic benefits for us and the mother earth.” (S23)

“How tourism sustainability fits in with national sustainability. Tourism often rides on other sectors and poor sustainability practices in these sectors can negatively affect tourism, e.g., [the] destruction of physical products through deforestation, pollution [or] loss of habitat for animals, etc.” (S30)

“Looking forward, we need practical modules that [are] applicable to the context. We need also tools that can measure results. These should be kept simple, they shouldn’t need a guru to interpret them. We need simple methods and solutions. One example would be how to measure the amount of water used in a hotel, this needs to be kept simple.” (I6)

“The introduction of such important educational issues about the sustainable management of our resources helps to develop responsible citizens who are always proud about their environment, living and feeding in clean environment.” (S23)

Other similar recommendations for tourism curricula came from several **tourism providers** who addressed *economic, environment, gender and education aspects* of ST:

“Can " how to not be greedy" be taught as part of sustainable tourism?” (S22)

“Animal interaction, humane and respectful behaviour towards animals could be covered more.” (S100)

“Given the global demographics, we need to bring in younger, talented youth and more women into the field of Sustainable Tourism for Development. We need to change the narrative and engender new champions for conservation.” (S93)

“I do believe that the topic of sustainable tourism should be included in higher specialized academic studies in tourism. My understanding is that education runs behind and there is a lot of catching up to do. Many actions have been done in the field and perhaps that some research might need to be done to define the areas of existing actions. And assessing how they perform.” (S75)

Connected to the discussion on the development of a ST programme or curricula were further comments and recommendations that focussed on an *dialogue driven approach* to ST education:

“For us, sustainability is a dialogue with government, civil society and companies that is important. That companies are sustainable along the whole value chain. To summarize, we think that it is important that the topic of sustainability is integrated into tourism studies. Not only our topics of human rights but also social and environment issues. Because if the environment is damaged to protect humans it doesn't make sense. It has to be seen altogether. (I1)

“To promote sustainable tourism, the inhabitants have to be integrated to the implementation of any program ... by using the 'bottom-up policy.'” (S71)

“Social dialogue is a very important part. It requires that everyone is heard and that enough time is planned.” (I7)

“I think you should cover the roles of tourism players i.e., [the] community, investors in tourism (transporters, accommodation owners and tourism attraction sites owners), national bodies and ministries in tourism sustainability.” (S65)

“I am sure there is a lot of research that has already being done but - being more of a field worker - we don't quite see this in the field. Like with many things the "administrative" and the "educational" and the "reality of the ground" are often 3 different worlds that don't speak the same language. Hope this helps ... And would be interested in your results!” (S75)

Another **tourism provider** poignantly concluded “When the aspect of sustainable tourism becomes more important to customers, tourism stakeholders will change faster.” (S68)

In line with a dialogue driven approach, **several respondents** in their final comments addressed the need for a *balanced or integrated approach* to ST education:

“Curiosity or comment really: how can we get more of a balanced concept of sustainable tourism education between developed and developing countries? In Africa, colleges teach tourism, but not sustainable tourism; it is not sustainable tourism based, but more about ‘getting more employment from the industry through getting more visitors.’ Developed countries are different: they have experienced the negative impacts and want to change the way tourism is conducted; they want to teach sustainable tourism.” (I2)

“You need to make sure that sustainability is integrated into curriculum. It should be part of the narrative, part of the discourse in tourism studies. Sustainability should be mainstream not a sideline. Example: with regard to the gender debate, we should integrate the discussion into the overall university process and curricula and not have a Gender Studies stand-alone programme. The sustainability concept needs to move from altruistic concept to a mainstream concept.” (I5)

Finally, positioning tourism programmes in the *broader context* was at the heart of the final comments made by two respondents. A **tourism provider** critically noted:

“I think that it is important in the context of what I think to have understood by your title that the social structure of a region in regard to sustainable development is very important in combination with hierarchy of a territory or society. I cannot see this being integrated here.” (S18)

While an **NGO** recommended:

“It should be made clear, where the education should be offered (which countries, development countries,...) and within relevant subjects, disciplines or curricula. Sustainable tourism is not only a matter of tourism institutes or university's tourism chairs.” (S55)

(3) No comments. Completing the analysis of respondents' final comments and advice, is an overview of the 'no comments' responses. Over half (n=11) of the total responses in this category (n=20) came from **tourism providers**, seven came from **educators**, and two came from **government officials**. Most respondents simply said “no comments,” however several respondents finished their surveys with a positive remark such as “All has been covered seemingly good” (S99) or “no, it is perfect :)” (S16).

Conclusion

The final questions of this research illustrates, as with the preceding sections, that the respondents had generally engaged with the study's central objective of how to effectively educate for ST, and furthermore, were eager to elaborate on their opinions. One particularly motivating aspect from the concluding question was that all of the respondents who commented on the study's design or goals (with one exception) were very positive and encouraging, expressing interest in receiving the results or building on existing cooperations based on the results of the study. This would indicate that the study had raised awareness or perhaps had spiked a renewed interest in the field. It also indicates acceptance of a researcher from a European university doing research in SSA—an aspect that cannot be automatically presumed.

Interesting, contrasting comments with high relevance for this study came from one (tourism provider) respondent who advocated creating specialised courses on ST and from another (educator) respondent who was against 'stand-alone' courses but for the integration of ST content into the overall curriculum. This aspect will need to be carefully considered when developing ST curricula. Finally, in summing up their own responses, several respondents reiterated aspects that they regarded as particularly important for tourism curricula development. This included paying attention to environmental protection and the use of resources, as well as ensuring a bottom-up, dialogue driven, and stakeholder inclusive approach.

Chapter conclusion

In conclusion of chapter 4, a summary of the most important findings are presented next. This chapter commenced in section 4.1 with a content analysis of all online tourism curricula in the region of SSA. Altogether 54 accredited tourism programmes were analysed for sustainability-related content by checking (1) tourism programme titles, (2) programme affiliations within institution, and (3) course descriptors. The results revealed that business, economics, or management were the most commonly found terms, and that, furthermore, 85 percent of the course content was business-related. Thus, the most important finding from the content analysis was that business rules in tourism studies in SSA – not only on outside labels, but also within.

Following this, section 4.2 involved an analysis of 40 tourism stakeholder opinions on the topic of educating for ST. This section provided a detailed description of the responses from both the survey and interview tools.

Following the general structure of the questionnaire, several important themes emerged that are of significance for this study.

Most of the respondents were in agreement that one of the most difficult challenges the field of ST faced was inadequate education and a general lack of knowledge across all societal levels. Most respondents hence strongly endorsed educating for ST in TE though opinions differed on implementation strategies, i.e., whether to have stand-alone ST courses or integrate sustainability overall into curricula. The majority of respondents endorsed a

collaborative, inclusive approach to ST curricula development believing that society would benefit in the form of more effective policy making as well as increased employability for graduates. Although employability skills were seen as crucial for tourism studies, educating for sustainability was viewed as equally important or even more important. A central finding from the stakeholder analysis was that employability skills were equated by the majority of respondents with soft skills. The skills mentioned covered a broad spectrum but most frequently mentioned were leadership, empathy, intercultural competence and communication skills. Although stakeholders also endorsed including topics that covered all environmental, social and economic aspects of ST, a likewise strong emphasis was placed on context relevancy of curricula content as well as the inclusion of ethics – which was the most highly recommended topic. In sum, the respondents came across as informed, enthusiastic and very positive with regard to the field of ST in general, and with this study in particular. Hence, one could deduce from this analysis that it is not only the Global North or West who are critically appraising how tourism is currently being taught in TE. The Global South is keenly interested in getting it right and not replicating the mistakes of the developed nations.

With the completion of the content analysis as well as the stakeholder analysis, the next chapter turns to the implications of these findings for the objectives of this study. Specifically, Chapter 5 discusses how these findings, together with the literature review, can inform a framework for ST education. Chapter 6 integrates this information to develop a framework of ST education and furthermore presents an curriculum to illustrate how the framework can be applied. Chapter 7 subsequently assesses the findings from the online content analysis within the context of the developed framework, and Chapter 8 offers recommendations for the development of future ST curricula.

5 DISCUSSION: CONCEPTS FOR A FRAMEWORK

5.1 Introduction

Although much research has been conducted on EfS in general, there are significantly fewer studies that look at how sustainability has been incorporated into tourism programmes, and fewer still in the developing country context. From this backdrop, this research sought to answer the question of what has been accomplished with regard to ST education in general, and in SSA in particular. It examines to what extent sustainability is present in tourism curricula in SSA and the relevance of these programmes as viewed from the perspectives of tourism stakeholders in the region.

Addressing these objectives, this chapter discusses the responses obtained through interviews and surveys with tourism stakeholders and places these findings in the context of the broader literature reviewed for this study. This chapter furthermore points to the implications for future curricula development.

For this phase of the research process, selective coding was employed with key themes revolving around stakeholder perceptions of sustainability, tourism education gaps, employability and sustainability synergies, soft skill and competency significance, appropriate instructional methods and tools, the context relevancy of curricula content and ST implementation strategies. These codes were added to the codebook in Appendix 9.

5.2 Perceptions of Sustainability

One of the most prominent themes encountered in the process of this research concerned how the concept of sustainability is perceived. Although the UNWTO definition of sustainability is widely cited and acknowledged in the global discourse, the majority of the stakeholders in this study argued that there is a general lack of clarity and knowledge regarding the concept.

This view was also held by many scholars writing in the broader field of sustainability. A review of the relevant literature for this study revealed that the concept of sustainability remains to date one of the most topical (Holden, Linnerud and Banister, 2014) and contentious themes of the era (Dobson, 1996; Weaver, 2014; Sharpley, 2015). As illustrated in section 2.1.1.1, since the

popularisation of the concept in the Brundtland report in 1987, the term has evolved from a narrow focus on environmental issues to incorporate a much broader array of socio-cultural and economic considerations. Yet, despite the many publications and commendable intentions, critical scholars argue that the term 'sustainable development' remains unclear (Spindler, 2013), a contradiction in terms (Turner, 1997, p. 133), or that it underscores hegemonic, neo-colonial approaches to development (Brand, 2015).

Critical scholarly discourse is likewise directed at the 'sustainable tourism' concept which, first introduced in the 1980s, became increasingly more prominent in the 1990s and 2000s, and in particular with the announcement of the SDGs in 2015 (Budeanu, et al., 2016; Hatipoglu, Alvarez and Ertuna, 2016; Ali, Murphy and Nadkarni, 2018) . From this period came the broad and frequently cited UNWTO definition of ST as one 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" (UNWTO, 2015a, p. 1). The UNWTO declaration of 2017 as the International Year of Sustainable Tourism for Development has also been criticised for the lack of progress in addressing a wide array of tourism-related sustainability goals including the use of resources as well as the negative social and environmental impacts (Moscardo, 2015b; Zerrudo, 2017; Berlin Deklaration, 2017). However, despite these widespread criticisms, the concept of ST as defined by the UNWTO remains one of the most dominant in scholarly discourse.

The stakeholder responses in this study similarly reveal that the UNWTO definition is very frequently implicitly or explicitly adopted when referring to ST. This study showed that all of the respondents, irrespective of stakeholder group, referred to at least one of the environmental, economic or cultural dimensions of sustainability incorporated in the UNWTO concept.

An interesting finding was that 25 per cent and 18 per cent of the respondents focussed respectively on environmental aspects (mostly tourism providers) or resources (all except tourism providers). These definitions are reflective of the more narrow interpretations of sustainability from the 1970s and 1980s

(Moscardo, 2015b). Judging from the contextual nature of the comments, however, this is more likely attributable to the nature of the respective stakeholders' work rather than a restrictive view of sustainability. The overall responses from this study indicate that the respondents are well-informed.

This impression is confirmed by the finding that most of the respondents (57 per cent) referred to two or more of the UNWTO dimensions in some detail. Respondent statements frequently integrated, at least in part, the explicit wording of the UNWTO definition or rephrased the meaning in their own words. Statements from all stakeholder groups referred to various UNWTO socio-cultural, economic or environmental dimensions. Similarly, in line with the UNWTO definition, respondents frequently alluded to ST as a concept that advocates a comprehensive, holistic, long-term approach that integrates considerations for future generations.

In contrast to the scholarly works reviewed in this study, however, none of the respondents in this study addressed direct criticism at the concept or achievement of the goals of SD as defined by the UNWTO. Although there were a few remarks that touched on the critical discourse, these were mostly focussed on the format and content of sustainability programmes. Respondents thought that rather than importing a 'one size fits all' approach for ST education, consideration should be given to the context, development level, and situation of the respective countries.

One possible explanation for the general adoption of the UNWTO concept of ST in this study could be that the interviewees received the questions in advance and thus had the opportunity to inform themselves and prepare their statements with an internet search of the term beforehand. Also, survey respondents were given the option to pause during the survey process and continue at a later point, and could therefore likewise have adjusted their statements accordingly. Thus the UNWTO definition, as the most commonly used and accepted version, was then uncritically adopted.

However, this study involved non-random, purposeful sampling that targeted either experts in the field of ST or those stakeholders with a keen interest in the subject. This resulted in a respondent group that held senior level titles and had

much experience: 65 percent reported more than 10 years of experience and an additional 17 percent had worked in the field for 6-10 years. Therefore, one could also argue that the responses were informed and indicate a reflected acceptance of the UNWTO concept of ST.

Yet despite the knowledgeable statements about the concept of ST, there remains a broad consensus among respondents in this study that substantial knowledge gaps exist in SSA regarding the concept of sustainability and ST. Therefore, this is a deficiency that needs to be addressed when developing ST curricula in TE in the region. Beneficial would be the inclusion of a foundational ST course that covers definitions, concepts, goals, timelines and the various critical debates. The objective would be to cover knowledge gaps and encourage critical and reflective thinking towards concepts of sustainability.

5.3 Inadequate Education for Sustainability in Tourism

A connected and likewise central theme that emerged in the process of this research was the general agreement that a lack of education is responsible for the obscurity surrounding the concept of sustainability and ST. This is particularly striking when juxtaposed with the decades of economic discourse and concomitant international initiatives highlighting education as a key factor for achieving SD.

As described in section 2.1.2.1 of the literature review, education was given a central role in economic debates starting in the 1960s with the introduction of the Human Capital Theory, then later again in the 1990s with the development of the Endogenous Growth and Diffusion theories, and more recently in the 2000s with the emergence of Human Development approaches. Although the assumptions, explanations and dynamics of the various approaches vary, the important point for this study is the salience attributed to education by all the economic schools of thought.

Likewise, the general UN initiatives outlined in the literature review in section 2.1.1.2 revealed that beginning with the Stockholm Conference in 1970—which focussed mostly on environmental education—there has been a progressive move toward a broader education agenda, culminating in 2015 with the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development. With the 2030 Agenda, educational

policies were introduced that specifically promoted ST development and curricula in alignment with the SDGs (UNWTO, 2016, p. 13).

Yet despite all these endeavours, the majority of the stakeholders viewed inadequate education as the major challenge they had encountered or foresaw in connection with their work in the ST field. There were frequent references to what was described as a general lack of understanding, knowledge, information, transparency, and know-how of ST. Furthermore, respondents viewed these knowledge deficiencies as applicable to all stakeholder levels including government, business, tourists, the general public and local communities.

On a community level, respondents reported that the lack of understanding for the long benefits of ST meant that short term interests dominated—resulting in detrimental activities such as poaching and deforestation. Other respondents noted that there was a lack of business acumen regarding the economic opportunities offered by the foreign demand for ST products, as well as how to effectively market these. Further criticized was also the lack of ST research and knowledge on a government level.

However, student education in ST was where the focus of most responses in connection to this topic was directed. Almost all of the stakeholders thought that ST education in TE was necessary for future leadership and that there was an urgent need for improvements in this area. They viewed TE students as the future policy makers, ministers, and heads of department who could contribute to the sustainability vision they perceived as currently lacking. Respondents also saw TE important for training teachers to facilitate early sustainability education in other levels of schooling.

The outlined deficiencies provide important insights for the development of ST curricula. Apparent is the need to create ST programmes that address a broad band of knowledge gaps in communities, businesses and governments. These would ideally include topics located in various disciplines such as business and environmental science. However, likewise evident is the need to foster the necessary skills and competencies for leadership and change agency in students – a recurring theme throughout this study which is taken up in in more

detail in section 5.5. Flanking ST education could also be educational initiatives offered by TE institutions that aim to provide trainings at all levels including communities, local governments as well as businesses. These types of activities—often referred to in terms of TE’s third mission—have recently gained the attention of education scholars who point to substantial benefits for society (Nyerere, et al., 2016; Berghaeuser and Hoelscher, 2020).

The need for a turnaround in tourism education is also reflected in the broader tourism scholarship. An increasing number of tourism researchers from around the globe have called for a shift in educational strategies. These critical scholars argued that current tourism education is in need of a radical overhaul in order to prepare students for the changing face of the industry and new challenges ahead (Dredge, 2010; Prebezac, Schott and Sheldon, 2014; Kellee, 2015; Sheldon, 2015; Hsu, 2018).

These, as well as the overall findings from this study, inevitably lead to the question of why sustainability is not being adequately addressed in general and in SSA in particular. The foregoing discussion implies, from the viewpoint of respondents, that inadequate education is a determining factor contributing to the general lack of understanding of sustainability.

However, turning the argument around, one could also argue that inadequate ST education is due to a lack of concept clarity, that is, universities are unsure about how to operationalise a concept that has not been adequately described and defined. This viewpoint is supported by several scholars in the tourism education field. Concept confusion regarding sustainability was seen as one of the possible explanations for the neglect of sustainability content in tourism programmes (Christie, et al., 2015; Boyle, 2017). Other scholars similarly put the blame on a lack of common vision with respect to the concept of sustainability within and between stakeholder groups (Sakellari and Skanavis, 2013; Budeanu, et al., 2016; Hatipoglu, Alvarez and Ertuna, 2016; Hultman and Säwe, 2016).

Reviewing the responses in this study, however, various other interpretations could be considered. It could be argued that sustainability is not viewed as a high priority by various stakeholders in SSA. Several respondent remarks

would support this impression. The need to make a living was seen as a decisive factor influencing businesses to put profit-making goals before sustainability concerns, as expressed by one tourism provider who noted that it was a “matter of priorities as here in Namibia we have drought, poverty, hardship and under these circumstances all are focused on their own survival and not of nature’s survival. ...” (S51). Other respondents, more negatively, saw profit making for some tourism providers as the ulterior motive for promoting sustainability rather than genuine concern (S68; S55). Thus, the lack of demand for sustainability-related content from influential industry stakeholders could be an important factor for the neglect of ST education in universities.

Several respondent comments attributed education deficiencies to a general lack of commitment, strategic vision, and effective policy making on government and national levels (S88; S65) as seen in one statement “... There has not been any commitment forum in my country to address this crucial issue and yet there is a rising trend in demand for responsible products and services among consumers.” (S93). This thus indicates that another potentially influential stakeholder is not fully on board with regard to the significance of integrating sustainability into tourism programmes in TE.

A further final aspect worthy of consideration for the lack of ST education pertains to the legacy of colonialism on educational systems in SSA. Several authors point out how TE systems in SSA evolved in the late colonial era and thus were influenced by Western ideals of TE (Mayaka and Akama, 2015; World Bank Group, 2017b). This influence can also be felt in tourism studies where the predominance of business found in developed countries (Forristal 2012; Caton, 2015; Kellee, 2015) is likewise reflected in tourism studies in SSA. The content analysis conducted in this study confirmed that business terms dominated in tourism programme titles, affiliation names and course descriptors in tourism TE in SSA, and furthermore, that business accounted for over 85% of the curricula content.

The above arguments underscore the imperative of addressing sustainability on a broader scale in SSA. Important would be to include all of the various tourism

stakeholders in the process. Workshops and educational events for the broader public as well as ST education in universities would help to increase awareness of the challenges but also the advantages of sustainable practices. In particular, tourism TE could benefit from the inclusion of disciplines such as history and philosophy that encourage a critical and reflective approach to sustainability-related issues.

5.4 Sustainability and Employability Synergies

Seeking further explanations for the perceived gaps in tourism education inevitably led to current debates concerning the salience of employability and sustainability content in tourism curricula. A notable finding in this study was that the majority of the respondents did not share the prevailing view that educating for sustainability should be considered subordinate to educating for employability.

Frequently discussed in the broader scholarship is the argument that the traditional focus on employability in tourism curricula leaves no space for sustainability content. Critical scholars point out how teaching vocational, market-relevant skills and business content remain at the forefront of contemporary tourism education (Wilson and von der Heidt, 2013). This development is often connected to the emergence of neoliberal policies particularly in the 1990s that was characterised by deregulation, privatisation and new forms of competitive TE institutions that sought closer alignment of curricula with industry needs (Marmolejo, 2016; O'Mahony and Salmon, 2015; Pappalepore and Farrell, 2017; Slocum, Dimitrov and Webb, 2019).

With the goals of gaining insights into the factors hindering the inclusion of sustainability in tourism education in SSA, stakeholders were hence asked for their perspectives on the issue. Responses revealed that most of the respondents viewed sustainability and employability as equally important concepts, though some respondents thought that sustainability was slightly more, or even much more, important than employability concerns. Almost all of the respondents indicated that they viewed the concepts as interconnected and argued for a balanced approach to teaching in tourism education.

The vast majority of respondents endorsed the view that tourism education should include scientific and theoretical based studies and, in addition, that it should convey a basic practical understanding of issues at hand. Respondents, furthermore, advocated the incorporation of ST-related content that spanned a variety of disciplines. Most endorsed a multidisciplinary approach to ST education suggesting topics that ranged from socio-cultural concerns, the long term economic benefits, and in particular, the environmental impacts of tourism.

These views were in alignment with the broader tourism scholarship that advocated expanding the tourism agenda beyond business to return to core disciplines such as geography, sociology, anthropology and history. Critical scholars argued that interdisciplinarity, multidisciplinary (Caton, 2015; Forristal 2012; Kellee, 2015) as well as postdisciplinarity approaches facilitated a broader, flexible, pragmatic and in-depth study of tourism phenomena that was in line with the demands of the sustainability field (Coles, Hall and Duval, 2016; Munar, Pernecky and Feighery, 2016; UNESCO 2014c).

The detailed recommendations from the respondents offer important insights into what tourism stakeholders view as important for the development of ST curricula for TE in SSA. Specific environmental themes included, for example, environmental topics relating to wildlife and flora protection, resource use, climate change, transportation and overtourism as well as practical professional guiding skills in general, and for the bush, in particular. Topics relating to socio-cultural issues were the next most frequently suggested area for ST education. Stakeholders also advocated educational themes such as debates on human rights, the loss of cultures and traditions through tourism as well as more practical content such as how to provide an adequate, un wasteful food service to tourists, or how to incorporate sustainability practices in communities and school routines. In the tourism business context, several respondents advocated introducing both theoretical management knowledge and practical workplace skills. Recommendations included topics such as ST product development and marketing, hotel management, CSR, entrepreneurial studies, as well as topics relating to risk management and how to gain access to foreign aid and credit. Conversely, others pointed out that practical business modules were missing in TE and advocated practical skills for the job that included front

office skills, typing, technical computer skills, and learning to work with local crafts and materials.

The various recommendations summarized above provide the content that tourism stakeholders view as highly relevant for ST education in the SSA context. These topics demonstrate that the respondents had numerous ideas for curricula content beyond business courses. They also underscore the importance placed by respondents on providing not only academic content but also practical training. This is thus valuable input for the proposed framework that is described in detail in chapter 6.

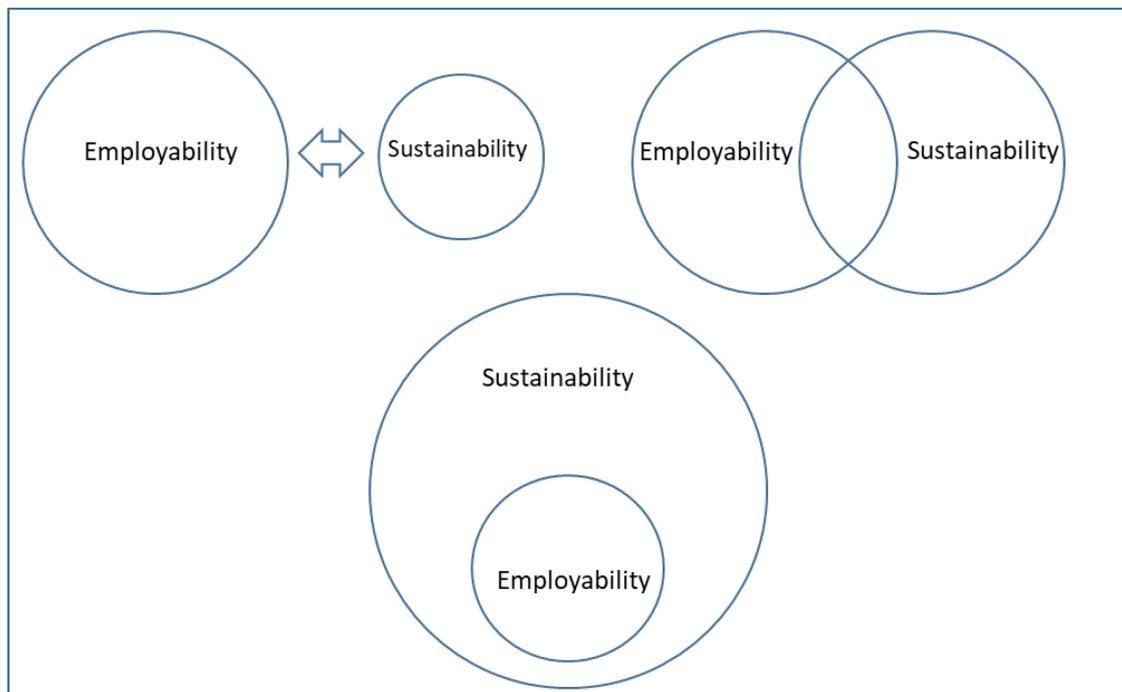
The view that a balanced approach to tourism curricula was both feasible and beneficial was also supported in the broader tourism scholarship reviewed for this study. This thesis presented several models that demonstrated how professional, vocational training could be combined with a liberal arts approach. Most of these models were discussed in the context of a phronesis approach to education, i.e., one that strives for virtuous actions through combining objective, scientific knowledge (episteme) with technical capabilities (techne) (Dredge, 2015). Of particular relevance was Philosophic Practitioner Education model (Dredge et al., 2015) which aimed to demonstrate that curricula should ideally integrate vocational, professional education with a broad array of social sciences and humanities content. Similarly, imparting phronesis was also at the core of the Curriculum Framework Model (Oktadiana and Chon, 2016). The Systems Approach Model to Tourism Curriculum Design, on the other hand, broadened the discussion to incorporate the larger macro-economic context as well as the cultural and social values of societies (Wattanacharoensil, 2013).

These models all underscore the fact that although curricula are described as a complex space informed by diverse actors with differing interests, ideologies, and resources, it is possible to combine higher order knowledge on the one hand, and practical, vocational skills on the other. Similar to the stakeholders interviewed for this study, combining both TE knowledge with practical skills was seen as the optimal strategy for preparing students for work in the multi-faceted field of ST (Airey, Dredge and Gross, 2015; Dredge, 2010; Sheldon et

al., 2007). The importance attributed to this aspect warrants its inclusion in the proposed framework.

The preceding discourse on the relative position of employability in tourism curricula can be visualized as in Figure 30. The *upper left* graphic represents the current status of employability in tourism curricula in general as well as in SSA in particular. In this context, employability plays a dominant role and debates concerning the saliency of the concepts are often in polarised format. Employability and sustainability are frequently seen as competing for curricula space. The *upper right* graphic is a representation of the aforementioned phronesis oriented models that attempt to combine vocational or professional training – seen as particularly important for employability – with academic or broader approaches that are more closely associated with ST education. The size and overlap of the employability and sustainability spheres will be dependent on preferences and context. Alternatively, it could be argued that employability is one dimension, albeit an important one, of sustainability, and thus employability criteria should be incorporated into the overall ST curricula design as depicted in the *bottom graphic*.

Figure 30: Relevance of Employability and Sustainability for Tourism TE



Scholarship in the tourism education field lends support to the argument that sustainability and employability are interrelated concepts. Productive employment was seen to be an important factor contributing to the achievement of several of the SDGs including decreased poverty and crime; increased health and education; as well as social, political and economic stability (Šlaus and Jacobs, 2011). Furthermore, sustainable approaches to employment would address a wide range of problematic issues typically associated with the tourism industry such as inadequate working conditions, unfair remuneration and gender inequality (Marshall, 2018; Slocum, Dimitrov and Webb, 2019).

Attending to employability skills in tourism studies is particularly relevant for SSA, where high unemployment rates among TE graduates is attributed to a skills mismatch and lack of collaboration with industry (Engelhardt, 2018). Studies revealed that almost half of TE graduates in SSA do not get jobs or generally take longer to find employment than in other countries (Oanda and Ngcwangu, 2018). Thus, tourism curricula for this region cannot neglect this aspect. However, connecting employability and sustainability objectives in tourism education has not yet been widely recognised (Hatipoglu, Ertuna and Sasidharan, 2014; Chawla, 2015).

The preceding discussion indicates that there is a growing body of tourism stakeholders including practitioners, educators and researchers who do not concur with the current strategies that put employability goals at the top of the tourism education agenda. The findings reveal that there is increasing support for the idea that sustainability and employability goals, rather than competing, are two sides of the same coin and that this should be reflected in contemporary tourism curricula. Moreover, the findings of this study indicate that critical scholars and most respondents endorse a return to a broader concept of tourism education which, along with business management courses, also incorporates content from a wider range of disciplines and, furthermore, combines theoretical with practical learning. These findings are of high relevance for the development of the ST education framework.

5.5 The Centrality of Soft Skills and Competencies

A related further key finding of this study is the significance attributed to soft skills in the binary discourse consisting of educating for sustainability and educating for employability. In the process of this study, the fostering of soft skills in graduates emerged as a unifying aspect in the considerations relating to the achievement of high employability as well as the SDGs.

The predominance of the employability theme in the literature reviewed for this thesis motivated a closer investigation of stakeholder opinions on this issue. The findings revealed that although employability skills are defined differently within and across the stakeholder groups participating in this study, the majority refer to a diverse set of soft skills when talking about employability skills.

Interesting insights emerged when respondents were subsequently asked for their opinions on the importance of, respectively, employability skills and soft skills for ST education. From a total of 29 survey respondents, 72 percent of respondents ranked employability skills as very relevant and the remaining 28 percent of respondents as somewhat relevant. When subsequently asked for views on the importance of soft skills for ST education, 66 percent of respondents thought soft skills were very relevant, 31 percent thought they were somewhat relevant, and 3 percent of respondents thought they were less relevant. None of the respondents viewed soft skills as not relevant.

These findings suggest that respondents, similar to myself before embarking on this study, did not equate employability skills with soft skills or vice versa. Respondents assumed that these were two separate concepts and ranked them as such. The rankings for these concepts revealed that slightly more respondents viewed employability skills as very relevant (72 percent) compared to those who viewed soft skills as very relevant (66 percent). Table 25 displays these findings and shows that overall a slight preference was given to employability skills—an interesting finding given that employability skills were mostly equated with soft skills in the preceding question.

Table 25: The Relative Importance of Employability and Sustainability Skills

Below is a list of the various approaches and concepts suggested for sustainable tourism in higher education. Please rank the items for yourself by ticking the appropriate box.										
	Very relevant		Somewhat relevant		Less relevant		Not relevant		Not sure	
	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%
Employability skills	21	72%	8	28%	0	0%	0	0%	0	0
Soft skills	19	66%	9	31%	1	3%	0	0%	0	0

The general findings for this part of the study are in alignment with the broader literature on employability that likewise frequently equate employability skills with soft skills. The majority of studies defined the concept of employability in terms of the skills, knowledge and competencies considered important for successful employment (Ali, Murphy and Nadkarni, 2017; Wang and Tsai, 2014). Extensive, longitudinal studies conducted with the objective of operationalising the concept of employability likewise culminated in discussions relating to soft skills (Wakelin-Theron, 2015; Osmani, Weerakkody and Hindi, 2017; Slocum, Dimitrov and Webb, 2019).

Table 26 presents a list of soft skills and competencies that were described as important employability skills by the respondents in this study (column A) and by researchers writing in the field of employability studies (column B). This table illustrates the wide variety of soft skills that are considered as important employability skills and also shows overlapping ideas between the two areas (shaded area).

However, soft skills were not only emphasized in this study and in the general employability scholarship, but also in studies pertaining to EfS in general (Lambrechts *et al.*, 2013; UNESCO, 2014d; Rieckmann, 2018b). Since the Talloires Declaration in 1990 in which universities first began to work together for a sustainable future, various conceptual frameworks and guidelines have evolved that offered the foundation for the development of EfS curricula. Recommended is an approach that is inclusive, interdisciplinary, liberal arts oriented and has the development of skills and competencies at core (Barth, *et al.*, 2007; Gillies, 2014; UNESCO, 2014c).

Table 26: List of Employability Skills in this Study and other selected Studies

Skill Softs and Competencies	
This Study	Employability Studies
Leadership	Leadership
Empathy	Empathy
Communication	Communication
Intercultural Competence	Intercultural Competence
Teamwork	Teamwork
Flexibility	Flexibility
Social skills	Social Competence
Commitment	Commitment
Openness	Imagination
Curiosity	Compassion
Self-motivation	Ethics
Conflict Management	Creativity
Patience	Critical thinking
Stress resistance	Decision-making
Inspiration	Socio-emotional
Self-initiative	
Negotiation	
Collaborative	
Responsibility	
Resourceful	
Independent	
Enthusiasm	

In concurrence with these guidelines, tourism scholars also endorse soft skills as crucial for preparing students for their professional lives (Airey, Dredge and Gross, 2015; Dredge, 2010; Sheldon et al., 2007). These scholars likewise often discuss soft skills in the context of a broader approach to ST education which includes liberal arts disciplines as well as critical and global studies. Combining humanities with the social sciences, a liberal arts education is seen to cultivate the intellectual capacities necessary to think in broader dimensions and to navigate complex global issues (Princeton University, 2020). In particular, philosophy was seen as a powerful tool for developing critical awareness and honing logical reasoning skills—considered especially important

for future decision-making and leadership in the ST industry (Caton, 2014, 2015; Kellee, 2015). However, criticism is directed at the notable lack of ethics in current tourism curricula though this topic was considered a key competence for addressing critical tourism issues (Belhassen and Caton, 2011; Caton, Schott and Daniele, 2014; Šlaus and Jocabs, 2011).

From this context, the respondent opinions on the relative importance of ethics and liberal arts for ST education is of particular interest. Table 27 shows that ethics was seen as very relevant by 90 percent of respondents, making it the highest ranked of all suggested topics. In comparison, the respondent rankings on the inclusion of liberal arts content far less enthusiastic: 34 percent saw this as very relevant, 38 percent as somewhat relevant, 21 percent as less relevant was 21 percent, and 7 percent as not relevant. Thus, liberal arts was ranked the lowest of all suggested themes for ST education by the respondents in this study.

Table 27: Respondent Rankings of Ethics and Liberal Arts for ST Education

	Very relevant		Somewhat relevant		Less relevant		Not relevant		Not sure	
	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%
Ethics	26	90%	2	7%	1	3%	0	0	0	0
Liberal Arts	10	34%	11	38%	6	21%	2	7%	0	0

One possible explanation for this could be that the concept of a liberal arts education was not clear for all respondents, particularly perhaps for the non-educators. In the survey tool, liberal arts was broadly defined as incorporating history, philosophy, and the arts – ethics was not explicitly mentioned as a related branch of philosophy. Thus, viewed by respondents perhaps as a rather abstract concept, liberal arts may not have been seen as important. However, it could also be that the respondents did not view liberal arts content as particularly relevant for ST education. In retrospect, this concept could have been more clearly defined for non-educator respondents so that the responses more clearly reflect preferences. However, the prominence assigned to both liberal arts and ethics both in this study as well as in the broader scholarship indicates that these are highly relevant topics for ST education.

To summarise the arguments thus far, the development of soft skills is at the core of scholarly discussions relating to employability, EfS in general, as well as educating for ST in particular. When discussing employability skills, the respondents in this study, in alignment with scholars from the broader field of tourism studies, frequently alluded to soft skills. Although there is currently much dialectic discourse surrounding the imperative of educating for employability versus educating for sustainability, the overall findings indicate that there are many synergies between the two approaches. An important conclusion that can be drawn from these findings is that the development of soft skills should be given a prominent role in ST education. This has immediate implications for the development of the proposed framework. However, the challenge is how to implement such an approach.

This challenge is at the centre of contemporary international debates on the most effective strategies for educating for sustainability. Education scholars speak of the need for a paradigm shift from an input or knowledge orientation to an output or competency-based approach (Haan, 2006; 2008; Michelsen and Rieckmann, 2014). The emphasis on the latter approach is to develop the skills, abilities and competencies seen as necessary to achieve the SDGs.

There is a general consensus that individuals need to be equipped with a special set of 'key competencies' that empower them to think in terms of global citizenry and to affect positive changes in an increasingly complex and dynamic world (Wiek, Withycombe and Redman, 2011; UNESCO, 2014d; Rieckmann, 2018c). Thus, the competency-based approach is seen as highly relevant for the development of the proposed framework for ST education.

However, a paradigm shift to a competency-based approach, as several scholars note, likewise necessitates a shift in instructional methods (Weinert, 2001; Barth, et al., 2007; Wilhelm, et al., 2015, p. 73). This is discussed in the next section.

5.6 Effective Methods and Tools

In the process of this research, various teaching strategies, methods and tools were discussed in the context of promoting EfS in general, as well as for ST education in particular. The following synopsis integrates recommendations

from participants in this study with those from the broader field of education research. The most important discussions revolved around appropriate teaching methods, WIL concepts and the use of technology.

Methods of Instruction. In comparison to other themes, there were relatively fewer comments from respondents regarding effective teaching methods for ST education. This could be due to the fact that the stakeholders in this study represent a diverse group which include non-educators with perhaps less pedagogical expertise. However, several ideas crystallised from the interview and survey responses in this study nevertheless. Most of the responses related to the inclusion of tourism stakeholders in the TE classroom. Respondents recommended the involvement of guest speakers who could provide concrete examples from the field and spark topical debates relating to, for example, customer relations, trending, challenges and ST concepts.

These ideas are in alignment with the instructional methods put forth as effective for EfS in general and ST education in particular. Scholars mostly endorsed interactive strategies such as guest lectures, debates, problem-based activities, case studies and collaboration with stakeholders (Christie et al., 2013; Tribe, 2002; Ahmad, Abu Bakar and Ahmad, 2018). Furthermore, scholars recommended creative classroom activities such as roleplaying, the use of film, artwork as well as photography (Caton, 2015; Mott, Zupan and Debbane, 2015).

These instructional methods are frequently discussed in the context of learner-centred, constructivist approaches to education which aims to build on existing knowledge and competency levels and to encourage students to become active co-creators of their learning process (Haan, 2010; Barkathunnisha, Lee and Price, 2017; Rieckmann, 2018c). These aspects are thus of high relevance for the proposed ST framework.

However, although these approaches and instructional methods were highly advocated for EfS, critical scholars note that mostly traditional teaching methods (such as lectures) prevail in tourism education and that, furthermore, teacher-centred approaches were preferred over student-centred approaches (Kim and Davies, 2014).

One possible explanation for this is that tourism educators in general are not adequately trained for pedagogies and instructional methods recommended for EfS. This idea is supported by Canziani, et al. (2012), who reported a lack of confidence, expertise and experience among educators with regard to teaching for sustainability. This finding could also be relevant for tourism studies in the SSA region. Modelled on past colonial ideals of education (Mayaka and Akama, 2015), it may now be that TE institutions in SSA are in urgent need of an update. This was personally observed in the context of project work with educators in Ghana: several educators lamented that mostly teacher-oriented methods were implemented in TE although they appreciated the advantages of learner-centred concepts (Fay and Boakye, 2019). Interest was expressed in organising teacher training workshops in this area to improve and expand on education strategies. Several scholars writing in the SSA context confirmed that the region lacked skilful, experienced staff for TE, and that, furthermore once qualified, most leave SSA for good (Asamoah and Mackin, 2015; Engelhardt, 2018).

Implementing sustainability-oriented approaches to tourism education in SSA has the advantage that students who go on to be educators will automatically perpetuate these learned methods, just as their current educators replicate how they have been taught. These approaches are to be incorporated in the proposed framework. However, beyond graduate education, the urgent need to address sustainability education on a broader scale becomes apparent. Not only students, communities, and businesses but also educators need support with regard to effective pedagogy for teaching sustainability. Here, again, TE could become more active in their third mission functions by organising capacity building trainings for educators on effective pedagogy for sustainability education.

Work Integrated Learning. Turning to the further prominent strategies for ST education, stakeholders had substantially more to contribute to concept of WIL. Altogether 79 percent of respondents in this study ranked WIL as very relevant, 24 percent as somewhat relevant, and 7 percent as less relevant. This relatively higher interest was most likely due to the fact that most of the stakeholders could relate in one way or another to praxis of the tourism

industry. This was reflected in the details of the responses, which mostly discussed the advantages of establishing collaboration with industry in terms of increased employment opportunities, improved curricula, and the training of market-relevant competencies and skills for graduates.

WIL was also endorsed by numerous studies in the broader educational literature which similarly described advantages in the form of improved curricula and employment chances (O'Mahony and Salmon, 2015; Rufai, Bakar and Rashid, 2015; Wearing et al., 2017). However, in the literature, WIL learning was mostly discussed in the context of action-oriented, experiential and transformative learning experiences, and incorporated a broader range of concepts including cooperative education, community projects, field trips, internships as well as study abroad (King and Zhang, 2017). These concepts were seen as beneficial for training higher level skills such as problem-solving, critical analysis, entrepreneurial capacity and intercultural competence (Helyer, 2015).

The preceding discussion highlights the most important teaching concepts put forth by scholars and respondents. The relatively fewer contributions made by respondents in this area were mostly in concurrence with the teaching methods for EfS put forth by tourism scholars. One difference was that the respondents put more of a focus on stakeholder involvement—implicitly defined as tourism practitioners—firstly, by bringing in stakeholders to the students and secondly, by taking the students out to the stakeholders. Notable was that although respondents had in previous responses emphasized the benefits of incorporating other stakeholders such as NGOs or community officials, there were no suggestions or ideas on how to integrate these into the learning process.

Tourism scholars, on the other hand, broadened the discussion to include all stakeholders and further educational concepts and WIL possibilities as well as their potential for the development of soft skills. The discrepancy between respondent and scholarship input pertaining to ST education methodology is not a surprising outcome given the differing levels of expertise and diverse stakeholder professional profiles. This could possibly be due to, as previously

discussed, a lack of pedagogical training on the part of tourism educators in TE. However, it could also be due to the fact that tourism stakeholders, understandably, have been more occupied with how to increase and promote the business of tourism rather than on how to effectively teach ST.

The conclusion emerging from this discussion is that the integration of a WIL component is conducive to the overall objectives of educating for sustainability in tourism. Which mode of WIL to be adopted will be dependent on the resources and cooperations available to TE institutions. Scholarly works and respondents concur that WIL facilitates a connect between theoretical learning and practical work, and furthermore, can hone crucial skills and competencies. Thus, this is seen as a crucial element for the proposed framework for ST education.

Use of Technology. Similar to the discussion on methods for teaching EfS, there were relatively few respondent statements regarding the use of technology in the classroom. In general, respondents did not see the significance of technological skills for ST education. One tourism provider viewed the influence of technology somewhat negatively by calling attention to the challenges of meeting the ‘immediate gratification’ needs of the digital generation who were characterized as lacking in concentration as well as knowledge of sustainability issues. Most of the suggested topics for ST curricula, as previously noted, revolved around business, soft skills and environmental themes, and only a few technology-related topics were recommended. These included trainings for the technical programmes that are required for the job, basic IT skills, and digital tourism marketing. This apparent disinterest is also reflected in the respondent ranking of the importance of technology for ST education. Only 55 percent of respondents saw technological skills as very relevant, 31 percent as somewhat relevant, 10 percent as less relevant and 4 percent as not relevant at all.

These findings indicate that the respondents in this study have yet to recognize the potential of technology for the field of ST in general. The age group of the respondents was considered as one possible explanation for this. Given that (in 2019) 65 percent of respondents reported over 10 years of work experience and

the remaining 45 percent less than 10 years, the majority of respondents are mostly likely to belong to, according to the generation categorisations by Dimock (2019), either the Millennials (ages of 23 to 38) or Gen Xers (ages 39 to 54). According to recent studies by the Pew Center Research (Vogels, 2019), these two generation groups are characterized as being more comfortable with digital technologies and social media than the previous generation of Baby Boomers (ages 55 to 73). It was reported that substantially more Millennials (93%) and Gen Xers (90%) own a smart phone compared to Baby Boomers (68%). Likewise, more Millennials (86 %) and Gen Xers (76 %) use social media than Baby Boomers (59%). However, nearly all Millennials (almost 100%), most Gen Xers (91%) as well as most Baby Boomers (85 %) use the internet. Therefore, even if age does play a role, it is not a significant one and cannot offer an adequate explanation for the attitudes toward technology in this study. A review of the relevant scholarship offered further insights.

Although the respondents in this study did not rank technological skills as important as other concepts for ST education, other studies reveal that employers often found essential IT skills lacking in the workplace (Bilgihan et al., 2014). This lack of technology education is particularly lamentable in view of the recognized potential of technology to contribute to the achievement of the SDGs. Over the course of several decades, economic theories, in particular, endogenous and diffusion theories have underscored the importance of fostering technical skills and know-how for economic development in the advanced world (Oketch, McCowan and Schendel, 2014; OECD, 2015; Marmolejo, 2016).

However, not only technology content in tourism curricula, but also the use of technology as a teaching and learning tool was reported to be lagging behind. Critics noted that although technology is rapidly changing the business of tourism, the educational sphere has failed to keep pace (Hsu, 2015; Munar and Bødker, 2015; Murphy et al., 2017). Especially in MOOCs, tourism education has fallen behind, accounting for just 0.6 percent of the total world programmes, and tourism programmes with sustainability content accounting for even less (Murphy et al., 2017). This again is regrettable given that technology can provide broader access to cost-effective online programmes and expertise from

around the globe (O'Mahony and Salmon, 2015; Hsu, 2018; Šlaus and Jacobs, 2011). Furthermore, by collaborating on tourism projects across borders, online learning offers opportunities for experiential learning and the development of crucial soft skills (Benckendorff and Moscardo, 2015; Schott, 2015).

Reasons given for the neglect of technology in the education field included insufficient funding, and a lack of combined tourism and technical expertise (Munar and Bødker, 2015; O'Mahony and Salmon, 2015). These findings perhaps offer more plausible explanations for the lack of interest in technology found in this study. The challenges of making an adequate living was mentioned several times thus supporting the lack of funding arguments. However, perhaps a lack of knowledge and technical savvy on the part of the respondents played a more important role. Not being really aware of the potential of technologies, not only for tourism praxis, but also as an educational tool, respondents did not rank this as a high priority.

Thus, despite the responses in this study, it becomes apparent that online learning technologies offer much untapped potential for ST education. A variety of innovative, collaborative online learning ideas have been developed and implemented around the globe. These include simulations (Schott, 2015), smartphone apps (Sigala, 2012; Falk, 2016), augmented reality (Villarejo, et al., 2014), QR codes (Kou and Lui, 2019) as well as the use of blogs and social media (Miralbell, 2014; Montserrat, 2014).

Although the benefits of these technologies have been widely acknowledged in tourism research, they have yet to be fully recognized in ST education in SSA. Thus, from the preceding discussion it becomes clear that ST education should ideally not only teach *about* technology, but also *with* technology. ST curricula content needs to reflect the increasing digitalisation of the tourism industry. Instructional methods should be appropriately selected from the full spectrum of technological tools available. An important consideration hereby would be to support educators in the use of technologies by offering capacity building workshops with experts from the field.

5.7 Context Relevancy of Curricula Content

Not only the appropriate choice of methods and tools but also appropriate curricula content was a further prominent aspect that emerged in this study.

Stakeholders expressed the opinion that ST curricula should be context specific, culturally appropriate and of high relevance for the region.

Paradoxically, although these responses involved critical analysis, respondents did not assign critical thinking skills a prominent role in ST education.

Remarks relating to curricula relevancy were mostly, though not exclusively, made in response to the question “Do you think that there are courses, content or any other aspects missing from current academic tourism studies? Do you have any further recommendations?”

Respondents recommended that, rather than importing tourism curricula, content should be adjusted to local governance structures, levels of development and available resources, and should furthermore highlight local ecological, cultural and social dimensions.

Respondents criticised that local voices were often missing in curricula development and that the advanced world often attempted to dictate to the developing world about sustainable resource management even though—as one discerning government official noted—most of the original trees and animals had been eradicated in these countries. Further criticism was directed at the vagueness of ‘imported’ curricula that did not reflect the African market or specific ST strategies of the country.

In particular, respondents felt that students needed to be better informed about sustainable resource management and how tourism sustainability relates to national sustainability policies. They drew attention to the need to address critical issues such as inhumane approaches to wildlife, ‘canned lion hunting’ and deforestation in ST education.

However, the lack of local cultural and social context in tourism curricula was an equally prominent theme. Various respondents highlighted the need for tourism curricula to be embedded in the national, regional as well as African context.

One stakeholder argued that tourism studies in SSA must be viewed within the

broader TE context of colonialism and historical asymmetries that put economic development at the fore of the agenda. Other respondents were more specific in their statements. Issues relating to human rights and gender inequalities in SSA needed to be better included in sustainability education. A few respondents thought that poverty in SSA needed to be addressed as people struggling to survive had other priorities than sustainability. Unsustainable land development and exploitation of peoples in Africa was also mentioned. A further theme was the need to re-instill a sense of pride in African cultural identities and associated values. The changes in traditional lifestyles and nutritional habits were seen as problematic developments. One tourism provider referred to the need to achieve a more balanced approach to ST education, as in Africa, increasing the amount of tourists was often the priority. In general, respondents attributed these societal problems and poor policy making to inadequate leadership in the ST field and thought this should be addressed in ST curricula. Thus, these are important aspects that need to be incorporated in the proposed ST framework.

An interesting aspect that emerges from the preceding discussion is that the responses reflect a critical assessment of contemporary tourism curricula. Yet when asked to evaluate various concepts for ST curricula, just 55 percent ranked critical thinking skills as very relevant, 38 percent as somewhat relevant, and 2 percent as less relevant. In comparison, respondents rated as very relevant the concepts of Ethics (90 percent), Environmental Studies (79 percent), a Multidisciplinary approach (76 percent), Cultural Studies (77 percent), Employability skills (72 percent), Work-Integrated Learning (69 percent), CSR (69 percent) and Soft skills (66 percent). This means that critical thinking skills were ranked third least important topic, considered only more important than Entrepreneurial Studies (48 percent) and Liberal Arts (34 percent).

The relative lack of importance attributed to critical studies was not in alignment with various scholars writing in the field of ST education. Several authors lamented its neglect pointing out how the overriding goals of critical studies were compatible with those of sustainability education (Wilson, 2015, p. 201; Crossley, 2017, p. 428). Critical thinking skills were seen as essential for

challenging societal issues relating to hegemony, privilege as well as social, racial and gender inequalities (Schweinsberg, Wearing and McManus, 2013; Wilson, Small and Harris, 2012; Young, Witsel and Boyle, 2017). Furthermore, these scholars argued for inclusion of all voices including indigenous and minority perspectives (Boluk, Cavaliere and Higgins-Desbiolles, 2017). Of particular relevancy for this study was the critical approach to tourism studies that argued for the adoption of collaborative rather than competitive approaches and questioned whether an exclusive focus on industry needs was in alignment with the promotion of sustainability objectives in tourism education (Rouzrokh et al., 2017). In sum, the methods of critical pedagogy which advocate a holistic, egalitarian, inclusive and questioning approach to education (Crossley, 2017; Grimwood, Arthurs and Vogel, 2015; McLaren and Kincheloe, 2007; Pappalepore and Farrell, 2017) concur with the general statements of respondents described in this section.

The saliency of the preceding discussion is that the respondents of this study demonstrated that they are aware of a wide range of critical societal issues connected to sustainability. Furthermore, they recommend that these topics are included in ST curricula. In voicing their opinions, respondents engaged in discourse that involved taking a critical stance with regard to issues relating to sustainable development and content for ST education in SSA. These critical thinking skills correlate with the skills and competencies that sustainable tourism scholars are calling for in education. It could be argued, therefore, despite the fact that stakeholders did not rank these skills as high as other educational concepts, that these are the skills that need to be included in new approaches for ST education. A golden thread running throughout the discussion in chapter 5 has been the necessity to foster critical thinking skills in order to empower stakeholders and thus, ultimately, increase participation in decision-making. One aim is to raise awareness of the broader, deep-rooted and lasting impacts of colonial rule on African education and society as a whole. However, this section also underscored the need to address urgent problems in the tourism industry relating to a whole range of social, environmental and economic issues. This requires a critical appraisal of the business of tourism in

the context of the SDGs which in turn has implications for how ST education needs to be taught.

This argument is in line with the 'situated learning' approach to sustainability education put forth by Haan (2010, p. 319) who argues that learning is more effective if the learner is engaged in real-life and applicable contexts:

"For the construction of knowledge, the learning environment is a decisive factor. Competencies are most successfully acquired when learning takes place in a specific context. Further, vast areas of knowledge and behaviour are context-bound, i.e. they are linked to specific situations, problems and fields of action."

Thus, the various topics proposed by respondents as well as critical studies advocated by tourism scholars are important components for the development of a ST curricula. However, it also becomes apparent that a paradigm change in ST education can only realistically be achieved if all tourism stakeholders are involved in the process. This means consulting and incorporating the perspectives of not only business stakeholders, but also community members, government officials and NGOs. These ideas will likewise inform the proposed framework for ST education.

5.8 Hidden versus Visible Sustainability

A final aspect to be addressed in this chapter is how to incorporate the various ideas, concepts and content relating to sustainability in tourism programmes. This discussion broadly revolves around the arguments of whether to adopt a 'hidden curriculum' approach as opposed to a 'visible curriculum' approach. Scholarly opinions on this vary greatly with one school of thought arguing for sustainability to be integrated or 'built-in' into the curricula, and the other advocating a focussed, explicit strategy.

All of the stakeholders participating in this study consistently endorsed the idea that sustainability is an important issue that needs attention in contemporary tourism curricula. This was underscored in responses to various questions throughout the process of the research. However, with one exception, the modus in which sustainability should be integrated into tourism curricula was

not touched on. One educator explicitly addressed this topic recommending that the topic of sustainability be 'mainstreamed' and 'weaved' into the curriculum, not as a sideline, but as an integral part of the narrative in tourism studies.

Often referred to as the 'hidden curricula' in tourism scholarship, this approach argues that sustainability should be communicated 'indirectly' by embedding the principles and values of sustainability into all curricula throughout the institution (Lund-Durlacher, 2015b; Moscardo, 2015). The advantage of this approach is that the sustainability is conveyed in a holistic manner without the necessity for the addition of more topics to an already crowded curriculum (UNESCO, 2018, p. 12).

On the flip side, it could also be argued that integrating sustainability implicitly throughout curricula and institutions runs the risk of the topic becoming submerged and trivial, in line with the thinking of a Roman Stoic philosopher who once pointed out "He who is everywhere is nowhere" (Seneca, Lucilius Junior and Campbell, 2004). Furthermore, similar to 'green washing' in tourism praxis, TE institutions may be tempted to meet perceived market demands by claiming an integrated approach without having to alter their systems. An explicit approach, i.e., one that makes sustainability visible in curricula through course titles and content may increase an institution's credibility with regard to their commitment to sustainability. It could also assist employers and students alike to recognise tourism programmes that are serious about educating graduates for sustainability.

Additionally, it could be argued that sustainability as a concept has not gone mainstream. One of the most persistent themes in this study was the respondent perception that the concept of sustainability is still not well understood by governments, tourism providers and practitioners alike. This view was also shared by numerous critical tourism scholars reviewed for this research. Furthermore, the extensive criticism regarding the non-achievement of the SDGs in the context of tourism development does not support the notion that sustainability is being adequately addressed in the industry.

Therefore, based on the findings of this study and the broader critical tourism scholarship, it is argued here that in addition to integrating sustainability into the whole system, sustainability requires a special focus to achieve its goals. In agreement with Chawla (2015), an approach is thus advocated that gives emphasis and prominence to sustainability in tourism education. However, in alignment with scholars who advocate a holistic approach, it is likewise recommended that sustainability also becomes an integral part of tourism curricula and beyond in the TE system.

One way to address the overcrowded curriculum problem is to design modules that have a special focus on sustainability content. These modules should be explicitly labelled as a ST module and, rather than a stand-alone course, should be closely connected to the content of other courses in the tourism study programme. This approach corresponds to the idea of introducing interdisciplinary modules of sustainability into existing study programmes (Copernicus Campus, 2010, p. 20). Conversely, tourism educators could consider offering a balance of business and sustainability content in curricula. As discussed in previous sections of this chapter, meeting market employability demands is not necessarily in conflict with meeting the needs of sustainable development.

Therefore, in order to address concept confusion and inadequacies in tourism education, this thesis argues that sustainability should be given a prominent and visible role in ST curricula. Depending exclusively on an integrated 'hidden curricula' approach may dilute the importance and urgency of addressing sustainability by making it a deferential subset of business courses. Changes in ST education will more likely occur if sustainability is put explicitly and visibly high on the tourism educational agenda. However, it is also acknowledged here that to 'talk the talk' is not sufficient and that it is also necessary to 'walk the talk'. Therefore, this thesis also advocates a holistic approach to ST education, that is, one that simultaneously highlights and integrates sustainability in tourism education. Strategies for achieving this are the topic of the next chapter.

Conclusion

The preceding section explored stakeholder perspectives on what constitutes relevant ST education within the context of the broader literature reviewed for this study. The general findings of this study revealed that despite the decades of discourse and the international prominence given to the sustainability, the concept remains unclear and that education in this field is often found lacking. Addressing the field of ST, respondents—in agreement with critical scholars—did not endorse educational approaches that gave priority to employability criteria, but rather advocated a broader, multi-disciplinary approach that integrated theoretical with practical learning. The fostering of soft skills and competencies in particular were given a prominent role both in the broader literature as well as in this study. These skills and competencies were viewed as particularly important for addressing employability as well as sustainability related issues. Paradoxically, although stakeholders endorsed the inclusion of context specific, relevant and culturally appropriate content which was often of critical nature, critical analysis skills were not ranked as important for tourism education. This could possibly be due to the fact that the respondents, mostly with non-educator backgrounds, did not connect their own critical thinking skills to the pedagogical methods necessary for fostering these. Various teaching methods, tools and strategies were also discussed in the context of effective for EfS in general and for ST education in particular. Strongly advocated were learner-centred, transformational and collaborative teaching methods and the integration of WIL concepts. Teaching about and with technology was viewed as important in the broader scholarship but not by the respondents in this study. Finally, this section concluded with various arguments supporting the strategy of making sustainability an explicit and visible part of tourism curricula.

These various approaches, concepts, and strategies reflect the views of tourism respondents and scholars on what is important for ST education and will thus inform the proposed framework that is presented next in chapter 6.

6 A FRAMEWORK FOR SUSTAINABLE TOURISM EDUCATION

This section integrates the findings from the previous section to develop a framework for ST education. It begins in section 6.1 by reviewing the various considerations that shape and inform the framework which is subsequently presented in section 6.2. To conclude, an ST curriculum is presented in section 6.3 as a Best Practice example of how the framework can be applied.

6.1 Framing the Framework

The motivation for this thesis started with the goal of gaining insights into how tourism is currently being taught in TE in general, and in SSA in particular. Tracing the scholarship describing the development of the discipline since its conception almost 60 years ago revealed that the industry has undergone major changes which, to a large part, are still not reflected in current tourism curricula. The overriding conclusion emerging from this study—as well as previous studies—is that tourism education is in need of an update. However, until recently little attention has been given to a developing conceptual framework for ST education. This study therefore aims to help close this gap.

As has become apparent in this study, tourism curricula reforms are often enmeshed in discourse involving the seemingly contesting paradigms of sustainability and employability. According to the arguments mentioned, the focus of current tourism education remains set in the framework of neoliberal policies which has put economic considerations at the forefront of the educational agenda. Neglected is the transformational role of the tourism industry to effect positive societal change and contribute to the achievement of the SDGs. This chapter argues that the goals of employability and sustainability are not conflicting, but mutually compatible. Therefore, it is important to attend to both the economic feasibility and the ethical responsibility of tourism development. These ideas are reflected in the framework of ST education presented in Figure 32.

Tourism curricula will inevitably reflect the underlying ontological and ideological preferences of its designers. In the context of tourism education, a broader, holistic or 'paideia' approach was juxtaposed with a vocational, pragmatic or 'banausos' approach. Whereas the paideia approach is more closely

associated with sustainability objectives such as nurturing critical and responsible citizens, the banauos approach is seen to promote professional skills needed for gainful employment. In alignment with the various models reviewed for this study, an integrated approach—i.e., one that includes interdisciplinary, vocational as well theoretical content—is adopted for the proposed framework.

However, not only ontological, but also epistemological considerations need to be addressed in any curricula redesign. This directs attention to how tourism is being taught (the methods of instruction) as well as how the curriculum space is filled (the knowledge taught). Whereas there are substantial differences in the content proposed for a traditional tourism business course as opposed to a ST approach, there are also overlapping ideas with regard to instructional methodologies, and in particular, the development of soft skills and competencies. The focus on soft skills by respondents was also in alignment with the broader scholarship on employability as well as tourism education. Thus the development of soft skills and competencies is likewise given a prominent role in the proposed framework.

The final design of curricula will be the result of axiological considerations. It will reflect which content is considered of value, to whom, and for what purpose. Following the line of arguments from the discussions in the preceding chapter, tourism curricula would be improved if all stakeholders were given an equal voice. Thus, the inclusion of their perspectives will ensure that the various stakeholder interests as well as the local values and context are reflected in curricula. However, tourism curricula also needs to be framed in the broader context so that future professionals are aware of the broader impacts of tourism on a regional, national and global scale (Mayaka and Akama, 2015, p. 237). The proposed framework therefore attempts to balance a local perspective provided by the respondents of this study with the broader picture gained from the reviewed scholarship in this area.

The preceding deliberations highlight that the proposed framework will need to accommodate a wide range of tourism interests and contexts. It is apparent that a one-size-fits-all approach will not work. The goal is therefore to create a

framework for ST education in general, with a special focus on the SSA context. It is not intended as a top down approach in which the Global North dictates to the Global South but rather is based on what respondents living and working in SSA view as effective ST education. Wary of the “unsustainable development” perpetuated by hegemonic Western Higher Education systems (Tilbury, 2011, p. 23), it is an attempt to avoid the export of non-relevant curricula from western TE institutions to SSA in the context of well-meaning education development projects.

6.2 An Integrative, Competency-Based Approach

The framework for ST education in Figure 32 integrates the insights, ideas, concepts and recommendations gained in the process of this research. The central idea is that an optimal strategy for ST education will involve a balance of business and sustainability content. The diagram consists of four main categories: disciplines, course topics, methods of instruction and a central area of overlapping business and ST concepts. The components typically associated with Tourism Management curricula are presented in the *blue* areas within the respective categories. The components considered effective for ST education are based on the various perspectives of the respondents in this study as well as scholarly works from the broader education field, and are presented in *brown* within the respective categories. The overlapping areas reflect the concepts that have been advocated for promoting both the goals of employability and sustainability in tourism education.

Although the disciplines, course topics, skills and competencies as well as instructional methods presented here cannot be considered as mutually exclusive or exhaustive lists, they do provide a good overview of the spectrum encountered in the respective areas. A list of all the sustainability related content courses located in online tourism curricula in SSA is found in Appendix 8. A full list of common tourism management topics is provided in Appendix 10.

Figure 32 underscores that in comparison to traditional Tourism Management programmes, recommendations for ST curricula draw on a broader range of social science, humanities as well as STEM disciplines. Likewise, whereas there is a strong focus on business-related topics in Tourism Management

programmes, the topics suggested for ST education span the environmental, economic and socio-cultural dimensions associated with the UNWTO definition of sustainability. From this diagram, a strong focus on business (or employability) in traditional Tourism Management curriculum is discernible.

Soft skill and competency development is placed in the middle of this framework as findings in this study as well as in the broader education scholarship confirm that these are considered crucial for achieving both employability and sustainability goals.

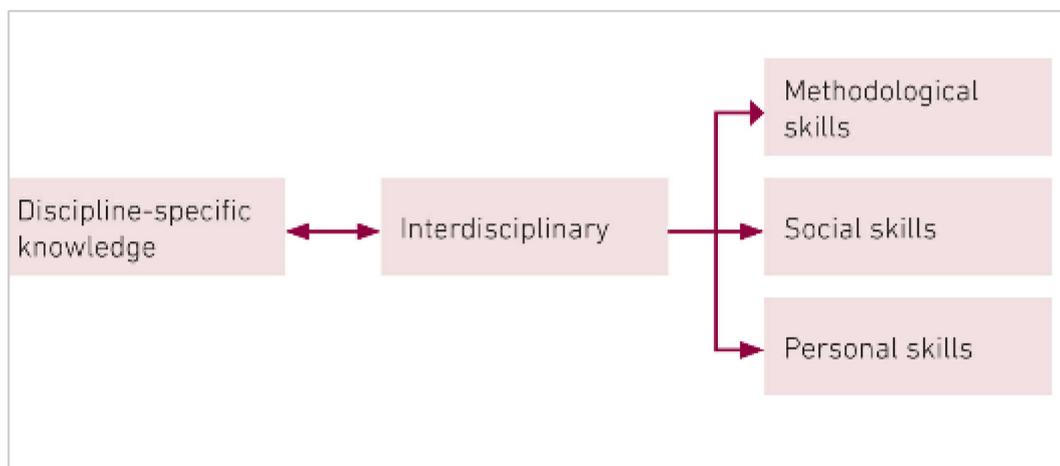
However, selecting the most important soft skills and competencies for the framework proved a challenging task. As noted by several authors there is a profusion of literature on the so-called key competencies for sustainability education with various semantic and conceptual interpretations (Wiek, Withycombe and Redman, 2011; Michelsen and Rieckmann, 2014). Weinert (2001, p. 2434) points out that with increasing scholarly engagement there are now at least 654 different key competencies, the definitions of which are “no less vague or ambiguous than that of competence. Clear and well-reasoned distinctions between the two concepts are either arbitrary or nonexistent.”

A review of the literature confirmed a plethora of key competency concepts. Wilhelm, Förster and Zimmermann (2019, p. 18) provide a comprehensive compilation of key competencies developed for sustainability from various scholars for TE, secondary education and organisational contexts. A list of key competencies for educating for ‘sustainability citizens’ is offered by UNESCO (2017b, p. 10; Rieckmann, 2018c, p. 45). Further key competencies from selected authors for the academic context was presented by Wiek, Withycombe and Redman (2011, p. 208), for the professional context by Heiskanen, Thidell and Rodhe (2016, p. 222) and for secondary schools by Haan (2010, p. 320).

However, two works in particular were the most helpful and relevant for this study. The first work is an extensive compilation of key competencies by various authors specifically for the TE context and is provided by Lozano, et al. (2017, pp. 4–5). This compilation (see Appendix 11) confirms the key competencies identified in this study from scholarly works and stakeholder responses. The second likewise constructive work involves the differentiation of

competencies into *Discipline-specific knowledge* (i.e., subject-specific) and *Interdisciplinary* (i.e., key competencies) – both of which are considered important (Figure 31). Key competencies were further categorised as (1) *Methodological skills* that are necessary for problem-solving such as language skills, theory-practice transfer skills and IT skills; (2) *Social skills* that facilitate effective interactions with others and include teambuilding skills, intercultural skills, and conflict resolution skills; and (3) *Personal Skills* which relate to how individuals conduct themselves and include self-management, ethical awareness and self-identity dimensions (Bachmann, 2018, p. 422)

Figure 31: Distinction between Discipline-specific and Key Competencies (Bachmann, 2018, p. 422)



Whereas the work from Lozano, et al (2017) lends credibility to the selection of key competencies for the framework, Bachmann’s (2018) work assists with the sorting of the selected competencies into meaningful categories for the curriculum development.

Thus, the final selection of competencies presented in the centre of the framework (Figure 32) is based on the respondent recommendations and the broader literature reviewed for this study.

Similarly placed in the centre of the framework are instructional methods that were seen as conducive for both employability and sustainability goals. These were, in particular, experiential learning, field studies, guest lectures, debates, case studies and study abroad concepts. However, studies reviewed for this thesis indicate that teacher-centred, competitive approaches have continued to

dominate in typical tourism programmes. The findings of this study underscore that to empower students to become positive change agents in tourism, learner-centred, collaborative, transformational and critical approaches were strongly advocated.

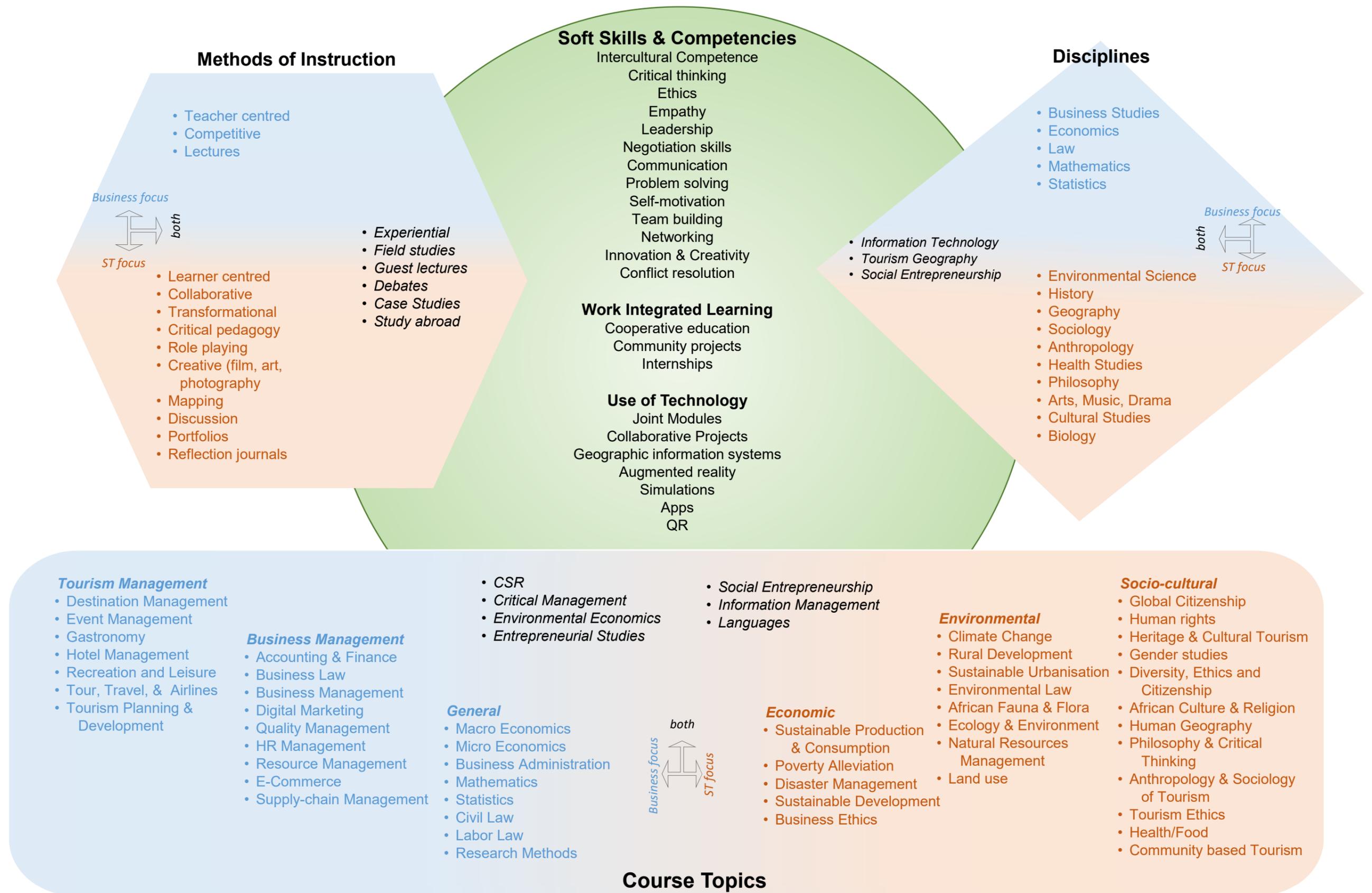
WIL and technology are likewise listed in the centre of this framework as both components are highlighted in this study as highly effective in promoting both employability and sustainability objectives. WIL is given emphasis here as a means of fostering a phronesis approach to education by integrating theoretical learning (episteme) with workplace training (techne). Finally, the use of creative technological learning tools should be considered as a means of supporting learning goals.

As the region of SSA represents some 47 different countries with diverse economic means, accreditation regulations, and TE funding and policies, creating a ST curriculum to suit all countries would be over-ambitious. Likewise a ranking of the components listed here is also not possible as the final choice of curricula design is dependent on a myriad of factors including tourism profiles, ontological and epistemological preferences, cultural values, local context as well as staff competency levels. Instead the framework should be considered a list of potential components from which curriculum designers can select to produce a tailor-made ST curriculum. This will ideally draw on a selection of dimensions within the framework by considering traditional business content as well as a sustainability orientation. Particular attention should be paid to the middle column of the framework as these components offer much potential for achieving employability and sustainability learning objectives.

Finally, as previously noted, the successful integration of sustainability into TE institutions will require that ST curricula is flanked with broader measures to integrate sustainability into other study programmes as well as throughout the institutions' processes and systems.

The preceding deliberations form the conceptual basis on which the following ST framework is developed.

Figure 32: Framework for Sustainable Tourism Education



6.3 An Application of Framework: A Curriculum Example

Having provided the conceptual considerations for the various components of the ST framework, this section aims to present a concrete example of how the framework can be applied to create a curriculum for the SSA context. Although the proposed curriculum is based on the overall findings of this study, it is acknowledged here that this curriculum cannot be relevant for all TE institutions in SSA. Rather the proposed curriculum should be seen as an example of how to operationalise the framework to create a tourism curriculum that is in alignment with the SDGs.

As soft skill and competencies have been central to the ST discourse throughout this study, these aspects will also play a dominant role in the development of the curriculum. However, this section moves the discussion forward from a consideration of *which* competencies are to be promoted to *how* competences can best be fostered and assessed.

Achieving a structured approach to the development of a competency-based curriculum again proved a challenging task as Best Practice modules to serve as examples were few. This difficulty was also acknowledged in the broader literature where a general lack of research on effective pedagogical practices for EfS was widely criticised (Heiskanen, Thidell and Rodhe, 2016, p. 224; Lozano, et al., 2017). It was noted that although competency-based pedagogy has been widely endorsed for sustainability education, traditional epistemological (i.e., knowledge-based) approaches continue to dominate in educational systems (Haan, 2008, p. 27). Some studies indicate that the increased time investment was partly to blame for this prevalence (Michelsen and Rieckmann, 2014, p. 15). Summing up the problems, Wilhelm, Förster and Zimmermann (2019, p. 1) state:

“When it comes to implementing education for sustainable development (ESD) in teaching, the focus on competences is a challenge, particularly for higher education institutions, as most countries still lack concrete institutional, thematic, and methodological guidance for how to shape teaching-and-learning processes. They also lack Sustainability systematic professional development

for university teachers interested in integrating sustainable development into their courses.”

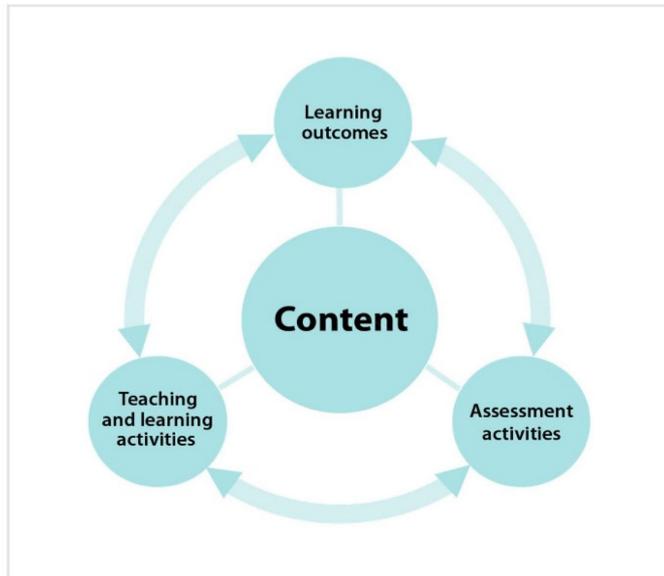
The call for a reorientation of pedagogical methods supported by capacity building measures for educators was also endorsed by several other authors (Michelsen and Rieckmann, 2014, p. 8; UNESCO, 2017b, p. 51; Rieckmann, 2018c, p. 55). As this is a recurring theme in the literature and is supported by the experience encountered in this study, it will be included in the recommendations provided in chapter 8.

With further investigation, however, more recent scholarship provided various conceptual approaches that facilitate a structured approach to curriculum design. These mostly revolve around advice to strive for consistency in educational objectives, pedagogical approaches and assessment strategies (Shephard, Rieckmann and Barth, 2019, p. 532). To achieve coherence in competency-oriented teaching and learning, Wilhelm, Förster and Zimmermann (2019) recommend the use of the didactic practices of (1) the tree of science, and (2) constructive alignment. According to these authors, this approach encourages, firstly, reflection work on underlying ontological and epistemological assumptions that inform the choice of pedagogies and teaching practices; and secondly, consideration of how these choices align with the general educational objectives, learning outcomes, learning environments and assessment methods of the study programme. This alignment is seen as a process that is recalibrated several times during the development of study programmes (see Figure 33).

The tree of science method reflects the approach intuitively adopted in this chapter which commenced by describing the ontological, epistemological and axiological considerations as well as the appropriate pedagogies and instructional methods for the ST framework. The adoption of a constructivist approach for the proposed curriculum was supported by several critical scholars who recommended a shift from the traditional positivist approach, arguing that tourism, as an inherently socially constructed space, requires a student-centred, reflective, and competency-oriented approach to learning (Benckendorff,

Moscardo and Murphy, 2012; Barkathunnisha, Lee and Price, 2017; Cotterell, Arcodia and Ferreira, 2017).

Figure 33: Constructive Alignment of Outcomes, Teaching and Assessment



Wilhelm, Förster and Zimmermann (2019, p. 11)

(1) Structure of Curriculum:

The proposed content for the ST programmes is organised into modules which, with the Bologna Declaration (Bologna Process, 2020), has become the most widely accepted form of organizing TE learning in Europe. The Bologna reforms aim to facilitate student mobilities by offering a set of shared definitions, recognition of qualifications and an overall agreed upon framework for TE. According to the guidelines, a module consists of a number of thematically connected learning units that are defined qualitatively (i.e., by contents) and quantitatively (i.e., by credit points). Modules can be combined to form a larger unit such as a degree programme (BLK, 2002). A modular approach is seen to optimize learning outcomes by linking related curricula content and focussing on the fostering of skills and competencies in a clearly defined time-sequence (Jekel, et al., 2017, p. 21; Dejene and Chen, 2019). The use of modules in TE has since spread to educational systems worldwide and triggered a plethora of research and guidelines for implementation (Benz, Kohler and Landfried, 2014). However, there are also critical voices that note that insufficient attention to the transformation process has resulted in a discrepancy between the ambitious

goals of modularisation and achievement of the desired outcomes (Pietzonka, 2014).

Although various other assessment systems exist in academic institutions around the world, the module format resulting from the Bologna Process is adopted for the curriculum design as it offers a clear structure that can be easily modified to suit individual preferences. The proposed three-year, six semester tourism curriculum consists of 16 modules with between 2 and 8 content-related courses each, a Bachelor thesis and a comprehensive oral exam, resulting in a total of 180 European Credit Transfer System points (ECTS). In accordance with the guidelines, one ECTS is the equivalent of 30 hours workload which are to be distributed between contact hours and self-study depending on the requirements and formats of the individual courses.

The proposed curriculum presented in Figure 37 at the end of this section draws on the ST framework created in section 6.2 and constitutes thus a collaborative and inclusive approach reflecting the input of all the stakeholders contributing to this study. This stakeholder group includes scholars, educators, tourism providers, NGOs and various government officials. The curriculum aims to address all of the important aspects highlighted in the findings of this study as important for ST education. This curricula information is presented at the end of this section in order of (1) overview of curriculum and module description; (2) more detailed information pertaining to specific courses, ECTS points and timeframes; and (3) sequential order of courses by semester.

A guiding principle for the design of the curriculum was the necessity to address the current imbalance of employability and sustainability in tourism studies. In the proposed curriculum, the goals of employability and sustainability are equally addressed: there are altogether 54 ECTS points (in modules 1-6) that emphasize the business dimensions of tourism and 54 ECTS points (in modules 7-12) that focus more on sustainability issues. The inclusion of a practical phase (Elective II with 15 credits) aims to offer a balance to academic studies. This is formulated in an intentionally flexible manner so as to permit various opportunities such as internships, international TE collaborations, or projects both local and abroad. The curriculum also attempts to address context

relevancy of curriculum content with the inclusion of African culture, arts, music, religion, traditions and environmental aspects. The idea is to inspire in students a sense of pride with regard to their traditions, culture and landscapes and the need to protect these for future generations. However, not only the local, but also the broader implications of the tourism industry are addressed in the curriculum by including economic and global studies that cover topics such as social policies, law, human rights and ethics. Broadening student perspectives is also the underlying rationale for Elective II in the third semester in which students have the option to take classes for altogether 10 credits in other disciplines. Students are encouraged to explore a broad range of topics that include, but are not limited to, philosophy, health studies, history or art. These courses could also be taken at another university as the third semester would be the ideal time frame for study abroad. To further support students in their interactions with other cultures, social competencies including intercultural communication as well as networking and teambuilding skills are fostered in module 15 (course Soc1). This module, furthermore emphasizes methodological competencies such as language skills (including academic, presentations, and foreign languages). Personal competencies such as self-reflection, critical awareness and self-management skills are encouraged throughout the course in pedagogical activities such as reflection journals and small group discussions. Finally, digital competence is emphasized not only in the active use of online learning technologies but also in various courses throughout the curriculum such as in the Marketing course (Bus F2) which looks at Digital Marketing, E-Commerce, and Information Management or again in the Tourism Marketing (TourMan F2) course which focuses specifically on the digitalisation in the tourism industry.

(2) Operationalisation of Competencies

As not only the imparting of discipline knowledge, but also the fostering of soft skills and competencies, is at the core of the proposed ST curriculum, teaching methods and corresponding learning outcomes will need to reflect this. The next challenge is thus how to formulate clear and germane learning outcomes that can subsequently inform the choice of teaching methods. Again the literature confirmed that this is an area that would benefit from more research

(Canziani, et al., 2012; Michelsen and Rieckmann, 2014; Waltner, Rieß and Mischo, 2019). Several authors likewise noted how the plethora of competencies make curricula design difficult for educators lacking didactic training (Wilhelm, Förster and Zimmermann, 2019, p. 2). However, Bachmann (2018) provides guidance by defining learning outcomes as a short description of the knowledge and competencies that students need to know by the end of the module. These are ideally formulated in action-oriented and student-centred statements and are expressed in ‘can do’ active verbs.

Although various pedagogical models exist (Eurspace, 2019), particularly useful for defining learning outcomes and appropriate courses for learning levels is the adaptation of Benjamin Bloom’s (Bloom, et al., 1956) Taxonomies for Learning, Teaching and Assessing by Krathwohl (2002). Accordingly, courses conveying factual and conceptual knowledge (and engaging lower cognitive levels such as remembering and understanding) are appropriate for the beginner levels (see Figure 34).

Figure 34: Taxonomy of Learning, Teaching and Assessing

	Cognitive Processes					
Knowledge Dimensions	Remember	Understand	Apply	Analyse	Evaluate	Create
Factual	Lower					Higher
Conceptual						
Procedural						
Metacognitive	Higher					

Adapted from Krathwohl (2002, pp. 216–217)

Thus, fundamental courses taking place in the first and second semesters (modules 1, 3, 5, 7, 9 and 11) are likely to fall into this category. Courses involving increasingly higher procedural and metacognitive knowledge levels (with higher cognitive learning processes such as analysing, evaluating and creating) are more suited for the second and third years.

Figure 35 combines Bloom’s cognitive domain with active verbs to assist with the formulation of learning outcomes. In order to activate higher level thinking skills associated with sustainability education, various methods were advocated.

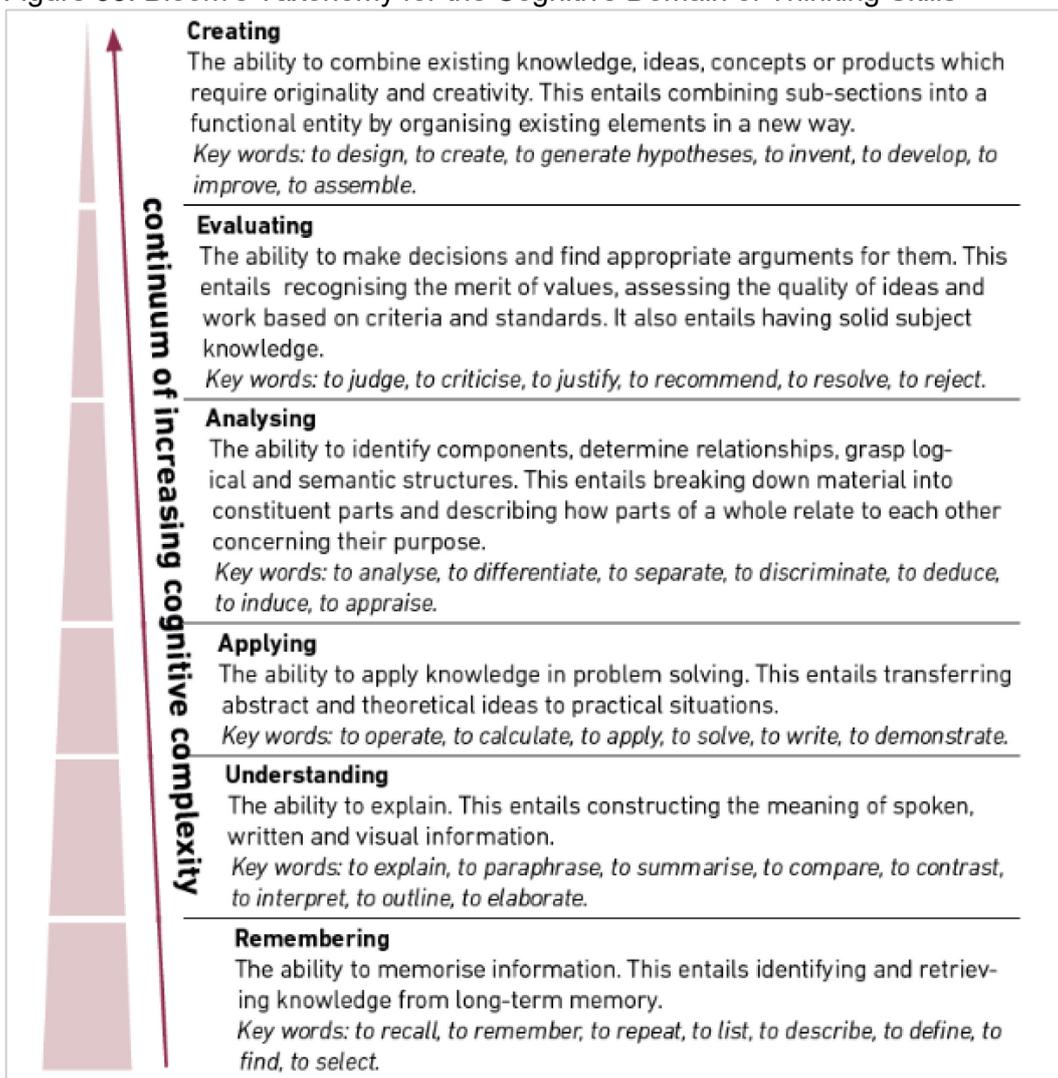
To recap, these include:

- Collaborative learning
- Problem based learning
- Action orientated learning
- Case based learning
- Project work
- Flipped classroom
- Research-oriented learning
- Simulation games

(Bachmann, 2018, p. 699; Wilhelm, Förster and Zimmermann, 2019, p. 14)

An emphasis is placed on these activities in the overall curriculum design with the objective of fostering the key competencies outlined in the Framework for Sustainable Tourism Education (Figure 32).

Figure 35: Bloom's Taxonomy for the Cognitive Domain of Thinking Skills



(Bachmann, 2018, p. 699)

In order not to exceed space and time restrictions, an illustration of the learning outcomes, instructional methods and assessment strategies for two modules are provided in Figure 38. The first is a lower level module: *M 11 Sustainable Tourism: Economic Aspects – Fundamentals*, and is based on UNESCO guidelines for teaching SDG 12 (UNESCO, 2017b). The second is an upper level module: *M 12 Sustainable Tourism: Economic Aspects - Advanced*, and thus can be taught with higher level methods. These modules are intended as Best Practice examples of how the remaining modules could be developed. The guiding principle is the alignment of pedagogical methods with the learning objectives and the underlying ontological approach. A further important consideration is the choice of effective assessment strategies for the proposed curriculum.

(3) Assessment

The challenge of assessment is complicated by the fact that to date there have been few empirical studies on the effectiveness of competency-based sustainability education in achieving learning outcomes (UNESCO, 2014c; Rieckmann, 2018c, p. 51). Furthermore, there is a lack of consensus regarding the choice of assessment and monitoring instruments (Waltner, Rieß and Mischo, 2019, p. 1) as well as how to measure changes in competency levels over time (Rieckmann, 2018c, pp. 53–54). Haan (2010, pp. 326–327) eloquently skirts the issue by pointing out that sustainability education does not easily lend itself to measurement and concludes with a quote attributed to Albert Einstein: “Not everything that counts is measurable.”

Bachmann (2018, p. 1088) again offers guidance with a simple, tangible description:

“Assessment can be conceived as the art and science of knowing what students know, or the process that aims to provide useful information about whether students have reached important learning objectives and, therefore, about the progress of each student.”

Accordingly, assessments should indicate to what extent desired knowledge and competency levels have been achieved. Attention needs to be paid hereby

to the levels of competency to be assessed (i.e., taxonomy level) and to consistency with adopted instructional methods (Guenkorn, 2013, 11).

Advocated for sustainability education, in particular, are assessment instruments that go beyond testing memory recall of discipline-specific knowledge to include reflective, performance-based approaches (Rieckmann, 2018c, p. 54).

Figure 36 summarises a selection of these assessment approaches according to competency levels.

Further assessment methods advocated for EfS include:

- Educator, group, peer and self-assessments;
- Focus discussion groups;
- Reflective journals portfolios;
- Portfolios (student presentations of own learning achievements);
- Simulation, role-play, virtual reality assessments;

(Weilenmann, 2013; Heiskanen, Thidell and Rodhe, 2016, p. 225; Rieckmann, 2018c, p. 54; Wilhelm, Förster and Zimmermann, 2019, p. 14).

Figure 36: Selected Assessment Methods according to Bloom's Taxonomy

Taxonomy of learning objectives	Assessment formats
<i>Remembering</i>	Multiple-choice tests, gap texts, closed-ended questions
<i>Understanding</i>	Short essays, mindmaps, oral exams, open-ended questions, presentations, group of class discussions, minute taking
<i>Applying</i>	Problem-based tasks, observations, oral exams
<i>Analysing</i>	Short research papers, small project, discussions, learning diary
<i>Evaluating</i>	Portfolio, longer research paper, project, evaluation, reviews
<i>Creating</i>	Complex case study, Bachelor/Master thesis, collaborative projects

Adapted from Astleiner, et al. (2015, p. 7), Bachmann (2018, p. 1924).

In accordance with the respective cognitive domains, an appropriate selection of these assessment measures have been suggested for the module description in Figure 38.

Moving beyond the assessment of student learning outcomes, the monitoring and evaluating of the overall quality of EfS programmes is essential. This

should consider aspects such as available resources, learning environment, contexts, teaching practices as well as an assessment of teacher competencies (Rieckmann, 2018c, p. 54).

As has been illustrated in this chapter, the competency-based approach at the TE level requires careful attention to pedagogic and didactic practices. However, TE faculty—in contrast to school teachers—typically receive minimal pedagogical training resulting in an emphasis on teacher-focussed, input-oriented methods of instruction (World Bank Group, 2017a, p. 47). Missing are clear guidelines for aligning competence orientation with sustainability education (Wilhelm, Förster and Zimmermann, 2019, p. 15). Thus quality assessments of study programmes will need to address faculty as well as student competencies to identify areas for improvements.

An additional challenge for quality assurance in sustainability education is the issue of how to find a common platform for study programme evaluation. Quality standards vary greatly, not only between national TE institutions but also within the discipline of tourism as well as the broader field of EfS in general.

Writing in the tourism education context, scholars point out how the tourism field consists of diverse stakeholders with differing interests and agendas, making the task of quality assurance difficult. On an international level, there is to date still no consensus on core learning content, professional standards or an internationally accepted accreditation agency. This is particularly the case in SSA where despite multiple ongoing sub regional collaborations, TE systems remain highly fragmented and lack joint, national-level quality assurance and accreditation systems (Woldegiorgis, Jonck and Goujon, 2015).

Addressing quality assurance of sustainable education programmes will thus not be an easy nor quick exercise. Various studies recommend that assessments be conducted on an international, national as well as a localised TE level (UNESCO, 2017b, p. 56)). The DESD Monitoring and Evaluation Expert Group (MEEG) has also developed various sustainability learning indicators in the context of the Global Monitoring and Evaluation Framework (Lockhart, 2018). However, a more practical solution offered in the EfS

literature worthy of consideration is The online Sustainability Literary Test, an international tool designed to assess general and contextual knowledge as well as skills relating to sustainability education (Sulitest, 2018). The tool compares scores with others in the course as well as on a TE, national, and international level.

Chapter Conclusion

In summary, this chapter blended the findings from the stakeholders in this study with the broader tourism education scholarship. It commenced in section 6.1 with a discussion of the various paradigmatic, ontological, epistemological as well as axiological considerations for ST education. The resulting framework in section 6.2 adopted an approach that balances employability with sustainability concerns, vocational with theoretical learning, and local contexts with broader perspectives. A special emphasis was placed on the development of soft skills and competencies, the integration of WIL concepts as well the use of technologies to promote learning goals. The overriding aim of the framework is to provide guidance for curriculum design by offering a list of potential components from which to select. This was demonstrated in section 6.3 where a ST curriculum was developed as a concrete example of how the framework could be applied. Furthermore, to illustrate how to achieve coherency in learning objectives, methodologies and assessment formats, two examples of modules were also presented.

The overarching experience from this exercise is that, while the implementation of a competency-oriented approach for sustainability education is widely applauded, the task is complex, time-consuming and resource intensive. It requires a higher level of pedagogical expertise to calibrate content, learning outcomes, instructional methods and assessment. Challenges were experienced on many levels beginning with the appropriate selection of competencies from the plethora of possibilities, teaching considerations pertaining to how to effectively operationalise these, and also how to achieve pedagogical coherency with subsequent assessment strategies. Furthermore, the creation of learning opportunities and environments beyond the classroom often presupposes additional funding. These activities will inevitably involve an

extra workload for educators and thus need to go into the considerations when establishing a sustainability-oriented study programme.

These findings have, in turn, implications for subsequent recommendations that are described in chapter 8. However before this, a schematic overview of the contours of the proposed curriculum for a Bachelor of Arts in Sustainable Tourism Management is presented in Figure 37 and two modules in Figure 38. This is followed by an assessment of the overall status of ST education in SSA in chapter 7.

Figure 37: BA in Sustainable Tourism Management

Curriculum: Bachelor of Arts in Sustainable Tourism Management

This is a three-year, six semester programme taught in English based on a module structure and 180 European Credit Transfer System (ECTS) points.

It consists of 16 modules, including a Bachelor thesis (10 ECTS) and a final comprehensive oral exam (5 ECTS).

One ECTS is the equivalent of 30 hours workload to be distributed between contact hours and self-study depending on the individual courses.

This study programme aims to foster tourism professionals with a broad interdisciplinary knowledge of the field of sustainable tourism. It covers crucial employability skills in courses that include Business, Marketing, and Tourism Destination Management. It furthermore addresses important sustainability-related topics from the economic, social and environmental spheres.

The programme combines a student-centred, competency-based and action-oriented approach with traditional methods of instruction. In particular, an emphasis is placed on incorporating practical experience, study abroad and international collaboration projects.

After completion of the study programme, students will be equipped with the prerequisite knowledge, skills, and competencies for successful employment in the broad field of sustainable tourism. Alternatively, students can also build on these academic studies to pursue an advanced degree if desired.

Modules (M)

M 1: Business Studies – Fundamentals	8
M 2: Business Studies – Advanced	10
M 3: Economics & Law – Fundamentals	8
M 4: Economics & Law - Advanced	10
M 5: Tourism Management – Fundamentals	8
M 6: Tourism Management - Advanced	10
M 7: Sustainable Tourism: Ecological Aspects – Fundamentals	8
M 8: Sustainable Tourism: Ecological Aspects - Advanced	10
M 9: Sustainable Tourism: Social Aspects – Fundamentals	8
M 10: Sustainable Tourism: Social Aspects - Advanced	10
M 11: Sustainable Tourism: Economic Aspects – Fundamentals	8
M 12: Sustainable Tourism: Economic Aspects - Advanced	10
M 13: Electives I: Interdisciplinary topics	10
M 14: Electives II: Project/WIL	15
M 15: Core Skills & Competencies	32
M 16: Bachelor thesis and oral examination	15
Total ECTS	180

Curriculum:

M 1: Business Studies – Fundamentals (F)	Semester	ECTS = 8	Workload In hours	Relevant/Alternative topics
Courses				
Bus F1 Introduction to Business	1	4	120	<i>Financial Accounting, Resources Management</i>
Bus F2 Marketing	2	4	120	<i>Digital Marketing, E-Commerce, Information Management</i>

M 2: Business Studies – Advanced (A)	Semester	ECTS = 10	Workload In hours	Relevant/Alternative topics
Course				
Bus A1 Corporate Management	3	5	150	
Bus A2 Human Resources Management	4	5	150	

M 3: Economics & Law – Fundamentals	Semester	ECTS = 8	Workload In hours	Relevant/Alternative topics
Course				
Econ F1 Microeconomics	1	4	120	
Econ F2 Law	2	4	120	<i>Business Law, Labour Law</i>

M 4: Economics & Law – Advanced	Semester	ECTS = 10	Workload In hours	Relevant/Alternative topics
Course				
Econ A1 Macroeconomics	3	5	150	
Econ A2 Applied Economic Policy	4	5	150	<i>Social policies, Environment policies</i>

M 5: Tourism Management – Fundamentals	Semester	ECTS = 8	Workload In hours	Relevant/Alternative topics
Course				
TourMan F1 Introduction to Tourism Studies	1	4	120	<i>Supply-chain Management, Gastronomy, Hotel Management</i>
TourMan F2 Tourism Marketing	2	4	120	<i>Tour, Travel & Airlines, Digitalization</i>

M 6: Tourism Management – Advanced	Semester	ECTS = 10	Workload In hours	Relevant/Alternative topics
Course				
TourMan A1 Destination Management	3	5	150	<i>Tourism Planning & Development</i>
TourMan A2 Recreation & Leisure Management	5	5	150	<i>Event Management</i>

M 7: Sustainable Tourism: Environmental Aspects – Fundamentals	Semester	ECTS = 8	Workload In hours	Relevant/Alternative topics
Course				
STEnvir F1 Introduction to Sustainable Development	1	4	120	<i>History, Concepts, Timeline, Criticisms</i>
STEnvir F2 Ecology and Environment	2	4	120	<i>Climate change, Environmental Law, African Fauna & Flora</i>

M 8: Sustainable Tourism: Environmental Aspects - Advanced	Semester	ECTS = 10	Workload In hours	Relevant/Alternative topics
Course				
ST Envir A1 Natural Resources Management	5	5	150	<i>Land use, Rural Development</i>
ST Envir A2 Tourism Geography	6	5	150	<i>Scales/Spatial modelling</i>

M 9: Sustainable Tourism: Social Aspects - Fundamentals	Semester	ECTS = 8	Workload In hours	Relevant/Alternative topics
Course				
STSoc F1 Heritage & Cultural Tourism	1	4	120	<i>African Culture & Religion</i>
STSoc F2 Human Geography	2	4	120	<i>Health/Population/Cultural</i>

M 10: Sustainable Tourism: Social Aspects – Advanced	Semester	ECTS = 10	Workload In hours	Relevant/Alternative topics
Course				
STSoc A1 Global Citizenship	5	5	150	<i>Human Rights, Gender Studies, Tourism Ethics</i>
STSoc A2 Social Entrepreneurship	6	5	150	<i>Community-based Tourism</i>

M 11: Sustainable Tourism: Economic Aspects - Fundamentals	Semester	ECTS = 8	Workload In hours	Relevant/Alternative topics
Course				
ST Econ F1 Sustainable Production & Consumption	1	4	120	<i>Business Ethics</i>
ST Econ F2 Poverty Alleviation	2	4	120	<i>Pro-Poor Tourism</i>

M 12: Sustainable Tourism: Economic Aspects - Advanced	Semester	ECTS = 10	Workload In hours	Relevant/Alternative topics
Course				
ST Econ A1 Corporate Social Responsibility	5	5	150	
ST Econ A2 Entrepreneurial Studies	6	5	150	

M 13: Electives I	Semester	ECTS = 10	Workload In hours	Relevant/Alternative topics
Course				<i>Philosophy, Anthropology, History, Arts, Music, Drama, Information Technology, Health Studies, Biology, Global Studies</i>
Interdisciplinary Course Selection	3	10	300	

M 14: Electives II	Semester	ECTS = 15	Workload In hours	Relevant/Alternative topics
Course (choose one)				
Internship	4	15	150	<i>Social Entrepreneurship, Eco project, Collaborative project, WIL</i>
Research Project	4			

M 15: Core Skills and Competencies	Semester	ECTS = 32	Workload In hours	Relevant/Alternative topics
Course				
Meth1 Academic Skills	1	3	90	<i>Methods of Research, Academic Writing, Presentation skills</i>
Meth2 Mathematics	1	3	90	
Meth3 Statistics	2	3	90	
Soc1 Intercultural Communication	2	3	90	
Meth4 Foreign Language 1	3	5	150	<i>Choose: English, French, Spanish</i>
Meth5 Foreign Language 2	4	5	150	<i>Choose: English, French, Spanish</i>
Meth6 Foreign Language 3	5	5	150	<i>Choose: English, French, Spanish</i>
Soc2 Social Competence	5	5	150	<i>Teambuilding, Networking, Leadership</i>

M 16: Bachelor Examination	Semester	ECTS =15	Workload In hours	Relevant/Alternative topics
BA-Thesis	6	10	300	
Comprehensive oral examination	6	5	150	
Total workload			4500	

Sequential order of courses in the curriculum:

Semester 1	ECTS	Semester 2	ECTS	Semester 3	ECTS	Semester 4	ECTS	Semester 5	ECTS	Semester 6	ECTS
Bus F1	4	Bus F2	4	Bus A1	5	Bus A2	5	TourMan A2	5	STEnvir A2	5
Econ F1	4	Econ F2	4	Econ A1	5	Econ A2	5	STEnvir A1	5	STSoc A2	5
TourMan F1	4	TourMan F2	4	TourMan A1	5	Meth5 Foreign Language 2	5	STSoc A1	5	STEcon A2	5
STEnvir F1	4	STEnvir F2	4	Meth4 Foreign Language 1	5	Elective II: Internship/Project	15	STEcon A1	5	BA Thesis	10
STSoc F1	4	STSoc F2	4	Elective I: Interdisciplinary	10			Meth6 Foreign Language 3	5	Comprehensive Oral Examination	5
STEcon F1	4	STEcon F2	4					Soc2 Social Competence	5		
Meth1 Academic Skills	3	Meth3 Statistics	3								
Meth2 Mathematics	3	Soc1 Intercultural Communication	3								
Total ECTS	30		30		30		30		30		30

Figure 38: Selected Modules with Learning Outcomes, Instructional Methods and Assessment Strategies

M 11: Sustainable Tourism: Economic Aspects – Fundamentals					
	ECTS	Semester	Learning Outcomes	Methods	Assessment
<i>Course</i>			<i>At the end of this course, the student can</i>		
ST Econ F1 Sustainable Production & Consumption	5	1	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> describe tourism-related production and consumption patterns and value chains; explain these in connection with potential harmful impacts (emissions, waste, health); outline strategies and practices for sustainable production and consumption; demonstrate how individual lifestyle choices influence social, economic and environmental development; discuss the dilemmas/trade-offs necessary to achieve sustainability. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Lectures/guest lectures; Group discussion Project work; Online calculation and reflection of individual ecological footprint; Short films/documentaries that illustrate production and consumption patterns; Sustainability Apps: Generating Sustainable Managers and Responsible Consumers. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Written exam Multiple choice Presentations Demonstrations
ST Econ F2 Poverty Alleviation	5	2	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> explain the concepts of extreme and relative poverty as well as their underlying cultural and normative assumptions and practices; compare the local, national and global distribution of extreme poverty and extreme wealth; illustrate the causes and impacts of poverty such as unequal distribution of resources and power, colonization, conflicts, and natural disasters; discuss poverty reduction strategies and measures in connection with tourism. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Flipped classroom, Guest lectures; Peer coaching; Group discussion/project work; Case studies on poverty and wealth in selected countries (desktop research); Local excursions with interviews; Collaborations between schools and universities in different regions of the world (also using online platforms); Internships within organizations (NGOs) addressing poverty; Enquiry-based projects on poverty on a local, regional or global scale. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Mindmaps Presentations Problem-based tasks Oral exam Educator/peer assessments
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> This module focusses on selected economic aspects of the SDGs in connection with the tourism industry (SDG 1: Poverty and SDG 12: Sustainable Production and Consumption). The choice of methods in this module aim to foster key competencies, in particular: <u>Methodological</u>: Presentation skills, IT skills; <u>Social</u>: Team building, problem-solving; <u>Personal</u>: Self-motivation, self-identity, ethical awareness. Taxonomy Cognitive level: Remembering, Understanding, Applying 					

M 12: Sustainable Tourism: Economic Aspects - Advanced					
	ECTS	Semester	Learning Outcomes	Methods	Assessment
Course			<i>At the end of this course, the student can</i>		
ST Econ A1 Corporate Social Responsibility	5	5	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> illustrate the complexity and dimensions of CSR such as ethics, human rights, environmental responsibility and diversity; contrast the tourism multi-stakeholder perspectives in CSR issues; evaluate CSR commitment and as a source of competitive advantage for businesses; analyse the international dimensions of CSR. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Company/personal CSR Project; Case studies of CSR; Living the Good Life: App-enabled Situated Learning of Sustainability, Responsibility and Ethics; Participation in international TE collaboration projects (virtual/field trips) with CSR themes. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Short research paper Group discussions Reflective journals
ST Econ A2 Entrepreneurial Studies	5	6	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> appraise different innovation and entrepreneurship theories and their implications; assess the economic viability of new technologies and business opportunities in tourism; compare entrepreneurial leadership and management styles; design strategies for successful implementation of ideas; develop a business plan. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Design own research projects; Group project work; Interviewing/presenting entrepreneurs with ideas; Business simulations and games; Discussion of real business case studies; Role-playing; Site visits. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Portfolio presentation Bachelor Thesis Project evaluation
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> This module focuses on more advanced economic aspects relating to sustainability in connection with the tourism industry. The choice of methods in this module aim to foster key competencies, in particular: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <u>Methodological</u>: Academic writing and research skills, presentation skills, IT skills, project management, innovation and creativity, critical thinking; <u>Social</u>: Team building, problem-solving, conflict-resolution, empathy, intercultural competence, leadership; <u>Personal</u>: Self-motivation, ethical self-reflection. Taxonomy Cognitive level: Remembering, Understanding, Applying 					

7 ASSESSING THE STATUS OF TOURISM EDUCATION IN SSA

Although the field of educating for sustainability has received more attention in recent years, critical voices argue that this has still not had the desired impact. This chapter focuses on the extent to which sustainability has been incorporated into tourism programmes in SSA.

This chapter begins in 7.1 with an analysis of how technologies are being used in the educational sphere in SSA. Next, section 7.2 explores how well sustainability has been incorporated into tourism programmes by examining the (online) content of all accredited bachelor and master degree programmes in SSA. Section 7.3 addresses the lack of full stakeholder inclusion in the design of tourism curricula and explores explanations for this. Finally, to place ST education in context, section 7.4 reviews what has been accomplished in the field of ST from a stakeholder perspective and takes a look forward to the challenges and opportunities ahead.

7.1 Use of Technology for Tourism Education

The quantitative part of this research had the objective of gaining insights into the presence of sustainability in current tourism curricula in accredited TE institutions in SSA. To achieve this, it was first necessary to locate tourism programmes online. However, this proved one of the most difficult challenges encountered in this research.

The quantitative research indicated that technology is not being used effectively to provide transparency about the extent to which sustainability plays a role in the university in general, or tourism programmes in particular. Notable was that many of the TE institutions had no online presence at all. From the altogether 1619 TE institutions found on the German and African accreditation sites, 452 (27 percent) of these were problematic. Often the official homepage could not be located or the provided links were faulty or led to expired domains. Sometimes webpages opened on one day, but could not be accessed at a later date. Often the links provided did not have up to date security standards and were subsequently rejected by modern internet browsers.

However, even when an official webpage could be located, there were further challenges. There were often broken links and information was difficult to find as curricula was located in a wide variety of faculties, departments and schools. Furthermore, from the 1619 located TE institutions, 149 tourism programmes were found from which only 54 (36 percent) had curricula published online. Thus for the remaining 95 programmes no curricula could be located online even after extensive searches.

Information on tourism programmes provided online often did not extend further than the mere listing of curricula. Little evidence could be found on internships, collaborations on local or international projects, or various other curricula relevant activities such as field trips, for example. Information about WIL opportunities or studying abroad was rare. Although there was a general lack of transparency regarding these types of activities, one cannot assume that these are not a part of the tourism programmes. However, the above findings do indicate that technology is not being used to its fullest potential: Websites are one of the most important ways to provide information about programmes and mission statements. This can be useful for the selection of appropriate African universities for international students and TE institutions seeking cooperations.

This research experience must be viewed against the backdrop of numerous studies that highlight the importance of technology for promoting sustainability education. Beyond achieving programme transparency, the use of technology in teaching is seen as beneficial for contributing to the achievement of SDG 4: Education for all. Several studies underscored that TE institutions in SSA will need to adapt to the digital age to become internationally competitive as well as to offer innovative approaches to counteract the notoriously high TE dropout rates (Wakelin-Theron, 2014; World Bank Group, 2017c, p. 2).

On the positive side, as indicated in the reviewed literature, the use of information technologies for reducing costs and providing broader access to TE is slowly gaining more attention in TE reforms (Asamoah and Mackin, 2015). Studies report that several countries in SSA have implemented online learning programmes including Ghana, South Africa, Nigeria, Tanzania, Zambia and

Zimbabwe (Asamoah and Mackin, 2015; Bloom, Canning and Luca, 2014, pp. 41–42).

Thus, although some important progress has been made with regard to the use of learning technologies, the research process for this study indicated that more could be done to make TE institutions, tourism programmes as well as sustainability initiatives more visible and transparent on the internet.

7.2 Locating Sustainability in Tourism Curricula

Having located tourism programmes with online curricula, the next step was to ascertain to what extent sustainability is incorporated into current tourism curricula in SSA. This part of the research began by examining programmes titles for indications of sustainability content. The findings revealed that from the 149 accredited degree programmes located in SSA, there was a diverse array of programmes titles. Around 75 percent of these titles explicitly mentioned management indicating a business focus. Although the remaining 25 percent of programmes titles mentioned other tourism related aspects such as Hospitality, Gastronomy, Environment, or Ecotourism, management was also frequently mentioned in the title. This indicates that for the majority of programmes analysed, business or management played a central role.

Programme Title Analysis. From the 149 accredited tourism programmes located in SSA, altogether 54 tourism programmes had curricula information published online. These programmes were then further analysed to assess sustainability-related content in comparison to business-related content. This was achieved by examining course descriptors within the respective programmes for sustainability-related themes. Not surprisingly, for the programmes with an explicit mention of management in the titles, there was substantially more business content within. For these tourism management programmes, an average of 86.5 percent business content was found. This meant that the remaining programmes contained an average of 13.5 percent sustainability-related content. This finding was also confirmed for tourism programmes that did not exclusively mention management in the title. However, as expected, for the tourism programmes that included other concepts associated with sustainability in their titles such as culture,

environment, or ecotourism, substantially more sustainability-related courses were found. Programmes in this category contained around 33 percent of courses with sustainability-related descriptors. Although generalising from the relatively small amount of online curricula is restricted, the findings of this analysis concur with the overall study findings in the reviewed literature. These studies argued that, in general, contemporary tourism programmes are focussed on business and management and relatively fewer on sustainability (Padurean and Maggi, 2011).

Affiliation Analysis. The affiliations of tourism programmes within TE institutions in SSA was also analysed to ascertain whether this was any indication of the presence of sustainability in tourism curricula. The findings from the affiliation analysis also confirm a strong influence of business and management in tourism programmes: From altogether 40 programmes affiliated with business or general tourism disciplines, substantially more business content (86.5 percent) as opposed to sustainability content (13.5 percent) was found. Unexpectedly, however, the seven (online) programmes with locations incorporating the descriptors of environment and natural resources, showed only slightly more sustainability-related content with 16 percent. In line with expectations, substantially more sustainability content was found (26 percent) in the four online curricula of programmes affiliated with the Social Science/Humanities disciplines.

Again, the relatively limited amount of data for analysis makes generalising challenging. However, from this analysis, it seems that the programme affiliation within a TE institution indicates a disciplinary leaning but is not necessarily a reliable indicator of sustainability content in curricula. These findings indicate, somewhat counter intuitively, that it cannot be assumed because a tourism programme is affiliated with, for example, environmental or agricultural faculties or schools, a stronger focus will be placed on sustainability content. A far more reliable indicator of sustainability content was the programme title. One conclusion that could be drawn from this finding is that if employers and prospective students are explicitly seeking tourism education with a strong sustainability component, then the study programme title is an important medium for achieving this purpose.

Course Descriptor Analysis. Examining tourism curriculum content was one of the central objectives of this study. A detailed analysis of the 54 online curricula published online revealed that from a total of 1868 courses contained in these curricula, 1436 were in the field of general business studies and 250 courses were explicitly sustainability-related. Although the percentage of sustainability-related courses ranged greatly from 6 percent in South Africa to 28 percent in Ghana, the overall average of sustainability-related courses in tourism programmes was 15 percent. This highlights that the majority of all courses for tourism programmes in SSA contained business-related content (85 percent).

A closer analysis of the 250 sustainability-related courses revealed that most of the courses contained socio-cultural content (39 percent), followed by environmental content (27 percent) and economic with sustainability-related content (20 percent). A fourth category integrating all three aspects made up the remaining 14 percent of sustainability-related courses.

With 250 courses, or just 15 percent of all courses in tourism programmes containing sustainability-related content, one cannot speak of a balanced approach to tourism education. However, the courses that were visible online displayed a broad and diverse array of topics (listed individually in Appendix 8). There were several course topics that dominated in the respective categories. In the socio-cultural area, courses explicitly mentioning culture or heritage in the course titles made up 43 percent of this category. Courses explicitly referring to ecology or environment made up over 54 percent of the respective category (as opposed to wildlife, coastal or resource management). And in the economic category, entrepreneurial courses dominated with 52 percent. Thus, courses explicitly referring to culture/heritage, ecological/environment, and entrepreneurial content made up altogether almost half of all sustainability-related courses being offered across SSA.

These findings reflect the general preferences of the respondents in this study who argued for the inclusion of more socio-cultural and environmental related courses in tourism curricula. Respondents endorsed as very relevant environmental studies (79 percent) and cultural studies (76 percent). In addition, they argued for business related topics such as ST product

development and marketing. Entrepreneurial studies was seen as very relevant by almost half of the respondents.

In sum, this analysis shows that although there are relatively fewer sustainability-related courses present in tourism curricula, the courses that are available are addressing a broad scope of areas that are seen as highly relevant for the SSA context.

In comparison, the humanities (such as music, literature, history, philosophy) played a minor role in SSA tourism curricula with just 15 courses representing 6 percent of the 250 sustainability-related courses, or less than 1 percent of all tourism courses found in online curricula. Although these subjects were seen as important in the reviewed tourism education scholarship, the respondents in this study did not share this view. To recap, a liberal arts education, i.e., one that includes the humanities and social sciences, was ranked the lowest of all suggested themes for ST education by respondents: only 34 percent viewed this topic as very relevant. Thus, the inclusion of humanities in tourism education does not seem, in general, to resonate in SSA.

Similarly less well represented in the SSA tourism curricula were courses with content on human geography, health/food, gender, inclusion, diversity, information technology as well as general courses combining all three environmental, cultural, and economic dimensions. These topics each had between two and four courses. However, these areas of study were recommended by several respondents in this study and were likewise highlighted as important in the reviewed tourism education scholarship. Several of these topics were also seen as highly relevant for the SDGs and, in particular, in connection with the SSA context. Studies show that just 38 percent of TE enrolments in SSA were female (British Council, 2014) which is largely attributed to the legacy of the patriarchal colonial era. Furthermore, hegemonic Western influences are thought to be responsible for the lack of indigenous and traditional African ways of knowing in TE institutions (Mayaka and Akama, 2015). Given the significance attached to these areas of study, it could be argued that these are topics that need more attention in SSA tourism curricula.

Perhaps most problematic, in view of the overall findings of this study, is the lack of attention given to soft skills in tourism curricula in SSA. Soft skills were not explicitly named in any of the online tourism curricula examined. Soft skill courses consisted of entrepreneurship (23), ethics (10), critical thinking (2), leadership (1) and intercultural communication (1). With altogether 37 courses, these made up just 2 percent of the overall courses found in online tourism curricula.

In view of the emphasis placed on soft skill development for both employability and sustainability goals which was reflected in the stakeholder responses in this study as well as the reviewed literature on ST education and employability, it can be argued that this is a further area that needs to be given more emphasis in SSA tourism curricula.

One restriction to this content analysis is that it does not indicate how sustainability is being taught in SSA, i.e., which teaching methods or strategies are preferred and being implemented. However, as the stakeholder profiles in this study included non-educators, eliciting specific information on this in the surveys and interviews would have been very limited.

To sum up, although as previously indicated, caution is advised when making assumptions from the restricted amount of available curricula online, the analysis did provide several useful insights for this study. In general, business and management descriptors dominate in programme titles, affiliation names and course descriptors and are an accurate reflection of the content within. Although there was much variation between countries, the findings show that for all online tourism courses, on average 85 percent of tourism course content is business-related compared to 15 percent sustainability-related. This does not indicate a sound balance between these concepts.

The overall offerings of sustainability-related courses in tourism programmes demonstrated that they covered broad scope of highly relevant content for the SSA context. However, less well represented in online curricula were the humanities, courses on nutrition, gender, minorities, information technology as well as ST foundation courses—although these areas were all seen as highly relevant for the SSA context. Despite the fact that soft skills were also viewed

as crucial by respondents in this study as well as in the general education scholarship, these related courses made up only two percent of all online tourism curricula.

An overarching conclusion resulting from this part of the research is that the content of tourism curricula is not in alignment with the perspectives of stakeholders represented in this study who argued for a balanced and inclusive approach to tourism education. Possible explanations for the lack of stakeholder input and tourism curricula imbalances are explored next.

7.3 Stakeholder Voices in Curricula Development

The reviewed literature underscored how tourism curricula are influenced by diverse factors such as context, agenda, ideology as well as the relative importance of stakeholders described as educators, businesses, government, communities and NGOs. However, several studies criticised a lack of equal stakeholder participation arguing that all too often top-down approaches to education policies prevail. This was often attributed to inadequate stakeholder competencies possessed by, for example, government officials who had no relevant praxis experience, NGOs who lacked business and financial acumen, and community members who were generally ill informed.

The majority of respondents in this study were likewise of the opinion that not all tourism stakeholders were given an equal voice in the development of curricula. Although several respondents expressed reservations about too much industry influence, most argued for a bottom up, dialogue driven and collaborative approach. Emphasis was placed on promoting social dialogue involving all tourism players including government, civil society, business, community, investors, national bodies and ministries.

The stakeholders in this study, as previously indicated, represented high levels of expertise and experience in their respective fields and were thus professionally well positioned to be able to make informed statements on the perceived advantages of an inclusive curricula approach. In general, respondents foresaw societal benefits in the form of improved governmental policy making, increased environmental awareness or higher relevancy of TE

curricula content. However, as demonstrated in the content analysis, adequate attention to sustainability in tourism curricula in SSA has yet to be achieved.

Thus, in order to gain further insights into the nature and dynamics of stakeholder influences in the tourism education, this study also reviewed literature relating to stakeholder theories. Stakeholder models were seen as particularly relevant for this study through the overlap of focus on core sustainability-related issues relating to power disparities, inclusive and equitable societies as well as knowledge distribution. Of particular relevance for this study is the model presented by Friedman and Miles (2002) which offers explanations of how stakeholder influence is closely associated with interests (i.e., compatible or incompatible) and relationships (i.e., necessary or contingent).

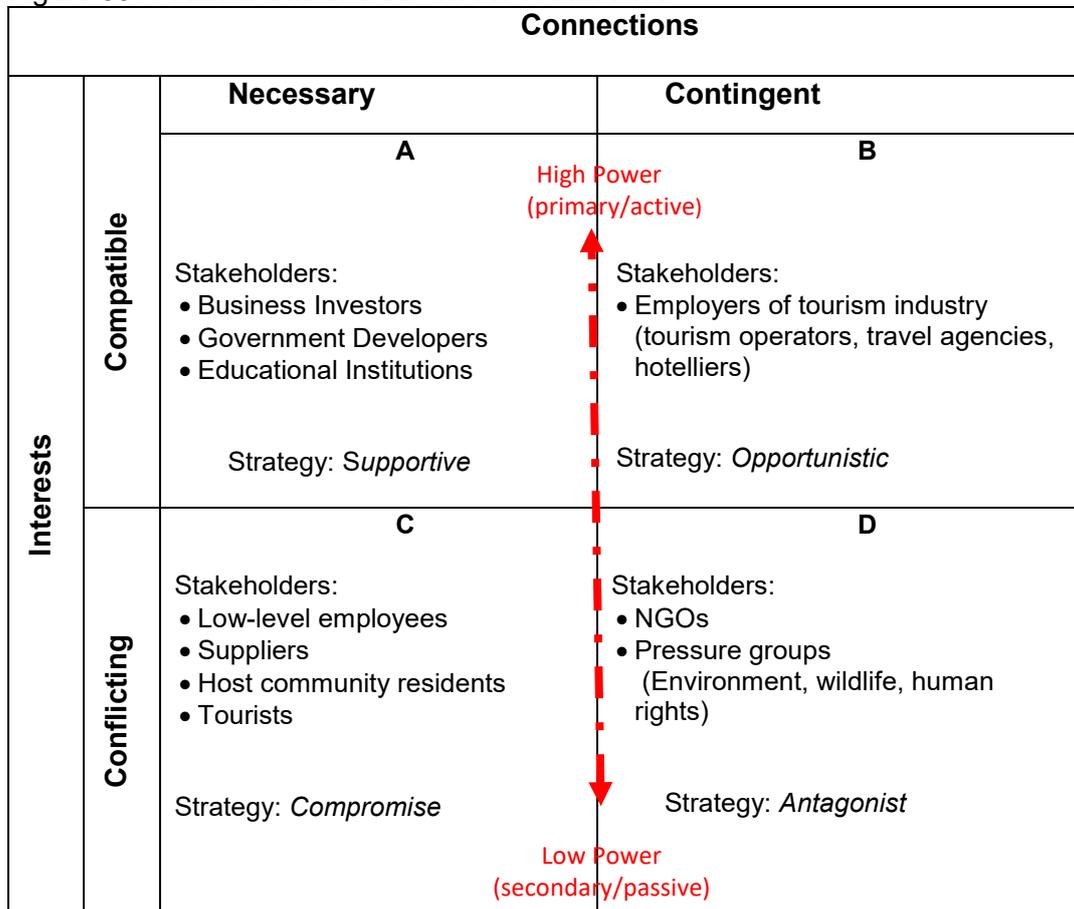
The ensuing analysis applies the model to the tourism development field and strives to elucidate the complexity of interaction between diverse tourism stakeholders with differing interests, resources and power (Figure 39). Following the logic of the original model, the following application additionally integrates key tourism stakeholders (as defined by Swarbrooke, 2005; and Lund-Durlacher, 2015) and exchanges the term 'incompatible' with the more applicable term 'conflicting.' Insights on the power dynamics of stakeholders from other authors (Domínguez-Gómez and González-Gómez, 2017; Lyon, Hunter-Jones and Warnaby, 2017) are likewise integrated into the adapted model.

This adapted model shows how stakeholders represented in quadrants A and B can be considered as primary (or active) stakeholders who have high decision-making influence in tourism development policies. These stakeholders are characterised as follows:

Quadrant A: *Necessary and compatible* stakeholders for tourism development projects include business investors, government developers, as well as experts such as academics and consultants. These are considered key players with high levels of power such as induced power (by providing funding) or competent power (by providing credibility for projects) (Saito and Ruhanen, 2017, p. 194).

As all the stakeholders in this group support the promotion of the tourism development project, the interaction strategy is one of mutual support.

Figure 39: Tourism Stakeholder Model of Influence



Adapted from Archer (1995), Friedman and Miles (2002), Domínguez-Gómez and González-Gómez (2017), Lyon, Hunter-Jones and Warnaby (2017)

Quadrant B: *Contingent and compatible* stakeholders are defined as employers in the tourism industry such as tourism operators, travel agencies, transport operators, and hoteliers. The interests of these stakeholders are compatible with the development project as they all stand to gain from its overall success. However, their interests are based on perceived individual gains (such as potential profits that can be earned) and they therefore follow an opportunistic strategy. Through the market dynamics of rationale choice, these stakeholders are generally considered to have more power than employees and residents of communities.

Although the depictions of the tourism stakeholders in quadrants A and B represent an oversimplified, hypothetical version of reality, they do, however, also offer interesting insights into the dynamics of stakeholder relationships.

The application of the original model to the tourism development field illustrates how various influential tourism stakeholders such as governments, educators or investors of the tourism industry through their respective sources of power have more influence on decision-making policies in the tourism development field. These stakeholders are likewise, according to the overall findings of this study, key players in determining the contents of tourism curricula. Of particular relevance for TE in general, and tourism education in particular, is the increasing influence of industry in curricula design. One explanation given for this is the impact of neoliberalist approaches in TE institutions that, from the 1990s on, has resulted in a growing number of privately funded TE institutions that prioritise industry collaboration and the alignment of curricula to market needs.

The debate surrounding industry involvement is particularly relevant for the SSA context where high graduate unemployment is attributed to a skills mismatch resulting from an emphasis on theory as opposed to practical content in tourism curricula (Asamoah and Mackin, 2015). Furthermore, rapid youth growth in SSA is estimated to result in a labour force of one billion by 2040 (World Bank Group, 2017b). Thus, the employability of these graduates is placed high on the education agenda.

Although the employability arguments were accepted by most, others were more critical of the potential negative impacts posed by the power imbalance. The overall findings of this study indicate that the dominance of industry agenda on tourism curricula has resulted in a neglect of crucial sustainability-related content. Thus, educational policies that promote an over-reliance of TE on private funding need to be carefully considered.

The findings from this study also revealed that those stakeholders who are most likely to be impacted by the harmful effects of unsustainable tourism development are those that are represented in the quadrants C and D of the model. Considered as secondary (or passive) stakeholders, these typically possess limited, localised decision-making power and are characterised as follows:

Quadrant C: *Necessary and conflicting* stakeholders include employees of the industry, suppliers, host community residents and tourists. These stakeholders are considered essential for the functioning of the projects, and although they have overlapping interests, may also have interests that are in conflict with other stakeholder groups such as demands for higher wages, price increases for supplies, or alternative uses of land and resources. Considered less influential than those in quadrants A and B, these stakeholders are usually forced to seek a strategy of compromise to manage relationships.

Quadrant D: *Contingent and conflicting* stakeholders who include NGOs and pressure groups with interests that are not considered essential for the goals of the development project but that may represent a potential conflict. These interests could include issues relating to environmental and wildlife protection, working conditions and human rights. These stakeholders may follow an antagonistic strategy in the form of public criticism and protests. Characteristically equipped with limited resources, these stakeholders are considered the least influential of all stakeholder groups.

The model illustrates how these groups of stakeholders which include lower level employees, community residents, and, in particular, NGOs and pressure groups frequently have significantly less influence in policy making decisions. The conflicting ideas pertaining to working conditions, human rights, use of resources and environmental protection reflect the issues and content perceived as missing in tourism curricula from the findings of this study. Thus, tourism curricula would benefit in particular from input from these groups of stakeholders. This inevitably leads to the question of how to increase the influence of these stakeholders.

According to Archer's (1995) model, the influence of these typically diverse and fragmented stakeholders would be improved by increasing legitimacy through building closer relationships within organisations. However, a common theme in development literature is how stakeholder legitimacy, participation and influence can be increased through education (Hatipoglu, Alvarez and Ertuna, 2016; McComb, Boyd and Boluk, 2017).

This is also one of the most critical insights emerging in the context of this study. There was a general consensus among scholars and respondents that improving sustainability knowledge through education was the key to increasing stakeholder competence and empowerment. The necessity for improving education, particularly with respect to sustainable development projects, was an overarching theme running throughout the stakeholder responses.

Following this line of thought, it can be argued that by improving education in regard to sustainability, a more equal distribution of influence across a broader group of tourism stakeholders can be achieved. This could be attained through improved sustainability education for tourism students who then disseminate their knowledge in their professional lives, but also by providing trainings for other key stakeholders in the context of the TE's third mission. Additionally, seeking collaborations with international TE institutions who have access to capacity building funding could prove beneficial. The aim would be to provide information, networking and action strategies for empowering less influential stakeholders. This, ideally, would lead to higher stakeholder participation in policy making and ultimately a more balanced approach to ST curricula design.

7.4 Challenges, Achievements and Potential

One of the underlying motivations for this study was to assess how tourism education has developed since the announcement of UN initiatives such as the *2005-2014 Decade of Education for Sustainable Development* and the *2017 International Year of Sustainable Tourism for Development*. However, the overall findings of this study indicate, in alignment with critical scholarship, that the full potential of the tourism industry to contribute to the SDGs has not been recognised and that programmes in this area lag behind.

The barrage of criticism facing the tourism industry underscores the challenging task of creating a curriculum that adequately addresses the broad range of sustainability issues. However, in the context of this study, notable achievements in the field of ST were reported. As previously noted, although just 15 percent of the curricula contained ST-related content, the focus on environmental issues, socio-cultural aspects as well as entrepreneurial studies was viewed by most respondents as highly relevant.

The broad scope of ST-related course contents in tourism programmes in SSA likewise reflect the multiple related activities in the praxis of tourism.

Respondents reported the adoption of business practices that were in alignment with the SDGs such as implementing certification schemes and providing stable, fair incomes for employees. Other respondents spoke of support for community projects, gender equality measures, and providing education and trainings for schools and tourists. In particular, respondents reported a variety of environment related activities which included resource management, transportation initiatives, reforestation measures and various flora and fauna projects. Thus, the findings in this study indicate that tourism stakeholders—at least those in this study—are aware of the issues and are actively involved in sustainability practices in their professional lives.

As the promotion of the tourism industry remains a prominent tool for international development work, there is an imperative to flank these endeavours with quality education. A crucial aspect here is providing quality and accessible education across all levels of society. Equally important is the empowerment of women who remain under-represented in all levels of schooling, but particularly in TE in SSA, where they account for just 38 percent of all enrolments (British Council, 2014, p. 3).

However, as a review of the apposite scholarship revealed, providing adequate quality TE in the SSA context poses its own challenges. Scholars argued that the TE system in this region is in a state of crisis. Problems include a lack of funding, burgeoning demand, insufficient TE supply, inadequate human resources, and a lack of common quality standards (DAAD, 2014).

Furthermore, critics point out that several SSA countries lack national-level quality assurance systems (Woldegiorgis, Jonck and Goujon, 2015). Concern about adequate and relevant education—particularly in connection to ST—was reflected in the stakeholder responses throughout the process of the research.

Yet, as noted in the reviewed literature, the tide is turning and SSA has become active in the TE sphere. Numerous inter-regional strategies have been formulated that aim to address TE challenges on a broader scale. These cover a wide variety of issues such as improvements to quality assurance,

accreditation measures and research strategies, as well as forging industry collaborations and increasing STEM subjects to improve African TE competitiveness in the global arena. Additionally, the integration of sustainability into curricula and the use of learning technologies are getting more attention.

Several of these TE initiatives are also at the core of the stakeholder discussions encountered in this study. However, the prominence of these concerns in the stakeholder responses, in particular relating to perceived gaps in education would indicate that progress in this area has been slow. Also, the detailed analysis of online tourism curricula did not confirm that an interdisciplinary or sustainability approach to tourism education has been widely implemented. If educational technologies are being used in tourism education in SSA, then this is not transparent on the websites of the universities consulted for this study. Furthermore, the frequent lack of website presence and programme information published online suggests that more could be done to achieve visibility and transparency with regard to tourism study programmes that spotlight sustainability.

Juxtaposed to this situation is the enormous potential currently unfolding in the tourism industry in SSA. Alongside the narratives of obstinate poverty and high unemployment levels, there are other voices that tell of steady and robust economic, as well as, tourism growth. Several countries in SSA report double digit tourism growth (between 10 and 62 percent) in the last decade including Seychelles, Cabo Verde, Mauritius, Botswana, Comoros, Ethiopia, Gambia, Kenya, Lesotho, Madagascar, Namibia, Reunion, Senegal, Tanzania and Zimbabwe (UNCTAD, 2017; African Development Bank Group, 2019; UNWTO, 2018b). And, according to forecasts, the SSA tourism industry has much more to offer with an estimated 29 million new jobs in the industry predicted for 2026 (African Development Bank Group, 2019). The challenge is how to tap sustainably into this potential as the 2020 decade begins. Looking forward, this thesis now turns to recommendations for ST education. These are based on the overall findings of this study and recapitulate in core the 'to do' tasks to achieve effective ST education in SSA.

8 RECOMMENDATIONS FOR SUSTAINABLE TOURISM EDUCATION

The overarching objective of this study has been to assess the status of ST education in SSA. To this effect, stakeholder perspectives on effective ST education were explored within the broader context of the apposite scholarship. This research identified several important deficiencies that need to be addressed in ST education in general, and in SSA in particular. These gaps include a lack of concept clarity, disciplinary diversity, sustainability-related content and competency focus. Furthermore, this study indicates that ST education would benefit from the inclusion of all tourism stakeholders and a more extensive implementation of technology. The following offers recommendations on the basis of these findings.

8.1 Showcase Sustainability

Aim to make transparent and publicly available information, initiatives and progress in achieving sustainability in TE institutions. Social media, blogs and websites are important modern media channels for achieving this purpose and yet are frequently overlooked in SSA. Websites should contain mission statements and strive to showcase projects, activities, and study programmes that address sustainability. The design of websites should be creative, colourful and appealing to students and international audiences alike. To increase impact, websites should also take advantage of online search engine optimisation and marketing tools. In particular, curricula information should be published online and the descriptors of study programmes and courses should make sustainability content explicit. This will assist students with a serious interest in sustainability to locate appropriate universities and study programmes. For universities outside of Africa, the website is often the first port of call and a broken, faulty or outdated website may also make it the last. Thus, TE institutions in SSA may be losing out on potentially mutually beneficial TE collaborations with universities abroad. This has negative implications for student and faculty mobilities as well as potentially well-funded cooperation projects.

Thus, to remain internationally competitive and gain the attention of universities and organisations abroad, the use of social media and websites for visibility are

an imperative. Funding challenges in connection with the development of websites could be addressed by creating a student project in which research is conducted, a business plan developed, and various scenarios explored and ultimately implemented. This could be subsequently assessed as part of a task-based module assignment. This would be in alignment with the strategies put forth for sustainability education that call for research and action-oriented pedagogical approaches.

8.2 Synergise Employability and Sustainability Goals

Rather than viewing employability and sustainability as contesting paradigms in tourism study programmes, recognise and utilise synergies between the two concepts. This should be reflected in the overall curriculum design which includes the course contents and instructional methods and activities.

Aim for a balance of business and ST curricula content in study programmes. In particular, the interrelatedness of these concepts should be emphasized. A notable finding in this study was that respondents often criticised a general lack of long-term vision and business acumen with regard to sustainability concepts. Thus, studies should highlight that without gainful employment, the SDGs cannot be achieved. Likewise without effective resource management and the protection of ecosystems, long-term livelihoods are threatened.

Therefore, business relevant skills such as accounting, marketing and human resources management should be balanced with sustainability related concerns such as fair working conditions, inclusion and gender equality. Similarly, sustainability concepts such as environmental protection, resource and destination management should highlight the business opportunities and financial benefits of this approach. Thus, rather than viewing sustainability solely through an altruistic lens, study programmes should aim to illustrate how sustainability can contribute to ensuring long-term prosperity and well-being. In particular, the inclusion of courses such as CSR and social entrepreneurship should endeavour to reinforce the interconnectivity of employability and sustainability goals.

Employability and sustainability synergies should also be considered in connection to WIL strategies. In the process of this study, the benefits of WIL

were mostly discussed in terms of gaining work experience in the business side of tourism. Here ideas ranged from increasing relevant practical skills such as safari tour guiding, hotel management, digital skills or learning to work with locals crafts. However, employability and sustainability goals can again both be addressed by expanding the scope of WIL opportunities to the broader field of tourism activities. Internships with NGOs, local government or communities should also be considered. International collaborations with TE institutions or other organisations may open up further opportunities for gaining practical work experience at home as well as abroad. With increasing recognition of the importance of sustainability for the tourism industry, gaining experience in this area may give students an added advantage in the job market.

8.3 Broaden Horizons with Interdisciplinarity

Adopt an interdisciplinary approach to tourism studies. Include at least one course from another discipline such as philosophy, geography, anthropology or sociology. The overall findings of this study support the view that tourism programmes would benefit from the inclusion of a broader spectrum of disciplines. This is seen as particularly conducive for preparing tourism students for the global, multi-faceted and complex dimensions of the sustainability field.

A liberal arts education that includes social science and humanities disciplines emerged as a significant benefit and thus warrants inclusion in tourism studies. In particular, ethics as a branch of philosophy was highly endorsed by scholars in the broader field as well as the majority of the respondents in this study. These topics could facilitate a better understanding of critical aspects of the SDGs, North-South inequalities, or the enduring impacts of colonial rule. They also contribute to the fostering of critical thinking skills and the ability of students to see the impacts and dynamics of tourism development in SSA in the broader economic, geopolitical and historical contexts.

Rather than attempt to have tourism educators teach subjects outside of their disciplinary expertise, students could be encouraged to interact with other faculties and schools either within the university or during the study abroad period. This would facilitate not only interdisciplinary learning, but also

intercultural learning. Returning to their tourism departments, final presentations for other tourism students as well as reflections journals could capture and consolidate the learning experience.

8.4 Ensure Context Relevancy

The development of ST curricula should be embedded in the SSA context. The import of western notions of tourism education should be critically assessed for applicability. Suggestions and criticisms in this area were frequently referred to by respondents in this study. In particular, ST curricula need to address not only the broader global environmental, socio-cultural and economic dimensions but should make the learning local, contextual and valid. Environmental themes should address the characteristics of the SSA region and include, for example, African wildlife and flora protection, resource use, as well as critical extant issues such as poaching and deforestation. Highly topical socio-cultural issues relating to tourism in SSA include human rights, gender inequalities, poverty and the loss of cultures and traditions through tourism. Business-related topics need to address how to market ST products, foster entrepreneurial skills, and gain access to foreign funding and credit.

This would best be achieved with the inclusion of local tourism stakeholders—such as businesses, NGOs, government officials and educators—in the educational strategies. These stakeholders should be involved not only in the design of ST curricula but also in instructional activities. This could include workshops, site visits and also guest speaking events.

However, ST education should not only address critical aspects but should also aim to spotlight the uniqueness and vibrancy of the African way of life, landscapes, as well as fauna and flora. It needs to highlight the full spectrum that the African tourism industry has to offer beyond safaris. The curricula should contribute to shifting the narrative from poverty, tribalism and political unrest to re-instilling a sense of pride in African cultural identities and associated values. To reinforce this, ST curricula could include traditional African ways of knowing rather than relying solely on traditional western methods of educating. With over 500 different ethnic groups in SSA including

the Zulu, Shona, Sukuma, Kikuyu, Kongo, Mongo, Luba, and the Swahili, the region has a rich background to draw on.

8.5 Redesign a Module

In order to incorporate the above ideas into an established tourism curriculum, an existing module could be redesigned to include ST content. This could address the restrictions posed by already tightly packed tourism curricula. Courses could be adjusted to include contextual and topical ST content. The module should connect to other courses in the tourism programme and could also be offered to other schools and faculties in the institution.

An important consideration would be to offer a foundational course on ST in order to facilitate a better understanding of the concept and address knowledge gaps. A general lack of knowledge and confusion regarding the concept of sustainability was one of the most prominent themes running throughout this study. Thus, a foundational course would ideally include sustainability definitions, timelines, theories, models, achievements, critical issues, challenges and the interrelatedness of tourism with the SDGs. The aim is to improve concept clarity and thus increase the acceptance and integration of ST curricula in TE institutions.

A further idea would be to develop a collaborative module together with national or international cooperation partners. The curriculum content for the module could be developed jointly by the faculty of the participating universities. Classroom learning could be combined with real life projects in the host communities. This would involve student and faculty exchanges over the course of the module which could run over several semesters. Thus, the module would aim to connect tourism stakeholders with TE institutions within and across national borders and to facilitate the transfer of knowledge between the participating organisations. The combination of theoretical learning and practical experience would underscore the learner-centred, action-based instructional methods that were widely endorsed for sustainable education in this study.

The collaboration with international TE institutions opens up additional funding opportunities to assist with student and faculty travel, accommodation and other necessary living costs. However, the effective use of online learning

technologies and tools could help to reduce the amount of travel involved and thus assist with keeping costs down and avoiding logistical problems such as travel restrictions. Further possibilities for optimising the use of technology in tourism education are discussed next.

8.6 Utilise Technology for Teaching

The use of online learning tools and applications should be increased and better integrated into educational strategies for teaching ST. An important finding of this study was that although the use of technologies offers much potential for teaching sustainability, these tools remain largely untapped in ST classrooms.

Universities should consider developing joint MOOCs for ST education. This study revealed that in worldwide comparisons, offerings in tourism, and particularly in ST are scant (Murphy, et al., 2017). These courses could involve cost sharing between several TE institutions to facilitate financing. An additional advantage would be the sharing of tourism expertise and Best Practice examples between continents. Through student aid strategies, a broader access and a more egalitarian approach to TE could be achieved for low income students in all participating institutions.

However, not only MOOCs, but also other creative digital technologies should be considered for the tourism classroom. Innovative tools such as simulations, smartphone apps, augmented reality, and QR codes are readily available and could be implemented in classrooms.

Educators need to be supported in their endeavours to exploit learning technologies in the learning environments. This could occur in the context of capacity building workshops with educators presenting Best Practice examples or with IT experts from the field. The aim would be to demonstrate to educators the possibilities as well as to help overcome anxieties and potentially negative attitudes with regard to the use of technologies in the classroom.

8.7 Focus on Fostering Competencies

Place the fostering of competencies at the centre of ST education strategies. In particular, the focus should be on crucial or 'key competencies' such as leadership, teambuilding, problem-solving, critical thinking, conflict-resolution,

empathy and intercultural competence. The development of these core competencies was a central unifying aspect in debates spanning the scholarship relating to employability, EfS in general, as well as ST education in particular.

Employ pedagogical methods that aim to foster these key competencies and that are in general alignment with the approaches advocated for sustainability education. Studies indicate that although the advantages of these instructional methods are widely acknowledged, traditional teacher-centred methods prevail in tourism education (Kim and Davies, 2014). Thus, a paradigm shift in teaching strategies from input (or knowledge accumulation) to output orientation (what is to be achieved) is overdue. In particular, learner-centred, transformational, experiential, creative and collaborative approaches are to be emphasized. Aim to create learning experiences in contextual and relevant learning environments. This means adopting problem-based or action-oriented approaches by, for example, involving students in international or local community projects. This may also involve field trips, study exchanges, summer schools or work abroad activities. In the classroom, case studies, interviews with guest lecturers, or the judicious use of innovative online tools would enhance the learning experience and contribute to the fostering of key competencies.

However, the shift from the 'sage on the stage' to the 'guide on the side' approach necessitates expert pedagogical support for educators. The findings of this study indicate that tourism educators in general, and in SSA in particular, frequently lack confidence, expertise, and experience in implementing the pedagogies and instructional methods recommended for EfS (Canziani, et al., 2012; Asamoah and Mackin, 2015; Engelhardt, 2018; Fay and Boakye, 2019). This in turn leads to a final recommendation which is discussed next.

8.8 Step up Third Mission Activities

Universities should expand their activities and initiatives that contribute to the achievement of sustainability goals. Often discussed in the context of the third mission function, this approach involves that universities engage with industry, government as well as with society at large. Studies indicate that in addition to

the teaching and research functions of TE, the third mission function offers much, largely untapped, potential for promoting sustainability concerns (Marmolejo, 2016).

Thus, in the context of ST education, capacity building workshops are recommended. This is seen as particularly important for supporting educators in their endeavours to implement the pedagogical methods advocated for ST education. Pedagogical expertise is required to negotiate the plethora of information on key competencies, to operationalise these into transparent learning outcomes, and to achieve a subsequent coherent alignment with instructional methods and assessment strategies. The imperative for pedagogical support is expounded by the fact that TE faculty, unlike school teachers, typically receive little or no pedagogical training in their own studies (World Bank Group, 2017a) and that, furthermore, research in this area is in its nascence (Wilhelm, Förster and Zimmermann, 2019). An important aspect is that pedagogical trainings for educators should aim to be relevant, practical and free from unnecessarily complicated pedagogical theories and jargon.

These capacity building initiatives for educators will inevitably necessitate additional funding. Thus, to address financial constrictions, TE institutions may need to reach beyond the boundaries of their institutions and establish cooperations with other TE institutions or organisations. In particular, several European funding initiatives target these types of capacity building projects (EACEA, 2020) and thus offer much potential.

It is also recommended that TE institutions in the context of their third mission roles extend their capacity building initiatives to provide sustainability-related workshops to all levels of society including communities, local governments, NGOs and businesses. The goal would be to achieve a more inclusive and participative approach to sustainability education. This study underscored that although the development of tourism curricula would greatly benefit from the inclusion of all tourism stakeholders, all too often business interests crowded out other less influential voices. The lack of equal participation was attributed to fundamental knowledge deficits regarding the concept of sustainability. This was seen to be an important factor contributing to the general lack of

commitment and reluctance to implement sustainable forms of tourism in the praxis in SSA.

Thus, capacity building workshops organised by universities would aim to bring national and international experts from the tourism field to address knowledge gaps on all levels. Again, actively seeking collaborations with international organisations and universities could provide the necessary funding. The proposed workshops could include a wide variety of sustainability-related topics such as regional educational policies, Best Practice destination management, responsible business practices, gender equality measures as well as practical advice for everyday living for citizens in communities. The various educational events would aim to increase awareness of not only of the challenges, but also the benefits of sustainable practices. The overarching aim of these capacity building workshops would be to empower and inspire the passive and less influential to get actively involved.

Conclusion

The above recommendations all underscore that in order to improve ST education, it is necessary to address sustainability on a broad scale and on all levels of society. The recommendations also emphasize that more attention needs to be paid to not only what we teach, but also how we teach sustainability. Moreover, the need to support these endeavours with capacity building events in the context of TE's third mission role becomes apparent. This would not only spotlight the role of the TE in contributing to the SDGs, but could also assist with securing much needed funding from outside sources. The various recommendations presented here are based on the overall findings of this study and are offered as possibilities for improvements in ST education strategies.

Chapter 9, the last of this thesis, summarises the most important objectives, findings and conclusions of this study.

9. CONCLUSION

Embedded in the broad field of sustainability, this study spans a wide spectrum of concerns addressed in the SDGs. Critical sustainability issues relate to political instability, North-South inequalities, poverty, illiteracy and more recently, pandemics, climate changes and massive African migration. All of these concerns connect in one form or another to the field of tourism development as underscored by international initiatives such as the UN decade of education in 2015 and the year of sustainable tourism development in 2017.

Although tourism has established itself as a prominent tool for sustainable development, it is not without critics who point to detrimental environmental impacts, inequitable economic practices as well as negative social outcomes. However, the focus on tourism development as a means of achieving the SDGs remains a priority, in particular with regard to developing countries such as the SSA.

This region has been targeted for international funding because SSA's problems are juxtaposed with much potential. On the one hand, there is a robust and stable tourism industry, economic growth and a burgeoning youthful workforce. On the other hand, the continent is challenged with enduring unemployment levels, increasing poverty, brain drain and fragmented TE systems lacking joint coherent policies.

It was from this broader context as well as a professional interest in tourism education that the motivation for this study was derived. Research in this area revealed that until recently there were few studies focussing on sustainability education in tourism, and fewer still in the developing country context. Furthermore, little research could be found examining the extent to which sustainability has been integrated into tourism studies. Likewise, few studies have attempted to create a framework for ST education, and no content analysis of a similar design could be located in published research. This lack of attention has resulted in education gaps in the tourism discipline.

In the context of development projects involving the export of European models of education to several SSA countries, the need for an effective ST education framework emerged, and especially one that addresses the specific context and

situation of the region. Thus, in adopting a broader perspective, this thesis is an attempt to address existing research gaps by making a contribution to the emerging field of ST education in the TE sector. With a more focussed perspective, this study also aims to provide an overview of how sustainability is currently being integrated into tourism studies in SSA, and furthermore, to provide insights into what is considered effective ST education for the region. On a professional level, the insights gained will inform the development of further ST curricula for future capacity building projects in the SSA region.

Thus the overarching research question was: What is the current status of ST education in SSA?

From this, three specific questions relating to SSA were derived:

- What is considered effective ST education?
- What has been achieved?
- What still needs to be addressed?

Answering these questions in the broad and diverse field of sustainability entailed crossing several disciplinary boundaries. Triangulation theory, involving economic, education and stakeholder concepts offered a framework for a broad and structured approach to the investigation. Economic theories provided the context for understanding the connection between SD and education; building on this foundation educational theories highlighted the various concepts advocated for ST education; and stakeholder theories provided insights into the predominance of business interests in the field of ST.

This study employed a mixed method approach involving a content analysis, interviews and surveys. The specific objectives were to (1) conduct an extensive content analysis of all (online) tourism curricula in accredited TE institutions in SSA; (2) develop a framework for ST education based on stakeholder views and tourism scholarship; and (3) assess the online tourism curricula within the context of the developed framework.

The overall findings and implications of this study can be best explained in relation to the research questions and are discussed next in sequential order.

1. What is considered effective ST education?

To address the first of the three research questions, this study sent surveys to and interviewed altogether 40 key stakeholders from the tourism industry. The findings from the respondents were discussed within the context of the broader literature reviewed for this study. From this analysis, several key themes emerged.

The overall findings of this study indicate that, despite the prominence of the SDGs, there is still a lack of clarity and knowledge surrounding the concept of sustainability. This was attributed to inadequate education on sustainability and ST in general, and in SSA in particular. Furthermore, this deficiency is seen as the decisive factor for the lack of commitment and integration of sustainability concepts in the praxis of tourism.

The issue of educating for employability vis-à-vis educating for sustainability was also discussed in the context of this study. The prevailing view that educating for sustainability should be considered subordinate to educating for employability was not shared by the majority of the respondents. In general, stakeholders argued for a broader concept of tourism education that includes sustainability-related content from a wide range of disciplines and that, furthermore, combines theoretical with practical learning. The study revealed that the majority of stakeholders equated employability skills with soft skills. Soft skills—or key competencies—were also seen as crucial for ST education. Thus, the development of soft skills in graduates was strongly endorsed for promoting both the goals employability as well as sustainability. In particular, WIL was highlighted as important for ST education by facilitating the transfer of theory to praxis. Additionally, stakeholders recommended the inclusion of context specific, culturally appropriate and relevant content for ST education in SSA. In general, respondents argued for the inclusion of all key stakeholders in curricula development but were of the opinion that this was not typically practised. These findings were also in alignment with the broader education scholarship reviewed for this study.

Likewise discussed in the broader education literature, though not commented on by the respondents in this study, were further recommendations for ST

education. Tourism education scholars advocated, in particular, learner-centred, transformational, critical, collaborative and creative instructional methods for ST education. A prominent role was assigned to the use of technology in sustainability education as a means of providing innovative approaches, broader access, and the sharing of costs and expertise across countries and continents.

On the basis of the stakeholder perspectives as well as the tourism education scholarship, a framework for ST education as well as a curriculum example was subsequently developed. By comparing the (online) tourism curricula content with the overall findings of this study, the second and third research questions could be addressed.

2. What has been achieved with regard to ST education?

The content analysis demonstrated that sustainability-related courses in tourism study programmes in SSA covered a broad and diverse array of highly relevant content for the region. Most of the courses related to socio-cultural aspects, followed by environmental and economic content. Prominent courses offered dealt with culture or heritage tourism, ecology or environment and entrepreneurship. These findings were in alignment with the recommendations of the respondents provided in the surveys and interviews who argued for, in particular, more course content relating to environmental protection and socio-cultural issues. Thus, although sustainability made up only a small proportion of the total content of all online curricula, this content was perceived as appropriate and effective for ST education.

This finding was confirmed when assessing comments from respondents on their achievements relating to the praxis of ST. Stakeholders reported the adoption of sustainability practices in their professional work in a broad range of socio-cultural, environmental and economic areas. Socio-cultural achievements focussed on the development of community based projects, cultural tourism products and education awareness programmes. Environmental achievements were reported mostly in the areas of environmental and wildlife protection, support of environmental projects, and effective resource use. Achievements in the economic management area were relatively fewer and mostly involved the

implementation of certification schemes and sustainable practices in business operations.

Thus, a positive conclusion that can be derived from this study is a strong commitment by stakeholders to the tenets of sustainability. All of the interview respondents viewed the goal of educating for sustainability at least as important, or more important, than educating for employability. This stance was underscored in the informed and critical responses given throughout the process of the research.

A review of the apposite literature on tourism education in SSA confirmed the impression that SSA is addressing sustainability in the TE sector. Several recent initiatives such as the *Education for Sustainable Development in Africa* programme specifically aims to integrate sustainability into curricula (Nyerere, et al., 2016). Other initiatives, such as the *Distance Learning and Open Schooling* in Ghana, actively promote the use of online technologies to enhance access to TE (Bloom, Canning and Luca, 2014; Asamoah and Mackin, 2015).

3. What still needs to be addressed?

Turning to the question of what still needs to be addressed in ST education in SSA, the findings of the content analysis revealed several aspects that require more attention.

The main finding was the relative lack of sustainability-related content offered in online tourism curricula in SSA. The term 'business' dominated in programme titles, affiliation names and course descriptors. Moreover, these labels were an accurate reflection of the content within: business accounted for an overall average of 85 percent of all tourism course contents.

However, this does not reflect the views of stakeholders in this study or critical tourism scholars who argue for a balanced, interdisciplinary and inclusive approach to tourism education. In general, respondents thought that several key stakeholder voices were not being included in the development of tourism curricula.

Another serious deficit was the lack of emphasis on soft skills in tourism education. The fostering of soft skills or competencies was rarely mentioned

and less than two percent of all tourism courses with curricula online made an explicit reference to this aspect. Although a broad range of skills and competencies were advocated both by respondents and tourism scholars, soft skill courses offered in tourism programmes consisted mainly of entrepreneurship and ethics.

A further key finding in this study was that technology was not being utilised to its full potential to promote sustainability education in SSA. In particular, there was a lack of website visibility and transparency of TE institutions and study programmes that support sustainability goals. Challenges were encountered locating accreditation agencies, TE institutions, tourism programmes and curricula online. This would indicate that TE institutions in SSA are not utilising the potential of technologies to showcase their achievements and attract international collaboration partners and additional funding for projects. Also in the classroom, studies confirmed that tourism programmes are still not adequately utilising technologies: tourism remains underrepresented in MOOC offerings worldwide, and in particular, with courses containing ST content.

On the basis of these findings, recommendations were derived that are offered as guidance for the promotion of ST education in SSA.

Turning from the findings of the study to reflections on the process of the research, several important insights were gained. Any study, irrespective of how carefully it is designed and implemented, will encounter challenges and limitations which will affect the findings and the conclusions that can be subsequently drawn. And this study is no exception.

One of the most serious challenges encountered in this study was getting access to sufficient data in the content analysis. Apart from the numerous problems relating to gaining access to accreditation agency and TE websites, little information could be found on internships, collaborations on local or international projects, or various other curricula relevant activities such as field trips, WIL or studying abroad opportunities. This ran the risk of important data being overlooked and excluded from this study which in turn restricted the generalizability of findings.

A further limitation to this study was the lack of information obtained pertaining to instructional methods currently being used in SSA tourism classrooms. This aspect emerged in the literature review as significant for teaching sustainability. With very few exceptions, no references to this could be found on the websites. Furthermore, as the stakeholder group consisted mainly of non-educators, there were few comments on this. A deeper exploration of this topic would go beyond the scope of this study, however, it does open up interesting areas for further research.

Altogether 40 surveys and interviews were conducted in the process of this study. Although this yielded much raw data with which to address the research questions, it is acknowledged that this cannot be considered a representative sample. Missing are, for example, other tourism stakeholders such as tourists and students. However, to include all voices would have again extended beyond the scope of this thesis. Thus, this study is not intended as an extensive or exhaustive coverage of all stakeholder opinions, but rather it aims to provide insights into how a variety of tourism stakeholders engaged in the field of ST in SSA view tourism education.

The issue of positionality was one that constantly accompanied this research journey and likewise has implications for the research. This was particularly the case with regard to the framework developed for ST education. Coming from a European university and researching on ST education in SSA raises questions of research applicability and researcher competency in this area.

To address this, the literature review conducted on EfS as well as ST education was very extensive and made every attempt to locate and include prominent researchers from as many continents as possible. However, relatively little research has been conducted in ST education, and in particular, in the developing country context. Furthermore, the developed framework of ST education was informed by respondent opinions as well as scholarly works from around the globe. Conscious of the need to adopt a flexible and 'localist' approach, the resulting framework has been deliberately kept very general and adaptable to various epistemologies, ontologies, axiologies and contexts. However, in order to demonstrate how the framework could be applied to a

concrete context, an example of a curriculum was presented. The flexibility of the framework is an attempt to avoid the uncritical export of 'Global North' ideas and concepts to the 'Global South' in the context of well-intended development projects. Allusions to positionality from respondents, however, were rare and the overall attitude and interest in the study was very positive.

From the foregoing discussion, several areas for future research and potential collaborations emerge. In the context of current development work, interest has been expressed in developing detailed curricula for specific countries based on the concepts provided in the framework. Such curricula would require close cooperation with African partners to address context relevancy and accreditation criteria. In particular, expert pedagogical knowledge would be necessary to address learning outcomes, competency levels, teaching methodologies and assessment criteria.

In close connection to this project idea, further research is needed to assess which teaching methods are typically used in SSA tourism classrooms. Additionally, of potential interest for this project and beyond would be further research on the application of online learning technologies for promoting ST education.

This thesis concludes where it started: the motivation for this study. Inspired by increased tourism education projects in SSA as well as numerous UN initiatives, the goal was to learn more about the extent to which ST is being taught in general, and in SSA in particular. The research journey spanned disciplines and continents, and involved interaction with tourism stakeholders from the field. This exposed educational gaps on the one side, and committed stakeholders on the other. The study revealed that though much has been achieved, still more can be done. Providing effective ST education is a crucial element for continued progress in this area.

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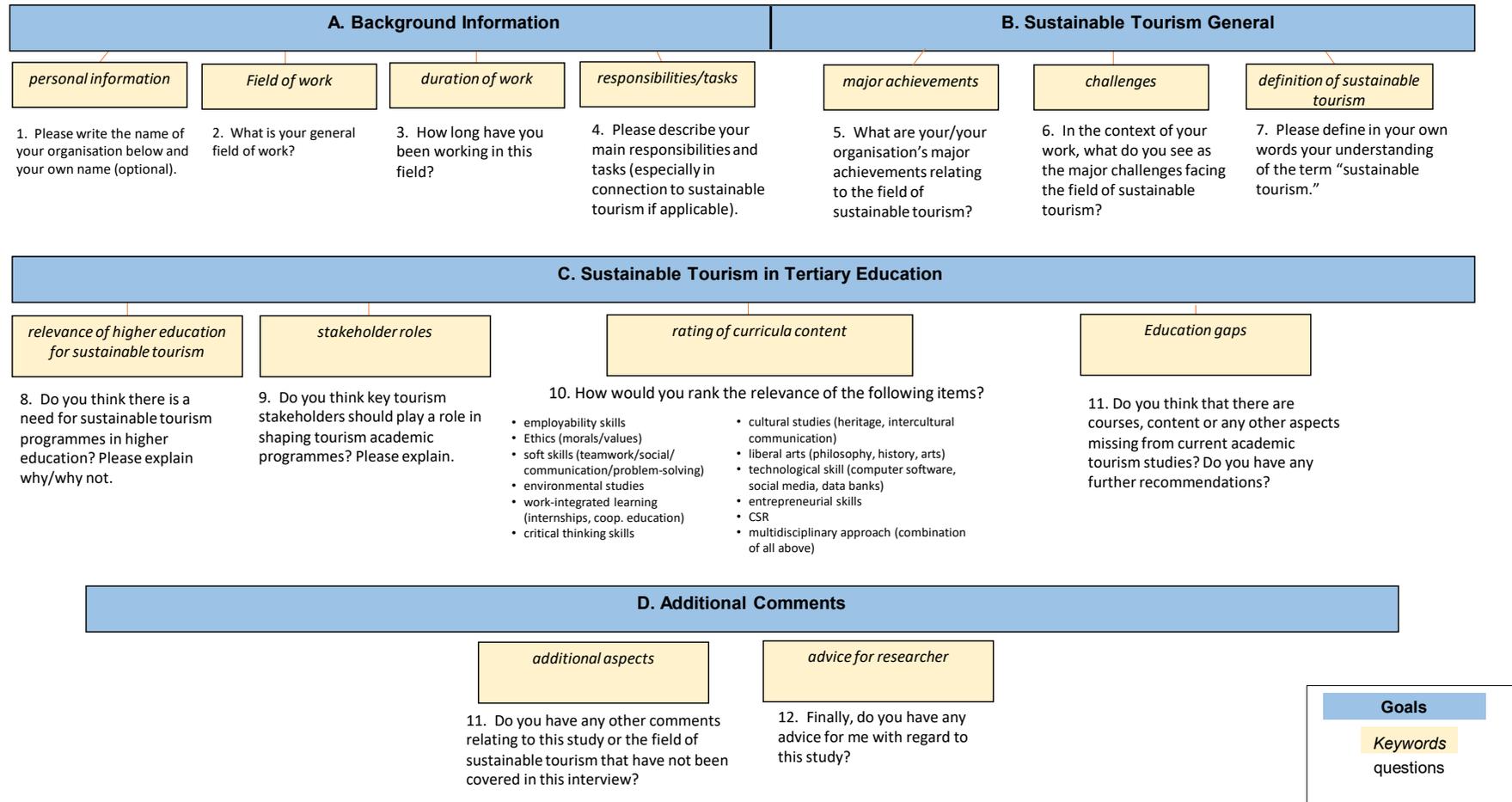
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Appendix 1: Initial Coding Scheme

Framework adapted from			Rule for Coding	Rule applied to ST content in Literature Review
UNESCO (2006, p.p.18-21)	Chawla (2015, p. 141)	UNWTO (2015)		
Socio-cultural				
Human rights	Equity	Respect the socio-cultural authenticity of host communities, conserve their built and living cultural heritage and traditional values, and contribute to inter-cultural understanding and tolerance.	Content related to the education and preservation of cultural identities and traditional values; the promotion of peace and tolerance, socio-cultural equity; as well as to overall human well-being and quality of life.	Ethics/Values
Peace and human security	Poverty alleviation			Critical Studies
Gender equality	Human wellbeing			Gender Studies
Cultural diversity	Stakeholder support			Race
Intercultural understanding	Community welfare			Equality
Health	Volunteering			Cross-cultural Studies
HIV/AIDS	Social cohesion			Heritage Tourism
Governance				Cultural Tourism
				Cultural Studies
				Nutrition
				Arts (Drama, Literature)
				History
				Medicine
				Philosophy
		Psychology		
		Anthropology		
		Sociology		
Environment				
Natural resources: water, energy, agriculture, biodiversity	Environmental managements systems	Make optimal use of environmental resources that constitute a key element in tourism development, maintaining essential ecological processes and helping to conserve natural heritage and biodiversity.	Content related to optimal use of natural resources, preserving environmental integrity and managing natural heritage and biodiversity.	Environmental Science
Climate change	Climate change			Climate change
Rural development	Natural and Eco tourism			Biodiversity
Sustainable urbanisation	Environmental Law			Disaster reduction risk
Disaster prevention and mitigation	Environmental auditing			Biology
	Low carbon economy			
Economic/ Management				
Poverty reduction	Governance	Ensure viable, long-term economic	Content relating to fair income	Poverty

Corporate responsibility	Sustainable Leadership	operations, providing socio-economic benefits to all stakeholders that are fairly distributed, including stable employment and income-earning opportunities and social services to host communities, and contributing to poverty alleviation.	distribution and stable employment, as well as the application and management of viable and sustainable economic policy making and business practices.	Sustainable Production
Market economy and innovative technology	Moral decision making			Sustainable Consumption
Moral decision making	Planning and policy			Entrepreneurial
Stewardship	Stewardship			Governance
	Sustainable Product Development			Networking
	Strategic Marketing			Team Building
	Consultancy			Communication
				Innovation
				Systemic Thinking
				Conflict Resolution
Integrative Sustainability Content				
			Content that is broader in scope covering at least two of the socio-cultural, economic or environmental categories, but that cannot be assigned exclusively to any individual one.	Global citizenship
				Global Studies
				Geography

Appendix 2: Conceptual Framework for Data Collection Instruments



LETTER OF INFORMATION

Working Title:

Educating for Sustainable Tourism in Accredited Tertiary Education Institutions in Sub Saharan Africa

Researcher:

Wendy Dawn Fehlner, MSc. Econ., MA Intercultural Relations

Brief Introduction and Purpose of the Study:

The United Nations has declared 2017 as the International Year of Sustainable Tourism for Development in recognition of tourism's potential to contribute to global economic development. The objective is to encourage initiatives and activities to support the Sustainable Development Goals from the United Nations 2030 Agenda. Although much work has been conducted in tourism development, research and study programmes in the field of education for sustainable tourism have lagged behind.

Given Sub Saharan Africa's robust growth in the tourism sector and its positive prognosis for the future, this study aims to assess the current status of sustainable tourism education in this region. Focussing on degree programmes in accredited higher education institutions, this study will, firstly, analyse the breadth and depth of sustainable concepts in tourism programmes and, secondly, assess the effectiveness of these programmes.

Outline of the Procedures:

You will be invited per email to either a 15-20 minute interview (per Skype or in person) or online survey (involving Limesurvey software). You have been selected based on your expertise and involvement in the area of sustainable tourism. The study will interview key tourism stakeholders from the tourism industry (i.e., tour operators, tourism boards), higher education institutions (offering tourism programmes), development organisations (e.g. NGOs) and education authorities (i.e., education ministries).

Risks or Discomforts to the Participant: None.

Benefits:

For participant: Access to study will be made available upon request.

For researcher: PhD qualification

Reason/s why the Participant May Be Withdrawn from the Study:

In the case of no response, the researcher may withdraw you from the study. You can also withdraw from the study at any time without penalty.

Remuneration: None.

Costs of the Study: None.

Confidentiality and Anonymity:

You will be asked for general non-confidential information relating to your professional experience of working in the field of sustainable tourism and your perspectives on sustainable tourism education. Identification codes will be used instead of names and addresses and any links to personal data will be stored separately. Access to this data will be strictly limited to the researcher and supervisors. No personal names will be used in the study. All documentation will be stored within the Tourism Department, Cooperative State University Baden Württemberg, Germany, for five years after which it will be destroyed.

Appendix 4: Interview Guide

Group	Questions
A. Professional insights from work in the field of ST	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Please write the name of your organisation below and your own name (optional). 2. What is your general field of work? 3. How long have you been working in this field? 4. Please describe your main responsibilities and tasks (especially in connection to sustainable tourism if applicable). 5. What are your/your organisation's major achievements relating to the field of sustainable tourism? 6. In the context of your work, what do you see as the major challenges facing the field of sustainable tourism?
B. Perspectives on effective ST education	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 7. Please define in your own words your understanding of the term "sustainable tourism." 8. What courses, content or other aspects would you recommend for inclusion in a sustainable tourism study programme? 9. Employability skills (i.e., skills that graduates need for the job) are often discussed in connection with tourism education. In your opinion, what are the most important employability skills? 10. In tourism curricula, sustainability content is sometimes seen as competing or in conflict with employability content. How would you rate the importance of educating for sustainability versus educating for employability in tourism studies? 11. Do you think key tourism stakeholders should play a role in shaping tourism academic programmes? Please explain.
C. Additional Comments	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 12. Do you have any other comments relating to this study or the field of sustainable tourism that have not been covered in this interview? 13. Finally, do you have any advice for me with regard to this study?
Additional questions:	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Do you think there are enough ST courses? -What barriers do you think there are to implementg more ST content in tourism curricula?

Appendix 5: Tertiary Education Institutions and Accreditation Sources by Country

Country name	Total amount of TEIs	Anabin* accredited TEIs	National Accreditation Board (NAB) accredited TEIs	Both Anabin & NAB Accredited TEIs
Angola	20	20	0	0
Benin	61	10	47	4
Botswana	12	2	7	3
Burkina Faso	14	10	4	0
Burundi	28	16	3	9
Cameroon	45	44	1	0
Cape Verde	12	5	2	5
Central African Republic	3	3	0	0
Chad	14	14	0	0
Comoros	0	0	0	0
Congo	3	3	0	0
Congo DR	71	71	0	0
Djibouti	0	0	0	0
Equatorial Guinea	0	0	0	0
Eritrea	9	9	0	0
Ethiopia	98	15	53	30
Gabon	17	17	0	0
Gambia	1	1	0	0
Ghana	92	3	79	10
Guinea	29	29	0	0
Guinea-Bissau	6	6	0	0
Ivory Coast	7	0	7	0
Kenya	124	55	27	42
Lesotho	4	0	4	0
Liberia	27	1	16	10
Madagascar	162	28	126	8
Malawi	15	1	1	13
Mali	10	10	0	0
Mauritania	10	0	10	0
Mauritius	13	0	10	3
Mozambique	53	5	43	5
Namibia	14	1	10	3
Niger	56	7	47	2
Nigeria	221	105	19	97
Reunion	0	0	0	0
Rwanda	43	9	28	6
Senegal	38	27	5	6
Seychelles	1	0	1	0
Sierra Leone	0	0	0	0
Somalia	0	0	0	0
South Africa	69	50	0	19
Swaziland	5	0	5	0
Tanzania	46	14	2	30
Togo	14	3	8	3
Uganda	53	40	3	10

Zambia	66	5	38	23
Zimbabwe	27	7	9	11
47	1613*	646	615	352
* Plus 6 TE institutions for which no information was available. Total TE amount = 1619				

Appendix 6: Titles of Bachelor Tourism Programmes in Sub Saharan Africa

Total Bachelor Tourism Programmes = 110 (ordered alphabetically from left to right)		
Adventure Tourism Management	Anthropology and Cultural and Heritage Tourism (x3)	Culture and Tourism
Ecotourism And Hospitality Management	Ecotourism and Wildlife Management	EcoTourism Management (x3)
Eco-Tourism, Hotel and Institution Management with IT	Entrepreneurship with Hospitality and Tourism Management	Heritage and Cultural Tourism
Hospitality and Tourism (x5)	Hospitality and Tourism Management (x4)	Hospitality Management (x2)
Hospitality Management and Tourism (x2)	Hospitality, Tourism and Culture	Hotel and Hospitality Management
Hotel and Tourism Management	Hotel Management and Tourism	International Tourism Management
Leisure, Tourism and Hotel Management (Ba. Of Business Admin.)	Sustainable Tourism and Hospitality Management	Technology in Tourism and Travel management
Tourism (x7)	Tourism and Environment	Tourism and Events Management
Tourism and Gastronomy	Tourism and Hospitality	Tourism and Hospitality Management (13)
Tourism and Hotel Management (x4)	Tourism and Sustainable Development	Tourism and Travel Management (x2)
Tourism Business Management	Tourism Development and Hotel Management	Tourism Development and Management
Tourism Information	Tourism Management (x25)	Tourism Management and Hospitality Studies
Tourism Management and Marketing	Tourism Management and Planning	Tourism Market Management
Tourism Studies	Tourism Studies with major in "Geography, Environmental Studies and Tourism"	Tourism, Hospitality and Marketing
Tourism, Hotel and Environment	Tourism, Travel and Hospitality Management	Travel Agency, Tourism and Operations Management
Travel and Tour Operations Management	Travel and Tourism	Travel and Tourism Management (x3)
Travel, Tourism, and Hospitality Management		

Appendix 7: Titles of all Master Tourism Programmes in Sub Saharan Africa

Total Master Programmes = 39 (ordered alphabetically from left to right)		
Anthropology and Cultural and Heritage Tourism	Ecotourism Management (2)	Heritage and Cultural Tourism (x2)
Hospitality and Tourism (x2)	Hotel and Tourism Management	International Tourism Management
Leisure and Tourism Management (MBA)	Management in Tourism and Hotels	Management of Tourism and Culture Activities
Responsible Tourism Management	Sustainable Tourism Management	Tourism and Hospitality Management (x5)
Tourism and Hospitality Studies	Tourism Development	Tourism Excellence (International MBA)
Tourism Management (x14)	Tourism Marketing and Management	Tourism Planning and Management
Travel and Tour Operations Management		

Appendix 8: List of Sustainability Courses by Main and Sub Categories

Main Category	Sub Category	Course Names	#		
Environment = 68	Coastal	Coastal and Marine Based Tourism (x2)	3		
		Coastal Zone Management			
	Fauna and Flora	East African Fauna and Flora (x2)	5		
		Introduction to Fauna and Flora			
			Natural History of East Africa Flora and Fauna (x2)		
	Ecology and Environment		Ecology And Tourism	37	
			Ecotourism (x7)		
			Ecotourism & Sustainable Development		
			Ecotourism Management		
			Ecotourism Marketing		
			Ecotourism Principles and Practices		
			Environment & Society/Science		
			Environmental Ecology		
			Environmental Education and Sustainable Development		
			Environmental Impact Assessment		
			Environmental Issues in Hospitality and Tourism		
			Environmental Management		
			Environmental Management and Legislation		
			Environmental Management for Tourism		
			Environmental Policy Analysis		
			Environmental Skills		
			Environmental Tourism		
			Global Environmental Issues		
			Green and Agric- Tourism		
			International Practices for Ecotourism and Conservation Management		
			Sustainable Eco-Tourism		
			Tourism and the Environment		
			Tourism and Environmental Management (x3)		
			Tourism Hospitality and Environment		
			Tourism recreation and Environmental Management		
			Bio-Tourism		
			Bio-diversity and Environmental pollution		
			Rural tourism		
			Sustainable Travel		
		Wildlife and Area Conservation		Principles of Wildlife Management	17
				Principles of Wildlife Parks and Sites, Ecology Management	
				Protected Area Management (x2)	
			Wildlife and Protected area Management		
	Wildlife Based Tourism (x3)				
		Wildlife conservation and Management			

		Wildlife Conservation, Development and Management	
		Wildlife Management	
		Wildlife Management Strategies	
		Wildlife Tourism	
		Wildlife/Zoo/Museum Management	
		Introduction to Wildlife Ecology	
		Park, Gardens And Monument Management	
		Sustainable Nature-Based Tourism	
	Natural Resources	Natural Resource and Environmental Management	6
		Natural Resource Policy and Law	
		Natural Resources and Environmental	
		Natural Resources and Environmental Economics	
		Natural Resources Management and Economics	
		Introduction to Tourism Resources of Ghana	
Socio-cultural = 98	African Arts/Music/Dance	African Culture in Hospitality and Tourism Industry	12
		African Architecture	
		African Music and Dance	
		African Music Appreciation	
		African Philosophy and Thought	
		Arts and Heritage Management	
		Contemporary African Art	
		Creative Arts and Culture	
		Introduction to African Dance	
		Indigenous Architecture	
		Literature and Culture	
		Music/Literary appreciations	
	Cultural/Heritage/History	Cross Cultural Management	43
		Cross-Cultural Studies	
		Cultural and Heritage Tourism (x9)	
		Cultural and Heritage Preservation	
		Cultural Globalization	
		Cultural heritage Mozambique	
		Cultural Policies and Tourism Development	
		Cultural Tourism (x3)	
		Culture and Cultural Practices	
		Culture Studies	
		Culture, Tourism In Independent Africa	
		Cultures and Tourism in Rwanda	
		Culture and Heritage Tourism Development	
		Heritage and tourist development	
		History and Culture African	
		Introduction to Slavery in Africa	
		History and Culture of Mozambique	

		History of African Traditional Systems	
		History of the African Diaspora	
		Introduction to Historical Monuments in Ghana	
		Traditional Ghanaian Social Structure (x2)	
		World Cultural/Sports Festival And Holidays	
		Zimbabwean Cultures and Heritage	
		Managing Cultural Heritage	
		Museums and Heritage Management	
		Nigerian Peoples And Culture	
		Oral History of Africa	
		Peoples And Culture	
		Sustainable Tourism Cultural Management	
		Theories of Tourism, Culture and Heritage	
		Tourism and Cultural Heritage	
		Intercultural Communication	
	Cultural/Human Geography	Cultural Geography	4
		Introduction to Human Geography (x2)	
		Introduction to Human Physical Geography	
	Anthropology/Sociology	Anthropology and Sociology of Tourism	14
		Introduction To Sociology	
		Philosophy and Critical Thinking	
		Philosophy and Ethic of Tourism and Hospitality	
		Principles of Sociology	
		Social Issues in the Service Industry	
		Social Issues in Tourism (x2)	
		Sociology and Cross-cultural issues	
		Sociology of tourism (x4)	
		Tourism Philosophies and Practices	
	Philosophy/Ethics/Religion	Diversity, Ethics and Citizenship	11
		Ethics and Etiquettes in Tourism	
		Christian Ethics (x2)	
		Christian Philosophy	
		Moral Studies	
		Introduction To Philosophy And Logic	
		Sustainability and Greed	
		Tourism Ethics	
		Critical issues in Travel and Tourism	
		Introduction to Critical and Creative Thinking	
	Health/Food	Health and Tourism	4
		HIV and AIDS	
		HIV and AIDS and Lifestyle diseases	
		Traditional Foods	
	Gender/Inclusion/Diversity	Gender and inclusion in Tourism	4

		Gender, Leisure and Tourism Development (x2)	
		Cultural Diversity Management	
	Community	Community Based Tourism (x5)	5
	Psychology	Introduction To Psychology I	1
Economic /Management = 50	Entrepreneurship	Business Tourism and Entrepreneurship	26
		Entrepreneurship skills (x2)	
		Entrepreneurial Edge	
		Entrepreneurial Management	
		Entrepreneurship (x3)	
		Entrepreneurship and Project	
		Entrepreneurship and Small Business Management	
		Entrepreneurship and tourism projects	
		Entrepreneurship in Hospitality and Tourism	
		Essentials of Entrepreneurship	
		Entrepreneur Management	
		Fundamentals of Entrepreneurship	
		Hospitality Business Ethics	
		Innovation and Entrepreneurship in tourism	
		Introduction to Entrepreneurship	
		Policies and practices of sustainable tourism: Innovation, Creativity, Entrepreneurship	
		Tourism and Hospitality Entrepreneurship	
		Tourism Entrepreneurship (x6)	
	Business Ethics/Laws/CSR	Business Laws and Ethics	7
		Business Ethics (x2)	
		Business values and ethics	
		Ethical, Legal and Regulation Aspects in Travel	
		Business ethics and corporate governance	
	Sustainable Tourism Management	Management for Sustainable Tourism	15
		Planning and management of Sustainable Tourism	
		Sustainable Event Management	
		Sustainable Operations Management (2)	
		Sustainable Tourism Management (2)	
		Sustainable Tourist Destination Management	
		Sustainable Transport and Logistics System (x3)	
		Tourism Development in Ghana	
		Tourism Impact Studies	
		Responsible Tourism Management Theory and Practice	
		Pro-poor Tourism	
	Information/Communication	Information and Communication (x2)	2
Integrative Sustainability = 34	Geography	Geographic Information System And Tourism	14

		Geography (x4)	
		Geography of Tourism	
		Geography of Tourism and Leisure	
		Tourism and Geography	
		Tourism and Travel Geography (x2)	
		Tourism Geography (x3)	
		Regional Geography of Ghana	
	Sustainable/Responsible Tourism Development	Sustainable Tourism: dimensions & perspectives	16
		Responsible Tourism	
		Regional Tourism Resources	
		Sustainable Development (x6)	
		Sustainable Tourism (x5)	
		Tourism and Globalisation	
		Tourism Impacts	
	Environment/Culture/ Economic	Ecotourism and Community Based Tourism	4
		Environment, Culture and Location	
		Environmental and Cultural Interpretations	
		Tourism Resources of West Africa	
Total Courses			250

Appendix 9: Codebook

Category (general)	Category (broad)	Category (specific)
Job Titles and Responsibilities	Business	<i>marketing</i>
		<i>quality management</i>
		<i>product development</i>
		<i>operational activities</i>
	Education	<i>research</i>
		<i>teaching</i>
		<i>training</i>
		<i>supervision</i>
	Community Development	<i>CBT Development</i>
		<i>destination management</i>
		<i>planning</i>
		<i>policy-making</i>
		<i>monitoring</i>
Achievements	Economic/Management	<i>operations</i>
		<i>poverty/incomes</i>
	Socio Cultural	<i>community development</i>
		<i>education</i>
		<i>gender relations</i>
	Environment	<i>resource use</i>
		<i>environment protection</i>
		<i>environmental education</i>
Challenges	Education	<i>academia</i>
		<i>clients</i>
		<i>society</i>
	Business	<i>ST concept</i>
		<i>employment</i>
	Environmental	<i>flora/fauna</i>
		<i>transportation</i>
		<i>mass tourism</i>
	Stakeholder participation	<i>community</i>
		<i>government</i>
	Socio-cultural	<i>culture</i>
		<i>food</i>
		<i>human rights</i>
Relevance of EfS in Tourism TE	Education	<i>knowledge deficiency</i>
		<i>training</i>
		<i>society</i>
	Leadership	<i>education</i>
		<i>future</i>
	Business	<i>industry</i>
		<i>marketing</i>
	Environmental	<i>climate</i>
		<i>flora/fauna</i>
		<i>resources</i>

Stakeholder participation	Societal benefits	<i>leadership</i>
		<i>economy</i>
	Employment	<i>curriculum</i>
		<i>skills and knowledge</i>
	Praxis relevancy	<i>experience</i>
		<i>examples</i>
	Reservations	<i>motives</i>
		<i>reality</i>
ST Concept	Broad context	<i>educators</i>
		<i>tourism providers</i>
		<i>NGOs</i>
		<i>government officials</i>
	Environment	<i>educators</i>
		<i>tourism providers</i>
		<i>NGOs</i>
		<i>government officials</i>
	Resources	<i>educators</i>
		<i>tourism providers</i>
		<i>NGOs</i>
		<i>government officials</i>
Recommendations for Curricula Content	Not sure	---
	Business/management	---
	Context relevant	---
	Various	---
Employability Concept	Soft skills	---
	Business skills	---
	Other	---
Comments and Advice	Research	<i>positive</i>
		<i>critical</i>
		<i>share findings</i>
		<i>contacts</i>
	Tourism programme	<i>dialogue</i>
		<i>practice</i>
		<i>social/environmental/economic</i>
	No comments	---
Conceptual Considerations	Sustainability concept	
	ST education gaps	
	Employability and Sustainability Synergies	
	Soft skill & competencies	
	Instructional methods and tools	
	Context relevancy	
	Hidden vs visible	

Appendix 10: Common Topics in Tourism Management Programmes

General	Business Management	Tourism Management
Economics	Accounting and Finance	Destination Management
Business Administration	Business Law	Event Management
Mathematics	Business Management	Gastronomy
Statistics	Digital Management	Hotel Operations Management
Civil Law	Marketing	MICE
Information Management	Quality Management	Recreation and Leisure
Research Methods	Resource Management	Tour, Travel & Airlines
Social Skills	Corporate Social Responsibility	Tourism Geography
Languages	Retail Operations and E-Commerce	Tourism Planning & Development
	HR Management	Contemporary Issues
		Spa & Health Tourism

Adapted from Airey (2005); DHBW Loerrach (2019); Fidgeon (2010); Oktadiana and Chon (2017)

Appendix 11: Compilation of Key Competencies for Sustainability Education

Competences	Principles and Summary	Based on
Systems thinking	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Analysis of complex systems across different scales and domains of inquiry • Comprehension, empirical verification, and articulation of a system's key components, structure, and dynamics • Attention to systemic features such as feedback, inertia, stocks and flows, and cascading effects • Understanding of complex systems phenomena, including unintended consequences, path dependency, systemic inertia, and intentionality • Understanding of connectivity and cause-effect relationships • Application of modelling (qualitative or quantitative) 	Lambrechts et al., 2013; Frisk and Larson, 2011; Wiek et al., 2011; Rieckmann, 2012; Meadows, 2008; Capra and Luisi, 2014; Ramalingam et al., 2008; Lans et al., 2014.
Interdisciplinary work	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Appreciation, evaluation, contextualisation, and use of knowledge and methods of different disciplines • Ability to work on complex problems in interdisciplinary contexts 	Lambrechts et al., 2013; Rieckmann, 2012; Murga-Menoyo, 2014
Anticipatory thinking	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Envisioning, analysis, and evaluation of possible futures, including scenarios with multi-generational timescales • Application of precautionary principle • Prediction of reactions • Dealing with risks and changes 	Lambrechts et al., 2013; Frisk and Larson, 2011; Wiek et al., 2011; Rieckmann, 2012; Lans et al., 2014.
Justice, responsibility, and ethics	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Application of concepts of ethics, justice, social and ecological integrity, and equity • Description, negotiation, and reconciliation of principles, values, aims, and goals for sustainability • Responsibility for one's actions • Ethics and sustainability of personal and professional behaviour 	Lambrechts et al., 2013; Wiek et al., 2011; Rieckmann, 2012; Lans et al., 2014; Murga-Menoyo, 2014
Critical thinking and analysis	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Ability to challenge norms, practices, and opinions • Reflection on one's own values, perceptions, and actions • Understanding of external perspectives 	Rieckmann, 2012
Interpersonal relations and collaboration	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Participatory and collaborative approaches to solving problems or conducting research • Skills and understandings in communication, deliberation, negotiation, empathizing, leadership, and collaboration • Ability to deal with conflicts • Learning from other perspectives • Participation in community processes 	Frisk and Larson, 2011; Wiek et al., 2011; Lans et al., 2014; Murga-Menoyo, 2014
Empathy and change of perspective	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Ability to identify own and external perspectives • Understanding and sympathy for the needs, perspectives, and actions of others • Ability to deal with internal and external value orientation • Compassion, empathy, and solidarity with others across differences • Accepting and embracing of a diversity of opinions, experiences, or perspectives • Transcultural understanding 	Lambrechts et al., 2013; Rieckmann, 2012; Lans et al., 2014.

Competences	Principles and Summary	Based on
Communication and use of media	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Ability to communicate effectively in intercultural contexts • Ability to use appropriate information and communication technologies • Critical consideration and evaluation of media 	Rieckmann, 2012
Strategic action	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Ability to design and implement interventions, transitions, and transformations for sustainability • Active and responsible engagement in sustainability activities • Development and application of ideas and strategies • Planning and executing projects • Ability to reflect on, and deal with, possible risks • Organisation, leading, and controlling processes, projects, interventions, and transitions • Identification of scopes of creativity and participation • Taking responsibility for motivating others 	Lambrechts et al., 2013; Frisk and Larson, 2011; Wiek et al, 2011; Rieckmann, 2012; Lans et al., 2014.
Personal involvement	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Participation in creating sustainability initiatives • Willingness and ability to take action • Willingness to learn and innovate • Self-motivation • Initiation of own learning 	Lambrechts et al., 2013
Assessment and evaluation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Develop assessment and evaluation standards and guidelines • Independent evaluations with respect to conflicts of interest and goals, uncertain knowledge, and contradictions 	Rieckmann, 2012
Tolerance for ambiguity and uncertainty	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Coping with conflicts, competing goals and interests, contradictions, and setbacks 	Rieckmann, 2012

Adapted from Lozano, et al. (2017, pp. 4–5)