



**TOURISM and HOSPITALITY Management Education in Australia:
Development of a Conceptual Framework and Model for the 21st Century**

by

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Abstract

This thesis explores the increasing importance attached to the tourism and hospitality industry, the recognition that it is emerging as an industry with enormous potential for new job creation and employment, the growing recognition that job creation depends on appropriate management skills, and the role of educating managers as a critical factor in the successful development of the area.

The thesis investigates the rapid expansion, growth, and perceived quality and viability of tourism and hospitality management education. It is argued that there are doubts as to whether tourism and hospitality management education is changing according to the needs of industry and the requirements of future managers. As management skills and requirements have become more complex over time, tourism and hospitality management education should also have become more intricate and refined, more flexible and adaptable to change.

It is contended that the seeds of change have to be inculcated in the generation of managers who are undertaking postgraduate education as it is their knowledge and skills which will determine the competitiveness of the enterprises they work for in the future. A general model for graduate tourism and hospitality management education is proposed in the context of the changing industry and educational environment in Australia.

An analysis of tourism and hospitality programs in Australian colleges and universities is conducted. Results from the analysis support the proposition for a change of direction in

graduate tourism and hospitality management education, and demonstrate a general agreement in terms of content and structure.

The rationale put forward and presented as an alternative viable graduate studies model for the area is not challenged. It is concluded that had a contrary finding emerged, the model would have been viewed as incompatible with the views of decision-makers in graduate tourism and hospitality management education, and indefensible as a relevant and feasible alternative for the successful future development of the area.

Overall, the results of this thesis add to the body of knowledge in both the tourism and hospitality management literature. The results also contribute to the understanding of the underlying factors influencing tourism and hospitality management education in Australian colleges and universities.

Declaration

This work contains no material which has been accepted for the award of any other degree or diploma in any university or other tertiary institution, and to the best of my knowledge and belief, contains no material previously published, or written by another person, except where due reference has been made in the text.

I give consent to this copy of my thesis, when deposited in the University Library, being available for loan and photocopying.

Signed

19/11/2000

Dated

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Chapter 1

Introduction

1.1 Introduction

The past 25 years have seen significant changes and developments within the tourism and hospitality management education sector. Major educational reforms have taken place affecting teaching and learning in the work place, colleges and universities. The world-wide expansion, diversification and increased economic prominence of the tourism and hospitality sector, combined with changing industry and company structures, have led to the modification of work patterns, roles, tasks and responsibilities within the industry¹. The impact of consumerism, the demand for quality and increasing customer focus has also influenced industry needs and behaviours. Through these changes, together with the increasing influence of professional tourism and hospitality associations, industry and government advisory boards, and tourism and hospitality management educators, the tourism and hospitality industry is emerging as a rapidly expanding professional yet diversified body.

With the increasingly competitive nature of business today and the constant focus on management to improve organisational performance and value, the requirements and expectations from managers have intensified. Increasing globalisation, widespread

¹ The tourism sector of the industry deals mainly with travel, both local and overseas, and includes travel agencies, tourist information offices, tour wholesalers, attractions, meetings and conventions and tour guiding. The hospitality sector of the industry provides food and beverage and accommodation to both visitors and local residents. It includes hotels, motels, resorts, restaurants, clubs and casinos. Both the individual "tourism" and "hospitality" labels encountered in the literature often comprises both tourism and hospitality activities.

technological innovation, and pressures on business to customise products and services have fuelled changes to the business environment².

Thus, as management skills and requirements have become more complex over time, tourism and hospitality management education should also have become more intricate and refined, more flexible and adaptable to change. Indeed, as Karpin (1995) argued, the seeds of change have to be inculcated in the generation of managers who are undertaking postgraduate education as it is their knowledge and skills which will determine the competitiveness of the enterprises they work for in the future.

It will be contended in this thesis that tourism and hospitality management education should lead the industry rather than follow it. What students are taught today must be relevant to them tomorrow. Many of the tourism and hospitality managers who will be responsible for meeting the challenges of tomorrow are the tourism and hospitality management students of today. How well they are prepared to meet these challenges depends on the quality of current and future tourism and hospitality management programs, curriculum, and educators.

² In the hotel sector, for instance, most of the management skills needed to operate a hotel in 1920 were also needed in 1950, and virtually all are still needed today (Dittman, 1997). However, along the way, a vast array of new skills has been added to a manager's resume. In addition to paying attention to guest satisfaction, marketing, human resources, profit margins, occupancy rates and operations, general managers also have to attend to the overall value of the hotel asset, keep up with constant technological change, as well as manage under new structures and owners. Managers must be able to work with leaner and more efficient organisations, relate to external specialists, as well as meet owners and management companies' expectations and demands.

Many of today's tourism and hospitality programs began as home economics programs, which have now left their roots. They appear to have added the word "management" or "administration", but generally they continue to emphasise functional rather than management skills per se. Hence, many tourism and hospitality management programs tend to be a conglomeration of pseudo-management and hands-on vocational skills. The implication of this business-mix between management/administration and vocational education implies that tourism and hospitality management educators may not have a clear understanding of either their target market, or the industry's changing needs.

Given the increasing importance attached to the tourism and hospitality industry, together with the recognition that it is emerging as an industry with enormous potential for new job creation and employment, as well as the growing recognition that job creation depends on appropriate management skills, then the role of educating managers becomes a critical factor in the successful development of this area³. In the main, existing tourism and hospitality managers are not tertiary qualified and do not undertake management development to any significant extent. There are many historical reasons for this, not the least of which is that most of these managers acquired their education "on the job", and until recently had little time and few opportunities to study at university. However, the situation is changing.

³ Tourism and hospitality is a major growth industry in Australia, predicted to continue to expand rapidly beyond the year 2000. It is an industry recognised for creating economic and employment opportunities throughout Australia and its neighbouring region. As for most Western nations, the Australian tourism and hospitality industry is a significant and distinctive economic force. It is both a capital and labour intensive industry. Indeed, Wright (1998), Chairman Tourism Training Australia, argued that there were more than 950,000 people employed by the tourism and hospitality industry in Australia in 1999, and this number was expected to grow to more than 1.2 million by the year 2000.

1.2 Purpose and aim of Study

The main purpose of this study is to identify and address the main issues relevant to the future success of tourism and hospitality management education. The thesis will investigate the rapid expansion, growth, and perceived quality and viability of tourism and hospitality management education in Australia. The primary aim will be to establish how well graduate courses are serving stakeholders' needs, responding to the complexities of their environment, and providing the type of academic and professional leadership expected of graduate programs (as perceived by tourism and hospitality decision makers in colleges and universities).

As the tourism and hospitality industry has changed over the years, so have the responsibilities and expectations of its managers. It is becoming clear that the new professionalism expected in the industry is fuelling the need to change the educational curricula from quasi-vocational training to an inter-disciplinary, professional management focus. This has led to a significant growth in tertiary education courses in tourism and hospitality management. The broad objective of this research is to investigate whether tourism and hospitality management education implementation in Australian colleges and universities is developing in a manner that is consistent with both the needs of industry and the capabilities of the tertiary educational environment. Indeed, it is irrational to presume at the outset that industry led changes would of necessity be better than what is currently being offered. Moreover, the capacity to deliver change may also be outside the reach of educational establishments, both in terms of resources, and capabilities.

Thus, as the twentieth century draws to a close, the international tourism and hospitality industry faces the challenge of resolving the debate around the question of whether the most appropriate educational program in tourism and hospitality management today should be more focused on industry specific skills or on general management competencies. There is little argument that well-trained employees dedicated to the philosophical concepts of tourism and hospitality are critical to the industry's future. However, how these graduates are trained and educated to generate this outcome remains an area of controversy. This, coupled with demands on industry managers to operate in a changing environment driven by restructuring and new sensitivities to employee needs, places greater demands on the tourism and hospitality management programs which train future managers (Ford & Bach, 1996).

1.3 Justification and Rationale of Study

Previous research on how tourism and hospitality management education is addressing those challenges remain divided. Powers and Reigel (1989) foresaw a bright future for tourism and hospitality education, whereas others, notably Lewis (1993) and Pavesic (1989) predicted its demise. Lewis in particular, expressed concerns that poor teaching and lack of real-world research was predominant in tourism and hospitality management education programs, whilst Pavesic argued a paradigm shift was required for programs to survive⁴. Kibedi (1988) had also warned that:

⁴ Powers and Riegel (1989) also warned that it was difficult to generalise about the future of tourism and hospitality management programs, as each program must develop its own positioning strategy, and as such should be evaluated in its own right. They also cautioned against dramatic policy initiatives that require a leap of faith. They argued that changes in what programs do must be grounded in readily apparent realities, and that there was no sound available evidence to support a strategy of replacing the established content of tourism and hospitality management programs with generic service management or business administration information.

- the aims of professional education were no longer clear;
- faculty were unprofessional;
- educational programs were not rigorous;
- integration among programs was lacking;
- physical facilities were inadequate or unavailable;
- appropriate educational materials were out-of-date or not provided;
- teaching methods were Byzantine;
- value systems of both students and faculty were notoriously weak;
- students were disinterested; and,
- little, or no cooperation existed between the industry and educational institutions.

Ten years have passed since Kibedi's warnings about a field of study which at the time appeared to face some serious problems, yet little evidence exists to suggest that Kibedi's warnings were successfully addressed. This dissertation explores this gap.

Research which would assist in formulating guidelines and developing curricula for tourism and hospitality graduate programs is also scant. However, concern about the effectiveness of graduate programs in tourism and hospitality management by tourism and hospitality educators is not new. Thus, Pizam (1985) questioned whether graduate programs in the area were equipped to offer a variety of in-depth courses that would advance students' knowledge beyond what they had already acquired in their undergraduate work, and whether the aims of graduate programs matched the needs of industry?

Lewis (1993) later argued that hospitality management had made progress, that research was better, faculties stronger, and rapport with industry greater, but that tourism and hospitality management education was still doing the same old things⁵. Indeed, quoting from a conversation he had had with the president of a hospitality-marketing firm, he wrote:

In the 1980s, the industry was growing in leaps and bounds. There were jobs almost for the asking and promotion came quickly. Today [February, 1993], many of these people are hanging on a precipice. They may know how to calculate a food cost, design a menu, run a PMS system, make a sales call, or recite the four Ps, but they don't understand the customer, the buy decision, the service product, or the financial implications of what they are doing. Most of all while they may have quick solutions, they don't understand the problems; they don't know how to manage a downturn. Nor do they understand that in some cases we may have to change the culture (Lewis 1993, p.274).

As Lewis (1993) further argued, tourism and hospitality management programs may need drastic curriculum revision, a new culture, and a matching faculty that can teach those needs.

Arguably, tourism and hospitality management education has grown rapidly, both in Australia and overseas, in the ten-year period 1989-98⁶. In Australia alone, growth in

⁵ In assessing the ten-year period between 1982-92.

⁶ It has been estimated that the demand for qualified management staff in this industry will outstrip supply (Purcell and Quinn, 1995). This perceived gap between demand and supply has led to an increase in the number of higher education institutions offering tourism and hospitality management programs both in Australia and overseas (Craig-Smith, 1997; Ineson and Kempa, 1997). However, the situation is contentious as opinions vary as to the need for and relevance of specialist management education in tourism and hospitality. Indeed, the period 1988-99 has witnessed an unprecedented growth in the number of tertiary tourism and hospitality management programs throughout the world. This growth has been fuelled by an equally strong and continuing rising demand from students seeking to undertake training and education in a field which is perceived as offering exciting challenges as well as unlimited work opportunities.

the number of graduate tourism and hospitality management programs in that period has resulted in more than eighty programs being offered by 1998⁷. However, there are doubts as to whether it is changing according to the needs of industry and the requirements of future managers. Indeed, Lewis (1993) argued:

The hospitality industry is in the doldrums. In the hotel sector, most of the blame is placed on overbuilding and the economy. In the restaurant sector, the blame is on customer fickleness, proliferation of products, and the economy. In hospitality education, the blame goes to the industry and the economy... We are now part of the problem, rather than the solution (Lewis, 1993, p.273).

Lewis further noted that although tourism and hospitality management education undergoes regular curriculum reviews, largely based on academically perceived needs, there was little evidence of change to the product other than perhaps a change of name. He argued that present programs needed to be re-evaluated in the light of changing managerial and social needs, as well as of industry needs that are not yet realised.

1.4 Methodology and Data Collection

Leedy (1980) noted that it was particularly important to recognise the fact that data and methodology were inextricably inter-dependent. Therefore, the type of research methodology to be adopted for a particular problem or set of hypotheses must always recognise the parameters and nature of the data which will be gathered in achieving the resolution of that problem (Krone, 1980).

The methodology employed in this thesis rests firstly on a comprehensive review of the tourism and hospitality literature. It will be argued that the discipline of tourism

⁷ See Appendix 2.

and hospitality management education is broad and varied. It consists of a large number of themes and concepts. Thus, the international tourism and hospitality management education literature which embraces those themes will be critically reviewed, and the concepts underlying the discipline will be highlighted. As a result of this extensive literature review, research questions will emerge and testable hypotheses will be established. Although the preliminary investigations will, of necessity, take an international perspective, the focus of the research will be on tourism and hospitality management education in Australia.

Survey research methodology, it will be argued, is the most appropriate method to investigate the hypotheses derived in the thesis. Survey research methodology provides a quantitative description of the population through the data collection process (Fowler, 1988). This data collection, in turn, enables generalisation of the findings from a sample of responses to a population (Creswell, 1994).

In this thesis, the population will be that of colleges and universities in Australia offering tourism and hospitality management programs either at the undergraduate or graduate level or both. Because the population is one of institutions, it will be necessary to determine and identify appropriate representatives of the population - that is the people that could best express the institutions' position vis a vis tourism and hospitality management education.

Identification of the population will be multi-staged. Two main tools will be used to develop the final list of individuals in position of responsibility and identified as decision-makers in the area of tourism and hospitality management education. First, a

list of colleges and universities in Australia offering courses in either “tourism” and/or “hospitality” (as listed on the internet) will be compiled. Second, the database produced for the 1999 CAUTHE national research conference will be searched and sorted⁸. Third, a final list will be compiled as a result of these investigations.

Two major data collection instruments will be used. First, an analysis of publicly available material published by the colleges and universities on courses in the tourism and hospitality management area. Second, on the basis of this data, a questionnaire will be developed to obtain additional quantitative information and to solicit views and opinions in a range of issues as identified in the publicly available material and in the tourism and hospitality management literature.

First, data will be collected from primary documents. All institutions offering both undergraduate and graduate programs in the tourism and hospitality management area will be targeted. This information will be sought from internet college or university sites, general course brochures and advertising material, as well as from the tourism and hospitality management literature. Predominantly, the purpose of this exercise will be to test for evidence of growth in tourism and hospitality management courses and enrolments in Australian colleges and universities. Growth will be measured at both the undergraduate and graduate level in terms of courses offered, student enrolments, and development of new courses⁹. Second, the questionnaire will seek responses to descriptive, factual, and attitudinal items in order to support an in-depth

8 Council for Australian University Tourism and Hospitality Education.

9 Growth is taken as a measure of change (+ or -) in the period 1980-1999 in the number of courses offered, student enrolments, and courses under development.

investigation of tourism and hospitality management education in Australian colleges and universities.

For the purpose of obtaining both comprehensive and meaningful results, the data will be analysed using three distinct strategies¹⁰. First, the descriptive and factual data will be analysed, focusing on frequency distributions, overall percentages and trend lines. All collected data will be subjected to this analysis. Second, evidence of any existing correlations will be sought between items under investigation. Third factor analysis will be applied to some of the data collected with the use of the five-point Likert scale.

1.6 Outline of Dissertation

As noted above, this thesis explores a number of tourism and hospitality themes. However, the central concern of the dissertation will be that of management education, training and development as applied to the Australian hospitality and tourism industry. More specifically, the research focuses on the growth and development, the value of and need for graduate tourism and hospitality management education in Australia.

The thesis contains 11 chapters, each addressing critical information pertinent to this study. Chapter Two presents arguments from an economic and employment viewpoint, which is then linked to training, education, staff development and the

¹⁰ Data will be analysed using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences Personal Computer version (SPSS/PC, 1998).

resultant productivity and efficiencies of the labour markets. It will be argued that tourism and hospitality is a major growth industry in Australia, predicted to continue to expand rapidly beyond the year 2000. It is an industry recognised for creating economic and employment opportunities throughout Australia and its neighbouring region. Indeed, it is a growing source of employment and opportunities.

In Chapter Three the origins of tourism and hospitality education will be reviewed, outlining the type of difficulties which the area has had to overcome in its search for acceptance and recognition in the tertiary sector. It will be argued that whilst the area of study remains relatively young in universities, the research that fuels the body of knowledge means that as a subject, it is gaining credibility and maturity. The evolution of the body of knowledge, coupled with this drive for maturity have been instrumental in helping to establish standards of operation as well as parameters of study. The concept of professionalism as applied to the industry will be investigated, as will the roles of industry and hospitality and tourism educators in shaping the direction of the area. An introductory exploration of some of the curriculum issues confronting the area will also be undertaken.

In Chapter Four the international literature on tourism and hospitality management education will be surveyed, identifying the main forces, assessing their influence on program developments and directions, and examining the resulting principles underpinning the fundamental issues of tourism and hospitality management education throughout the developed world. A relationship with the position of general management education, and the clientele for tourism and hospitality management programs will be identified and discussed, as will current selection

procedures utilised for tertiary tourism and hospitality courses. Finally, the influence and role of industry professionals in hospitality management education will be discussed in light of the role and purpose of advisory boards with respect to industry needs and educational outcomes.

In Chapter Five the more important curriculum issues identified in the previous chapter will be explored. It will be argued that industry leaders have often voiced their displeasure with educational program, describing them as too theoretical in nature and concept and having lost touch with the more general and practical managerial demands of the workplace. It will be noted that the nature of hospitality management courses has changed over time, and evolved from a strong focus on practical operations to one of strategic thinking and planning, and some of the conflicts associated with the staffing of such programs will be presented.

In Chapter Six the focus will be on the issues confronting graduate tourism and hospitality education and training. A strong parallel will be drawn between those issues and those found in both the undergraduate and vocational areas. Difficulties associated with the establishment of graduate programs in tourism and hospitality management education and training will be identified, and it will be postulated that graduate educators are called to anticipate the needs of practising professionals rather than focus on present industry requirements. The issues of staffing, resourcing, and research in graduate education will be explored, as will the issues and challenges facing tourism and hospitality educators in the future. Finally, a general model for graduate studies in tourism and hospitality will be proposed.

The research questions and hypotheses derived from the extensive literature review of the area will be outlined in Chapter Seven. Altogether eight hypotheses will be outlined. It will be proposed that future growth and development in tourism and hospitality management education in Australia is best positioned at the graduate level for the benefit of all stakeholders. It will also be contended that graduate level education offers the best opportunity to meet both the industry's management needs and equip students with the knowledge and skills required to build successful careers.

In Chapter Eight, the methodology and data collection instruments will be presented. The target population, survey sample, questionnaire design and pilot study will be addressed. The hypotheses developed in Chapter Seven will be tied to the methodology and to the design of the instruments.

Results from the data collection will be analysed in Chapter Nine. The purpose and structure of the data collection instrument will be reviewed and the overall rate of return discussed. The strategies for data analysis will be outlined in term of their appropriateness and limitations. Results will be summarised and discussed.

The main aim of Chapter Ten will be to discuss the implications of the empirical research in the context of the hypotheses outlined in Chapter Seven. The results will be interpreted, leading to the acceptance or rejection of each individual hypothesis. The implications on the over-riding objective of the thesis will be outlined.

Finally, a summary of the main points discussed in the thesis and concluding remarks will be the focus of Chapter Eleven.

Chapter 2

Tourism and Hospitality Industry Economics and the Function of Labour Markets

2.1 Introduction

This chapter presents arguments on the tourism and hospitality industry, which are relevant and pertinent to a national economic and employment position. Firstly, economic forces acting on and influencing the industry are outlined, an increase in visitor numbers to Australia is noted, as is the rise of domestic travel. Secondly, it will be argued that although the industry provides employment for an increasing percentage of the population, it is generally viewed and accepted as a low skill industry. This “low skill” position is challenged in terms of the types, nature, and complexity of businesses which make up the industry. The importance and relevance of human resource issues and their direct influence and impact on productivity and profitability in the tourism and hospitality industry is linked to the nature and vitality of labour markets in Australia. A link will then be established between training and education and greater work opportunities, with an important distinction being made between “training” and “education” per se¹.

Employers and employees’ attitudes to training and education are, in turn, explored in the context of the theory of skills development. It will be argued that the cost and value of training and education should be equally shared by employees, employers, and the broader community, as all three groups benefit from a better educated and

¹ However, it is not intended in this chapter to distinguish between “education” and “training” and debate the issues at length. The issue is raised, and it is recognised that both “education” and “training” are modes to enhance levels of productivity as well as provide avenues to greater job opportunities and rewards.

higher skilled labour force. A link between training, education, employee turnover, and economic output is established. It will also be argued that failure to provide adequate training and education actually costs the industry in terms of productivity, efficiency and profitability.

2.2 The Tourism and Hospitality Industry in Australia

Tourism and hospitality is a major growth industry in Australia, predicted to continue to expand rapidly beyond the year 2000². It is an industry recognised for creating economic and employment opportunities throughout Australia and its neighbouring region. As for most western nations, the Australian tourism and hospitality industry is a significant and distinctive economic force. It is both capital and labour intensive, and also a fragmented industry where the ownership of the assets deployed often does not belong to those who are managing them³. Indeed, there were more than 950,000 people employed by the tourism and hospitality industry in Australia in 1998. This number is expected to grow to more than 1.2 million by the year 2000⁴.

Mass tourism to and within Australia is a recent phenomenon that emerged largely over the past 50 years. Since World War II tourism in Australia has continued to grow. By the mid 1980s, the rate of expansion of the Australian tourism industry was

2 The tourism sector of the industry deals mainly with travel, both local and overseas, and includes travel agencies, tourist information offices, tour wholesalers, attractions, meetings and conventions and tour guiding. The hospitality sector of the industry provides food and beverage and accommodation to both visitors and local residents. It includes hotels, motels, resorts, restaurants, clubs and casinos. The "tourism" label encountered in the literature often comprises both tourism and hospitality activities.

3 Real estate investment trusts (REITs), insurance companies, pension funds and international business venturists have invested considerable capital to acquire assets in the industry, and have employed specialised tourism and hospitality companies to manage them.

4 Ted Wright, Chairman Tourism Training Australia, Australian Tourism and Hospitality, Vol.3, No.3, p.17.

so rapid that the Organisation for Economic Development and Co-operation (OECD) identified Australia as the world's fastest growing tourism destination (Report of the Australian Government Inquiry into Tourism, 1986).

Table 2.1 shows the World Tourism Organisation (WTO) estimates of regional market shares of total international tourist arrivals, and changes in market shares for six WTO geographic regions for the period 1980 to 1994. The data presented in the table clearly indicate that the East-Asia Pacific region – which includes Australia and its neighbours – had the greatest increase in market share over the period 1980-94. Although East Asia-Pacific accounted for a relatively small share of total international tourist arrivals in 1994, that share had grown significantly from 1980, doubling from 7 to 14 per cent in the period. Part of the growth in tourism in the East Asia-Pacific region during this period was due to increases in average incomes – both in Asia and in other countries.

Table 2.1: Regional Market Shares of Total International Tourist Arrivals and Changes in Market Share, 1980-1994

Region	Change in market share 1980 – 1994 (%)	Market Share 1980 (%)	Market share 1994 (%)
Middle East	-0.56	2.11	1.55
Europe	-5.32	65.56	60.24
South Asia ^a	-0.11	0.80	0.70
Americas	-1.54	21.58	20.04
Africa	0.86	2.58	3.44
East Asia-Pacific ^b	6.66	7.37	14.03

a South Asia includes the sub-regions Afghanistan, Bangladesh, India, Iran, Maldives, Myanmar, Nepal, Pakistan and Sri Lanka.

b East Asia-Pacific includes the sub-regions North-eastern Asia, South-eastern Asia, Australasia, Melanesia, Micronesia and Polynesia.

Source: WTO, 1995, p.8.

Over the past eleven years the number of overseas visitors to Australia has increased from 1 million in 1984, to 3.7 million in 1995, an average rate growth of 13 per cent

per year. This rate of growth is considerably higher than worldwide growth in total overseas visitors (WTO, 1995).

In the past, most visitors have been from three markets – Europe, North America, and New Zealand. In 1984, visitors from these areas together represented 69 per cent of overseas visitors. However, by 1995, that figure had dropped to 44 per cent. Numbers from Asia have shown the most rapid increase, and because Australia is situated relatively close to Asia, a region which during that period experienced high economic growth, the WTO (1994) forecasted scope for a continuing high rate of growth of inbound tourism from that region. In April 1995, the Tourism Forecasting Council (TFC) forecasted that the number of overseas visitors would increase to 6.3 million by the year 2000, and to 7.6 million by 2003 (TFC, 1995a, p.6)⁵.

The TFC also predicted that domestic travel would benefit from an improving Australian economy during the late 1990s. However, although the expected growth in domestic tourism was significantly less than that of foreign tourism, the overall growth was forecasted to have a significant impact on the Australian economy.

⁵ The Tourism Forecasting Council is responsible for official forecasts of tourism in Australia. It was established in June 1993 to improve the quality and dissemination of tourism forecasts for the industry at the national level and in key tourism regions. The Council's membership ensures that the interest of the tourism, finance industries and institutional investors are addressed. Membership of the council include:

- A representative of the Tourism Task Force;
- The National President of the Australian Hotels Association;
- The Head of the Tourism Division, Department of Tourism;
- The Director of the Bureau of Tourism Research;
- The Managing Director of the Australian Tourist Commission;
- The Chairman of the Tourism Council Australia;
- The Executive Director of the Life Insurance Federation of Australia;
- The Chief Executive Officer of the Building Owners and Managers Association;
- The Chairman of the Australian Standing Committee on Tourism;
- A representative of the Australian Council of Trade Unions; and
- A representative of the Australian Bankers' Association.

Increased tourism spending affects the whole economy as suppliers of services in the industry such as, say, accommodation and meals, seek inputs from suppliers of materials, power and other inputs. In particular, increased tourism activity would result in an increased economy-wide and tourism industry specific demand for labour.

2.3 Changing Employment Profile in the Tourism and Hospitality Sector

The tourism and hospitality industry is recognised as being economically important both nationally and internationally. From an international perspective, tourism is acknowledged as the world's largest industry (WTTC, 1995). The hospitality industry, whilst being a sub-sector of the tourism industry, is of central importance to the continued success and development of this industry and its wider importance as a major contributor to economic growth (Go and Pine, 1995).

Nationally, the tourism sector continues to increase its importance as a major contributor to Australia's wealth. International visitors to Australia contributed some \$16 billion to the balance of payments in 1996, a figure forecast by the Tourism Forecasting Council to more than double over the next ten years. Also important is domestic tourism, generating almost 252 million room nights in 1995 and forecast to increase steadily to almost 300 million room nights by the year 2005 (Tourism Forecasting Council, 1997).

The tourism industry is equally important with regards to the number of people it employs. Internationally, the industry is forecast to provide employment for an increasing proportion of the working population (WTTC, 1995). Indeed, Callan (1997) suggested that the international hospitality industry could look forward to sustained growth in employment both in the medium and long-term future.

It has been estimated that the demand for qualified management staff in this industry will outstrip supply (Purcell and Quinn, 1995). The gap between demand and supply has led to an increase in the number of higher education institutions offering tourism and hospitality management programs both in Australia and overseas (Craig-Smith, 1997; Ineson and Kempa, 1997). However, this situation is a contentious one. Opinions vary both in the industry and in the broader community as to the need for management education in tourism and hospitality.

There is a general acceptance in the wider community that the industry is one of low skills and, as a result, management education programs associated with the industry are equally conceptually low skilled. The notion that the industry is one of low skills is, in part, culturally specific to those environments which share the dominant ideology and cultural assumptions of much of the international hospitality industry (Baum, 1996b). In the hospitality and tourism management education context, the acceptance of low skills (culturally bound or otherwise) leads to the assumption that there are clear generalisations which can be applied, once students have internalised basic management concepts.

However, the tourism and hospitality management sector defies generalisation in almost every aspect of its operation (Baum & Nickson, 1998). The sector is characterised by diversity in terms of the types and nature of businesses, which collectively comprise tourism and hospitality activities, frequently operate in isolation of each other, which denies unity of purpose or, indeed, recognition that they are part of a common industry or sector.

Business size is also very varied, ranging from the independent operators, the small franchise operator, to the national and international chains. Market diversity is also an important characteristic of tourism and hospitality, as is the definition of segment-driven product standards. Moreover, whilst each customer is individual in terms of needs, the same customer may have different demands in different contexts. A further dimension of diversity is represented by the multicultural nature of the sector in terms of its markets, employees, management and ownership structures (Baum, 1996a).

Thus, the very complexity of this environment, which offers the potential for uniqueness in all its interactions, is cause for caution when applying generalisation principles to the tourism and hospitality industry. Indeed, it can be argued that the tourism and hospitality industry represents a very diversified context, requiring high level management skills across many of its activities.

Baum (1990b) argued that human resource issues within the tourism and hospitality industry have increasingly come to prominence as major factors influencing both the profitability and the activities of enterprises of all sizes, and within all major sectors.

The hotel sector, for instance, in a large number of tourism destination countries is faced with a chronic shortage of high calibre management recruits, and therefore, the link between college education and industry requirements is critically important. Tas (1988) argued that in an environment of increasing complexity, it was important for graduates of university programs in hotel and restaurant management to be able to function effectively as management trainees. He further contended that recruitment would be substantially more successful if the would-be managers had attained competency in the specific area that was to make for an effective manager.

2.3.1 Labour Markets

Tourism and hospitality labour markets are not fundamentally different from other labour markets. But, labour markets have different characteristics from commodity markets. Unlike other factors of production, labour or the services of labour cannot be separated from the individual employee. Thus, the effectiveness of the individual worker is determined by a complex array of human interactions, motivations and responses by employees and employers. In contrast to machines, the productivity of workers usually rises with use (that is, experience) rather than depreciates, as workers learn many of their skills on the job. Employers need to recruit, train and motivate their workforce, choosing among a pool of employees, none of whom is exactly the same as another. These factors affect the way in which labour markets operate and influence the description and assessment of specific labour market efficiency and productivity issues. Riley (1991) suggested that for employers, the effective size of the labour market depended on:

... the degree of specialisation of the organisation. If the skills required are very specific to the organisation, then there is a choice between fishing in a

small pond or doing a lot of training. If the skills are generally held in the wider population, the market will be larger and it is a case of trawling with a large net (Riley, 1991, p.8).

Each worker, then, is a unique combination of innate ability and personality, plus the specific skills acquired through education, training and experience.

2.3.2 Demand for a Revitalised Labour Work Force

One of the reasons for the growing interest in the tourism industry is its employment generating potential. Table 2.2 shows the employment growth in the major sectors of the industry over the period 1986 -1995. It can be seen that during that period total employment, in all tourism and enabling industries, increased by 23.5 per cent, compared with the all-industry average of just 17.9 per cent.

However, although employment in tourism and hospitality grew faster than the economy average during that period, the characteristics of this employment were significantly different from employment in Australia as a whole. That is, when compared to the all-industry average the tourism and hospitality industry had relatively lower average weekly earnings, a high proportion of young and female employees and a high proportion of part-time employment. In addition, the industry experienced high levels of labour mobility, as well as low levels of unionisation (Tourism Accommodation and Training, 1996).

Table 2.2: Employment Growth by Sector, 1986 - 1995

	Females			Males			All Empl oyees (%)
	Full- time (%)	Part- time (%)	All (%)	Full- time (%)	Part- time (%)	All (%)	
Hotels & catering	15.2	33.8	26.0	15.1	67.5	27.7	26.8
Tourism & leisure	22.5	56.8	37.6	20.2	45.8	24.3	30.8
Travel & passenger transport	51.8	17.3	42.0	-5.0	67.6	-1.3	6.8
All tourism-related & Enabling industries	22.3	38.3	30.6	8.9	62.2	17.5	23.5
All industries	19.1	46.1	29.3	5.6	76.5	10.5	17.9

Source: Tourism, Accommodation and Training, 1996, p.250, quoting ABS unpublished data.

It can be argued that low paid part-time and casual jobs, high labour mobility and low unionism suggest a workforce with poor job security, careers prospects, and bargaining position. However, it can equally be argued that workers are paid market-determined wages, and that flexible working times fit well with the lifestyle choices of the workforce.

The industry is characterised by high levels of casual and part-time employment, low levels of formal education and training, and high levels of staff turnover, none of which provide incentives for investment in workforce skills, or are conducive to workforce loyalty, commitment and service quality.

2.3.3 Government, Education and Training Links

Over the last ten years, seven major reports have influenced the way in which the nation has addressed its education and training needs. In turn, these have had specific implications for tourism and hospitality education.

The first of these, and arguably the catalyst, was the Dawkins Report (1988)⁶. This Report looked at the necessity for Australia to examine the needs for comprehensive skills training across the educational spectrum. One major outcome of this report was the upgrading of the Colleges of Advanced Education (CAE) to University status.

Second, the Deveson Report (1990) addressed the issues of change in secondary schools. The education emphasis was to increase school leaver opportunities for admission to courses in the Tertiary and Further Education sector. Third, the Finn Report (1991) focused on the needs of post-compulsory education, and proposed that by the Year 2001, 95% of 19 year olds would have Year 12 or an initial post-school qualification. Fourth, the Mayer Report (1992) looked at the issue of pathways in education from high school to TAFE, and to university. This has had major implications for articulation between these levels. Fifth, the Carmichael Report (1993) advocated that the Australian Vocational Certificate be based on skills and competencies rather than on completion of specific courses.

Sixth, the Karpin Report (1995) focused on leadership and management skills. It advocated that Australian management had to improve significantly in the next

⁶ The Dawkins report is discussed in more detail in Appendix 3.

decade to meet world best practice standards. Karpin argued that the majority of Australia's managers did not have the education or skills levels of those of the major trading nations, nor were Australia's educational and training institutions providing world class services. Among other things, Karpin recommended that state-of-the-art management and leadership educational curricula be developed and disseminated to management education providers and other interested parties.

Finally, and more recently, the West Report (1998) focusing on a review of higher education financing and policy issues, and the effectiveness of the sector in meeting Australia's social, economic, scientific, and cultural needs, and the developments which were likely to shape the provision of higher education in the next two decades. West argued that for Australia's higher education system to make a significant contribution to Australian society and to operate at an internationally competitive level, three key changes were necessary. First, that public funding for tuition should be driven by students' choices, at both the undergraduate and postgraduate levels. Second, that priorities should be established for allocation of research funds. Third, that Australia should develop a world-class higher education industry.

2.4 The Training Link: Education Equates to Greater Work Opportunities

The training of staff is a fundamental function of organisations: it is part of a system of human resource management practices designed to achieve maximum potential and performance from employees. According to research into internal labour markets (Doeringer & Piore, 1971; Rubery, 1994) training is argued to be part of the structure of an internal labour market, a structure held to benefit employers and employees in terms of reduced labour turnover, career opportunities and job security.

There appear to be two key issues that influence the level of demand for education and training by tourism and hospitality employees and potential employees in Australia and overseas. The first is associated with employment prospects, and the second is the institutional arrangements that govern career advancement in the tourism and hospitality industry.

Employees are likely to undertake education and training to gain knowledge and skills which they anticipate will be useful in gaining future employment through greater opportunities, and which will eventually return them a higher wage and a more rewarding position. In this way they can distinguish themselves from those who have not undertaken formal education and training. By completing a course employees also demonstrate their capacity to learn and to apply themselves to a task. These attributes are perceived to be attractive to employers.

Moreover, both training and education are perceived in the community as being inherently good, with more being better than less. A high standard of living normally

requires a highly skilled workforce in conjunction with clever management and quality capital equipment. This is true of industries and firms as well as nations. Thus, such factors as a growing level of sophistication in industry, greater levels of investment, intensity of competition, a more complex environment, higher levels of service standards, the way in which workers acquire their skills, and the level and type of those skills, are matters of great importance and therefore worthy of in-depth study.

2.4.1 Management Training, Education, and Skills Development

In discussing management training and education necessary for skills development, there is a need to distinguish management “training” from “education”. A useful distinction is that training refers to the process of developing vocational skills, whereas education refers to developing generic knowledge, understanding, and problem solving skills and general intellectual capacity.

In Australia, most of what is covered in the school system can be thought of as education but with some subjects having a deliberate vocational orientation. In the post-secondary school education environment, that is the Technical and Further Education (TAFE) colleges, private providers and universities, there are both educational programs and vocational programs. Much of TAFE learning can be viewed as having a vocational orientation, while only some university degrees tend toward the vocational end of the continuum⁷.

⁷ See Appendix 3 for more details.

Nevertheless, both management training and education are of particular economic interest because of their strong link with productivity – of the individual, the enterprise, and the nation.

2.4.2 Costing Management Training and Education in Tourism and Hospitality

In order to discuss and understand training and education in tourism and hospitality, it is useful to consider their nature and any theoretical perspective that might help to explain the training and education attitudes and decisions of employers and employees more generally. As a general rule of thumb, we can accept that both training and education should lead to greater skills development which will be beneficial not only to the individual undertaking it, but to employers and society in general. In other words, training and education will contribute positively to a nation's wealth and competitive ability.

Indeed, economic theory associated with skills development suggests that the process of gaining skills can be treated as an investment decision which produces a return to employers and employees in the form of higher productivity and higher wages respectively. The theory has evolved in response to the observed relationship between employee productivity, wages and the level of training and education. This relationship was commented on as early as 1776 by Adam Smith:

It is reasonable, therefore that in Europe the wages of mechanics, artificers, and manufacturers, should be somewhat higher than those of common labourers. ... Their employment, indeed, is more steady and uniform, and the superiority of their earnings, taking the whole year together, may be somewhat

greater. It seems evidently, however, to be no greater than what is sufficient to compensate the superior expense of their education (Smith, 1776, p.91).

Thus, a theory of skills development can provide a useful framework within which to develop a generalised explanation of training and education incentives, provisions and responses. However, it must be stressed that a critical assumption of the theory is that worker productivity is related to worker training and is accurately reflected in an employee's wage.

Skills development theory also uses a rate of return analysis, where the benefits of education and training to the individual and society are compared to the costs of attaining that level of education or training.

From a broad perspective, it appears that the best combination of training and education will occur when two criteria are met. First, an employee's wage reflects their value to the enterprise and provides an appropriate return for the cost associated with their education or training. Second, each person gets all the education and training up to the point where the expected rate of return on the investment is equal to or in excess of the required rate of return on investment.

However, there are many reasons why the actual type and quantity of training and education that occurs is not always what is required. For instance, over-supply and shortages of specifically skilled people can be an indication of an inappropriate mix

of training and education. Often, also, the type of training will influence where the costs and benefits accrue⁸.

A highly and appropriately skilled workforce can facilitate improvements in the competitive position of firms, in both domestic and overseas markets. As such, the benefits of training can accrue to the individual, the firm, and society as a whole. Notwithstanding that employers pay some of the costs of training and education, a great deal of vocational training is also publicly funded.

The cost of training and education borne by society is also measured by the level of support provided by the public to training institutions, and the way the training supplied is subsequently used. Thus, it is possible that a person who has undertaken training in a specific field is not subsequently employed in that field. There is a potential cost to society in this instance if the skills gained during training are not found to be useful once in the workforce.

⁸ Psacharopoulos (1985) presented information on rates of return to education both by level and type of education, and by country:

- primary schooling is found to have the highest rate of return for the different levels of education. The rate of return declines for secondary education and declines further for post-secondary education;
- there is a general pattern of returns to education being higher in developing countries and declining as countries become more industrially advanced;
- returns to educating women are higher than the returns to educating men; and,
- returns to general education are greater than the returns to more technical or vocational education.

Psacharopoulos reported that the average return to general secondary school curricula is 16 per cent, compared to 12 per cent for vocational secondary school curricula. A similar pattern was found for university education.

2.4.3 The Value of Training

An alternative theory to the notion that education and training improve productivity, is the theory that it merely helps the employer identify more productive workers.

Hence, employees may perceive training and education as a way to signalling to future employers that they are interested in a particular industry or type of work and in learning new skills. Such a theory implies that the content of training and education is not important to this argument. As Freeman (1985) explained:

Assume that education does not increase productivity but that persons who are innately more productive than others have a comparative advantage in obtaining education. Then, all else the same, firms can use education as a means for sorting out more/less productive workers, and workers will have an incentive to get educated to signal employers that they are more able. ...[It has been shown that] this process can lead to an equilibrium in which education sorts out workers by ability but where increases in the mean level of education have no productive value (Freeman, 1985, p.359).

Employees, then, need to evaluate the advantage gained from undertaking training or education, which may then be used as a signal to gain higher wages against the costs arising from undertaking the additional training or education.

In a similar way employers may use training and education as a method of screening prospective employees. Some of the positive perceptions associated with a person who has completed additional training or education are that he/she is a more productive and capable person. In addition, by successfully completing a course of study, they have displayed characteristics desirable in a workplace, such as dedication, application to a task and the ability to learn.

However, if the only use of training or education is as a signal, then a significant cost is imposed on society. This situation is referred to as “credentialism”. The Department of Employment, Education and Training (DEET) noted some of the problems associated with credentialism:

... it is important to ensure that the increase in the skill base represents a genuine improvement in the productivity of the workforce and is not simply feeding growing credentialism. An increase in the skill base in response to the latter would result in a costly over-investment in public resources in education and training systems (DEET, 1991, p.73).

Put simply, credentialism is a form of waste. However, DEET (1991) also noted that it is difficult to differentiate between “skills deepening” and “credentialism”.

2.4.4 Advantages and Disadvantages of Training and Education

There are decided advantages that accrue to people undertaking pre-employment training and education. As a group, people with a formal qualification experience lower rates of unemployment, shorter periods out of the workforce and higher rates of pay. In addition, people with formal qualifications tend to undertake more training than people without formal qualifications (Tourism Accommodation and Training, 1996).

Typical costs to people undertaking full-time and part time training and education would include: income given up for the period of training; direct costs associated with undertaking a course; loss of leisure time and/or productive work done at home. People undertaking further training and education are trading-off these costs against future and uncertain benefits.

Increased productivity is likely to be the primary benefit of training and education for employers, as they expect to experience greater returns from employees who have completed enterprise-specific training and education. Conrade et al. (1994) argued that it was generally accepted that training improved employees' productivity, improved the work of employees, increased job satisfaction, improved employees' attitudes, attracted new employees and, finally, reduced labour turnover. However, employers will incur training costs in other ways such as: course costs; loss of productivity when employee is in training; and time lost in consultation with educators. On balance, there are potential benefits for both employees and employers.

The extent to which a firm experiences net benefits or costs associated with training and education also will be partly determined by rates of staff turnover. The benefits of a more productive workforce will only accrue over time. Consequently, a high rate of staff turnover will limit a firm's opportunities to gain the benefits of increased productivity resulting from training and education. This is a factor which probably discourages many employers from providing their support. However, it seems reasonable to argue that support for training and education by employers will encourage employees and result in increased staff loyalty and decreased rates of staff turnover.

Thus, employees often perceive training and education as a means of gaining future employment, enhancing employment security, and hopefully higher wages. Training and education are also used as a signal to the employer that the employee is capable of learning and applying knowledge from training to a task. In this way, training is

argued to be beneficial to both the employer and the employee. The perceptions of training and education undertaken by employees should therefore strongly influence the way in which managers and employees view the value of that training and education.

2.4.5 The Link between Training, Education and Employee Turnover

The link between training, education, and labour turnover has been well researched and yet the findings are somewhat inconclusive. For example, Hequet (1993) argued that highly specific training encouraged employees to stay in their jobs, while generalised or professional training allowed employees to be more “portable” and hence, leave their jobs. Conrade et al. (1994) reported that 93% of their research sample (141 people) of hotel employees indicated that training programs devoted to improving their skills, knowledge and behaviour would encourage them to stay; 63% also reported that they would be more likely to leave if they were not involved in long-term training programs.

A difficulty in determining the effect of training and education on labour turnover is that of isolating the impact of training alone on an employee’s decision to leave an organisation. Attempts to measure the impact of training on labour turnover have been clouded by extraneous factors such as downsizing of the organisation or a downturn in the economy (Hequet, 1993).

The relationship between training and employee turnover in the hotel industry presents some contradictions from conventional wisdom. The key means of training in hotels is that of on-the-job training which is firm specific. Such firm specific

training should make the employee less mobile than those employees who have undertaken general training and, as a consequence, labour turnover should be lower in those industries which promote firm specific training. This would appear not to be the case in the hotel industry, despite the fact that what is claimed to be valued by hotel employers is the time spent by employees within a specific firm and the unique knowledge about that organisation.

Perhaps an explanation of this contradiction can be found in the works of Simms et al. (1988) in their examination of internal labour markets in UK hotels. They found that hotels were examples of weak internal labour markets and, as such, were characterised by such factors (among others) as: unspecified hiring standards, low skill specificity, no on-job training, no fixed criteria for promotion and transfer, as well as weak workplace customs.

2.4.6 The Link between Training, Education and Economic Output

In discussing the role of training in the Australian tourism and hospitality industry Dowell (1995) concluded that the link between productivity and training investment is at the enterprise level, a view echoed by Robson (1995).

Lynch (1994) explored the link between tourism, promoting world class standards of delivery and the implications for training. He focused on the demand for training by bed and breakfast operators and examined the motivations of operators, their perceived training requirements and determinants of views on training. Anderson (1991) tracked the different education and training paths of hotel general managers in Scotland, and Goldsmith and Zahari (1994) discussed the problems associated with a

skills gap in Malaysian hotels. They described how the involvement of government agencies in coordinating the training effort led to the provision of legitimate forums of instruction at all levels which are now recognised by employers. This development is helping to improve quality standards and job opportunities, and it is hoped that in the longer term training will create more stability in a highly mobile work force.

While time is a critical factor in the industrial setting, failing to take the appropriate amount of time to ensure that employees are adequately trained costs the industry more in terms of employee turnover, failed customer service, and less than adequate employee performance (Harris, 1996). Thus, taking the time to ensure training success deters employee turnover, increases the satisfaction of customers, and improves employee performance (Pavesic & Brymer, 1990; Reid & Sandler, 1992). Another training failure is the lack of high quality programs which offer an initial evaluative feature of the employee's learning level, information which is geared to this learning level, and information that is accurate and meaningful (Bower & Hilgard, 1981; Farber & Berger, 1985; Goldstein & Gilliam, 1990).

Evidence suggests that training programs are often poorly managed. Management of training should be part of the mind set of the organisation and should be well-planned, executed, measured, and continually tracked (Geber, 1994). Furthermore, planned improvements and the implications for training could be integral parts of an organisation's total quality management approach.

Indeed, training and development, correctly approached, are essential ingredients in maintaining and sustaining the competitive advantage of successful companies. The

fact that training and development all too frequently fail to maximise their contribution to that outcome is an unfortunate reflection on both their status within the corporate hierarchy, and the value generally placed on them (Roberts & McDonald, 1995).

Haywood (1992) argued that training in the U.S. hospitality industry would be far more effective if it was individualised and if employees were held responsible for learning the material. Harris and Cannon (1995) and Harris et al (1995) discovered that those responsible for training in the tourism and hospitality industry had poor opinions of traditional training formats such as classroom lectures and on-the-job training. Moreover, their research found that:

- trainers believe the delivery and programs used for training should offer more high quality feedback and be more individualised, varied and innovative;
- trainers and human resource executives believe that training programs must be systematically managed using the latest technology available;
- trainers and human resource executives believe that more effort and money should be spent to investigate the cost-benefit ratio of all training programs;
- trainers believe that training, in general, must receive more financial and moral support from higher levels of management and ownership;
- trainers and training executives believe that training program development, delivery and management will continue to be a paramount issue as the work force becomes more diversified. Additionally, they

predict this development will force their companies to make training more convenient, culturally sensitive, individualised and interactive.

Tourism and hospitality educators and trainers, then, need to develop and adapt new concepts and practices to improve the overall quality, effectiveness, and efficiency of their teaching inputs. These developments must take place within an educational environment that is experiencing increasing class sizes and added pressures on resources. Moreover, the industry is becoming increasingly selective towards employing graduates who are able to think analytically and transfer concepts from one discipline to another (Graham & Stewart, 1994).

2.4.7 The Role of Management Development in a Changing Industry

As industry and organisations change, management development plays a key role in helping to ensure that people can adjust and re-equip themselves to face new situations and circumstances. Littlejohn and Watson (1990) considered the broad implications of management development whilst Jones (1990) argued that competence-based learning enabled managers to adapt more easily to changing circumstances. Other forms of provision which help to enrich the experiences of managers include cross-exposure to the work of other managers (Close and Teare, 1990), and a wide array of opportunities so that individual managers feel encouraged to take responsibility for their own learning and personal development.

Mullins and Davies (1991) questioned the notion of effectiveness as it applies to hotel management and concluded that it requires a balanced set of personal attributes, including a core set of social and human skills. Other analyses have taken a

comparative approach and investigated attitudes towards tourist boards, training and the natural environment, and revealed some of the characteristics of managerial professionalism in the UK and Portuguese hotel sectors (Evans et al., 1991).

Arguably, however, one of the key management development challenges of the 1990s relates to the acquisition and application of technological skills and in managing the principles of continuous improvement as argued by Dodwell and Simmons (1994).

Iverson (1996) studied hospitality students' interest in distance education and determined that students most likely to pursue this mode of education were those with the highest grade point average, the highest degree of external constraint, and full time employment. All students in Iverson's study were most interested in pursuing computer-mediated instruction, which emphasised the importance of more technologically sophisticated delivery modes in distance education. Thus, technological capability is one-criterion students may use when determining which tourism and hospitality program they wish to attend.

2.4.8 The Rise of Certification Programs

The interest in on-going professional development has also fuelled a rise in the number of programs, which provide either certification or professional designations for workers or managers in hospitality and tourism fields. In the U.S. alone, the number of certification programmes has grown from around two in the early 1980s (Morrison et al., 1992), to over 100 in 1994 (Hassmiller and Perdue, 1994). The reasons for such proliferation are easily understood if we consider that the advent of tourism and hospitality management courses is only very recent. Indeed, in 1992, a study showed that only 4.3 per cent of 451 corporate travel managers in the U.S. had

degrees in travel and tourism (Berning and Morrison, 1992). Similarly, Nebel et al. (1994) found that while 38.7 per cent of luxury hotel managers had hotel degrees, the rest had other academic backgrounds (Nebel et al., 1994; Nebel et al., 1995). The rapid rise in certification can be attributed to practitioner demand, either because they lack any qualification, or because they have entered the profession with a degree in another field. Since certification programs typically require much less time and cost than an additional degree in a tourism and hospitality discipline, these people often prefer such programs (Morrison et al., 1992).

However, certification remains the domain of professional associations and has relatively little influence on the nature and range of courses available in tertiary institutions. In general, the research in certification shows that associations follow similar paths, developing common program features. For example, Gilley's (1987) study revealed that associations in general administer certification programs themselves, allowing non-members to achieve certification, develop promotional public relation programs, write ethics codes, and enforce these codes in cases of violation. A study conducted by Morrison et al. (1992) found that 78.6 per cent of Certified Tour Professional (CTP) graduates reported increased recognition and respect in their industry, whilst 74.1 per cent reported more competence as a tour professional as a result of attaining CTP designation. Additionally, 34.2 per cent of the CTP graduates reported either moderately or greatly increased salaries after certification, and 5.8 per cent reported promotions as a result of CTP designation. However, certification is predominantly designed to gain more recognition in a field or an industry. In Australia, perhaps the most notable example comes from the Australian Society of Certified Practising Accountants (ASCPA), which works with

Deakin university to deliver a professional qualification program that must be completed by graduate accountants wishing to be admitted as full members⁹.

2.5 Summary

The tourism and hospitality industry is clearly important with regards to the number of people it employs as well as with respect to the contribution it makes to the national economy. Internationally, the industry is forecast to provide employment for an increasing proportion of the working population (WTTC, 1995). Indeed, Callan (1997) suggested that the international tourism and hospitality industry could look forward to sustained growth in employment both in the medium and long-term future.

It has been argued in this chapter that the tourism and hospitality industry is a major contributor in terms of national wealth creation, and as such has potentially significant economic consequences. The industry needs a steady supply of suitably qualified, motivated and committed managers to ensure its position as one of the major contributors to economic growth and to enhance its own development potential. The quality of employees, and as a consequence their level of productivity, is directly tied to the nature and quality of the training and education which they receive. It has been demonstrated in this chapter that both training and education impact on labour markets, on the level of staff turnover, on job security as well as career opportunity. It has also been shown that both training and education come at a

⁹ Also worthy of note is the Sydney-based Securities Institute which offers Graduate Certificate, Diploma and Masters courses. Those courses are developed, taught, and constantly updated by industry practitioners.

certain cost to employees, employers, and the broader community, but that this cost is justifiable in that it should result in a more productive and efficient labour force and therefore benefits to the stakeholders. The training and education of staff for the tourism and hospitality industry is also an important aspect of assuring service quality within the industry. Indeed, Ross (1997) argued that education was a major ongoing issue for all hotels because of its importance in the provision of high quality service. The need to meet the perceived training and education requirements of this growing industry has seen the growth of tertiary and vocational sector courses as well as a renewed interest in certification programs.

Implicit to the arguments presented in this chapter is the notion that the industry must continually improve its image of working conditions and alter its wage structure if it is to compete in the marketplace for graduates. Such changes would broaden its appeal to include a larger segment of the labour force.

Overall, this chapter has outlined the important links which exist between a productive tourism and hospitality industry, a strong economy, and an effective and efficient training and education sector. Thus, as tourism and hospitality strive to become viable sectors of the economy, the industry must work with educators and governments to ensure that the educational sector is providing the right kind of training for staff development. It must support professional training within individual businesses while at the same time encouraging employees who wish to upgrade their skills through the educational processes available at learning institutions.

The worldwide trend in the tourism and hospitality industry points to an increasing

failure to both recruit and retain sufficient numbers of tourism and hospitality management graduates (Leslie, 1991). One of the assumptions made in the next chapter of this thesis is that future managers for the tourism and hospitality industry will be the products of tourism and hospitality management courses. Thus, it is postulated that how well these courses respond to and cope with demand and change, will also have an indirect effect on national wealth and economic growth.

Chapter 3

An Analysis of Tourism and Hospitality Management Education

3.1 Introduction

This chapter investigates the rise and growth of tourism and hospitality management education and training overseas and in Australia from its difficult beginnings in the 1970s, to its current more healthy and accepted state in the 1990s¹. It will be argued that the growth of the area is more likely to have resulted more from a student demand factor than from resultant pressure from industry, academic or government bodies.

The concept of tourism and hospitality management as a profession is further explored. It will be argued in this chapter that the perception of the industry being one of low skills (as discussed in the previous chapter) can be linked to a community's general understanding of professionalism. The important issues underlying what the industry requires from tourism and hospitality management education will be outlined, as will the industry's perceptions of management and leadership skills and competencies required to succeed. Finally, faculty placements and demands for tourism and hospitality management courses will be reviewed in

¹ It should be stressed once again that the term tourism often embraces hospitality.

light of the changing forces acting on the area, and their impact on course direction and success.

3.2 The Origins of Tourism and Hospitality Education

There is a wealth of literature providing comment on tourism and hospitality education over the last decade². Many of these commentaries provide a detailed analysis of the development of tourism and hospitality education. However, Airey (1995) noted that it was difficult to establish exactly when tourism and hospitality education really began (in the UK). For instance, he argued that it could be as early as 1900 when courses for chefs and waiters were introduced, or in the 1950s when the training of travel agency staff emerged. Ladkin (1999) pointed out that tourism studies could be thought of as having originated in the mid. 1960's when the subject began to be studied separately from hotel management courses. Alternatively, it could also be argued that a number of other disciplines (economics, geography, sociology, history, education, business) have always contained a tourism and hospitality component, and it was from these subjects that tourism and hospitality emerged as an academic discipline.

From these conflicting views, Cooper, Shepherd and Westlake (1994) discerned three ways in which the study of tourism has developed as an academic subject. First, vocational courses for the travel trade have been developed and have had a strong influence on the direction of tourism education and training. Second, tourism courses

² For example, Airey, (1988, 1995, 1997); Bratton, Go, and Ritchie, (1991); Bushby, (1994); CNAA (1993); Cooper, Scales and Westlake, (1992); Cooper, Shepherd and Westlake, (1994); Gamble, (1992); Go, (1994); Holloway, (1995); Jafari and Ritchie, (1981); Ritchie, (1992); Ryan, (1995); and the WTO (1987).

have developed as a means of enriching business studies courses by giving them a vocational orientation; and third, that tourism has developed from the traditional disciplines such as geography, sociology, and economics that have provided optional specialism. According to Cooper Shepherd and Westlake, (1994) these three influences have given rise to the three main approaches to tourism and hospitality. These are purely vocational courses where the student is trained for a specific profession in the industry; courses which view tourism as an activity worthy of study in its own right; and those courses that use tourism as a means to enrich traditional disciplines

However, irrespective of the origins of tourism and hospitality education, there has been a rapid expansion of tourism and hospitality education courses in the last decade. Whilst the discipline of tourism and hospitality may not be comparable to the traditional scientific disciplines found in universities, it has become a subject area worthy of academic study (Airey, 1995). Moreover, it has gained greater relevance and acceptance in the tertiary sector as demand for courses with closer ties to the world of work than the more academic disciplines has increased, and as the area of study has evolved and matured around an organised and substantial body of knowledge worthy of critical analysis and rigorous examination.

3.3 The rise of Tourism and Hospitality Management Education and Training in Australia

As a result of the increased recognition in government circles of the economic importance of tourism, the profile of tourism and hospitality management education

in the 1990s has been elevated (Cooper, Shepherd, Westlake, 1994), and it is becoming recognised and prioritised by governments and educational institutions alike (Ritchie, 1995). In Europe and North America, at least, the industry is aware that efforts to provide training for front line staff and supervisors must be balanced by education programs for present and future managers. While this area of study remains relatively young in universities, the research that fuels the body of knowledge means that as a subject it is gaining credibility and maturity. The evolution of the body of knowledge, coupled with this drive for maturity, have been instrumental in helping to establish standards of operation as well as parameters of study.

The study of tourism is relatively new, as is its widespread recognition as a vital and growing industry. While it constitutes a domain of study, at the moment it still lacks the level of theoretical underpinning which would allow it to become a discipline (Cooper et al., 1993). Moreover, there is still scepticism as to whether tourism can be seen as an industry in its own right, rather than an area of economic activity linking sectors through the common objectives of its consumers. Indeed, tourism is essentially a demand force, not an industry (Lickorish, 1991) or, as Edgell (1990) argued, there is no industry in the economy linked to so many diverse and different kinds of products and services.

This gives rise to the problem of a weak operating framework for the sector (Dieke, 1993), with responsibilities being shared across many private and state owned organisations, and with little ownership and coordination recognition (Baum, 1994).

Furthermore, tourism is often not recognised by governments and universities as an important, legitimate field of study which merits the level of funding accorded to other professional schools and faculties (Jafari & Ritchie, 1981).

3.3.1 Difficult Beginnings

In the early 1980s, the technical education sector was just coming to terms with the expansion of tourism and hospitality jobs that was fuelled principally by the emerging boom in international tourist arrivals to Australia (Hobson, 1995).

Prior to 1980, tourism education and tourism research were developing largely independent of each other (Jafari and Ritchie, 1981). Internationally, and certainly in Australian universities, important developments in multi-disciplinary education for tourism and hospitality occurred during the 1980s and early 1990s. However, these developments in Australian higher education occurred in the face of strong criticism and continued attack on the discipline of tourism and hospitality management. For instance, in addressing the theme “Training Our Leaders: The University and Society”, Green (1987) labelled Tourism and Hospitality as a “non-subject” when she explained that:

In our day, knowledge has become a chaos, in which courses in non-subjects like Human Relationships or Tourism and Hospitality are considered satisfactory substitutes for a systematic study of literature (Green, 1987, p.20).

Ryckmans (1996) also ridiculed the rise of tourism and hospitality management courses in universities, suggesting that Australia would soon see such things as “Universities of Catering”. West (1998) described tourism and hospitality

management courses as “glorified TAFE courses”, suitable for job training but inappropriate for universities, which were, he said, places for education and creative thinking³. Perhaps such criticism helps to explain the perceived drive and preference by academic staff attached to tourism and hospitality departments for a management/academic/research orientation in tourism and hospitality programs. This preference may be an attempt by staff to avoid vocational labels driven by such external criticism, but also fuelled by internal pressures related to career prospects and prestige in a university.

However, despite such strong and vocal opposition, by the mid. 1990s Australia had developed a very effective technical tourism and hospitality education system that was largely the result of significant cooperation between government, industry (employers and employees) and educators (Davidson, 1997). Whilst there was still some criticism by industry that tourism and hospitality education was not producing all the trained employees required, there was a recognition that both the private providers and the Technical and Further Education (TAFE) sector were reacting quickly to match industry’s needs for trained employees. In Australia, the identification of these needs in the early 1990s was coordinated through Tourism Training Australia (TTA) and its state affiliates who fed the information through the Australian National Training Authority (ANTA, 1995)⁴.

3 In his capacity as Chair of the review into higher education in Australia for the Commonwealth Government.

4 The roles and responsibilities of government bodies are detailed in Appendix 3.

During that time the higher education sector in Australia also sought to keep pace with the changes that were occurring in tourism and hospitality. Initially, Australia only had two institutions offering higher-level tourism and hospitality education courses in the mid.1970s. By the mid.1990s the number had grown beyond twenty⁵. However, it is significant to note that the largest involvement remained at the undergraduate level, and that the anticipated growth at postgraduate level had not materialised by year-end 1998 (Craig-Smith, Davidson, and French, 1994).

Despite this growth in both institutional interest and program development for tourism and hospitality management in Australian higher education, the prevalent attitude remained that it was better suited to the technical sector (Armitage, 1997). Indeed, tourism and hospitality management was seen as a hybrid, lacking the empirical or methodological base of established disciplines, and therefore, could not lay claim to a discrete set of principles or assumptions.

These perceptions of tourism and hospitality management education being technically and vocationally biased were reinforced by some of the arrangements which existed (and still exist) in the delivery of tourism and hospitality management programs. Arrangements such as: articulation agreements; credit transfers; and joint programs between universities, TAFE colleges, and private sector educational providers. As Armitage (1997) argued, such cooperation reinforces in some academic traditionalist's minds the rationale for only considering tourism and hospitality education at the technical level.

⁵ By 1998 the number of courses had risen in excess of forty, with some institutions offering more than one course. See Appendices 1&2 for further details.

Compounding this linkage with the technical and vocational sector is the acute shortage of academically qualified staff for university teaching, especially when the criteria of a doctorate is applied (Zabel, 1992). The lack of appropriately qualified staff (with doctorates) in Australia reinforces the perception that there must be something wrong with the discipline, rather than accepting this as a normal process in any developing area (Davidson, 1997)⁶.

Another reason identified by Davidson (1997) was that of industry ambivalence in general to higher education of a specialist nature. This is evidenced by the lack of standing given to graduates in the job market. The number of hotel companies operating in Australia which actually have formal recruitment programs is extremely small⁷. The initial resistance to placing emphasis upon university graduate recruitment has come from those industry managers who hold the view that, in order to be able to manage, a person must have worked their way up through all the ranks. This attitude is understandable because many of the current managers have themselves not received the benefit of formal higher education.

3.3.2 The Growth of Tourism and Hospitality Education in Australia: a Conflict of Interests

The impetus to expand the number of tourism and hospitality management degree places in Australia appears to have been driven more by the demand for degree level

⁶ The issue of staff qualifications is explored in greater depth in Chapter 5, together with issues directly pertinent to the curriculum.

⁷ Hyatt and Southern Pacific Hotel company are two exceptions. Interestingly, both now have the same owners.

education from students rather than demand from industry, pressure from government, or indeed the academic development of this area. Lawson (1975), in discussing tourism and higher education in Western Europe, found that the industry appeared to lack the capability of selling the fact that it can absorb huge numbers of specialists annually into a lifetime career. Consequently, degree holders rely on attaining sufficient academic fibre and flexibility so as to offer their services outside the tourism and hospitality industry, if required to do so.

Thus, although the industry claims to want trained employees, it remains sceptical of tourism and hospitality management graduates. Australia is not alone in this position, as Shepherd and Cooper (1995) pointed out when describing the U.K. situation:

... there is distrust and a lack of understanding of the new range of tourism courses among large sections of the tourism industry ... educators are faced with a dilemma: should they develop a curriculum which attempts to meet the needs of the industry as a whole and perhaps fail to meet the needs of any sector or should they concentrate on presenting a course which meets the specialised needs of one sector, inevitably reducing student demand for the program and the likely employment opportunities of graduates? (Shepherd and Cooper, 1995, p.15).

Earlier, in discussing how tourism and hospitality managers learn, Stevens (1985) had noted that three steps were necessary to improve the relevance of educational instruction in tourism and hospitality management:

- large firms, the industry associations, and major universities (including technical colleges) with related programs, needed to become proficient

learning facilitators so that they could respond adequately to the androgical needs of entry-level and middle management personnel;

- hospitality businesses, especially the smaller ones, needed both to support the associations and the universities and technical colleges, and to use them to further the continuing education of their managers;
- finally, much more must be learned about the values and learning style preferences of potential students.

In analysing course development in various countries Lawson (1975) had also found that:

... in nearly all cases courses have been developed as a result of academic enterprise, rather than industrial demand (Lawson, 1975, p.12).

Indeed, Lawson discovered that sectors of the industry reacted to specialist courses in a variety of ways, ranging from genuine interest to indifference, to even hostile rejection.

Perhaps part of the dilemma on this matter can be explained by the fact that there is still little evidence that in the short term, at least, tourism and hospitality graduates are in fact better equipped to deliver more value to their employers than those employees who take direct entry into the industry. Certainly, there is a perception among tourism and hospitality graduates that Australian based employers appear to put little worth on a tourism and hospitality degree as an indicator of future potential value. Moreover, the vast majority of employment opportunities in the industry are in those areas which do not require the intellectual capabilities of a competent

graduate⁸. This, in turn, raises the issue of professionalism. It is difficult for the tourism and hospitality industry on the one hand to claim the status of a profession if, on the other hand, few of the skills associated with professionalism are required to obtain employment. Indeed, as argued in the previous chapter, this behaviour helps fuel the perceptions that the industry is one of low skills, requiring little management training and or education.

3.3.3 Tourism and Hospitality Management as a Profession

The concept of professionalism has been described by Kast and Rosenzweig (1979):

... in terms of a continuum with traditional professionals such as the clergy, law, and medicine at one end and unorganised occupations at the other end (Kast and Rosenzweig, 1979, pp. 44-45).

Earlier, Vollmer and Mills (1966) had discussed professionalism in the following terms:

- *Professions have a systematic body of theory. Skill is achieved through a lengthy process of training. The skills that characterise a profession flow from and are supported by information which has been organised into an internally consistent system, called a body of knowledge. Preparation for a profession has to be an intellectual as well as a practical experience.*
- *The professional has an authority based on superior knowledge which is recognised by his clientele. This authority is highly specialised and is related only to the professional's sphere of competence.*

⁸ The 1996 Industry Commission on Tourism Accommodation and Training noted that "the majority of jobs in the hospitality sector require relatively low levels of skill ... They are thus jobs which can be done by almost anyone" (p.268).

- *There is a broad social sanction and approval of the exercise of this authority. The community sanctions the exercise of this authority within certain spheres by conferring upon professionals certain powers and privileges. Control over entry into the profession, licensing procedures, and the clients are example of these.*
- *There is a code of ethics regulating relations of professionals with clients and colleagues. Thus self-discipline is utilised as a basis of social control.*
- *There is a culture sustained by organisations. A professional is a member of many formal and informal groups. The interactions of social roles required by these groups generate a social configuration unique to the profession, a professional culture (Vollmer and Mills, 1966, pp.9-19).*

However, as Kast and Rosenzweig (1979) observed, it is rather difficult to apply this model of professionalism to management, and particularly to classify tourism and hospitality management as a profession, because it has not developed these five points to the same extent as the traditional professions. Moreover, related to the five points above, there is a growing body of systematic knowledge concerning the management of tourism and hospitality enterprises. The authoritative role of managers has been legitimised in society and has the sanction of the community. Globally, there is a growing number of tourism and hospitality management education associations including, for example, the Council of Hotel Restaurant and Institutional Educators (CHRIE). Finally, on the international level, there is a nucleus of the development of self-governance as demonstrated, for example, by the World Travel and Tourism Council's (WTTC) concern for the preservation of the environment.

It is understandable why education and staff development in the tourism and hospitality industry has been less than adequate in the past. For instance, the seasonality of tourism in many parts of Australia has created opportunities for summer employment for tens of thousands of students who, because of their immediate needs, have viewed their work as transitory. On the other hand, the fact that most tourism businesses are largely small operations constitutes a plus for Australia's economy. Many people are able to start their own concerns and succeed by their individual effort. Small businesses, however, offer little chance for career advancement. The lower level employees typically move from establishment to establishment if they wish to pick their way to the top, for there is little to impel the small operator to invest small profits and precious time on staff development. Alternatively, large operations such as hotel chains, provide an in-house system of staff promotion while faced with problems of competition and protecting and enhancing profit margins, all of which is somewhat less analogous to smaller businesses.

3.4 Educational Foundations

It has been argued above that until recently management training and education has had a low priority in the Australian tourism and hospitality industry. Moreover, a number of writers have noted that in the Australian higher education context, qualifications that offer a tourism and hospitality management focus appear to provide an array of tourism and hospitality topics which have reflected, for the most

part, staff competencies and interests⁹. Indeed, the staff identification of national and international tourism and hospitality trends, which form the basis of curriculum, has lacked solid educational foundations. Thus, Wells (1990) noted that:

approaches to the tourism curriculum are diverse, idiosyncratic but mainly pragmatic reflecting the different interests of the institutions, individuals and groups involved in curriculum development (Wells, 1990, p.124).

Arguably, lack of industry experience by staff has been a significant contributing factor and has led to an ad hoc approach to course development based on academic enterprise rather than industrial demand.

More recently, Wells (1996) argued that tourism program development, particularly at undergraduate level, was dominated by two main factors:

- industry requirements - normally considered in the development of curricula, although no formal accreditation of programs exists by the industry; and,
- the orientation of the parent faculty.

These two contentious points are applicable and specific to the Australian tourism and hospitality management context, and deserve further consideration.

3.4.1 Industry Requirements

Firstly, the issue of formal accreditation of university programs by industry and academia in Australia has not yet been fully resolved. Although it is accepted that the professional content and standards of tourism and hospitality management programs

⁹ Wells (1990); Craig-Smith, Davidson and French (1995); Barron (1997); Davidson (1997).

have been influenced by the concerns of government and industry about standards in the tourism industry, and best management practice generally (Karpin, 1996), industry organisations and representative groups in academia continue to debate the accreditation issue¹⁰. The debate concerns the competencies of graduates and their capacity to function at all levels and all sectors of the industry.

Arguably, the body of knowledge should constitute the basis of any agreement between academia and industry about what constitutes core and elective knowledge for the industry. However, any standardisation of the core is often regarded by university academics as a loss of autonomy on practical and applied skills at the expense of the development of theoretical knowledge. The issue of whether or not tourism and hospitality educators should be strongly influenced by the demands of the industry remains a dilemma facing the academic community worldwide (Pearce, 1992). As Shepherd and Cooper (1995) argued:

... it may be that there exists a lack of communication between industry and education and that educators are still not producing graduates with the required skills to meet industry needs; or, it may be that industry perhaps does not particularly want educational institutions to produce tourism graduates in the first place (Shepherd and Cooper, 1995, p. 16).

Moreover, does any agreement about the body of knowledge necessarily turn the area into an academic discipline per se, or as Pearce (1993) suggested, is the area too soft and unrestricted because of its interdisciplinary interconnections?

¹⁰ Bodies such as Tourism Training Australia (TTA), the Tourism Council of Australia (TCA), the Tourism Academic Association (TAA), and the Council for Australian Universities Tourism and Hospitality Education (CAUTHE).

The issue of curriculum design between academia and industry is contentious¹¹. Indeed, Gamble and Messenger (1990) argued that it was not easy to design education and training programs for tourism and hospitality managers, as it was difficult to establish and agree on the roles and responsibilities of managers in the industry. Hales (1986) identified four broad issues which made the analysis of managerial work difficult. First, managers' jobs vary greatly according to their setting. Second, managers have considerable flexibility in determining the content of their job and the style in which they may do it. Third, it is difficult in a large organisation to maintain the support and commitment of all the people who influence the organisation's behaviour. This includes both staff and customers. Fourth, there is the problem of how managers behave, especially as they become more senior. They do not seem to sit still and think about problems. They seem to jump from job to job, fragmenting their day into brief time intervals which provide little opportunity for an outside observer to understand what they are doing. These points are particularly applicable to the nature of managerial work in the tourism and hospitality industry.

The tourism and hospitality sector in Australia, as is the case in a large number of tourism destination countries, is also faced with a chronic shortage of high calibre management recruits. Human resource and management issues within the tourism and hospitality industry are becoming major factors influencing the business profitability of enterprises of all size, and within all major industry sectors. Of particular concern in management education is the resources devoted to the training

¹¹ Refer to Chapter 5 where curriculum issues are explored in depth.

of future managers, with the aim of reaping maximum return in terms of both relevance and appropriateness of skills which graduates should exhibit on their entry into the work force. Indeed, as Tas (1988) argued:

In an environment of increasing complexity, it is important that the graduates of university programs in hotel and restaurant management be able to function effectively as management trainees. Recruitment would be substantially more successful if the would-be managers had attained competency in the specific areas that will make for an effective manager (Tas, 1988, p.41).

However, whereas much has been written about management in general, far less is available on tourism and hospitality leadership. What is available is embryonic in nature and focuses on today's presidents, CEOs and other top managers in major tourism and hospitality firms. Thus,

- Cichy et al. (1991) argued that tourism and hospitality executives see vision, communication, trust, and perseverance as essential qualities for a successful leader or manager in today's competitive environment; and
- Berger et al. (1989) argued that tourism and hospitality managers need a strong sense of humour and a high level of energy to seek and find innovative approaches to complex problems.

These are predominant examples of the skills that are perceived as important to succeed in the 1990s. However, will they be sufficient to equip tomorrow's leaders of the tourism and hospitality industry, and how well prepared are future managers by current management training and education programs?

3.4.2 Student Expectations of Industry

There is a growing body of literature about what students in tourism and hospitality management programs want and expect in their jobs and careers (McCleary & Weaver, 1988; Knutson, 1989a). Much of this information is objective in nature, looking at items such as salary and benefits, work hours, and factors considered in deciding which company to work for after graduation. There is also growing research conducted on why some graduates do not succeed in the industry, experience burn-out, and leave their company and eventually the industry (Farmer & Tucker, 1989; Knutson, 1989b; Pavesic & Brymer, 1990). The focus of much of this work centres on job satisfaction and quality of life issues. There are also theories about what it takes to be a successful manager. Thus, Roberts (1985) defined 17 essential qualities which he proposed as time-tested tenets of leadership, and which were also identified as important for leadership success in the tourism and hospitality industry (Laudadio, 1987; Cichy et al, 1990).

Knutson and Patton (1992) in a survey of 215 junior and senior students found that they had a definite appreciation of the fact that they would have to be good in widely diverse skill areas to succeed in their chosen field of tourism and hospitality. Indeed, Knutson and Patton (1992) argued that:

Led by the abilities to manage employees and interact with their guests, tomorrow's leaders concur with today's about the importance of the "people-side" of the hospitality business. They further recognise the need to effectively communicate with others by being proficient in public speaking as well as dealing with their supervisors, managers, mentors, bosses, and owners in a politically positive way. This latter point is particularly important when it

comes to “taking a hit” and then being able to move forward (Knutson and Patton, 1992, p. 42).

3.4.3 Research on Industry Management Competencies

Jones (1990) reported that the major research to define the needs of tourism and hospitality industry managers dates back to 1977¹². The findings of the study outlined the area, scope and range of knowledge a competent manager in the hospitality industry should have. The framework provided for 20 major areas classified into primary or core, and secondary or important, divided equally between what can be considered technical areas and general management areas. The core areas are listed in Table 3.1 below.

Table 3.1: Corpus of Professional Knowledge in Hotel, Catering and Institutional Services

Management	Technical
Marketing	Purchasing
Financial	Provision and Service
Personnel	Sales
General	Control
Industry	Premises and Facilities
Legal aspects	Legal aspects

The management areas cover functions common to management in any situation and represent links between management in the hospitality and other industries. The technical areas encompass the activity and knowledge particular to the provision of hotel, catering, and institutional services. It is this framework and classification that

¹² Sponsored by the Hotel Catering and Institutional Management Association (HCIMA). One of the key functions of the HCIMA is to identify, promote and maintain the highest professional and ethical standards for management education and training for and within the international hospitality industry.

significantly influenced the teaching and management development programs in the tourism and hospitality industry during the 1980s¹³.

Tas' 1988 survey of 75 hotels with 400 or more bedrooms in the U.S. further attempted to ascertain the perception of U.S. hoteliers with respect to an array of key competencies. The basis of these 36 competencies provided the basis for a postulated management education curriculum for the hotel sector. Baum (1990a) replicated this study in the context of the U.K. hotel industry and found both marked similarities and differences for each competency. Results of both findings are summarised in Table 3.2.

Job competencies for both surveys are based on those activities and skills judged essential to perform the duties of a specific position. Competence in the performance of these duties is based on one's ability to accomplish specific job-related tasks and assume the role connected to the position. Tas' 1988 study was conducted to identify the most important competencies for hotel general manager trainees. Tas also sought to determine whether the list of competencies differed as a result of the personal or job-related background of the managers surveyed, their geographical region, or the size of the property.

¹³ HCIMA produced a subsequent comprehensive review of their 1977 study in 1998.

Table 3.2: Rank Order of 36 Competencies for Management Trainees

Rank Order (U.K.)	Composite Mean	Tas Study Rank and Mean (U.S.)
Essential Competencies		
1. Manages guest problems with understanding and sensitivity	4.81	1 4.80
2. Follows hygiene and safety regulations to ensure compliance by organisation	4.71	13 3.99
3. Communicates effectively both written and orally	4.61	3 4.61
4. Strives to achieve positive working relationships with employees	4.57	6 4.52
5. Demonstrates professional appearance and poise	4.56	3 4.61
6. Develops positive customer relations	4.55	5 4.60
7. Follows the legal responsibilities associated with hotel operation	4.54	14 3.90
8. Motivates employees to achieve desired performance	4.52	8 4.44
Competencies of considerable importance		
9. Possesses needed leadership qualities to achieve organisational objectives	4.40	7 4.48
9. Maintains professional and ethical standards in the work environment	4.40	2 4.69
11. Effectively manages life-threatening situations such as fire, bomb threat, etc.	4.37	11 4.09
12. Uses past & current information to predict future dept. revenues & expenses	4.31	18 3.75
13. Identifies operational problems	4.24	12 4
14. Follows established personnel management procedures in supervision of employees	4.23	9 4.33
15. Analyses factors that influence the controllability and level of profits	4.19	20 3.73
16. Delegates responsibility and authority to personnel according to departmental objectives	4.14	16 3.84
17. Manages employee grievances effectively	4.12	15 3.87
18. Uses past and current information to predict future hotel reservations	4.06	23 3.61
19. Knows personnel policies which govern supervisory activities	3.97	10 4.15
20. Analyses weekly, monthly and annual financial and statistical reports	3.95	25 3.49
20. Conducts an informative and valid interview with prospective employees	3.95	26 3.47
22. Assists in establishing organisational objectives and their priorities	3.92	21 3.67
23. Assists in the development and control of departmental employee productivity	3.87	19 3.75
24. Develops work flow patterns to meet specific operational requirements	3.79	24 3.57
25. Develops reliable revenue and expense tracking systems	3.77	34 3.16
26. Assists in the development and maintenance of budgets for each important element of the organisation	3.77	31 3.24
27. Appraises employee performance	3.67	21 3.67
28. Prepares weekly, monthly and annual financial statistical reports	3.65	36 2.96
29. Assists in operational and strategic planning	3.59	29 3.31
30. Uses front office equipment effectively	3.58	29 3.31
30. Inspects serviced hotel rooms according to standard operating housekeeping procedures	3.58	17 3.76
30. Analyses past and present business information to effectively predict future marketing strategies	3.58	28 3.39
Competencies of moderate importance		
33. Assists in the development of a balanced program of preventative security	3.44	32 3.19
34. Assists in the development of an effective energy management program	3.26	34 3.05
35. Promotes a co-operative union-management relationship	3.11	27 3.45
36. Processes hotel arrivals and departures	2.95	34 3.05
Average rating for all competencies: U.K. = 4.02; U.S. = 3.82		

Note: Competency statements were rated on a scale of 1 (unimportant) to 5 (essential) by 118 hotel managers in the U.K. The list above is based on the averages of these ratings. None of the means for the 36 competencies was below 2.5, meaning that all attributes were at least of moderate importance.

Source: Baum (1990), Competencies for Hotel Management: Industry Expectations of Education, *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, Vol.2, No.4, p.17.

Tas categorised his findings as essential (over 4.5), considerably important (3.5-4.49), and moderately important (2.5-3.49), as illustrated above. He argued that university level courses should focus on experiences both in the classroom and in the field which enabled the student to develop the competencies identified as “essential” and “of considerable importance” in his survey. He postulated that such courses should cover topics in hospitality law, food sanitation, and management of such areas as the front office, hotel and restaurant operations, food and beverage, and finance. He concluded that:

The academic program should also include experience in a controlled laboratory environment, examination of appropriate case studies, and role-playing activities. A structured, faculty coordinated student internship in a hotel or restaurant location would afford the student an opportunity to develop these important competencies (Tas, 1988, p.43).

Overall, both studies identified competences associated with human resources as the most significant within the top-rated grouping. These involve areas such as guest care, employee relations, professionalism, and communication. Baum (1989) had found a similar pattern and allocation of priority by hoteliers in a previous study on the hotel industry in Ireland. Baum (1990a) argued that given the curriculum emphasis in both the UK and the USA, the findings provided a dilemma for the educator. He concluded that the comparable analysis provided information for the development of an internationally transferable core curriculum for degree or degree-equivalent hotel management programs, focusing on generic competences that can be complemented by local or national inputs reflecting specific industry or cultural demands.

3.4.4 Faculty Placements for Tourism and Hospitality Management Courses

The very nature of the tourism and hospitality industry (segmented, inter and multi-disciplinary) has also created conflicting views as to where tourism and hospitality studies should be housed. Suggestions have ranged from incorporating tourism into certain existing areas of study, such as geography, business or sociology, to establishing special interdisciplinary programs or even distinct faculties for the study of tourism (Cooper & Westlake, 1989; Hawkins and Hunt, 1988; Ritchie, 1988).

Within a majority of educational establishments worldwide, courses tend to be located in vocational schools, technological institutes, and in college departments of hotel and restaurant administration, human kinetics and leisure studies, as well as residing in the faculties of business, geography, and economics. Both approaches offer advantages and disadvantages, but what is clear is that the initial location of courses often dictates course attitudes in terms of content and teaching method.

In general, courses offered by business studies, economics, or geography departments provide a more academic, less commercial and perhaps less practical approach to tourism and hospitality than those located in more tourism-oriented departments.

Indeed Ittig (1989), in discussing the USA position argued that:

The business school programs tend to emphasise a management/academic orientation rather than a "hands-on" approach in course work. ... [Moreover] a number of individuals interviewed expressed their beliefs [that] the most appropriate location for a hotel/restaurant program is in a business school (Ittig, 1989, p.48).

Ittig went on to compare the total number of student hospitality majors to the number of full time staff for several business and non-business hospitality programs of various sizes in the USA, demonstrating that a hospitality program added to an existing business school would offer economies provided space was available in existing core courses.

Both in Australia and overseas, a number of tourism and hospitality programs use a separate degree in place of the usual business degree, while continuing the core business curriculum. Generally, however, two major disadvantages arise with this approach. First, is the effort needed to gain approval for a new degree, and second, the resources required to start a new degree. Importantly, allocation of resources for new programs may well detract resources from other activities, and as a result a faculty with vested interest may actively oppose such programs.

Because of these difficulties, it has been and remains common practice in Australian higher education institutions to incorporate tourism and hospitality majors in business degrees. While this trend has resulted in graduates with common business management skills, it has also restricted the study of specific tourism and hospitality topics.

In 1989 a tourism degree in Australia could be defined as a degree with at least 25 per cent of the curriculum devoted to tourism content (Wells, 1990). This tourism content was measured against a formal standard which constituted the body of knowledge as defined by the Tourism Society in the U.K (Airey and Nightingale,

1981)¹⁴. However, most tourism programs adopted a multi-disciplinary approach to supplement or complement the degree. This diversion from a specific tourism focus in subject areas such as financial management, computer systems and law, can be partially explained by the way resources were allocated in higher education institutions at the time, as well as the lack of expertise in these skills when applied to tourism and hospitality specifically.

Moreover, topics in Australian tourism programs at the time did not necessarily correspond exactly to a body of knowledge, and there appears to have often been a difficulty in obtaining a precise measurement and fit (Wells, 1996). Thus, it is interesting to note how little attention has been given to the importance and analysis of the knowledge base of tourism in the light of the global and local development of programs (Airey & Nightingale, 1981; Jafari, 1990; Pearce, 1993), and their subsequent placement within both program and faculty.

Lavery (1988) identified that, at least in the U.K. by the late 1980s, tourism had obtained a recognised place in degree courses, and that there was a common curriculum emerging in relation to the topics covered. According to Lavery (1988), these generally included:

- the significance and characteristics of tourism;
- the social and economic impact of tourism;
- international tourism trends;

¹⁴ Airey and Nightingale (1981) conducted a study which attempted to elucidate what constituted the body of knowledge required in the industry, based on career, sector of employment and occupation. Wells (1996) reported that this study was still the only benchmark for tourism knowledge.

- planning and development of tourism; and,
- the impact of tourism development in the Third World.

On the whole, of course, it must be kept in mind that the end result desired in curriculum planning and design varies according to the sectorial needs of the industry. Thus, in countries where government bodies recognise tourism as an important source of income, some attempt has been made to encourage systematic training in a variety of job skills, and government authorities have supported local initiatives in course development. In Australia, the impetus has generally come from private colleges, TAFE, and universities with or without the support of an industrial component.

3.4.5 Future Issues in Tourism and Hospitality Management Education

The future of tourism and hospitality management education and the future of higher education in general in Australia are undoubtedly linked. Airey (1995) identified five important influential themes that will affect educational developments¹⁵:

- the increasing access to courses and the resulting changes in enrolment patterns, course assessment and delivery mechanisms, which is leading to increased variety in the education system;
- the operation of courses on a modular basis is allowing students to have a role in constructing their own programs, and increasingly, education is becoming more tailor-made to suit individual needs;

¹⁵ Airey (1995) was commenting on the trends in UK higher education.

- vocational courses are firmly established in the higher education structure after an early struggle for acceptance;
- students appear to be demonstrating an increased awareness of their employment opportunities after graduation, and are becoming a more discerning market; and
- there has been a significant increase in participation rates across the board of subjects in higher education.

Thus, there are clearly a number of issues at the forefront of tourism and hospitality education that will affect future developments. The first and most striking issue is the scale of growth in the provision and the continuing popularity of tourism and hospitality as areas of study in higher education throughout Australia in the 1990s¹⁶.

Some of this rapid expansion can be explained by the fact that the industry of tourism and hospitality in Australia has been growing, and there has been an expansion in the number of students continuing onto higher education. However, other factors may have contributed to this growth. Although it is possible to speculate about these factors, Airey (1995) offered four possible explanations:

- as unemployment among graduates has increased, students have turned towards the prospects of the employment created by the tourism industry, and take courses that may lead to tourism employment;
- there has been a growth generally in the provision of vocational degrees as a response to the growing demand by employers;

¹⁶ Degree level tourism and hospitality courses have been available in Australia since 1978. See Appendices 1 and 2 for further details.

- with the conversion of the former Colleges of Advanced Education (CAEs) and Institutes of Technology to universities, many of these have been innovative in the development of new courses and areas of study;
- since the mid 1980's the government has taken a lead in publicising the importance of tourism and the growth of the industry, and its education needs¹⁷;
- finally, there has been an increase in government recognition of the importance of tourism to the economy and its role as a provider of jobs.

Future growth and expansion of Australian tourism and hospitality programs is clearly not restricted to solely on-shore activities. Indeed, Peacock (1995a) recognised advancements made in Australian training systems, and argued that these provided significant opportunities for expansion into tourism and hospitality training in the Asia Pacific region¹⁸. He further argued that rapid economic growth of Pacific Asian countries had increased demand for education and training which they could not meet.

Until the recent Asian economic downturn, the tourism and hospitality industry was one of the fastest growing industries in the region. Governments recognised it as an industry with the capacity to earn considerable foreign exchange and accordingly made it a training and development priority. The demand for infrastructure and

¹⁷ In addition, set against the background of changes in the way higher education institutions are funded, academic institutions see tourism as a relatively cheap and reliable way of expanding student numbers.

¹⁸ Roger Peacock, in his capacity as First Assistant Secretary, International Division, Department of Employment, Education and Training (DEET).

human resource development to meet the needs of the industry in the region provided exciting challenges and opportunities for Australian training providers.

However, in meeting these challenges, Peacock (1995b) warned that Australia had to recognise the level of competition from other countries with well established industry linkages and reputations of excellence in tourism and hospitality training¹⁹.

Moreover, central to Australia's ability to meet the training and education needs of the tourism and hospitality industry both at home and in the Asia Pacific region, was an understanding of the different training and education requirements of industry and countries in the region.

3.5 Summary

It has been argued in this chapter that although the study of tourism and hospitality is relatively new, in spite of difficult beginnings, the area is gaining credibility, maturity, and popularity. However, it would appear that the impetus to expand programs in higher education institutions has been much more driven by demand from students than by pressures from government, academics or even the industry. The perceived scepticism, distrust, and lack of understanding of the new range of tourism and hospitality courses among large sections of the industry was noted, as were steps which could be taken to improve educational instruction in tourism and hospitality management.

¹⁹ Countries such as Germany, Switzerland, the USA, Canada, France, Holland, the U.K. and Belgium all provide the tourism and hospitality industry with well recognised qualifications and have long-standing reputations in their fields.

Doubts about the skills and level of education required for tourism and hospitality professionals have been aired in the context of an accepted model for professionalism. The educational foundations underlying courses in tourism and hospitality have been explored in the light of industry requirements, staff and student expectations, as well as with respect to the management competencies required for successful performance in the industry. It has also been argued in this chapter that the positioning of courses in faculty and/or department is a major factor contributing to both content and direction of courses.

Moreover, it was argued that it is difficult for the industry to claim the status of a profession. The weaknesses in the educational foundations of the area were proposed as being key contributing factors to the low priority given by industry to training and management education. Thus, industry requirements and orientation of the parent faculty that house tourism and hospitality programs were explored as dominating factors in the successful development of programs.

It was also argued that the design of education and training programs in tourism and hospitality management is rendered more complex by the difficulty in establishing and identifying the roles and responsibilities of managers in the industry. The needs of tourism and hospitality managers were identified and the corpus of professional knowledge in hotel, catering and institutional services as cited by Jones (1990) was outlined. Tas' (1988) and Baum (1990) important surveys were summarised, and contextualised along the lines of management competencies identified as either "essential" or "of considerable importance" for management in the hospitality

industry, and which should be included in tourism and hospitality university education.

Some of the complexities underlying the placement of programs within departments and faculties were outlined, and it was argued that these play a major role in both the likely success and subsequent direction of programs. Finally, factors underlying the rapid expansion of tourism and hospitality management education programs were outlined, and it was argued that future growth and expansion is not solely restricted to on-shore activities.

The next chapter explores the general issues pertinent to the area of tourism and hospitality education, and highlighted in the literature.

Chapter 4

Review of the Tourism and Hospitality Management Education Literature

4.1 Introduction

This chapter focuses on the broad literature on tourism and hospitality management education, identifying the main forces, assessing their influence on program development and direction, and examining the resulting principles underpinning the fundamental issues of tourism and hospitality management education throughout the developed world. The influence and role of industry professionals in tourism and hospitality management education will be discussed in light of the role and purpose of advisory boards with respect to industry needs and educational outcomes.

4.2 Literature Overview

The discipline of international tourism and hospitality management education is broad and varied. It embraces a large number of themes and concepts, as reflected in the literature pertaining to the area.

Taylor and Edgar (1996) have argued that despite considerable progress made in recent years in terms of quantity and quality of research, the field of tourism and hospitality management has yet to reach a state of maturity. Moreover, it seemed to them at the time that no clear articulation existed as to what should be its role, content, and future direction. They pointed to three important areas requiring further attention:

- the role of tourism and hospitality research;

- the scope of tourism and hospitality research; and,
- the research approaches and philosophy within tourism and hospitality research.

Previously in 1995, Teare had identified a number of research themes which had emerged throughout the tourism and hospitality management literature in the period 1989-94 inclusive. These included:

- people and organisational aspects (working methods and employee relations, labour turnover, employee motivation and styles of management; employee selection and personality assessment; organisational culture and communications);
- education, training and development (management development, industry education and the curriculum, skills training);
- trends analysis, business strategy and decision making (economic, market and business analysis; strategy, structure, and planning; decision making);
- customers and service quality (consumer behaviour and customer service; service research and customer orientation, service quality);
- marketing and brand management (market segmentation and product differentiation, marketing promotion, hotel branding, international marketing); and,
- operations and facilities management (facilities management and design; yield management, productivity performance, quality management principles, quality improvement and total quality management).

Blum (1997) echoed some of these themes when he reviewed articles published during 1996 in tourism and hospitality management research journals. He found seven main themes: people and organisations; service quality and customers; strategies and operations; food service; education; eco-tourism; and legal considerations.

As stated earlier, this thesis explores a number of these themes. However, the main focus addresses one theme in particular: that of management education, training and development as applied to the Australian tourism and hospitality industry.

4.3 Cultural Change for Tourism and Hospitality Management Education

The situation in tourism and hospitality management education is similar to that of general business education in the 1980s which, as Deutschman (1991) argued, had become largely irrelevant to business practice and to its stakeholders. Porter and McKibbin (1988) in their landmark study of management education at all levels, found two major general criticisms and seven major topical criticisms of business education:

General

- *Insufficient emphasis on generating “vision” in students. Courses focus more on problem-solving than on problem-finding.*
- *Insufficient emphasis on integration across functional areas.*

Topical

- *Too much emphasis on quantitative analytical techniques.*

- *Insufficient attention to managing people.*
- *Insufficient attention to communication skills, oral and written.*
- *Insufficient attention to the external environment in which modern day business must operate.*
- *Insufficient attention to the internationalisation dimension of business.*
- *Insufficient attention to entrepreneurship.*
- *Insufficient attention to ethics (Porter and McKibbon, 1988, pp. 64-66).*

Porter and McKibbon (1988) concluded that while business schools often included strategic planning in their curricula, they did not always practise what they taught.

In addition to incorporating stakeholder needs, cultural factors have also been identified as important to curricula design. Thus, King (1994) contended that:

no body of knowledge can be right for all places and all seasons because knowledge alters as the society it supports changes (King, 1994, p.38)

and he further argued that it was imperative to provide professional education in a national context.

Go and Mok (1995) also demonstrated the importance of cultural factors in examining hotel and tourism management education in Hong Kong and the influence of the Chinese cultural context in which such education takes place, while Echtner (1995a) examined the challenges facing developing nations when designing tourism management education programs. Echtner advocated a three pronged approach: professional education, vocational training and entrepreneurial development¹. Sindiga (1995) also called for further training and extension services so that increased indigenisation can proceed in a country where high level of foreign ownership and

¹ Echtner's three pronged approach is described in detail in Appendix 4.

control have resulted in foreign domination of tourism and hospitality management positions².

To apply such changes to tourism and hospitality management education requires a change in culture, for it is practically impossible to change the way you operate unless you change the corporate culture first (Crosby, 1992). Indeed, Kotter and Heskett (1992) demonstrated that “un-adaptive cultures” would have a larger negative impact in the coming decade, when corporate culture would be an even more important factor in determining the success or failure of firms in a world that is changing at an increasing rate.

It can be argued therefore, that curriculum changes in tourism and hospitality management programs without culture change will be meaningless. However, irrespective of this, tourism and hospitality educators must take the lead in providing their students with a relevant curriculum for the 1990s and beyond. Goodman and Sprague (1991) suggested that a curriculum revision was essential because of the expanding role of services in the U.S. and world economies, and the impending threat represented by business schools which may be teaching subjects more pertinent to the needs of tourism and hospitality operations.

² Sindiga (1994, p.45) also pointed out that “training is the transition between formal education and the needs of occupation and employment”.

4.4 The Clientele for Tourism and Hospitality Management Programs

Arguably, each program serves a specific clientele who can be grouped according to such characteristics as age, income level, and educational attainment, thus enabling the identification of a market segment and a focus for the program. There are also competitors of all kinds, as well as resource constraints which either enhance or contain possible activities in the chosen segment. To that extent, competing successfully in the tourism and hospitality management education industry is no different to competition in any other industry. It requires a knowledge and understanding of both internal and external environments, and an application and focus on one's source of competitive advantage.

The clientele for tourism and hospitality management programs, like all educational programs, falls clearly into two categories: society in general and students. Powers and Riegel (1993) argued that for tourism and hospitality management programs, the industry serves as an important proxy for society. Thus, curriculum and course design must serve the purpose of, and benefit both categories. Tourism and hospitality management education must consider the short term views and interests of these groups, and balance them against the long term good of the educational process. Tourism and hospitality management programs compete for students, and through their students, for employer recruiting. As Goodman and Sprague (1991) argued:

the proliferation of schools and departments targeting segments of the hospitality industry has introduced a form of competition among institutions that will become more aggressive Programs will not only compete for students, but they will compete for recruiters' attention. This... will be the chief challenge for hospitality programs (Goodman and Sprague, 1991, p.67).

At a very general level, tourism and hospitality management education competes with all other academic programs, but probably especially closely with business administration. At a more specific level, tourism and hospitality management programs compete with each other. Finally, no program has the resources, human or financial to compete in all markets. Indeed, competition for future funding will dictate that only manifestly successful tourism and hospitality management programs will continue to receive adequate resources.

4.4.1 Selecting Students for Tourism and Hospitality Management Programs

There is also a possibility that a mismatch exists between what employers are seeking in graduates and what tertiary institutions view as desirable qualities in their students, not only at the point of exit but also at the point of selection and entry into tertiary institutions. Tourism and hospitality management courses fall into a category of courses with both educational and vocational aims, and as such are a kin to courses in fields such as medicine, law, dentistry, education, and others. These courses are recognised as providing a direct route into particular professions and occupations (Ineson and Kempa, 1996). Thus, one might argue that the selection of students for courses which fall into such a category should be based on criteria which focus on those competences, personal attributes, and skills which are expected and required for success in their chosen career. Critically then, these criteria may well differ from those of accepted academic success predictors, which in the past have relied almost exclusively on academic performance and attainment in previous studies.

Ineson and Kempa (1997) examined the characteristics or features used by those who select students for admission to tourism and hospitality management degree courses.

They argued that:

.... It seems to be quite appropriate for selectors to choose applicants whom they judge to have the maximum likelihood of success on the course of study, i.e. to focus their selection on those qualities which relate predominantly to university performance criteria and to pay little attention to what they perceive might happen subsequently as the nature of the graduates' employment cannot be predicted... (Ineson and Kempa, 1997, p129).

Given that universities were founded to enable individuals to study an academic discipline in depth after which graduates sought employment that usually enabled them to use their acquired knowledge and skills (Brush, 1979; Smithers & Dann, 1974), one might assume that a student who can sustain a course and produce a reasonably high level of performance has a better chance of obtaining employment than a poor academic performer. Ineson and Kempa (1997) refuted this assumption, arguing that a student's success on an academic course does not guarantee that he/she will be successful in obtaining and sustaining employment. Moreover, success in vocations is likely to depend not only on intellectual factors but also on qualities pertaining to temperament, interest, personality, and environment. Thus, the question of how one should judge the suitability of an applicant for a vocationally oriented degree course. The short term view focuses on success in the degree course, whereas the long term view looks to success in finding employment. This raises the question: in selecting students for tourism and hospitality management courses do selectors judge and bear in mind the likely suitability of applicants for subsequent employment?

Ineson and Kempa (1997) argued that, in theory, selection should be made on the basis of two criteria:

- likely success in undergraduate studies; and,
- matching requirements and expectations of employers.

Their 1997 study focused on whether there existed a mismatch between what employers were seeking in graduates and what admission tutors thought were desirable qualities in their students. They found that almost without exception, the number of candidates qualified for entry on the basis of the key traditional criterion (the head-teacher's predictions), far exceeded the number of places available on most degree courses, and that a refinement process was necessary. They found that selection criteria employed for tourism and hospitality management courses were based on:

- academic attainment and ability;
- motivation to study, and commitment to work in the hospitality industry;
- personal characteristics; and,
- personal circumstances.

They concluded that:

- selectors had identified certain qualities as important and they pursued some of them in the admission procedures but not always satisfactorily;
- there were certain criteria that influenced some selectors' decisions which they admitted should have no bearing on on-course performance;
- there was a mismatch between what some of the admission procedures entailed and what the selectors considered to be important.

Their findings supported those of Goacher (1984) who had argued that it was necessary to explore the relationships between the selection criteria and the intellectual demands of the courses to determine the effects of admission policies on the candidates' final qualifications. Indeed, Goacher (1984) also argued that much of the information which is available to undergraduate selectors was not used to make selection decisions.

Ideally, the criteria to select students for admission to tourism and hospitality management courses should reflect those used by their potential employers. Comparing the findings of the Ineson and Kempa 1997 study to those of a previous study, where Ineson (1996) explored the criteria used by employers for selecting hospitality management trainees, Ineson and Kempa concluded that:

- employers took very little interest in candidates' prior academic achievements and performances: the fact that a candidate had gained, or was about to gain a degree, was generally taken as evidence of adequate academic attainment;
- the main selection criteria used by employers related to their assessments of applicants' motivation and commitment to work in the industry, and a range of personal and interpersonal qualities, including communication skills and self-presentation;
- employers tended to rely on their own impressions and judgements of candidates' qualities, sometimes employing subjective as opposed to objective methods of assessment, and sought little supportive evidence from the applicants' university tutors.

It is possible to draw on both similarities and differences here. Thus, academic attainment and ability, which is ranked highly by admission tutors, is of little consequence and interest to industrial recruiters. It would appear that employers are satisfied with completion, or even near-completion of a tourism and hospitality management course, as sufficient evidence of adequate academic attainment. Motivation to study and commitment to work in the industry appears to coincide with the wishes of industrial recruiters. However, there is no consensus as to what constitutes acceptable or adequate industry experience nor as to the kind and the level of industry experience required before commitment can be truly demonstrated. The last two criteria of personal characteristics and circumstances also appear to present some form of similarity among what employers and admission tutors are seeking.

Nevertheless, there are also marked differences, particularly in the way in which both groups interpret the available data on candidates. Ineson and Kempa (1997) also reported widespread realisation among admission tutors and industrial recruiters that their decisions about the acceptance of students or the employment of graduates are based extensively on subjective judgements. Yet, their level of confidence in the judgements made was remarkably high, especially among industrial recruiters.

The overall conclusion resulting from these studies was that there was little concordance between university admission tutors and industrial employers in relation to the criteria used by each group for the selection of recruits to tourism and hospitality management courses and subsequently trainee management positions.

Moreover, they argued that even if an awareness existed, it did not necessarily follow that university admission officers would probe the qualities looked for by their

students' prospective employers. Thus, the sheer number of applicants which have to be processed each year can provoke the introduction of steps such as immediate rejection based on single key criterion or resorting to self-selection. Internal constraints such as lack of time and pressures to meet enrolment targets along side a shortage of interviewers or lack of training in selection procedures can also create conflict. Thus,

If all that the industrial recruiters require is for a student to acquire a degree then perhaps the academic selectors are not justified in offering places to those applicants whom they believe might be most successful academically. Perhaps they should just avoid choosing those people who are perceived to be high risk candidates potentially and then select predominantly on the basis of the non-academic criteria sought by the graduate trainee recruiters (Ineson and Kempa, 1997,p.138)

As the number of institutions offering tourism and hospitality management courses (undergraduate and post-graduate) has increased, the competition to recruit students has also intensified³. However, it needs to be considered if this quantifiable increase in courses has resulted in an equal rise in graduate qualities as sought by employers. Moreover, although there has been a noticeable increase in course offerings, there remains a shortage of fully qualified tourism and hospitality professionals (Birdir & Pearson, 1998).

³ Woods (1994) reported that in the U.S. alone, there were 45 four-year hospitality management programs, while in 1992 there were 164 such programs. By contrast, it took nearly 40 years to go from nine programs operating in the 1940s to the 45 recorded in 1982, according to Rutherford (1982). Ineson and Kempa (1997) reported that in the U.K there were 31 undergraduate university courses in hospitality management, compared to 16 in 1985. There were only a couple of programs operating in Australia in the late 1970s, compared to over 70 by the late 1990s.

Previous studies have highlighted alarming attrition rates and poor graduate transfer rates, suggesting that only about half of those graduating commence employment in the industry (Brennan & McGeevor, 1985; West & Jameson, 1990; Barron & Maxwell, 1993; Barron, 1994;). Indeed, Brennan and McGeevor (1988) reported that only 56 per cent of hospitality management graduates actually commenced employment in the hospitality industry. Of equal importance are retention rates. Of those graduates who do enter the industry, many decide not to pursue a long-term career within tourism and hospitality (Cotton, 1991).

Moreover, there appears to be a clear disparity between tourism and hospitality management graduates and their subsequent career in the industry, suggesting that many graduates do not enter the industry on completion of their program (Brennan & McGeevor, 1988; West and Jameson, 1990; Barron, 1994). Of those graduates who do enter, many decide not to pursue a full time career in the industry (Drysdale and Watson, 1988; Cotton, 1991).

Barron (1997) contended that one of the possible causes of poor conversion rates between tourism and hospitality management students and subsequent career in the industry is that new students have an unrealistic image of working life in the industry. This image often changes as students progress through programs, specifically after periods of work experience (Barron and Maxwell, 1993), with the consequence that many decide that a career in alternative service sector industries may be more attractive. This issue creates problems for all parties concerned. Firstly, students who become disillusioned regarding the industry may feel that at least part of their higher education experience has been in vain. Secondly, tertiary institutions find themselves

having to cope with sizeable attrition rates. Thirdly, as a consequence of this attrition or otherwise, the industry is not able to recruit either the quality or quantity of graduates required or, indeed, retain these graduates in the future.

4.5 The Influence and Role of Industry Professionals in Tourism and Hospitality Management Education

In Chapter 3, the importance of industry requirements was mentioned. There are recognised avenues available for industry professionals to contribute actively to course design and development. One of the features of the development of tourism and hospitality management education in Australia has been the establishment of links between government, industry, and universities through such mechanisms as the establishment of advisory boards.

4.5.1 Role and Purpose of Advisory Boards

The practice of drawing on the expertise of industry practitioners dates from the earliest days of American hospitality management education, when Cornell University's hotel program was founded. At that time, industry leaders in the American Hotel Association worked with university administrators to develop the first college-level, degree-granting hotel-administration program (Conroy et al., 1996).

Nowlis (1996) pointed out that to maintain relevance and keep up with the changing times, tourism and hospitality education must undertake comprehensive curriculum reforms to better serve industry constituents. Indeed, Haywood (1989) argued that tourism and hospitality management education:

must adapt itself and its role in order to retain its effectiveness. In other words, educators must explore the prospects for educational design that enable students to prepare for continuing learning and participation in the transformation of their personal lives, their careers, and their society. The specific knowledge and skills acquired through formal hospitality and tourism education are becoming less important than a willingness and ability to seek new knowledge and understanding (Haywood, 1989, p.259).

Haywood further argued that new strategies were necessary to understand the environment and the complex changes that were occurring. Strategies were deemed to be beyond the capacity of tourism and hospitality management academics, and required a close link to industry professionals.

Thus, for most tourism and hospitality management education conducted in the United States (and in Australia) in the 1990s, curriculum review involved regular contacts with industry representatives (Lefevre & Withiam, 1998). This representation takes the forms of advisory boards, offering advice to program administrators and academic staff, developing resources and fundraising for programs, as well as ensuring that a strong and visible image and connection to the industry is maintained.

It is also necessary to recognise that in the late 1990s, fundraising has become an essential function for not-for-profit organisations generally and for college and university programs particularly. In the case of colleges and universities, fundraising fills two critical functions: it provides annual revenue, and it builds endowments that provide funds for the scholarship aid that helps offset tuition costs (Conroy &

Lefevre, 1997). It also helps to increase the number of stakeholders in the programs and brings industry and universities much closer. As such, these activities, mainly undertaken by and made possible through advisory boards, have brought both industry and academia much closer, even though there has been instances where these boards have become over involved (Conroy et al., 1996).

The role of advisory boards in tourism and hospitality management education is also essential as it allows a smooth and continuous flow of ideas and information between industry specialist and academics teaching in programs. This information is deemed critical to the success of these programs, as it ensures that the needs of industry are served, and that the graduates are trained to match those needs.

4.5.2 Industry Needs and Educational Outcomes

The lack of consensus and congruence between industry and education providers leads to problems for those wishing to undertake studies in the area, and creates a perception in the industry that tourism and hospitality graduates may not have the right qualifications. Moreover, the tourism and hospitality industries both experience high levels of drop-out or movements to other careers within relatively short periods after graduation, raising a question mark as to the relevance of the actual education provision, leaving aside for the moment factors as wide as industry conditions and rewards.

In practice, the tourism and hospitality syllabus taught by any institution reflects the institution's tradition, staff experience, and interest (Jenkins, 1980). Indeed, there appears to be a considerable gap between what providers offer as management level

tourism and hospitality education, and the needs as expressed by the industry. Thus, higher education in the U.K., for instance, has been accused by industry of providing broad based generic knowledge intertwined with the learning of other disciplines (such as business studies and economics) while the industry seeks personal skills such as communication, adaptability, leadership and numeracy (Amoah & Baum, 1997). It has also been argued that at least small firm employers especially tend to prefer job experience to qualifications in recruitment (CEDEFOP, 1991).

A recent study conducted in the United States by Lefever and Withiam (1998) attempted to identify and rate some of these issues and needs. They focused on:

- issues mentioned by industry sector representatives;
- ways hospitality education can prepare graduates;
- strengths of hospitality program graduates;
- weaknesses of hospitality program graduates;
- what hospitality faculty do right;
- what could hospitality faculty members improve;
- how relevant is the typical hospitality curriculum to industry needs;
- how important are international opportunities to students;
- what is the ideal student work or internship requirement; and,
- what industry would change if they could?

They concluded that although industry seemed well served by academia, practitioners would like academia to produce students whom not only have appropriate technical ability, but who also have a realistic view of the industry. The view that the industry

needs people who know what the industry is about and, most important, will stay with the business, was predominant throughout the surveyed responses. Moreover, the surveyed practitioners indicated not only a concern that long term retention of managers was tied to the nature and type of students admitted into programs, but also to the ability of academics to generate commitment to the industry. Such a commitment could only be generated by staff with strong industry links and personal work experience, both of which were increasingly difficult to find as the focus of academic institutions shifted to research, publications and academic scholarship.

4.5.3 The Challenge of Maintaining Co-alignment between Industry and Education

Baum (1990a) also assessed the extent to which industry and education perspectives coincided on the issue of key management competences, and later (1993) identified linkages which tourism and hospitality education have with the wider economic, social, and political environment. Go (1990) argued that the task of maintaining co-alignment between the two was challenging, given the societal developments that are affecting patterns of work, education and leisure. He further argued that educators and human resource specialists had to respond by becoming more innovative in terms of course direction, content, programming and delivery. An example of this is provided by Barrows and Hobson (1993) who responded to the call for service excellence by proposing a model for teaching services management as an integral part of tourism and hospitality management education. Other initiatives have emphasised industry and education partnerships in hotel catering operations and tourism (Luke and Ingold, 1990; Woolfenden, 1990). The key test of co-alignment often occurs when tourism and hospitality management students commence their

initial period of supervised work experience. Thus, Barron and Maxwell (1993) reported a dichotomy between perceptions held by students embarking on a course and students newly returned from supervised work experience. The problem was reflected in a low correlation between qualifying in tourism and hospitality management and subsequent career progression in the industry itself. West and Jameson (1990) also examined this issue and concluded that employers could make better use of the supervised work experience period by seeking to establish a longer term relationship with the goal of influencing first destination graduate recruitment and retention.

A fundamental question which directly leads on from this point is the contribution such education makes to delivering an effective work force (Wells, 1996). Similar concerns were expressed by Morrison (1994), who argued that student rather than industry demand have driven expansion in the number of tourism and hospitality degree places. The vast majority of employment opportunities in the industry do not require the intellectual capabilities of competent graduates and the match between type of employment and expectations of graduates is often incongruous. Thus, Morrison (1994) contended that if a relatively small number of quality, skilled operational managers are required by industry, then that is what should be produced. The finding that 54% of first year tourism and hospitality students from four Australian universities expected to start work in trainee/junior management/supervisory positions lends weight to Morrison's concerns (Davidson, 1996).

Incongruity between what programs offer and the skills required in the tourism and hospitality industry was well illustrated by Baum and Nickson (1998) in their evaluation of the skills students graduate with in human resource management. They argued that as a consequence of what is basically a curriculum prescriptive approach, students graduate with some of the tools necessary to work with staff in the tourism and hospitality industry, and certainly a knowledge of the legal framework within which human resources operate. However, they are usually unaware of the wider context in which human resource management for the industry operates, and unaware of the reasons why the industry faces problems and challenges of the kind that it does. They may fail to understand the implications which structural diversity within the industry imposes on the management of people within the sector. They may not recognise that the human resource issues faced within the tourism and hospitality industries of different countries are not necessarily those which they face at home and which they were presented, in class, as universals. Moreover, they may not even recognise the relationship between what they studied in the tourism and hospitality context, and the wider theoretical context and underpinning within which that body of knowledge resides (such as psychology, sociology, and economics) (Carmouche & Kelly, 1995). Thus, it seems that tourism and hospitality students require a real in-depth understanding of the industry as well as a relevant and up-to-date operational framework.

4.6 Summary

In this chapter it has been argued that there are similarities between the state of tourism and hospitality education and that of general business and management education in the 1980s. However, successful curriculum change in tourism and hospitality requires educators to embrace both major industry changes and accept a culture change which would shift focus from national to global environments, without losing sight of local industry needs and applications.

It has also been argued in this chapter that educators must recognise the important effects of clientele characteristics in both program design and student selection. It was argued that a mismatch exists between the qualities and characteristics which employers are seeking in graduates and those which tertiary institutions view as desirable. The recent increase in course proliferation has not produced any evidence that this mismatch is being addressed, and it was noted that the sector suffers from both high attrition rates as well as poor graduate transfer rates, which may help explain the industry's shortage of graduates.

It was argued that the solution to these dilemmas might be the increased involvement of relevant stakeholders in tourism and hospitality curriculum design, via such bodies as advisory boards. Indeed, Shepherd and Cooper (1995) identified these stakeholders as students, tourists, educational institutions, government, media and the tourist industry. It was also noted that the implicit nature of tourism as a diverse and complex activity among such stakeholders necessitates taking account of their views, actions and influences on education and training. Moreover, the importance of stakeholder groups in tourism and hospitality curricula is also implicit in a

framework recently developed by Ritchie (1995) for designing and developing tourism and hospitality management programs. Criteria emphasised included sensitivity to industry needs, balance between economic development and environmental protection, building on and developing skills of faculty members, location where tourism is a significant component of the local economy, and a balance of conceptual material and practical experience.

Finally, it was concluded that educators face a challenge of maintaining a relevant and flexible co-alignment between industry and education. The need to be innovative in terms of course direction, content, programming and delivery was noted as implicit requirements for those involved in effective and up-to-date tourism and hospitality management education. Those responsible for the framing of curriculum content, direction and delivery have an important impact of the future of the area, and are the subject of the next chapter.

Chapter 5

The Impact of Curriculum Design on Tourism and Hospitality Management Education

5.1 Introduction

The material covered in this chapter explores further and in more depth some of the more important curriculum issues already identified in previous chapters. It will be argued here that industry leaders have often voiced their displeasure with educational program, describing these as too theoretical in nature and concept that have lost touch with the more general and practical managerial demands of the workplace. It will be noted that the nature of tourism and hospitality management courses has changed over time, and evolved from a strong focus on practical operation to one of strategic thinking and planning, and some of the conflicts associated with the staffing of such programs will be presented. Research in the curriculum area for tourism and hospitality will be reviewed as will the value and role of industry placements within the curricula.

5.2 Perception of Management Education Programs in Tourism and Hospitality

Industry leaders have often voiced their displeasure with educational program, described as too theoretical in nature and concept, that have lost touch with the more general and practical managerial demands of the workplace. Lennon (1989) argued that the major criticisms have centred on two general themes:

- neglect of the study of practical applied topics and the inclusion of irrelevant areas of study in programs; and,
- the reluctance of tourism and hospitality management educators to make contact with the industry.

Archer (1979) also argued that students found a great part of their courses totally useless to advance their careers in the industry, whilst Reilly (1977) asked:

Why impose on future managers a lot of useless information about hygiene, nutrition, gastronomy, financial management and such like? Perhaps much of the effort to present a rounded educational program, to develop the whole man [sic.] intellectually and culturally as well as professionally has been a mistake. If this is the genuine voice of industry expressing its true needs then the education service must listen and respond (Reilly, 1977, p.24).

Such views were echoed by Kinton (1977) who argued that tourism and hospitality management educators should beware of filling young heads with management theories.

5.2.1 The Tourism and Hospitality Curriculum

These complaints have largely been responsible for many of the changes in curricula taking place in tourism and hospitality management programs (Rowe, 1993).

However, there are considerable difficulties encountered in attempting to ascertain industry needs and match those in an educational context. Initially, at least, it is difficult to discern any clear agreement as to what the tourism and hospitality industry collectively requires of education. The possible diversity of requirements of different sectors of the industry complicates the situation further. Thus, an



understanding of the needs of the industry would have to begin with a definition of the industry. This would have to be followed by an adequate explanation of how such needs could be assessed, weighted, quantified and reported. An additional difficulty arises in validating any core curriculum since acceptance of such a core of subject areas by industrialists need not constitute a justification for their inclusion on a tourism and hospitality management course. Agreement is no indicator of credibility or worth, and even a unanimous majority could prove to be incorrect.

Another major criticism of tourism and hospitality management education provision focuses on tourism and hospitality management educators. Many tourism and hospitality management educators are accused of being too remote and out of touch with developments in the industry, and as a result in great need to spend more time back in the industry (Fuller, 1983; Quest, 1983; Goldberg, 1986). Whilst such criticisms may well have been justified, it does not mean that tourism and hospitality management educators have not done their utmost to make curriculum content and teaching as relevant as they perceive it. Indeed, Lennon (1989) interviewed tourism and hospitality management social science educators on these issues, and reported that the majority of lecturers interviewed were of the opinion that they were meeting the needs of the industry. A minority of those interviewed by Lennon (1989) had no prior work experience in the industry, and were critical of the view that their teaching should be guided by the needs of the industry.

To a great extent these complaints reflect the growing pains of tourism and hospitality management as an emerging academic discipline. Over the past 15 years, tertiary institutions have had to resolve the tension between teaching what are current

best industry practices as opposed to teaching the managerial skills and competencies that have become increasingly necessary in the industry. Indeed, Powers and Riegel (1993) argued that unless tourism and hospitality programs made a better effort to keep current, they would not survive. Others (Haywood, 1989; Goodman and Sprague, 1991; Umbreit, 1992; Lewis, 1993) argued along similar lines whilst reflecting on the lack of responsiveness by educational institutions to the massive and important changes occurring throughout the industry, concluding that:

Hospitality educators must understand that these changes are permanent and that graduates from their schools will need a different set of skills to succeed in a restructured business environment. Hotel and restaurant firms are already learning that their survival is predicated on taking a fundamentally different approach to the way they manage their operations (Umbreit, p. 71, 1992).

The gap between the theoretical knowledge, as presented in academic programs and the practical realities of management as applied to, and experienced in, the tourism and hospitality industry, is difficult to reconcile. For instance, the literature on hotel management programs and curricula does not discuss relationships between the quality of programs and the existence of on-site hotel training facilities. However, many researchers (Tas, 1983; Knight, 1984; Canterino, 1990; Casado, 1991) have argued strongly that practical learning experiences are a vital part of the academic training necessary to master this field of study. This is not unusual and not only restricted to this field of study, as work experiences and other types of experiential learning have become accepted components of the curriculum in the academic disciplines of education, business administration, agriculture and medicine, to name but a few. There has been a consensus that internships in these academic fields are necessary to provide the best education that applies theory to practice (Ford, 1995).

However, the practical emphasis in tourism and hospitality management education is rewarded with relatively low academic worth. Consequently, such areas, which include practical emphasis, tend to be studied during the earlier stages of degrees and are becoming increasingly less important in tourism and hospitality management education. The view that education should increasingly be seen as a service to industry in its provision of vocationally relevant education programs such as those offered in tourism and hospitality management may well have resulted in an unintended and unforeseen effect on curriculum. The net result may have led to a diminution of course content relevant to industry, and could be explained by the resistance from educational institutions which were unprepared to incorporate what they perceived as unworthy subjects for the pursuit of academic excellence. Yet, arguably, there are few vocational education courses at degree level that provide an education as geared towards a particular industry as does tourism and hospitality management. In comparison, general business degrees qualify students for entry into a variety of careers and occupations.

The academic literature reflects a debate regarding whether the most appropriate educational program in tourism and hospitality management today should be focused more on specific skills or on general management. The recent tendency of the industry to hire more generally trained graduates drawn from a range of eclectic disciplines tends to suggest that there is still room for improvement in matching industry needs to educational programs' outcomes (Becker, 1993). Moreover, Goodman and Sprague (1991) had earlier also pointed out that there was already

clear evidence that the hospitality industry was just as likely to recruit from business schools as hospitality programs:

When Marriott and McDonald... seek the best marketing graduates, or the best finance graduates, or the best information systems graduates, where do they look? The answer is that many companies seek business-school graduates (Goodman and Sprague, 1991, p.68).

As Lennon (1989) argued, it is perhaps finally with the industry itself that a final part of the answer lies. Tourism and hospitality programs have an advantage over business schools because they offer a more tangible product. The industry clearly expects to have some say in tourism and hospitality management education provision (Trollope, 1988). However, despite attempts by tourism and hospitality management educators to provide relevant and applicable management education, many graduates soon realise that such factors as high level of job satisfaction and people industry syndrome are not sufficient to compensate for the relatively low material rewards of pay and employment conditions. Moreover, Stone (1988) found that hotel managers tended to have lower scholastic achievements than managers in other industries, providing one possible explanation of why there is still some reluctance from hotel managers to welcome management degree students, regarding them as too academic, and perhaps, even as a threat to their own position and authority.

5.2.2 The Issue of a “Core” Curriculum

With no common core for tourism and hospitality studies, there is likely to be wide variation in the content and focus of the courses, which can cause confusion among applicants and potential employers. Cooper et al. (1992) argued for a standardisation in the tourism curriculum in order to give the area a credible and identifiable focus.

The core curriculum debate largely centres around, on the one hand, the issues of coherence, credibility, academic standards and quality associated with the implementation of a core curriculum and, on the other hand, diversity and autonomy associated with freedom that comes without a core curriculum. There are clear advocates from each camp.

Strong support for the concept of a core curriculum, as a means of setting standards for tourism education, has come from official bodies and researchers alike¹.

However, opponents of such a scheme argue that it is the diversity in tourism and hospitality education provision which has created a source of vibrant, focused and specialised teaching and research².

There are also tensions to be resolved between the academic and vocational emphasis of the courses. Ladkin (1999) reported that these appear to pull in opposite directions when determining content. Cooper et al. (1994) addressed the education industry interface and argued that on the one hand, a more standardised approach might provide industry with a clearer picture of what constitutes tourism studies, and therefore, employers might be more disposed towards taking on tourism graduates at an appropriate level. On the other hand, they argued that if a curriculum is more fully

1 The Council for National Academic Awards in the UK; the British Tourism Society; the British National Liaison Group for Higher Education in Tourism; Leiper (1981); Clark (1992); Koh (1994, 1995); Swarbrooke (1994); Airey (1995, 1997); Holloway (1995); and Middleton and Ladkin (1996), Middleton (1997).

2 Gunn (1992); Cooper et al. (1992, 1994); and Baum (1997).

prescribed and consequently less flexible, there may be fewer opportunities for industry to input its views on course development³.

Moreover, it is difficult to determine and prescribe education and training needs for an industry which is largely fragmented and dominated by small businesses⁴. As the majority of these businesses are run by owners and managers who have not traditionally held tourism and hospitality qualifications, there is a lack of understanding and, probably, suspicion by employers of the new generation of tourism and hospitality courses (Cooper et al., 1994). In addition, as argued above, many employers appear to prefer to employ general graduates rather than someone with a specific tourism and hospitality education (Cooper et al., 1994; Ryan, 1995; Cave, 1997). Furthermore, the diverse nature of the industry makes it difficult to establish a clear direction and focus for education needs, and many tourism and hospitality employers do not see the necessity to invest in education for their staff (Swarbrook, 1994). Thus, there is a growing awareness of the need to integrate education, training and development within an organisation's business objectives. As Ladkin (1999) argued, a way forward in this regard is to encourage education to work in closer partnership to deliver programs more tailored to industry needs. Thus, as

³ Westlakes and Cooper (1998, p.587) raised five questions on this issue:

- Does the development of a standardised curriculum allow for innovation in learning and teaching processes?
- Does it allow for student-centred approaches and the integration of the teaching of tourism and hospitality into the wider contexts of the environment and the community and the post-formal educational phases?
- Does it allow for the development of continuing vocational education and training for those in work and for the development of new and experimental ideas in forms of delivery?
- Does it act as a straightjacket to further development of the subject area?
- Does this approach towards standardisation facilitate the measurement of quality with a move towards the grading of educational institutions according to teaching quality and research output?

⁴ See Chapter 2 on Industry Economics.

industry represents one of the main stakeholders who have an interest in tourism and hospitality education, their views need to be taken into account.

In connection with education needs, the issue also arises as to the extent in which it may be possible to meet employee needs through distance learning modes and courses agreed to with employers. As identified by Cooper et al. (1994), flexibility in education is an essential component in the 1990s. Modularisation, distance learning, credit accumulation, transfer schemes, and recognition of prior learning, are all attempts to reduce the rigidity of educational courses. The tailoring of educational courses specifically to employers needs may be the direction tourism and hospitality education is taking, and future methods of delivery could include short courses, distance learning, and in-company education schemes.

5.2.3 Maintenance of Quality Standards in Courses

With the rapid expansion experienced by the tertiary education sector and the emergence of a number of stakeholders who have interest in developing tourism and hospitality education, managing quality issues has become paramount. Some institutions keen to place themselves competitively have cut corners for some of their courses. For example, there is a wide disparity between such factors as length of courses, mode of delivery, content, fees charged and entry criteria to name but a few. The major stakeholders involved are the educational establishments and staff, the tourism and hospitality industry, the students undertaking the courses, and the government (Westalke and Cooper, 1998). Ladkin (1999) argued that by the management of the quality of the outputs of the curriculum design and the curriculum delivery system, greater efficiency is provided and the management of the quality of

the outputs of the curriculum design and the curriculum delivery system monitors customer satisfaction. Furthermore, she argued, that international bodies such as the WTO are attempting to integrate quality standards into tourism education and training, and that the adoption of quality management in tourism and hospitality education is evidence of the emergent new paradigm that is characterised by efficiency, flexibility, and responsiveness to consumers. However, the growing demand for courses is being met by a system that does not guarantee the quality or the equitability of courses, and there appears to be a wide variance between the learning contents of courses that, on the surface, appear to be of equal value. As Westalke and Cooper (1998) argued, there is a need for rethinking and re-engineering of all the elements of curriculum planning with major implications for all tourism and hospitality educators.

The issue of managing quality outputs also raises the question of whether it is in fact possible to satisfy the job expectations of successive graduates who enrol in vocationally oriented courses. The growing aspect of “over-provision” of tourism and hospitality courses is a serious issue. In Britain, the Council for National Academic Awards is concerned that the supply of tourism and hospitality degree courses is growing faster than the capacity of the tourism and hospitality industry nationally to provide graduate level employment. Set against this is the argument that tourism and hospitality degrees should provide flexible skills that are applicable to many occupations, and equip students with the necessary skills to compete in the open labour markets⁵. Airey (1995), Ryan (1995), and Cave (1997) argued that tourism and

⁵ In 1999, this would entail programs to be highly flexible in delivery, mixing distance-education study packs with classes held in workplaces, on campus, in residential intensives or via tele-tutorials, video-conferencing or via frequent internet contact.

hospitality students have a range of transferable skills which are applicable to a range of occupations, thus over-provision was not an issue that should cause problems specifically for tourism and hospitality courses.

5.2.4 Staffing Tourism and Hospitality Management Education Programs

The practice of drawing tourism and hospitality educators from the ranks of academics and industry dates back to the early beginnings of the existence of this discipline. Early tourism and hospitality education programs directly employed academics and, of necessity, drew a large proportion of lecturers from the ranks of industry executives. Over time, the balance has swung towards departments having a higher proportion of staff drawn from the ranks of academia, albeit some staff may still be part of a related business (Lefever & Withiam, 1995). Thus, today's courses in the U.S., at least, are primarily run by academically trained staff who invite individual guest lecturers drawn from practising managers in the tourism and hospitality industry.

The nature of tourism and hospitality management courses has changed over time, and evolved from a strong focus on practical operations to one of strategic thinking and planning. Likewise, the credentials required of staff have changed from a focus on knowledge of practical techniques to one of management and conceptual knowledge. Lewis (1993) argued that tourism and hospitality management educators who prepare students for senior positions must anticipate the future needs of the industry and provide the research and leadership that will chart the path. However, in most instances, curricula are tailored to what the industry has needed in the past, not what it needs today or will need in the future. Many educators are out of touch with

the business world, are unaware of its evolving needs, and continue to provide solutions for yesterday's problems.

In the early 1980s tourism and hospitality education in the U.S., at least, seemed to be on its way to becoming either a sub-division of business education, or a fully fledged academic discipline in its own right. However, at issue was the appropriate balance between scholarly accomplishments and industry experience for the hiring of staff. Nebel et al. (1986) warned that expansion of tourism and hospitality education and a focus on the doctoral degree for hiring academics might cause a shortage in staff with appropriate credentials. They were also concerned that the doctorate was overbalancing industry experience, as were Wachtel and Pavesic (1983), who argued that tourism and hospitality educators with industry experience were better teachers than educators without industry experience. This view was also echoed by Powers and Riegel (1984) who suggested that the doctorate may not be absolutely necessary. However, the latter asserted that a knowledge of how to conduct research and teach at the college level was essential for anyone teaching tourism and hospitality management education, as this knowledge enabled them to determine which questions should be asked and which issues should be researched.

In the period since 1986, both the industry and tourism and hospitality management education have experienced considerable changes, not the least of which have included an industry shake out and a reconsideration or reconstruction of many academic programs. There is little indication from the literature, however, that there is a shortage of staff with doctorates obtaining positions in tourism and hospitality management programs in the U.S. Moreover, the combination of a master's degree

and industry experience appears to remain an acceptable credential for employment in tourism and hospitality faculties in the U.S. (Lefevre & Withiam, 1995).

However, what is interesting to note is the greatest disparity in the doctoral-degree fields. Woods (1994) reported that in 1982, of the tourism and hospitality educators with doctorates, 24 per cent were in education, 23 per cent were in business, with only 14 per cent holding their doctorates in tourism and hospitality management. In 1994, he found that the percentages were 40 for education, 22 for fields other than those identified in his survey, and 16 in tourism and hospitality management, representing a very small shift towards what can be described as specialist tourism and hospitality management qualifications. Woods also found that the level of industry experience between 1982 and 1994 in U.S. faculties had actually risen, this experience apparently gained while working at higher management levels.

It is important to consider in an Australian context if it is accepted that the pursuit and emphasis on research remains a key to the future of tourism and hospitality education. What is missing in the literature, however, is the connection between credentials, research, and actual excellence in the classroom. An advance degree does not necessarily ensure teaching quality, although arguably a strong research record should contribute to the advancement of knowledge. Ultimately, the goal of tourism and hospitality educators must be to develop and present the materials students need to be effective participants in the industry.

Another aspect to consider when assessing academic staff performance and contribution to learning is closely tied to professional motivation and incentives. As

Krupp (1982) argued it is a challenge to keep enthusiasm high and knowledge current, whilst also keeping productivity and scholarship focused. Each staff member in an educational institution has a unique personality and set of aspirations, which are linked to the motivational force of that person. Moreover, there are stages in the career development of staff and critical impacts in each stage. The progression-path model (PPM) developed by Chesser et al. (1993) argued that a member of staff can either have convergent or divergent goals with those of his/her institution, and that it is more likely for these views to be convergent at the early career stage. The role of the institution, therefore, can be said to play an important part in the performance and output of the individual. Thus, as colleges and universities place an increasing emphasis on productivity in the area of research and publication, it has created a potential for incongruence between staff and institution. It can be argued that this shift in emphasis is a natural outgrowth of the maturation of tourism and hospitality management education (Chesser & Taylor, 1994), but this change has had clear implications on both motivational and productivity aspects.

5.2.5 Curriculum Implications of Student Placements in Industry

In Australia the issue of student placements in industry is central to educational institutions and to the tourism and hospitality industry. Thus, efforts to incorporate work placements have traditionally been prevalent in most programs involved in the area. Australian educational institutions are not alone in their attempt to incorporate work placements. Most education and training systems in Europe acknowledge the need for such a system to ensure that the graduates they produce are industry-wise in an effort to silence industry complaints about young recruits' lack of experience and practical training (European Institute of Education and Social Policy (EIESP), 1991).

In Australia, the industry recognises the need to provide support and work placement opportunities for students. However, with the sudden growth of programs in the area there is an increasing demand being made on the industry to provide placements. Moreover, the goals and objectives of these placements sought by educational establishments do not necessarily coincide with those of students and industry, hence creating a tension between the parties concerned. Educators are often seeking a realistic and valuable training period for the student. The student is usually hoping for a well-rounded and structured experience, whilst industry often sees the student as a low cost employee.

In this respect, the EIESP (1991) report suggested that students are often seen as an alternative to taking on expensive temporary staff during peak times, and that students are commonly confined to repetitive tasks with no job rotation policies to encourage personal and experiential development. Another area of tension is the period of work experience considered useful and appropriate by industry, educators and students. Industry argues that the length of time spent on placement necessary to provide students with a meaningful work experience must be substantial. However, the resource implications for both industry and educational institutions to meet such constraints are such that neither can realistically meet them.

Ittig (1989) also noted that the extensive work experience or internship requirement was a particularly noteworthy difference between tourism and hospitality programs and other programs in business schools. The justification for the internship (or

practicum or work experience) requirement, he argued, was that the tourism and hospitality industry expected it.

Casado (1991) measured the extent to which recruiters, alumni, and educators felt that the tourism and hospitality curriculum met their needs, what qualities of the program were predictors of success, and which characteristics of the faculty and the program they felt best represented quality. Casado reported that the three groups believed that supervised hands-on practical work experience in an industry was of high importance, thus concluding that hotel management programs should provide students with an internship or some equivalent practical experience.

Knight (1984), in his attempt to determine the focal points of tourism and hospitality management education, concurred that technical and practical experience should be part of the curriculum in hotel management programs. Tas (1983) also supported this view, concluding that hotel management programs should develop experiences that allow students to have positive interactions with others through some form of practical work experiences. Moreover, Tas concluded that the academic degree earned influenced the importance of competencies more than other independent variables. Wisch (1988) also argued that students seeking quality undergraduate hotel management education expected the program to include some form of practical industry exposure.

Practical education is also an integral part of the curriculum in other fields of study beside tourism and hospitality management. Thus, Forney (1990) reported that students from 16 programs in the field of personnel management viewed work

experiences as a positive part of their preparation for their careers. Qtaishat (1988), in a survey of accounting practitioners, also found that industry professionals thought that practical training should be part of the curriculum. Indeed, practical education is perceived as so important that when it is not possible to incorporate it into the curriculum, educators must develop and provide alternative methods of instruction in the classroom environment to simulate practical experience (Scanlon & Newcomb, 1983).

A major issue in tourism and hospitality management education is ensuring the application of classroom learning experiences to actual management situations. To make certain that students have the requisite practical experience, virtually every tourism and hospitality management school or program requires some form of practicum or internship (Lebruto et al., 1994). For instance, Cook (1988) argued that not only were these experiences necessary but that such learning experiences should be responsive to industry demands. Indeed, as Stuttz (1995) argued, an indicator of a successful program for the graduate and undergraduate student is placement.

However, in some traditional programs, the emphasis remains on theoretical subjects, with advanced subjects (finance, marketing, business and corporate strategy) taking up a lot of the curriculum (Jayawardena, 1996). As the industry has a strong practical orientation, it is not surprising that such an approach draws criticism from professionals, particularly as this knowledge, although useful for people in more senior managerial positions, will seldom be put into practice in early career stages. This lack of congruence between industry expectations and tourism and hospitality management education may result in young graduates drifting away from the

industry. Many new graduates, in fact, are not even seeking positions in the industry, where the diminishing middle level of management is the only career for which tourism and hospitality management programs are preparing them (Lewis, 1993).

5.2.6 “Hands-on” or “Hands-off” Experience

The issue of practical experience, already mentioned in previous chapters, surfaces regularly throughout the literature and, as argued above, is considered an important facet of tourism and hospitality programs. It is a fact that theoretical input for a student embarking on a career in tourism and hospitality will give a sound foundation in terms of knowledge and concepts (Jayawardena, 1996). However, unless adequate practical experience is gained, it is difficult to expect students to gain competence in performing technical tasks. Exposure to such skills via demonstration and/or explanations falls well short of practical experience in real situations.

The importance of integrating “hands-on” experience into a more formal educational framework is advocated by King (1994) who reviewed the development of tourism and hospitality cooperative education, defined as a pedagogical process involving a relationship between educators, industry employers and students. The espoused benefits of this approach are that students are introduced to the working environment of their chosen industry, develop awareness of supervision, management, motivation, and decision making, apply academic knowledge in employment situations, and learn to accept individual responsibilities by working as part of a team. King concluded that the sound philosophical principles of cooperative education are essential for

tourism and hospitality management education and that urgent action was needed in Australia to protect earlier advances made.

However, this view is not shared by all. Indeed, overemphasis in the teaching of technical skills may place tourism and hospitality graduates at a disadvantage in the age of service management. Umbreit (1992) argued that instruction in leadership, service management, and marketing principles should comprise the cornerstones of future tourism and hospitality curricula, which are preparing graduates for successful careers in hotel and restaurant organisations. Support for this view can be found in two surveys. First, a survey of lodging industry and non-commercial food service industry leaders revealed the foundational attributes of leadership encompassing: vision, communication, trust, and perseverance (Cichy, Sciarini, Cook, & Patton, 1991). Second, a survey involving graduates of 11 hospitality programs between 1983 and 1987 reinforced the value of business course content in subjects such as finance/accounting, personnel/supervision, employee relations, and sales/marketing. Moreover, these graduates most often identified these subjects as areas in which they would have liked to have had more in-depth instruction (Pavesic & Brymer, 1990).

5.3 Curriculum Based Research in Tourism and Hospitality

The literature on tourism and hospitality management education is clear in that curriculum development and program flexibility and adaptability are seen as critical issues in meeting student and industry demands towards the next century. Thus, Meyer, Koppel, and Tas (1990) discussed the future needs of graduate tourism and hospitality education from faculty, student, and program administration perspectives. They concluded that curriculum was a critical issue of concern, coupled with the

quality of faculty and institutional resources. Redlin, Tabacchi, Sherry and Boothe (1991) conducted a strategic analysis of graduate programs in tourism and hospitality education and identified strengths, weaknesses, opportunities, and threats for expanding these programs. Mann (1993) projected what the tourism and hospitality classroom might look like in the year 2005, and Powers and Riegel (1993) addressed the question of whether tourism and hospitality education will survive for another generation.

Other contributions offered more specific prescriptions. Sims and Sands (1989) proposed a curriculum model for planning and evaluating tourism and hospitality management programs⁶. They distinguished between four phases of such educational programs: mission, program goals, competency-based objectives, and learning activities. Quinton (1988) also recommended four ingredients for maintaining a five star tourism and hospitality program, which included general education, business education, industry field experiences, and quality students.

Some of the literature on tourism and hospitality management curriculum development also reports on various methodological approaches to study this phenomenon. Knutson and Patton (1992) used factor analysis that yielded four dimensions of hospitality management skills perceived by students to be important for their careers. Partlow (1990) studied a sample of 183 managers and 296 educators in order to determine their competency expectation of graduates with advanced degrees in hospitality management. His research instrument included a mail

⁶ Quoted in Bach A. and Milman A. (1996).

questionnaire that asked respondents to evaluate competency statements. Ittig (1989) conducted a study for a proposed baccalaureate program in a state university business school. Data were obtained through both interviews with program directors of tourism and hospitality management programs, as well as a review of their departmental literature.

More recently, Bach and Milman (1996) conducted an important study to assess the perceptions of key constituency groups in determining the skills, competencies, and knowledge required of graduates of tourism and hospitality management programs for managerial positions in the coming years. The objectives of the study were:

- to examine a traditional tourism and hospitality management curriculum in order to determine how it could be adapted to the innovative goals of a recently revised business school curriculum;
- to obtain information from the department's key constituents, faculty, students, and an advisory board, regarding their perspective on how the departmental curriculum could best meet the needs of the industry in the next century; and,
- to apply an innovative qualitative research technique to this problem-solving process.

Representatives of the faculty, students, and the advisory board of the department that participated in the study were required to address the following question - "What are the specific topics, subjects, or areas of coverage that a hospitality management curriculum must contain to provide the skills, competencies, and areas of knowledge/expertise required by graduates of the hospitality management program in

the year 2000 and beyond?"- In the analysis of their findings, Bach and Milman found that all three groups made recommendations that fitted into four clusters:

- skills pertaining to business functional areas (such as accounting, finance and marketing);
- skills pertaining to tourism/hospitality functional areas (such as accommodation, foodservice, conference and convention, tourism and travel);
- personality skills pertaining to the individual characteristics or traits of an effective manager or executive;
- analytical skills, or the ability to master various types of information through computer literacy, reports, research, and similar means. This cluster also incorporated skills pertaining to the learning process.

The three groups agreed about the importance of the business functional areas lending strong support for a tourism and hospitality department's affiliation within the confines of a business school, or at the very least requiring business core courses as part of the curriculum. The groups also raised attention concerning the critical nature of internships and cooperative education, as well as issues of cultural diversity and internationalisation of the industry.

5.4 Summary

The nature of curriculum debates are manifested most commonly, firstly, on the notion of core curriculum, and secondly, on the scope and nature of industry input into curriculum development and design (Shepherd and Cooper, 1995), as argued in this chapter. The establishment of a core curriculum in tourism and hospitality management education in Australia is supported by those who see it as a way to improve the overall quality of teaching and learning and the standard of the information delivered. This will ensure a safeguard that the theoretical under-pinning of the area are correctly identified and taught by educators. Those who oppose the establishment of a core curriculum argue that it would stifle innovation, reduce the development of the body of knowledge, and ask whether educators requiring core curriculum guidelines should be teaching tourism and hospitality management at all.

Having the characteristics of an open system, tourism in a country or region operates within a set of environments – physical, technological, social, cultural, economic, and political – that influences the people who travel and the businesses and organisations which serve them. In the development of the tourism profession, it is fundamental therefore that the components and functions of this industry, along with its effects, be understood (Howell & Ulysal, 1987). Such a perspective of the industry and its component forces should help tourism and hospitality management educators in their design of future curricula. As a result, future students should be better prepared to enter the industry and make greater contributions earlier in their careers.

The extent and nature of industry input into curriculum and course design remains critical to any future development in the area. At lower levels of training where it is

vocationally and sector based (for instance TAFE), the need for industry participation in the development of the curriculum appears obvious. However, at higher levels of education for tourism and hospitality, the issues are quite different and the tensions much more diverse and complex as will be illustrated in the next chapter.

Chapter 6

Graduate Tourism and Hospitality Management Education

6.1 Introduction

While undergraduate programs generally have a larger and more academically diverse student body, graduate programs by their definition, exist for the student with serious academic and professional interests. Bosselman (1996b) argued that tourism and hospitality graduate programs, like graduate programs in other disciplines, seek students with a balance of scholarship and managerial work experience.

However, as graduate tourism and hospitality programs continue to grow in size and number, concerns still remain over the effectiveness of graduate education in the area. Pizam (1985) first addressed this issue when he challenged educators to consider whether their graduate programs were giving students the skills and knowledge they needed for working in the industry. Callman (1988) also questioned the necessity of graduate tourism and hospitality education, whilst Smith (1990) argued that the complex problems of the future will best be solved by those with advanced education, and that the demand for advanced professionals in the industry will continue to increase. The issue of relevance in graduate tourism and hospitality education remains unresolved.

The content of this chapter focuses on the issues confronting graduate tourism and hospitality education. A strong parallel is drawn between these issues and those found in both the undergraduate and vocational areas. Difficulties associated with the

establishment of graduate programs in tourism and hospitality management education will be identified, and it is postulated that graduate educators are called to anticipate the needs of practising professionals in the future, rather than focus on the present requirements which drive the industry today. The issues of staffing, resourcing, and research in graduate education will be explored, as will the issues and challenges facing tourism and hospitality educators in the future. Finally, a general model for graduate tourism and hospitality management education will be outlined in the context of the changing industry and educational environment in Australia.

6.2 Graduate Tourism and Hospitality Management Education

Much of the discussion so far has centred on the provision of education and training at the technical and/or undergraduate level, with brief but infrequent references to the graduate area. However, as the number of undergraduate programs have increased both overseas and in Australia each year, so have the number of graduate programs in tourism and hospitality education¹.

Within this context, there is concern among tourism and hospitality educators and others as to what actually constitutes graduate management education in tourism and hospitality. Similar issues and concerns relevant to the technical and undergraduate areas are also pertinent and relevant to the graduate area. Thus, issues of curriculum, direction, structure, fit, and administration of programs need also to be addressed. The roles and responsibilities of government bodies, industry, academia and students

¹ Refer to Appendix 2.

also need consideration in addressing the variety of issues and challenges that lie ahead for graduate tourism and hospitality management education.

Tourism and hospitality educators have also been concerned about the effectiveness of graduate programs in tourism and hospitality management. Thus, Pizam (1985) asked whether graduate programs in the area were equipped to offer a variety of in-depth courses that would advance students' knowledge beyond what they have already acquired in their undergraduate work. Another concern was the need for graduate programs to meet the needs of industry.

Umbreit and Pederson (1989) assessed the status and development of tourism and hospitality education graduate programs in the USA². Their research focused on enrolment trends, sources of enrolments, types of degree programs, placement information and the administration of programs. Results indicated the existence of 16 graduate programs in tourism and hospitality education, with 13 other schools planning to develop a graduate program in the near future. Although significant interest was shown in developing graduate programs in tourism and hospitality management, the research did not identify the curriculum emphasis of these programs.

Engel (1989) identified three types of graduate programs in the tourism and hospitality area: professional programs, research programs, and combination programs. Professional programs prepare students for upper level management

² The survey was conducted on behalf of CHRIE's graduate Programs Technical Committee which represented the interests of graduate education among CHRIE members.

positions, supervision of multi-unit operations, consulting, and education. Research programs lead to a Master of Science or a Doctor of Philosophy degree and are for those interested in teaching and research. Combination programs provide both professional studies and the research component by including a thesis option.

As noted above, several studies have focused on determining essential competencies for entry level tourism and hospitality managers. Significant among them are the works of Mariamposlki, Spears and Vaden (1980), Burgermeister (1983), Tas (1988), and Baum (1990a). However, each of these studies focused very much at either the technical or undergraduate level of tourism and hospitality management education, and contained implications for development of tourism and hospitality management curricula at the undergraduate or technical level.

6.2.1 Difficulties with the Establishment of Graduate Programs in Tourism and Hospitality Management

It is a philosophical reality that the business community will continue to demand more highly educated and skilled professionals in the future, and that these demands will impact on all levels of education. In graduate studies, both credentialism and a growing appreciation of the value of higher learning (of upgrading knowledge, skills and understanding throughout life) have also contributed to the rise in demand for graduate courses. In a sense, graduate enrolments have grown in pace with the growth in society's educational aspirations.

However, as observed with technical and undergraduate education, there are continuing tensions between the educational demands of current professionals (as

articulated commonly by professional associations and societies) versus the educational demands that are likely to exist in the future. Thus, graduate educators are called to anticipate the needs of practising professionals in the foreseeable future, rather than focus on the present requirements which drive the industry today.

At this stage, there seems to be no common core curriculum among Australian, or for that matter overseas universities that offer graduate programs in the area. In addition, there is clearly no agreement as to what such a degree should be called. Indeed, as Appendix 2 suggests, there is a wide variance among both course offering and course titles.

However, perhaps the greatest challenge facing graduate programs lies with resources. Graduate education takes resources such as qualified staff, money and institutional resources. As commented earlier with respect to both technical and undergraduate education, the difficulty of finding qualified staff appears to be a real problem facing many tertiary institutions.

6.2.2 Staffing and Resources

Level of staff qualifications and competencies is a recurring theme throughout the literature, and it is an issue often debated by those who teach at both the graduate and undergraduate level. The essential qualifications and desirable qualities for graduate program educators in tourism and hospitality management were identified at a symposium on Hospitality and Graduate Education in the 1990s as³:

³ In April 1990, several hospitality educators met in Blacksburg, Virginia, at Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University, USA, to discuss graduate hospitality education.

- strong academic credentials in specific areas;
- research experience;
- teaching experience,
- industry experience;
- persons who are thinkers as opposed to doers;
- strong library skills; and,
- ethics.

These requirements matched what were then accepted guidelines for teaching on graduate programs in the USA, as outlined by the Council of Graduate Schools in the USA (1978, p.8). These were that:

- each faculty member should have a command of their field;
- each faculty member has earned the highest degree in that field;
- graduate faculty from several related Master's programs at the institution contribute and gain strength from the other graduate faculty;
- faculty carry only a moderate load of formal courses to allow more time for graduate seminars and laboratories, and the more frequent one-to-one student-faculty contacts characteristic of graduate as opposed to baccalaureate programs;
- the number of graduate students being directed by an individual faculty member should be kept small;
- adequate time must be allowed to permit professors to keep informed and current with developments in their discipline;
- special funds for scholarly activities or research should be made available;

- sabbatical and professional leave programs are particularly important for faculty to maintain scholarly interests and develop research programs; and,
- maintain support staff for graduate faculty.

Although these recommendations are USA based, they very likely represent commonly held beliefs throughout the community of scholars around the world.

In general, graduate programs are expensive. Staff teach fewer classes and handle fewer students, but that is in accordance with the nature of graduate education. Therefore, an institution undertaking to deliver such programs must have a commitment to allocate financial resources to the programs. Inherent in this is that the library must have facilities significantly beyond the needs of undergraduate programs.

6.2.3 Research in Graduate Education in Tourism and Hospitality Management

Although interest in developing graduate programs in tourism and hospitality management is growing (Umbreit and Pederson, 1989), until recently little if any research has been available which would assist in formulating guidelines and developing curricula for tourism and hospitality graduate programs.

The research specific to graduate programs in tourism and hospitality is scant.

Although, Smith (1990) identified competencies that are important to tourism and hospitality professionals and which should be incorporated into graduate programs into the future, most of the reported studies consist of specific course evaluations

with recommendations on how to improve these⁴. Thus, Ecklund et al (1989) queried graduates of the Master of Science degree program in Institutional Management to determine what significance they placed on the 39 food service systems management and business-related concepts studied at the university in relation to their current jobs⁵. Most of these graduates were employed in some area of food service management or dietetics, and while they reported that most of the concepts studied in the graduate program were applicable to their current professional positions, they rated as most important the concepts of:

- problem solving;
- decision-making;
- communications;
- personnel management; and,
- time management.

Van Hoof (1991) interviewed tourism and hospitality industry recruiters to determine their views on the marketability of graduates with a master's degree⁶. As the most important subjects to be taught in graduate tourism and hospitality programs, recruiters identified:

- finance;
- accounting;
- human resource management; and,

4 Smith (1990) identified five competencies: knowledge and training in library technology; computer skills; teaching abilities; research management; ethics; and, cultural consciousness.

5 At Kansas State University.

6 At the University of Houston's School of Hotel and Restaurant Management Annual Career Fair.

- general management skills.

Van Hoof concluded that educators should work with industry leaders to evaluate the usefulness of graduate education and to tailor programs accordingly.

Enz et al. (1993) also surveyed senior hospitality industry professionals and Master of Professional Studies (MPS) alumni to identify the skills considered to be critical for success in their organisations, and what they looked for when hiring a person with a master's degree⁷. As most valued and necessary to succeed in the industry, the surveyed group identified:

- ethics;
- leadership;
- communications;
- teamwork; and,
- problem-solving.

In a significant study, Partlow (1990) investigated graduate education in tourism and hospitality management and its implications for curriculum development. The purpose of Partlow's research was to secure information from tourism and hospitality managers and educators concerning their expectations for competencies of graduates with advanced degrees in tourism and hospitality management. Specific objectives of the research were to differentiate competencies appropriate for development at the bachelor's degree level, the master's level, or through experience on the job; to identify the extent of experience required to develop competency; and to compare

⁷ In an effort to redesign the MPS program in the School of Hotel Administration at Cornell University.

ratings provided by tourism and hospitality managers and educators who evaluated the competency statements.

Partlow's study sample of 183 managers and 296 educators was asked to classify 46 competency statements (summarised in Appendix 5) according to educational level and experience required for competency development. Seven competencies were found not to be related to level of education and 27 were identified at the bachelor's level. All competencies in both groups were considered to require up to three years of experience for competence development. Five competencies were classified as requiring a master's degree, four of which were considered to require more than three years of experience to develop competency.

Partlow found from the results of his study that there were significant differences between educator and managers' responses on educational level required for competency development. Concerning the competencies classified as not related to education level, educators and managers disagreed on evaluating guest satisfaction and solving employee grievances. In both instances, a higher percentage of managers than of educators believed educational level was not related to competency development.

Educators and managers disagreed regarding level of education to develop proficiency in six competencies classified as requiring the bachelor's degree. Greater proportions of educators than of managers believed that conceptualising managerial responsibilities, utilising situation analysis in decision making, and developing equipment specifications were competencies that could be attained at the bachelor's

level. The role of experience in developing competency was emphasised to a greater degree among the managers than among educators with regard to developing job descriptions, evaluating use of computer, and determining facility layout and design.

Concerning the competencies requiring a master's degree, educators and managers disagreed on conducting and/or directing research, preparing funding proposals, and applying research results to the operation. In each instance, a higher percentage of educators than of managers specified master's level.

Partlow (1990) concluded that classification of competency statements according to educational and experience would be useful in developing guidelines for graduate education in tourism and hospitality management. The five competency statements indicated as requiring a master's degree from his study provided a basis for developing objectives in graduate programs.

Moreover, clarification of bachelor's level competencies would serve to direct graduate curricula away from these areas of competency and toward the more appropriate areas identified as master's level. Also, the differentiation of bachelor's level competencies by extent of experience required provided a framework for identifying performance areas for which the educational institution was primarily responsible and those for which responsibility should be shared by educators and employers. Thus, according to Partlow, educators and employers should share responsibility for competency development in the performance areas addressed by the seven competencies for which no consensus was reached on educational level.

Finally, Partlow concluded that any guidelines or standards that may be developed for graduate education in tourism and hospitality management should be flexible. Educators must be permitted to develop programs based upon the unique strengths available at an institution⁸.

Later, Partlow and Gregoire (1994) looked at the relevance of the master's degree in tourism and hospitality management based on perceptions of graduates from a number of programs. Specific objectives of this research were to identify professional characteristics of the master's degree graduates; determine the relevance of specific hospitality and food service management concepts to graduates' current jobs; and determine if the students gained competence from sources other than the graduate program. They found and recommended that:

- graduate curriculums should include more business-related subjects (accounting, finance, human resources, strategy, and marketing);
- graduate curriculums should provide flexibility in allowing students to choose from among courses reflecting concepts applicable to particular industry segments (lodging, restaurant operations, and institutional food service);
- graduate faculty should structure courses to help strengthen student skills in the more essential concept areas (written and oral communications, problem-solving, decision making, critical thinking, team work, and strategic planning skills).

⁸ A summary of Partlow's findings is in Appendix 5.

Partlow and Gregoire's study showed that master's degree graduates believe concepts taught in the classroom are relevant to current practice. However, they pointed out that if graduate tourism and hospitality education was to play a greater role in educating future professionals, educators needed to do a better job of informing industry on the benefits of hiring graduates with a master's degree in the field.

6.3 Issues and Challenges Facing Tourism and Hospitality Management Educators

Whereas lack of recognition, apathy, and even disdain were characteristic of the late 1970s and early 1980s, different issues confront tourism and hospitality management educators in the 1990s. Ritchie (1995, p.8) identified these as:

- responding to the diverse needs of a multi-dimensional tourism industry;
- determining the relative emphasis to be placed on scholarly versus industry concerns;
- developing frameworks for the range of multi-disciplinary programs required by tourism as a whole;
- determining the relative emphasis to be placed on generic versus specialised programming;
- marshalling the financial and human resources necessary to deliver quality programs;
- ensuring acceptance and effective use of tourism/hospitality graduates as the industry undergoes a major transformation; and,
- developing a system which appropriately balances tourism/hospitality education and training needs and integrates their delivery.

There is also a constant and on-going need for educators to retain an up-to-date knowledge of industry trends and practices to ensure that the academic perspective is consistent with the industry approach. Ritchie (1988) suggested that this was feasible through the preparation of case materials for teaching, the use of industry advisory councils, serving on boards of directors of industry associations and private firms, consultancy activity, industry exchange programs, and cooperative programming of courses.

Goodenough & Page (1993) suggested that among other things the education-industry interface could be strengthened by:

- outside visits to public and private sector organisations involved in tourism;
- seminars and visiting speakers from the tourism industry;
- role playing, peer group assessment and feedback session;
- an element of self managed learning;
- the presentation of projects which provide a convincing simulation of the real world;
- cooperation with the tourism industry; and,
- problem solving within a formal format.

Clearly, the main benefits for industry, educators, and students alike are the creation of links and networks which facilitate a cooperative relationship between the three and which brings benefits to all (Shepperd and Cooper, 1995). Moreover, it is important that industry and education work together as partners to improve the

industry's image among potential employees and to raise the perceived acceptability of tourism and hospitality in general. As Ritchie (1992) argued, it is also imperative that industry and education resolve to cooperate more fully with other stakeholders in tourism and hospitality including the community and the consumer.

The formal and informal interaction between education and industry is therefore positive and beneficial. Experiences are shared, gaps in the body of knowledge identified, and research partnerships are forged. Educators can then re-invest some of the information and knowledge into the delivery of their programs and the content of their curricula, providing benefits to students and to themselves. As a result, the standards of teaching and learning are established, continually reviewed and dissipated.

In addition to student and industry-led innovations, developments occurring within a wider industrial context are also impinging upon training and education for tourism and hospitality. Recent research conducted globally through the support of the International Hotel & Restaurant Association sought to determine what industry leaders considered to be the major changes occurring in the industry⁹. The research identified the following issues as critical:

- **Capacity control** – loss of control by the industry on the sale of their inventory (such as hotel rooms, airline seats, seats in restaurants), suggesting that the industry will be marketed differently in the future,

⁹ M.D. Olsen, Into the Millennium, A White Paper on the International Hospitality Industry, quoted in *Strategic Management in the Hospitality Industry* (1998), p.16

influencing advertising, promotion, pricing, and placing more control in the hands of consumers.

- ***Safety and security*** – challenges of assuring customers' personal safety and health will increasingly burden tourism and hospitality enterprises.
- ***Assets and capital*** – attracting capital to support industry growth will be a significant challenge for managers, putting greater pressure on effective strategic management practices.
- ***Technology*** – the convergence of telecommunications, computers, speed and mode of information transfer is making it possible for firms to compete in new ways, and makes technology the most important competitive method that tourism and hospitality firms will employ in the future.
- ***New management*** – Increasingly, managers are expected to master the business world more so than master the craft of tourism and hospitality. Tomorrow's managers must be strategists, know how to use technology, be capable of analysing and synthesising large amounts of information from a variety of sources, and be capable of functioning in an uncertain environment.

Each of these issues reflects that the industry is becoming more competitive, dynamic, complex, and subjected to global forces. The research also identified skills necessary for tomorrow's hospitality managers, as listed in Table 6.1 below.

Table 6.1: Tomorrow's Skills for a Hospitality Manager

A strategist – less craft skills more business skills.
 A multi functional manager.
 A change agent – boundary spanner.
 Visionary.
 Technologist.
 A knowledge worker – information manager.
 Marketing on the information highway.
 How to buy and sell your way into the information highway.
 Evaluating and maintaining the best strategic alliances.
 Recognise, interact with, and utilise the resources of those who will own the information systems (information highway).
 Capable of receiving, analysing, synthesizing incredible amounts of information regarding: guest, internal operations, external data from capacity controllers.
 Utilise information to adjust to the speed of change.
 Monitor changes in an increasingly diverse/complex demand curve.
 Provide information to guests to satisfy their needs for safety and security.
 New leadership skills to motivate a more diverse work force consisting of more knowledgeable workers.

Source: Olsen M. D., West J., and Tse E.C., (1998), *Strategic Management in the Hospitality Industry*, John Wiley & Sons, New York, p.18.

The skills identified above are distinctly different to those considered important in the past. Historically, skill training focused on topics like food production, cost control, layout and design, front office management, food and beverage management, catering, sales, merchandising, and accounting. Although these skills are still considered important, they no longer appear to fully meet the needs of today's competitive environment. The emphasis must now be on making the enterprise a viable long-term investment. It means addressing the need for managers to know and understand how to strategically add value in a complex, dynamic business environment. The future will require a multi-disciplinary approach to decisions from multi-functional managers.

The implication for education and learning are substantial. At present, students and managers are still given education in narrowly defined areas of knowledge, and their competencies are judged on the basis of how well that knowledge is retained rather

than on the successful transfer of that knowledge to a new setting. As Go (1990) argued,

If the next generation of decision makers is to solve tomorrow's complex problems effectively, they will have to be exposed to more than the presently required professional and technical skills courses ... Students should have knowledge about the structure and significance of tourism, its interdisciplinary nature and its relationship with work and leisure in society (Go, 1990, p.46).

Adding value requires that future managers understand and bring together all functional areas in order to make effective decisions. Thus, in order to be effective, traditional tourism and hospitality management education must be broadened to reflect the specialised concerns of the diverse group of industries that make up tourism and hospitality, their stakeholders, and the changing frame of reference from domestic or international to a global orientation.

6.4 Graduate Tourism and Hospitality Programs – A General Model

It is postulated here that tourism and hospitality as an academic discipline is sufficiently different and specialised as an area of management to establish, promote and develop its own individual graduate area. The rapid progress of tourism and hospitality as an emerging discipline in Australia and the recognition of the industry's economic and employment importance by both Federal and State government bodies have accelerated the study of the area, and helped raise its professional profile in the community. However, as already noted, the area remains difficult to define in its management educational needs, as it accommodates a wide range of disparate services operating in an increasingly complex environment.

It has also been argued that the nature and general make-up of the tourism and hospitality industry is diverse and multi-faceted, attracting both young and experienced people to its professional ranks. The very nature of the industry has meant that the staff profile attracted to and employed in the industry is heterogeneous. Indeed, both the educational and professional background of those working in or wishing to join the industry can best be described as eclectic. The range includes:

- people with no academic or vocational/trade qualifications (usually direct school leavers);
- individuals with formal tourism and hospitality vocational qualifications usually in the form of trade certificates (either attained through TAFE or through the private provider network);
- people with formal tourism and hospitality university qualifications (usually at the undergraduate level);
- individuals with non-specific tourism and hospitality vocational training; and,
- people with unrelated university qualifications mostly at the undergraduate level.

Thus, for graduate programs to service adequately the needs of this disparate customer base and the requirements of the industry which employs them, a multifaceted approach is required. Several options are available and outlined below.

6.4.1 Types of Graduate Programs

First, the traditional route of full-time or part-time programs. This consists of building on and extending previous tourism and hospitality knowledge and leading to the development of senior executives, academics and researchers graduating with masters and doctoral qualifications obtained through intensive and in-depth graduate research or course-work degrees. The focus here is very much on developing the individual beyond what he or she has already achieved, and in extending the boundaries of disciplinary knowledge.

Second, and gaining more popularity, a graduate route for those students wishing to pursue a professional career in tourism and hospitality, but who already have an undergraduate qualification from another discipline. This is somewhat more complex, as it focuses on at least three groups: those wishing to switch career paths and come to the industry from an unrelated industry and background; those already working in allied industries; and those already working in the industry but who have entered without formal tourism and hospitality studies. This “career stream” must be structured so as to educate individuals without prior tourism and hospitality knowledge and background, yet cater for the specialised management education required by those who have already acquired a tourism and hospitality academic background through either direct or indirect professional exposure to the industry. The structure of such a program may well call for delineation between industry specific core subjects and general as well as specialised management subjects. A possible structure may well be that such a course could see students with different backgrounds enter at specific stages of a program, yet by the end of the study cycle

achieve a level of professional and academic development which entitles them to the same graduate award. In designing such a program graduate educators must bear in mind that most of these students would be studying whilst working full-time, hoping that their course of study will provide them with a career-enhancing credential and the ability to attain a higher level of professional proficiency in industry.

Third, meeting the needs and requirements of the professionals who have acquired vocational/trade qualifications as well as managerial and industry experience, but who have no formal university undergraduate academic qualifications. This group represents a substantial pool of potential students but require a much more structured approach for graduate studies. Thus, the already well tried and established model found in many business schools of accepting these individuals in a tiered program consisting of nested Graduate Certificate, Graduate Diploma and Master's courses would seem appropriate for tourism and hospitality to adopt. The advantages of such tiered programs, usually part-time, enable students to pace their developmental stages according to their professional demands, career progress, and personal life stages.

Finally, meeting the needs of those who have substantial industry experience and achieved recognised professional status, but have no vocational training or university studies. The main challenge here is to establish rigorous and reliable systems which may enable fair recognition of prior work experience in lieu of prior studies. This represents a great challenge for tourism and hospitality graduate management education, as many CEOs and MDs currently working in the industry and wishing to obtain formal academic qualifications fall into this category. The possibility of developing specialised executive programs such as those found in graduate

management schools is a possible and feasible scenario.

Thus, the nature of the potential student body appears as complex and varied as the tourism and hospitality industry itself. In addition, universities are increasingly exploring the potential of tapping into overseas markets and competing for international students. A proportion of these students have a tourism and hospitality interest and background, and represent yet another pool of potential students seeking to obtain graduate qualifications in the area.

6.4.2 Content and Mode of Delivery

What should tourism and hospitality graduate study consist of and how should it be delivered? Before attempting to present a general model in answer to this question, it is important to consider briefly some of the contextual issues which impact on this subject matter. Thus, in addition to the different types of graduate programs required to meet the needs and complexities of the industry and the expectations of the individuals, the related issues of program content, structure, and delivery modes must also be considered.

It has already been argued that the issue of a core curriculum for tourism and hospitality is controversial - perceived as an essential element of the knowledge experience by some academics and as an unnecessary and unwanted barrier to academic freedom by others.

Arguably, current graduate programs are failing to meet either the aspirations of individuals or the perceived industry requirements, either through their content or via

their structure and delivery modes, or both. There is, therefore, a need for tourism and hospitality graduate educators to respond to these issues and design graduate programs which will address those concerns whilst, at the same time, focusing and delivering the essential aspects expected from graduate studies.

It is postulated here that tourism and hospitality graduate studies should pursue a modular structure, thus facilitating adaptability to industry needs, flexible ease of access, compatible content design, as well as mode of study choice in terms of timing, location and methodology. Such a structure would enable graduate modules to be used to respond to and service specific industry needs whilst also meeting the more stringent graduate academic requirements. Moreover, a modular structure with accredited components to fit into existing graduate programs and tailored to a flexible and easily adaptable delivery method, would match popular forms of delivering management education to industry groups. This would also offer individuals the opportunity to join existing graduate programs with some recognition for the prior studies completed in such schemes, and help break down some of the criticisms associated with formal management education¹⁰.

Graduate educators should also enlist the help of the tourism and hospitality professional associations to lend support, recognition, and accreditation for studies completed along those lines. Such a support would strengthen the ties between graduate management education and industry, recognising and promoting the value and function of specialised graduate studies for the tourism and hospitality industry.

¹⁰ Karpin (1995, p.183) reported that formal management education was often seen as too time consuming and too expansive/difficult to access.

Moreover, it may be argued that a joint industry and education organisation could undertake the task of evaluating and assessing the value of programs and available credentials, hence providing a valuable service to those seeking to undertake further studies in the area¹¹. However, as universities are not subject to external assessment, it could equally be argued that this would stifle diversity in graduate offerings¹².

The make-up of the student body briefly described above also calls for flexibility in delivery modes. The use of emerging technologies is enabling education to be delivered in interactive ways which have not been possible in the past. Moreover, the very nature of the industry, fragmented and geographically dispersed with a very mobile and at times itinerant workforce, requires that access to study programs be adapted to fit with its structures. Past accepted practices of constructing programs based on face-to-face classes are no longer relevant to a diverse community of students facing mounting pressures of work, increasing time commitments, as well as harder access to dwindling and restricted organisational resources available for the purposes of management education. Quality of future programs will therefore be reflected in their versatility to adapt and respond to these constantly changing environmental forces, as well as in their flexibility to meet the growing expectations of individuals in promoting interactive study programs available to students located in distant remote areas. Interactive program design reaching students around the

11 Tentatively referred to here as the Australian Board for Professional Standards in Tourism and Hospitality Management.

12 The arguments of accreditation are that it provides information on program quality, promotes inter-institutional communication, enhances the prestige of and credibility of the professional program and that the process of external review promotes program quality. However, the main costs of accreditation are the drain on faculty time and resources, the suppression of innovation and diversity and the cost of administering the accreditation.

globe does not preclude face-to-face interaction, but it allows educators to work within a less stringent and traditional structure that has been the case thus far.

However, changing and being more innovative with both content and delivery characteristics will of necessity impact on the nature and level of staffing required to service graduate tourism and hospitality courses. It has already been noted that universities typically and increasingly reward staff who specialise in a narrow field, hold doctoral qualifications, and publish in leading journals, rather than individuals who are excellent teachers or whose work focuses and deals with the real problems experienced by industry. To address these issues and provide the necessary incentives for academic staff, universities must accept that performance criteria may need to be revised to emphasise the needs of clients along with research.

Graduate programs in tourism and hospitality, then, must be flexible and must be structured so as to address the needs of the different groups identified above. A typical “career master” structure in Australia should therefore attempt to stretch beyond the type of focus outlined by Ritchie (1995), and overcome the perceived disadvantages associated with most formal management education programs. Thus, the program should be cost effective, offered in flexible time modes, utilise emerging technologies where appropriate, and have clear value-adding potential for those undertaking it. It should include:

- Professional modules covering operational areas in both tourism and hospitality drawing on the experience of others around the world, but reflecting the specific needs and resources of the community in which it is located. These professional modules should be structured in such a way

that students with an industry background could by-pass them and focus directly in areas which will be of greater value-adding capacity, given their professional and educational background.

- General management modules to enable students to develop an understanding and manage tourism and hospitality's total range of economic, social and cultural impacts, as well as a focus on the leadership, planning, development, evaluation, and motivational aspects perceived as increasingly relevant in the general management area. Again, flexibility of approach and structure is required here so that students can focus in areas of greatest benefits befitting their previous qualifications and backgrounds.
- Specialised management modules integrating international material and focusing on corporate strategic areas such as: assets and capital management, technological developments and impacts, real estate management, industry internationalisation and globalisation factors, effects of strategic alliances and joint ventures among global players, as well as coping with the changing investor, competitor, supplier, market, and customer profiles affecting the roles and responsibilities of managers in the industry.

This proposed model is sufficiently broad so as to provide students with manoeuvrability within the context of what needs to be achieved. However, it attempts to encapsulate key knowledge areas which have been identified in the academic literature and by industry as essential to future management development.

6.5 Summary

Graduate programs are perceived to symbolise institutional quality and maturity. The number of graduate programs in tourism and hospitality has grown rapidly, with that growth predicted to continue in the future particularly as Australian universities can charge higher fees for postgraduate courses compared to undergraduate courses¹³.

However, irrespective of the reason for such growth, the question remains as to whether these programs satisfy only the desire to glorify and earn income for the universities, or rather fill a real societal need and advance the state of the art of tourism and hospitality management. Their real usefulness depends upon whether anyone benefits from them, whether the discipline of tourism and hospitality management in Australia is sufficiently well developed to offer them, and whether their orientation is congruent with the needs of the industry and of academia.

From the experience of the physical sciences and other social sciences, we know that the beneficiaries of graduate programs are the prospective students, the faculty, and the industry in which the students will be employed. Because the students acquire specialised skills and knowledge not usually available at the undergraduate level, their degree should enable them to gain employment at a managerial level and pay scale higher than undergraduates would normally obtain.

Any industry should feel the advantage not only of the availability of trained

¹³ Prior to 1988, there was no taught postgraduate course offered in Australia (King, 1988). By 1993, Bushell & Robertson (1995) had identified seven universities that offered a Master's degree with some tourism or hospitality focus. By 1995, 10 Australian universities offered such programs (Bond, James Cook, Monash, Southern Cross, University of Technology, Sydney, Ballarat, University of Queensland, Victoria University Technology, Edith Cowan, Griffith).

employees, but also of the advancement of the field through research and development activities undertaken by faculty and graduate students. The results would be greater demand for program graduates and greater interest in sponsoring and participating in university research.

This chapter has highlighted some of the salient features of graduate programs in tourism and hospitality. It has been argued that many of the issues which are of concern at the graduate level are similar to those highlighted at the undergraduate level. Previous research in the area has pointed to a need to elucidate further on some of the key characteristics which distinguish graduate from undergraduate programs. Those issues together with the need for graduate programs to keep up with industry changes and demand, point to a need to take stock of the current situation in an attempt to identify areas that present challenges for the future. Clearly, the rapid expansion in tourism and hospitality education has given rise to issues concerning over-provision, the quality and monitoring of staff and courses, as well as how tourism and hospitality courses can continue to meet the needs of the various stakeholders who have an interest in the education process.

A general model for graduate studies in tourism and hospitality was outlined in this chapter. The model took into consideration the nature of the industry, as well as the complexities underlying the make-up of those either already working for the industry or wishing to enter the industry as a late career shift. It was argued that for graduate programs to be successful, they must be perceived as relevant in both structure and content, and available in flexible and adaptable modes of delivery. Moreover, it was argued that future graduate programs should be offered in a “modularised structure”

making use of emerging educational technologies, facilitating credit transfers, and encouraging access across available graduate programs. It was also postulated that the role of a national professional body supporting and accrediting graduate programs would enhance both the perceived relevance and value of further education in tourism and hospitality.

The next chapter will develop further the arguments supporting a focus on graduate tourism and hospitality management education, outline the benefits for the major stakeholders of greater expansion and development at this level, and state some research hypotheses for graduate education in tourism and hospitality management.

Chapter 7

Research Hypotheses for Graduate Education in Tourism and Hospitality Management

7.1 Introduction

Having established in the previous chapter that graduate programs represent the most appropriate course of study for tourism and hospitality managers wishing to maximise and enhance their knowledge, improve their performance, and acquire formal credentials in the process, it is timely to reinforce this position. The nature, make-up, and reasons of individuals wishing to undertake further studies in tourism and hospitality are as complex and varied as the industry itself. Thus, the type of graduate programs must be multi-fold also to address and cater for this variety of vocational needs and requirements, whilst at the same time provide the rigour and challenges expected of graduate studies. The task facing graduate educators is further complicated by having to continually adapt course content and structure to the ever changing needs of the industry, incorporate emerging technologies into their mode of delivery, whilst also having to respond to the conflicting demands and expectations of their own institutions and profession.

This chapter outlines the reasons, arguments and specific hypotheses proposed for research in tourism and management education at the graduate level in this study. It will be proposed here that future growth and development in tourism and hospitality management education in Australia is best positioned at the graduate level for the benefit of all stakeholders. It will be argued that developments at the graduate level

should be considered as more relevant and appropriate from an economic, educational, and functional viewpoint. It will also be contended that graduate level education offers the best opportunity to meet both the industry's management needs and equip students with the knowledge and skills required to build successful careers.

7.2 Why Graduate Management Education for Tourism and Hospitality?

Enabling people to develop and successfully implement strategy is perhaps management's greatest challenge, especially in today's world where change is ever present and skilled labour is in short supply. While this challenge is not new to the tourism and hospitality industry, it is of greater proportion today as consumers' demand, and the industry expects greater levels of service in a more customised fashion. Moreover, as the forces of globalisation and internationalisation increasingly impact on all levels of the tourism and hospitality environment, managers have to respond to situations requiring more complex and sophisticated operational and strategic applications.

In the tourism and hospitality industry, especially among multinational companies, a clear trend can be discerned in this area. More companies are responding to these environmental and operating factors by investing in education, training and development programs. As discussed in earlier chapters, the industry is becoming increasingly complex and requiring greater skills from all levels of employees, and firms are attempting to improve employee retention by offering opportunities for them to earn education qualifications while still employed. They believe that by

providing the employees with the opportunity to grow personally, they will have a more motivated individual with a higher management skill level than would otherwise be the case.

The development of higher management skills, the resultant motivational drivers and personal growth are likely to be attained only if at least two criteria are met. First, individuals must be given opportunities to access educational programs which will not only help them address current industry managerial issues, but reach beyond their current needs and equip them with the ability and skills to become flexible, adaptable, and innovative problem solvers. Second, the industry must be structured in such a way that it can accommodate, recognise, and reward the different skills and competencies which individuals either join the industry with, or develop whilst in its employ. The arguments presented here in respect of graduate focus in education are pertinent to the first criteria, and have an indirect impact on the second.

7.2.1 The Strategic Argument

Tourism and hospitality management education in universities has reached a level of maturity enabling it to offer a wide variety of in-depth courses significantly different from traditional vocational and undergraduate programs. The “hands-on” operational focus commonly found at these levels has developed a pool of well-educated low level tourism and hospitality managers. Unfortunately, as these managers advance in their organisations, these “hands-on” skills are no longer adequate for their increased responsibilities. Moreover, successful low-level managers in the industry find it difficult to acquire the business knowledge and skills required to function successfully in general management positions, a factor that may help explain why the

industry has preferred MBA graduates when filling senior management and executive positions, as previously noted¹. However, it is postulated here that irrespective of the source of advanced management education, solutions to complex problems of the future in tourism and hospitality organisations will best be solved by those with graduate education. Thus, the first fundamental hypothesis proposed for this study is as follows².

Hypothesis 1: The future success of tourism and hospitality management education lies in the development and growth of graduate programs, attracting students from a wide variety of educational, cultural, and management background and experience.

It is plausible to argue that the people choosing graduate tourism or hospitality education in the future will come from diverse cultural backgrounds, varied work experiences, and varied educational backgrounds. Indeed, this is already the case. The mix of culture and background should enhance the quality of the education experience, and at the same time provide challenges for both educators and students alike. The objective here is not to discard the value brought from vocational or undergraduate studies, but rather to approach the meaning and relevance of 'value-adding' for managerial skills and competencies and place it squarely at the graduate level for tourism and hospitality management education.

For graduate education to be relevant, it should be designed to inculcate students with general business knowledge and skills in addition to tourism/hospitality-specific

1 These managers have usually completed vocational and increasingly undergraduate qualifications.

2 This and all subsequent hypotheses are expressed in the alternate form for ease of exposition.

knowledge³. As noted earlier, the tourism and hospitality industry is a vast collection of different businesses, and graduate education must pay adequate attention to this point. Indeed, the industry is characterised by diversity both in terms of the types and nature of its businesses which initially, at least, makes it difficult to discern any clear agreement as to what it requires from graduate education. As graduate educators are called to anticipate the future needs of practising professionals, it is their responsibility to design programs which will meet those needs and anticipate future changes and challenges. It is argued, therefore, that the responsibility of responding to present industry requirements is largely the role of vocational and undergraduate education. Graduate education, on the other hand, should strive to advance student's knowledge and abilities far beyond what they have already acquired in their undergraduate and vocational work. Thus, the following second hypothesis (stated in two parts) is proposed:

Hypothesis 2a: On average, educators perceive that graduate tourism and management education is both relevant and effective.

Hypothesis 2b: On average, educators perceive that graduate tourism and management education addresses the industry's complex and changing needs.

It has already been acknowledged that one of the difficulties for tourism and hospitality education is that it is expected to serve the needs of a fragmented and heterogeneous sector where there are few commonly defined requirements at a technical or knowledge level. Thus, the requirements of major airlines, hotel companies or heritage sites are diverse in themselves but are also significantly different from the needs of small and medium sized enterprises across the sector. The

³ As argued by Partlow and Gregoire (1994) in their findings and recommendations.

sector also draws in players from areas of activity which may, at best, acknowledge a tenuous association with tourism and hospitality and, at worst, fail to see their responsibilities in this area at all⁴.

One of the consequences of a fragmented public and private sector interest in tourism and hospitality is that there is rarely a clear, single authority with responsibility for the management and direction of education, training, and development initiatives in support of the sector. In reality, there is frequently a range of organisations and agencies which have some involvement but also have loyalties and interests which lie beyond the domain of tourism and hospitality⁵. Therefore, what is frequently seen as a practical issue, in that education providers may or may not be delivering curricula to meet industry's needs, is also an issue of policy concern and, in many respects, it is policy shifts that will be required to provide the lead and assist the sector and the wider community to face up to predicted changes within tourism and hospitality in the future.

4 Such areas can include national parks, leisure and recreational interests, the finance sector, the security services and parts of the retail sector.

5 As discussed in Appendix 3. Such organisations may include:

- the various industry sub-sectors and their representative associations;
- national, regional or local tourism development agencies, generally public but also in the private domain;
- public sector agencies or government authorities responsible for areas such as heritage, the environment, marine and other water resources, agriculture, and national parks;
- national or state education providers;
- specialist training agencies, public and private;
- national employment, labour or manpower agencies and their respective government departments;
- trade unions.

Be that as it may, these debates are more pertinent to the vocational and undergraduate education sector and should have little, if any, impact on the nature, content, and direction of graduate education.

Graduate education represents the forefront of knowledge, pushing the boundaries beyond what students have already discovered in their previous studies and beyond the current needs which industry perceives as important at the present. More specifically, changes affecting and transforming the environment should be extrapolated and investigated in light of their future impact on the tourism and hospitality industry. This level of study cannot be controlled or indeed directed by government authorities, nor should it be designed to serve the more utilitarian and pragmatic purposes of self-interested private or public groups.

Graduate education should concern itself with what can best be described as the “bigger picture”. Thus, for example, the study of such factors as the forces of globalisation and the impact of technology, which are increasingly noticeable in the tourism and hospitality industry, should be integral to any graduate curriculum. The impact of globalisation can often be seen through expansion, strategic alliances, franchising, acquisitions, or more varied forms of internationalisation such as the growth of hotel consortia, mergers, direct ownership and joint ventures, and these changes will affect the future nature of management decision making. Equally, the impact and management of technological forces in the service sector is changing the rules of competition and transforming the nature and make-up of the marketplace, forcing companies to diversify, seek new segments, products and services, and operate in ways which were previously seldom considered. Most multinational

companies would agree that their managers need international and technological management expertise, but few companies appear to have a strategy for internationalising or ensuring the technological competence of their managers. Arguably, it is the responsibility of graduate programs to address such needs.

Industry is becoming more complicated, international, and structurally complex. Increasingly, managers must also be cognisant of, and familiar with such factors as processes of development and real-estate investments, and the significance of those investments on a company's financial performance. As modern society moves toward a knowledge-based environment, individuals will be rewarded more for what they know and how they use this knowledge than any other contribution. The focus for management is already shifting towards an emphasis on pro-active problem-solving skills and decision making, with success being based on how much value individuals can add at any given time. These are complex skills which require maturity and experience to acquire and which are best developed and nurtured in the province of graduate education. Thus, the following hypothesis is proposed:

Hypothesis 3: There is general agreement among educators as to what should constitute professional graduate tourism and hospitality management education in Australia.

The industry also appears to becoming increasingly selective towards employing graduates who are able to think analytically and transfer concepts from one discipline to another. An educated person should be able to think critically and have reasoned judgement; that is, he or she should have the ability to analyse a situation or a problem, look at all the facts, and make informed recommendations for action. Thus ideally, a key result of a professional graduate education should be the ability to

recognise patterns, techniques, routines for thought and action that one has learned and that are applicable to a given situation. When solutions to problems do not work as expected, the educated person must be creative and use ingenuity to devise new, imaginative solutions to solve problems. It is postulated here that the development of these important skills is the province of graduate education. Hence, a key factor in graduate education is to provide students with experiences that will allow them to think critically, analytically, and freely in the future. The evidence that graduate education in tourism and hospitality management is addressing these important issues is scant, if at all available. Testing of Hypothesis 3 should not only determine if there are common beliefs among educators as to what graduate tourism and hospitality management education should consist of, but it should also enable comparisons to be drawn with industry's position as reported in the literature.

It has already been argued in the previous chapter that important concepts such as problem solving, decision making, communications, human resource management, time management, financial management, strategy, marketing, leadership, teamwork and ethics are perceived as essential elements of graduate education programs. However, as there does not appear to be a common core curriculum among graduate programs, it cannot be assumed that all, or for that matter any of these skills will necessarily be developed in such depth as to extend graduate students knowledge and ability beyond what has already been established at the undergraduate level. Whilst Partlow and Gregoire's (1994) recommended, on the one hand, that graduate programs should include more business-related subjects and strengthen student skills in the more essential concept areas, they also argued, on the other hand, that programs should retain flexibility of choice. Arguably, given unrestricted time and

resources, all these things can be achieved. Realistically, however, is it really the role of graduate programs to focus on further development of skills and abilities acquired at the vocational or undergraduate level at the expense of offering something more than just mere knowledge and skills extensions. The available evidence tends to suggest that the current situation is nothing more than a linear progression with few or no substantive differences developed. The position postulated here is that tourism and hospitality graduate programs should offer exponential increments on the knowledge base offered at the vocational and undergraduate levels.

In reality, irrespective of one's position on these issues, the constructs underlying graduate programs have resources implications. In general, graduate programs are more expensive than either their vocational or undergraduate counterparts. Staff teach fewer classes and handle fewer students, but that is in accordance with the nature of graduate education. On the other hand, graduate programs attract full-fee paying students and can become a source of substantial income if marketed and managed appropriately.

7.2.2 The Economic Argument

From an international perspective, tourism is acknowledged as the world's largest industry. One of the reasons for the growing interest in the tourism and hospitality industry is its employment generating potential. The industry needs a steady supply of suitably qualified, motivated and committed managers to ensure its position as one of the major contributors to economic growth, and to enhance its own economic potential. The quality of employees, and as a consequence their level of productivity, is directly tied to the nature and quality of the training and education which they

receive. Karpin (1995) argued that the majority of Australia's managers did not have the education or skills levels of those of the major trading nations, nor were Australia's educational and training institutions providing world class services. The Industry Commission on Tourism Accommodation and Training in Australia (1996) supported Karpin's views, and noted that a surprisingly small proportion of managers in the tourism and hospitality industry possessed formal qualifications. As a result, the industry faces a significant challenge. How can it upgrade the qualifications of people currently in the industry in a timely and cost effective way? It would be important for universities to provide an entry path into graduate programs for experienced managers lacking the formal academic qualifications normally required for admittance. This path has been established in respect of MBA programs in recent years, and there seems to be no reason why it cannot be expanded to graduate programs in tourism and hospitality. This gives rise to the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 4: There is general agreement among educators that an entry path should exist into graduate tourism and hospitality management programs for individuals without previous formal academic qualifications.

The potential for the graduate education sector to tap into this pool of uneducated but experienced managers presents an opportunity which would benefit the industry, its employees, the tertiary sector, and the community as a whole. Moreover, access should not be a barrier as a number of avenues already exist in other areas which enable people without prior formal academic qualifications to study at the graduate level⁶. Graduate education presents a most appropriate mode for mature age students either re-entering or entering the education sector for the first time. Graduate studies

⁶ For instance, recognition of prior learning, recognition of previous work experience, entry into Graduate Certificate programs with the possibility of upgrading directly into Masters programs.

offer students recognition for their past experiences as well as an integration in the learning experience of the important practical knowledge and skills which individuals already possess. Indeed, as graduate programs have a focus on educating professionals so that they may be adequately prepared to fill senior managerial roles and assume the associated responsibilities, it is important that entry criteria into those programs should recognise and value previous managerial experience. The testing of Hypothesis 4 should provide an insight on educators' position vis a vis entry criteria for graduate tourism and hospitality management programs.

It has been further argued that the industry in a large number of tourism destination countries is faced with a chronic shortage of high calibre management recruits, and therefore the establishment of a link between university education and industry requirements is critically important. It is fair to say that as education contributes positively to a nation's wealth and competitive ability, the perceptions of the education undertaken by employees should influence the way in which managers and employees view the value of that education.

A fundamental question which remains, however, is the contribution which such education makes to delivering an effective workforce. Thus, the following hypothesis is proposed:

Hypothesis 5: There is general agreement among educators that graduate tourism and hospitality management education directly contributes to the development of a more effective and productive tourism and hospitality workforce.

If the results to Hypothesis 5 are positive and if graduate tourism and hospitality education is to play a greater role in educating future tourism and hospitality

professionals, then educators must convince industry of the benefits of supporting and also hiring employees and other individuals undertaking further studies. Support such as financial incentives, promotion, and professional recognition and a clear employment bias is a strong incentive for employees and demonstrates clear commitment by employers to the value and benefit of graduate studies. Arguably, there are also other less tangible benefits for industry, educators, and students alike in the creation of links and networks, as these facilitate a cooperative relationship between the three main contenders and help build and improve the industry's image among all stakeholders.

The changing demographic profile of the workforce, the growth in management sophistication of tourism and hospitality management graduates, and the rising emphasis placed on all aspects of quality of life, are also contributing to the employment concern. Establishing a professional organisation to recognise attainment in the industry based on education and position is one way which would help develop a respect for and recognise what educators are doing to address this issue. Hotels and restaurants are looking for ways to reduce the costs of employee turnover and burnout. Successful recruitment - matching the potential employee's needs, wants and expectations with the realities of working for a particular company - is one means of addressing such costs. However, to increase the likelihood of successful matches and as a consequence to minimise the burnout rate, the industry has to understand the challenges today's tourism and hospitality graduates are seeking. Moreover, in spite of graduate education being more expensive to provide initially, it may well prove to be more cost-effective over time should the industry turnover and burnout rates be reduced.

It is postulated here that the solutions to the high burnout and turnover rates of middle managers in the industry do not lie in the further development and expansion of vocational and undergraduate education programs, but rather in focusing increasing resource expenditure at the graduate level. This would address current industry needs for better educated, more forward thinking senior managers, inject a sense of professionalism and recognition into the industry, and provide viable and realistic avenues for dissatisfied middle managers to develop important managerial skills and competencies.

7.2.3 The Operational Argument

It is the responsibility of tourism and hospitality educators to lead and provide their students with a relevant and imaginative curriculum in the future. But, as argued earlier, competing successfully in the tourism and hospitality management education industry is no different to competition in any other industry. It requires a knowledge and understanding of both internal and external environments, and an application and focus on one's source of competitive advantage.

Graduate educators cannot afford for students to become disillusioned and feel that their higher education experience has been in vain. Moreover, it is in the best interests of tertiary institutions to minimise attrition rates. Equally, it is in the interests of universities for industry to value the capabilities of graduates. Such issues bring to the forefront the importance of industry involvement in course design and direction, through bodies such as advisory boards.

Thus, although industry is well served by academia in terms of fulfilling its needs for entry level managers with appropriate technical ability, it is postulated here that these graduates lack both a comprehensive and realistic view of the industry, and the capabilities necessary to manage at senior levels in a rapidly changing and increasingly complex industry. It has been argued earlier that long term retention of managers was not only tied to the nature and type of students admitted to the programs, but also to the ability of academics to generate commitment to the industry. Such a commitment can only be generated by staff with strong industry links and personal work experience, both of which are increasingly difficult to find as the focus of academic institutions, particularly at the graduate level, is shifting to research, publications and academic scholarship. The need for such a strong industry link at the graduate level is critical because graduate programs should not focus primarily on industry needs, but because the intent of graduate programs should be to explore and to push beyond the boundaries of current knowledge. The focus at this level must be on future industry developments and directions, and for such a focus to be credible, it should be based on a realistic and up-to-date industry base. Here again, an effective industry based advisory board can present an interesting and complimentary model from which to draw on. This argument gives rise to the following hypothesis (stated in two parts):

Hypothesis 6a: There is general agreement among educators of the need to promote both the involvement of industry, and the contribution of professional bodies to build commitment, support, and recognition of the importance of graduate tourism and hospitality management education.

Hypothesis 6b: There is general agreement among educators that Advisory Boards provide a strong industry focus and direction in

graduate tourism and hospitality management program development.

Graduate educators must become more innovative in terms of course direction, content, programming and delivery, as many students will need to fit in study with on-going employment, often at a senior level. Students should be made aware of the wider context in which the tourism and hospitality industry operates, and the reasons why the industry faces problems and challenges of the kind that it does. Thus, graduate tourism and hospitality students need to acquire a real in-depth understanding of the industry as well as a relevant and up-to-date operational framework before they can hope to build onto this knowledge and apply problem-solving skills to realistic future problem scenarios.

Over the past ten years, tertiary institutions have had to resolve the tension between teaching what are current best industry practices as opposed to teaching the managerial skills and competencies that have become increasingly necessary in the industry. The gap between the theoretical knowledge as presented in academic programs, and the practical realities of management as applied to, and experienced in the industry, is difficult to reconcile. The view that education should increasingly be seen as a service to industry in its provision of vocationally relevant education programs such as those offered in tourism and hospitality management programs, may well have resulted in an unintended and unforeseen effect on curriculum. The net result may have led to a diminution of course content relevant to industry, and could be explained by resistance from educational institutions which were unprepared to incorporate what they perceived as unworthy subjects for the pursuit of academic excellence. These fundamental issues underlie much of what should or should not be

included in graduate curriculum. Moreover, although the contention here is that it is the role of both vocational and undergraduate education to meet the needs of industry, it is not, nor should it be, the sole purpose of graduate programs. Thus, the following hypothesis (stated in three parts) is further proposed:

Hypothesis 7a: There is no significant difference in the emphasis on general curriculum content of graduate tourism and hospitality programs currently (1999) offered across Australian universities.

Hypothesis 7b: There is no significant difference in the general structure of graduate tourism and hospitality programs currently (1999) offered across Australian universities.

Hypothesis 7c: There is no significant difference in the delivery mode of graduate tourism and hospitality programs currently (1999) offered across Australian universities.

7.2.4 The Functional Argument

Efficiency, flexibility, and responsiveness to consumers are essential components of graduate education in the 1990s. Modularisation, distance learning, computer-assisted-learning, simulations, credit accumulation, transfer schemes, and recognition of prior learning, are all attempts to reduce the rigidity of graduate educational courses. The tailoring of some graduate educational courses specifically to meet employers' needs may be the direction tourism and hospitality education is taking, and future methods of delivery could include short courses, distance learning, and in-company education schemes. However, there must be a clear delineation between the aims of industry tailored courses at the graduate level, and those courses which are essentially designed to focus the individual's attention on research objectives. The argument proposed here is not that the two are mutually exclusive, or that they cannot exist alongside each other, but rather that they serve different roles and meet different

objectives. There are clear arguments that both have an important function and should therefore exist alongside one another, not the least of which is that short courses based on responding to current industry needs represent a crucial source of revenues for tertiary institutions and are also an essential means of building bridges between the education sector and industry.

The nature of tourism and hospitality management courses has changed over time, evolving from a strong focus on practical operations to one of strategic thinking and planning. Likewise, the credentials required of academic staff members have changed from a focus on knowledge of practical techniques to one of management and conceptual knowledge. Thus, graduate educators who prepare students for senior positions must anticipate the future needs of the industry and provide the research and leadership that will chart the path. Previous research has pointed out that graduate educators require among other things, strong academic credentials, research, and industry experience, persons who are thinkers as opposed to doers, strong library skills and ethics. The make-up and experience of graduate staff has also been linked to the building of commitment to the industry, and the resultant effects on curricula design. This argument gives rise to the final hypothesis for this study:

Hypothesis 8: Graduate tourism and hospitality educators must be individuals with a combination of strong academic credentials, research, and industry experience to provide the leadership and vision necessary to develop, establish and promote forward thinking curricula.

In most instances, however, curricula are tailored to what the industry has needed in the past, not what it needs today or will need in the future. The literature on tourism and hospitality management education strongly indicates that curriculum

development and program flexibility and adaptability are seen as critical issues in meeting student and industry demands towards the next century. Thus, curriculum is a critical issue of concern, coupled with the quality of staff and institutional resources. Testing of Hypothesis 8 should provide insight into educators' position on such issues.

Furthermore, the goals and objectives of industry placements sought by educational establishments do not necessarily coincide with those of students and industry. Industry argues that the length of time spent on placement necessary to provide students with a meaningful work experience must be substantial. But, the resource implications on both industry and educational institutions to meet such constraints are such that neither can realistically meet them. Moreover, industry placement has a functional role which befits vocational and undergraduate program objectives, but does not meet the aims and objectives of graduate programs. By the time students reach the level of graduate programs they have accumulated much industry experience, and thus should not be required to undertake further placements.

Other factors also impact on operational and functional issues as well as on course design and direction at the graduate level. For instance, the increasing access to courses and the resulting changes in enrolment patterns, course assessment and delivery mechanisms, is leading to increased variety in the graduate education system. The operation of courses on a modular basis allowing students to have a role in constructing their own programs, and increasingly, graduate education becoming more tailor-made to suit individual needs, is rendering access easier and fairer. The link between vocational, undergraduate, and graduate courses is becoming better

accepted and established in the higher education sector after an early struggle for acceptance. Students demonstrating an increased awareness of their employment opportunities after graduation, are becoming a more discerning market force. The emphasis at the graduate level on the importance of more technologically sophisticated delivery modes in distance education, are also significant factors in determining quality and up-to-date graduate programs.

These factors, together with those already discussed above, require more attention and are arguably essential components in the future development and successful growth of graduate programs in tourism and hospitality management.

7.3 Summary

In this chapter it has been argued that the focus on tourism and hospitality education should shift from the vocational and undergraduate levels to the graduate level. Strategic, economic, operational and functional arguments were presented to support this stance. Moreover, it was argued that tourism and hospitality management education has now reached a level of maturity to offer a wide variety of in-depth courses significantly different from that found in traditional vocational and undergraduate programs.

A number of research hypotheses were established. First, in respect of the future growth of tourism and hospitality management education with a focus at the graduate level as the area most likely to provide and maximise the value-adding capacity sought by an increasingly diverse and eclectic range of students. Second, in respect of educators perceptions that graduate education in tourism and hospitality should not

only address industry issues and concerns, but also advance student knowledge beyond what has been achieved at the vocational/undergraduate level. Third, in addressing what educators believe should constitute professional graduate tourism and hospitality management education in Australia. Fourth, in addressing educators' opinions on entry paths into graduate programs for individuals without previous formal academic qualifications. Fifth, in respect of the effects which graduate tourism and hospitality management education have on workforce productivity and effectiveness. Sixth, in respect of the need to promote both the involvement of industry and the contribution of professional bodies to build commitment, support and recognition in the importance of graduate tourism and hospitality management education. Seventh, in respect of significant differences in the general curriculum content, structure, and delivery emphasis of graduate programs in Australia. Finally, in addressing the nature and role of graduate tourism and hospitality management educators in Australia.

The hypotheses outlined in this chapter were derived on the basis of previous discussion presented in the thesis. The next chapter outlines the methodology to be utilised for the empirical work of the thesis.

Chapter 8

Data Collection and Methodology

8.1 Introduction

This chapter describes the data collection processes and methodology to be employed in the thesis. The target population, survey sample, questionnaire design and pilot study are all addressed. The hypotheses developed in the previous chapter are tied to the methodology and to the design of the instruments.

Leedy (1980) noted that it was particularly important to recognise the fact that data and methodology were inextricably inter-dependent. Therefore, the type of research methodology to be adopted for a particular problem or set of hypotheses must always recognise the parameters and nature of the data which will be gathered in achieving the resolution of that problem (Krone, 1980).

In the previous chapter a set of hypotheses was derived. Survey research methodology, it will be argued, is the most appropriate method to investigate these hypotheses. Survey research methodology provides a quantitative description of the sample through the data collection process (Fowler, 1988). This data collection, in turn, enables generalisation of the findings from a sample of responses to a population (Creswell, 1994).

In this thesis, the population is that of colleges and universities offering tourism and hospitality management programs either at the undergraduate or graduate level or

both. Because the population is one of institutions, it was necessary to determine and identify appropriate representatives of the population - that is the people that could best express the institutions' position vis a vis tourism and hospitality management education. Individual heads of departments, course coordinators, directors of research units at Australian colleges and universities offering undergraduate or graduate programs in tourism and hospitality management, or both, represent the population described in this chapter.

Two major data collection instruments will be reviewed and described here. First, an analysis of publicly available material published by the colleges and universities on courses in the tourism and hospitality management area. Second, the method of data collection using a quantitatively designed questionnaire is reviewed.

8.2 Use of Primary Documents

The first type of data collection used in this study is that of obtaining the maximum amount of information publicly available through the use of primary documents.

Information relating to course availability, enrolments, course requisites, and other general information pertaining to evidence of growth in the area of tourism and hospitality management in Australian colleges and universities was sought.

Thus, the first task undertaken was to seek and obtain from Australian colleges and universities general and specific information on tourism and hospitality management courses. All institutions offering both undergraduate and graduate programs in the tourism and hospitality management area were targeted. Most of this information was

readily available either via Internet College or University sites, or included in general course brochures and advertising material, or in some cases, described in the tourism and hospitality management literature¹.

The purpose of collecting, reviewing, and analysing primary documents sought to address a number of the issues raised in the thesis. Predominantly, the purpose was to test for evidence of recent growth in tourism and hospitality management courses and enrolments in Australian colleges and universities. Growth was measured at both the undergraduate and graduate level in terms of courses offered, student enrolments, and development of new courses². The data collected from primary documents contributed towards establishing the validity or otherwise of Hypothesis 1.

The data collected through primary documents was limited. A preliminary analysis of a sample of primary documents indicated that both the type and nature of data gathered produced incomplete information. Indeed, on the basis of the data collected through primary sources, it was not possible to obtain a comprehensive, up-to-date detailed database of tourism and hospitality management activities in colleges and universities.

As a result, it was considered necessary to conduct a comprehensive survey of the field. Survey methodology via a questionnaire, including both descriptive and attitudinal aspects, was selected and designed to enable the researcher to address the research questions and the research hypotheses raised in the thesis.

1 See Appendices 1 and 2.

2 Growth is taken as a measure of change (+ or -) in the period 1988-1999 in the number of courses offered, student enrolments, and courses under development.

The nature of the population, the number of institutions, their geographical disparity, the time availability of respondents, the resource restrictions imposed on the researcher, and the comprehensive nature of the survey to be undertaken led to a choice of a mailed questionnaire as the preferred instrument. This survey instrument was favoured ahead of a questionnaire administered in an interview format face-to-face with individuals, structured face-to-face interviews, and structured telephoned interviews.

8.3 Use of Survey Methodology

The use of a cross-sectional survey via the use of a questionnaire was therefore considered the second preferred type of data collection procedure for this study. It enabled the researcher to replicate components of other overseas studies in the same area and, more importantly perhaps, draw comparisons with their reported results. Moreover, it also offered the researcher the advantages identified in survey design literature (Fink and Kosecoff, 1985; Sudman and Bradburn, 1986; Fowler, 1988; Babbie, 1990), namely those of:

- the economy of the design which falls within both the time and financial constraints of the research project; and
- the relative turnaround in data collection.

The instrument used in the survey sought responses to descriptive, factual, and attitudinal items. The purpose of the survey was to produce quantitative descriptions of some aspects of the study population.

The inclusion of descriptive and factual components in this survey was considered appropriate to the nature of this study. There was little up-to-date data available on graduate tourism and hospitality management courses in Australia, and the researcher found no evidence of any available data on the overall composition of tourism and hospitality management departments in Australian colleges and universities³. Thus, the descriptive and factual components of the survey were deemed an integral part of the study to construct a comprehensive up-to-date database of information relating to both the structure and staff profile of tourism and hospitality departments in colleges and universities in Australia.

Best (1977) argued that descriptive analysis provides valuable information about the nature of a particular group of individuals, referring to descriptive research as “what is” - the description, recording, analysis, and interpretation of conditions that currently exist. Good (1972) had earlier argued that descriptive studies usually include present facts or conditions concerning the nature of a group of persons, number of objects, or a class of events, and may also involve procedures of induction, analysis, classification, or measurement.

Surveys are common data collection instruments used extensively in non-experimental research designs and useful for gathering descriptive data. Data for surveys are collected by asking people questions in the form of questionnaires or interviews. The objective of most surveys is designed to provide accurate information about individuals or organisations. The information obtained from surveys is

³ The term “department” used in the chapter refers to the academic unit responsible for tourism and hospitality courses. In some colleges and universities these units can be grouped under Schools, Faculties or even Divisions.

designed to provide comprehensive quantitative descriptions of population characteristics. Thus, surveys are sources of information that confirm evidence of an event or occurrence. They often lead to results that may justify current practices, provide foundations for formulating new plans to improve conditions and/or procedures, or allow the evaluation of programs relative to established standards (Van Dalen, 1979).

Comparative analysis is also an integral part of the research undertaken. It was felt that the nature of the existing composition and staff profile of departments reported in the descriptive data would also provide a useful information base for comparisons with the responses provided in the more analytical sections of the survey instrument. Thus, a comparative analysis of data could be conducted on and applied both within and across individual departments and institutions. Moreover, an analysis of both the descriptive and attitudinal data provide a useful Australian perspective and a basis for comparison with the results of similar overseas investigations.

In order to answer the questions raised in the thesis and satisfy the requirements imposed by the hypotheses, it was considered that the survey should therefore seek to obtain the opinions, views and perceptions of tourism and hospitality management educators in positions of responsibility in Australian colleges and universities. Thus, both the descriptive and analytical sections of the survey focused on gathering data directly and indirectly relating to the hypotheses, leading to information integral to an in-depth investigation of tourism and hospitality management education in Australian colleges and universities.

8.4 Population

Survey research that investigates an entire population is referred to as population or census research. Population or census research survey is seldom used in research studies dealing with large populations because logistical and financial needs are cost prohibitive. However, it is possible to use this method for small populations (Kerlinger, 1986). If resources are limited, the sample survey should be used because it can be implemented easily and efficiently. It is also a common technique used when dealing with large populations.

On the one hand, Good (1972) argued that advantages of the census survey as compared to the sample survey are that:

- each unit to be measured is included in the survey;
- there is no sampling error; and
- lay people attach greater importance to census than to sample research findings.

On the other hand, use of stratified sampling is a method for obtaining a greater degree of representativeness, which decreases the sampling error. Babbie (1990) noted that stratified sampling is based upon the second factor in sampling theory, which is that a homogeneous population produces samples with a smaller error than does a heterogeneous population.

The relatively small population size targeted in this study led to the use of a census survey based methodology. As argued earlier, all Australian colleges and universities involved in undergraduate or graduate tourism and hospitality management education

were surveyed. The survey was sent to the person(s) identified as the tourism and hospitality undergraduate and graduate coordinator at each tertiary institution involved in the delivery of tourism and hospitality programs in colleges and universities in Australia. The study used a cross-sectional research design, that is, the information was collected at one point in time with the purpose of describing the characteristics and attitudes of the population⁴.

8.4.1 Population Identification Process

Identification of the population was multi-staged. The tools used to develop the final list of individuals in position of responsibility and identified as decision-makers in the area of tourism and hospitality management education were:

1. The list of colleges and universities in Australia obtained from the Internet via Netscape. The search engine was Yahoo Australia. The search path was: Education section - Australia only -Higher Education - Colleges and Universities. The result of this search produced a list of 80 internet Australian colleges and universities' sites. Each site was investigated for evidence of any "tourism" and/or "hospitality" management education activity, either at the undergraduate or graduate level. It is important to note here that the search was concerned with capturing courses that had the word "tourism" and/or "hospitality" in the title. This was necessary to eliminate those courses that are essentially management or business degrees but may offer a tourism or hospitality component. The rationale being that tourism and hospitality degrees are

⁴ Questionnaires were sent in late April 1999. Initial telephone calls were made in the first week of May, with reminder letters and further questionnaires sent to non-respondents in the third week of May.

courses in which “tourism” and/or “hospitality” forms the primary focus of study. The Faculty/School/Department responsible for offering these courses were identified and, where possible, the Heads of each of these units⁵. A list consisting of 34 institutions (I=34) was generated as the result of this preliminary investigation.

2. The Council for Australian University Tourism and Hospitality Education (CAUTHE) data base produced for the 1999 CAUTHE National Research Conference⁶. This data base consisted of the names, addresses and contact numbers for all the educators who contributed papers at the 1999 CAUTHE conference. A total of 255 names and addresses of tourism and hospitality educators from around the world were included in the database. The CAUTHE data base was compiled in late 1998, and updated in January 1999. The data base was first sorted on a regional basis (Australia only, A = 223), then sorted on an educational establishment basis (Colleges and Universities only, B = 168), and finally sorted on (stated) academic levels and associated positions of responsibilities (C = 42). The data was then cross-referenced with that obtained from the Internet list above⁷.

The list (C= 42) cross-referenced with the Internet list (I=34) produced a final list (F=59) of relevant names and institutions. A total of 17 heads of

⁵ In the event that the Head of department or course coordinator's name was omitted from the Internet site, the researcher rang the college/university department directly to obtain that information.

⁶ CAUTHE held its national conference in February 1999 in Adelaide, South Australia.

⁷ It should be noted that not all heads of departments of colleges and universities attended the CAUTHE conference. Hence the need to cross-reference with the Internet site.

departments and directors of research centres as listed on the Internet coincided with those found in the CAUTHE database.

A total of 59 names of tourism and hospitality educators from 34 Australian colleges and universities were retained. A number equivalent to 23% (names) of the CAUTHE database and 42.5% (institutions) of the original Internet list and 87% of the total number of Australian universities. Those selected represented the entire population of identifiable individuals in positions of responsibility in tourism and hospitality management education in Australian colleges and universities⁸. It should be stressed that it is not unusual for the number of identified individuals in positions of responsibility to exceed the total population of colleges and universities. A number of these institutions offer both undergraduate and graduate programs, and have separate and independent research centres - all of which are not necessarily or usually under the same line of responsibility.

It could be argued that this group is also representative of the entire population of tourism and hospitality educators from Australian colleges and universities. It represents a stratified cross-section sample of tourism and hospitality educators, stratification having occurred on the basis of lines of responsibilities. It is, however, a biased group if only in the nature of its selection⁹. Therefore, any inferences from the

⁸ Including all identifiable heads of departments, heads of research centres, as well as undergraduate and graduate program managers and coordinators of tourism and hospitality programs.

⁹ Had the purpose of the study been, for instance, one of seeking the opinions and views of every educator in tourism and hospitality in colleges and universities in Australia, then arguably a random sample selection would have been preferable and more likely to reflect the true characteristics of the population. Therefore, consideration of this group of decision-makers as truly representative of the population of tourism and hospitality management educators in Australian colleges and universities has severe limitations.

survey results must be carefully qualified if they are to be applied to the overall population of hospitality and tourism educators in Australian colleges and universities. The validity of these inferences are dependent on how well the group of selected decision-makers is felt to reflect the true characteristics of the population of tourism and hospitality educators in Australian colleges and universities¹⁰.

It must be stressed, therefore, that the choice of individuals representing the total population of institutions was done, firstly, on the basis that the nature of the data sought was best obtained from those with management responsibilities of tourism and hospitality units within Australian colleges and universities. It was felt that these people had both access to the information required, as well as direct influence on the decisions taken with regards to course development and direction in tourism and hospitality management education. Secondly, it was felt that those in positions of responsibility could best express the strategy, structure, and focus of their areas on behalf of their institutions and colleges.

8.5 The Instruments

8.5.1 Questionnaire Design

The second instrument used in this study was a questionnaire developed by the researcher. As already stated, parts of the questionnaire were based on a format originally designed and used in a number of overseas studies¹¹. However, questions

10 Heads of departments, course coordinators, heads of research units in Australian colleges and universities are normally selected and appointed by their peers on the basis of their professional experience, qualifications, and suitability for roles which require either academic or managerial decisions making skills or both.

11 The design for parts of sections 3,4,& 5 of the questionnaire was derived from research surveys conducted by Airey, Ladkin, and Middleton (1993). Permission to use sections of the UK survey was sought and obtained from Dr. Adele Ladkin, research fellow at the International Centre for Tourism & Hospitality Research, Bournemouth University.

were developed in a form necessary to obtain the data to test the hypotheses presented in this thesis and to address the research questions.

The questionnaire sought to obtain both factual, descriptive data as well as attitudinal information. Factual and descriptive sections in the questionnaire used an ordinal measurement scale. Attitudinal sections used a five point Likert scale¹². It is worth noting that in designing Section 7 of the questionnaire (which attempts to measure both educators' current and future perceptions) it was likely that responses relating to future directions and planning would naturally be biased towards the positive end of the spectrum ("strongly agree"). This is taken into consideration in the analysis of the data in the next chapter. A copy of the questionnaire together with the accompanying letter is attached in Appendix 6.

8.5.2 Survey Objectives

The objectives of the survey instrument were developed in line with the thesis' hypotheses. The survey considered:

- the respondent personal profile;
- the overall staff profile involved in the teaching of tourism and hospitality management education in colleges and universities in Australia;
- the graduate course profile offered;

¹² A five point Likert scale was adopted after the initial seven point Likert scale used in the trial of the questionnaire was found to offer no perceptible advantage.

- educators' opinions on the role of a national professional body and that of an advisory board in terms of the standing and recognition of tourism and hospitality courses in Australia;
- the views of tourism and hospitality educators on the nature of current programs, as well as their views on future developments in the area; and,
- the opinions of educators on the levels of experience and qualifications considered necessary for academics teaching tourism and hospitality management education in Australia.

The focus of the study was aimed at the graduate tourism and hospitality management education area. However, opinions were sought from educators in positions of responsibility at both the undergraduate and graduate levels. Accordingly, target institutions were selected on the basis of their involvement in tourism and hospitality management education either at the undergraduate or postgraduate level or both. In contrast, most other tourism and hospitality management education studies have focused on vocational or undergraduate studies; in fact, these studies have tended to ignore altogether the recent development of graduate programs in this area.

8.5.3 Trial Run

A pilot study group consisting of six tourism and hospitality management educators in positions of responsibility from two separate tourism and hospitality university departments validated the draft instrument. As a result of the pilot study, minor modifications were made to the questionnaire.

The pilot group reviewed the questionnaire for clarity, ease of use, and face validity. The pilot group was selected because it represented educators in position of responsibility who had been involved in tourism and hospitality management education at either the undergraduate or graduate level or both for at least five years. Participation was voluntary. None of the members from the pilot group participated in the actual study.

The most notable changes made to the questionnaire as a result of the pilot study are outlined in Appendix 6.

8.5.4 Data Collection

The questionnaire, together with a cover letter and a self-addressed stamped envelope, was mailed to all fifty nine participants in April 1999. It was considered that both the comprehensive nature and content of the questionnaire required respondents to be given sufficient time and reflection for responses. Thus, data collection via a mailed questionnaire was favoured ahead of both a questionnaire administered in an interview format face-to-face with individuals, or gathered through telephone interviews. Moreover, the mailing of questionnaires to respondents provided both a more convenient and relatively inexpensive method of reaching the targeted sample. The cover letter attached to the questionnaire sought voluntary participation and explained the nature and purpose of the survey. The letter also encouraged respondents to contact the researcher should they have any queries about the survey¹³.

¹³ Both the letter and the questionnaire can be found in Appendix 6.

As suggested by Cresswell (1994), a 3-phase follow-up sequence over six weeks was adopted:

1. Following the original mailing, all respondents were contacted by telephone on 30 April 1999. The courtesy telephone contact timed either pre-receipt or upon immediate receipt of the questionnaire was felt to be an essential part of securing cooperation from respondents. The telephone contact also enabled the nature and purpose of the research to be explained, and to encourage participants to take the time to fill in and return the questionnaire.
2. A reminder letter and replacement questionnaire with self-addressed stamped envelope was sent to all non-respondents on 17 May 1999.
3. A third mailing of an electronically mailed letter (e-mail) together with an attachment containing a copy of the questionnaire, as a reminder to complete and send in the questionnaire, was sent to all non-respondents on 31 May 1999.

As mentioned, data was collected by a postal questionnaire targeting individuals at all institutions identified as offering tourism and hospitality management courses either at the graduate or undergraduate level. It should be stressed that the results of this survey are based on voluntary responses that individuals provided to a lengthy and comprehensive questionnaire. A total of 59 individuals in 34 institutions (the total colleges and university population involved in tourism and hospitality management education) were contacted, and 46 responses were received -

representing a response rate of 78%. This rate of response was considered satisfactory given the nature of the study.

There are two issues in respect of the data collection process which should be further stressed. The first issue concerns the sample response rate for returned questionnaires. As described above, the questionnaire was designed to capture specific descriptive as well as attitudinal information. The length of the questionnaire was felt to be of a manageable size for the target group and personal phone calls were made to all participants so as to encourage participation and maximise return rate. The data obtained from the primary documents and the questionnaires provided a valuable database for exercising judgement as well as making comparisons with previous studies. The risks associated with seeking responses to a lengthy questionnaire, which may have been the cause of some of the non-responses, were carefully considered in the study design. The design was felt appropriate given the nature and make-up of the target group, as well as the fact that personal follow-up contact with participants was established at the outset.

The second issue concerns the degree of variability in the detail of data which individual institutions collate. Some of the institutions keep extensive and accurate databases of student records from which information can be sought. Others keep very little account of past student records. Consequently, the amount of information provided by the different institutions varied widely, and was an issue in obtaining accurate and detailed up-to-date information.

8.5.4 Scope and Limitations

Trow (1967) remarked that the errors and inadequacies of survey research in education appear at many points from the way problems are initially chosen and defined, to the choice of the subject population, the selection of the sample, the design of the individual questions and the questioning as a whole, and the analysis of the resulting body of data.

It must be stressed that a limitation of descriptive statistical analysis restricts any generalisation to the particular group of individuals observed, and that no conclusions can be extended beyond this group as any similarity to individuals outside the group cannot be inferred. Thus, the data collected in this census survey and the information derived from its analysis is really only applicable to the population of Australian colleges and universities involved in tourism and hospitality management education. As stated earlier, consideration of the surveyed group as an unbiased sample representative of the population of tourism and hospitality educators in Australian colleges and universities, has severe limitations. Any inferences derived from this group's responses must therefore be carefully qualified and justified.

The greatest limitation of this study lies with the overall population size. It must be stressed that a population size of 59 is, to all intents and purposes, statistically small. This severe limitation has been given due consideration in both the analysis of the data and in deriving conclusions.

This study deals primarily with the management educational aspects of graduate tourism and hospitality in colleges and universities in Australia. Although some

comparison can be made between graduate tourism and hospitality management education in Australia and overseas, it must be stressed that a number of external country specific factors which impact on the tertiary education sector will also of necessity limit the exactitude on any comparisons¹⁴.

8.6 Summary

This chapter has focused on presenting the methodology underlying the constructs of the survey instruments. The construction of the population was described, as were the instruments used for data collection. The methodology design and structure were outlined, as were the methods and timing of data collection. Scope and limitations of the methodology were acknowledged.

The following chapter presents the results of the survey and discusses reliability and validity measures pertinent to the data collected in the survey.

¹⁴For example: government policies, economic and employment trends, industry specific factors, as well as cultural factors.

Chapter 9

Analysis of Findings

9.1 Introduction

In this chapter the survey findings will be presented and analysed. The purpose and structure of the data collection instrument will be reviewed and the overall rate of return discussed. It will be argued that the 78% return rate to the questionnaire was considered satisfactory to provide valid and interpretable statistics. It will be further argued that for the purpose of obtaining both comprehensive and meaningful results, it was felt appropriate to analyse the data using three distinct strategies. These strategies will be outlined in term of their appropriateness and limitations. Finally, the data will be summarised in 23 separate tables. Each table will be addressed, and the results discussed.

9.2 Data Collection Instrument and Overall Rate of Returns

This research involves a study of responses to a questionnaire sent to 59 tourism and hospitality educators from Australian colleges and universities. As already mentioned in the previous chapter, those selected represented the entire population of identifiable individuals in positions of responsibility in tourism and hospitality management education in Australian colleges and universities.

The following discussion of results is based on the responses of 46 of the 59 surveyed tourism and hospitality educators. The 78% return rate to the questionnaire was considered satisfactory to provide valid and interpretable statistics. However, it must be noted that not all of the questions in the questionnaire were answered and

that certain sections in the questionnaire had a much lower response rate. Therefore, for the purpose of clarity, the number of respondents is indicated in the tables summarising the results. Due consideration is given to this important aspect in the interpretation of the data. Moreover, it is acknowledged at the outset that the total original number (n=59) of the population and the even smaller number of respondents (n=46) limits both data analysis and interpretation.

9.2.1 Questionnaire Design and Rate of Response

The questionnaire consisted of seven sections¹. Section 1 aimed to gather both institutional and personal details. Institutional details were optional. Section 1 focused primarily on obtaining data of a demographic and descriptive nature. All respondents completed section 1.

Section 2 sought to gather specific information on academic staff contributing to tourism and hospitality management programs in colleges and universities. The purpose of this section was to build a staff profile and to assess if there were commonalities in colleges and universities in Australia among such things as: nature of employment, level of appointments, management experience, industry experience, experience as educators, and levels of qualifications held by academic staff working in the area. Section 2 was either fully or partially completed by 50 % of respondents (n=23).

¹ See Appendix 6 for a copy of the questionnaire.

Sections 3, 4 & 5 of the questionnaire were completed by educators whose institutions offered graduate programs. The questions included in these sections were similar to questions included in the studies by Airey, Ladkin, and Middleton (1993), who investigated the profile of tourism studies degrees in the UK, and Ladkin (1999) who conducted a follow up study on the development of degree level and above courses in the UK for the National Liaison Group (NLG) for Higher education in Tourism². Only 52% of respondents (n=24) either fully or partially completed these sections.

Section 3 sought to obtain course details on graduate tourism and hospitality management programs in colleges and universities. The purpose of this section was to ascertain:

- a current profile on the nature, structure, mode of delivery, mode of attendance, length of courses, and level of courses offered in colleges and universities in Australia;
- the nature of the professional content;
- the nature of the management content;
- the nature of the general structure of these courses;
- the nature of any specific bias demonstrated in these courses;
- whether these courses were independently run or operated with another institution;
- if industrial placement was an operational feature of any of these courses;

² Permission to use sections of the UK survey was sought and obtained from Dr. Adele Ladkin, research fellow at the International Centre for Tourism & Hospitality Research, Bournemouth University.

- the length of management experience required as a condition for enrolment;
- whether previous qualifications were a necessary requirement as a condition for enrolment; and
- the level of fees charged for undertaking graduate studies in this area.

Section 4 attempted to measure differences in student applications, student places offered, and final course enrolments between the first year a graduate course was offered, and 1999. Respondents were asked to indicate the date(s) of course(s) commencement, and to estimate numbers if actual data was unavailable.

Section 5 attempted to record the number of students who had graduated as a result of first intake enrolments as a comparison with the numbers of students graduating in 1998. Respondents were also asked to indicate the nature and type of resulting employment for students at the end of these courses, if known.

Section 6 of the questionnaire sought educators' opinions on the role of a national professional body and that of an advisory board on the standing and recognition of tourism and hospitality courses in Australia. Respondents were required to express these opinions using a five point Likert scale which attempted to measure their agreement and/or disagreement with the given statements. All respondents completed this section.

Finally, section 7 attempted to ascertain the views and opinions of educators on the nature, content, direction, aims, objectives, strengths and weaknesses of existing

tourism and hospitality management education programs, as well as their perception of future planning and direction in the area. Section 7 also used a five point Likert scale. Although it was felt that the responses for future program directions and planning would naturally be biased towards the positive end of the spectrum (ie. “strongly agree”), it was also felt that a strategy of seeking educators’ opinions on both current and future issues would require them to reflect on their opinions and perceptions of current and future trends, thus determining whether a gap existed. All respondents completed this section.

9.3 Strategies for Data Analysis

It has already been noted that the questionnaire was designed to acquire:

- descriptive factual information about individual respondents and their departmental structures and course offerings; and,
- respondents’ opinions and perceptions on current and future issues relating to tourism and hospitality management education in colleges and universities in Australia.

For the purpose of obtaining both comprehensive and meaningful results, it was felt appropriate to analyse the data using three distinct strategies³. First, the descriptive and factual data was analysed, focusing on frequency distributions, overall percentages and trend lines. All collected data was subjected to this analysis. Thus, personal details, staffing profiles, course details, student profiles, student

³ Data were analysed using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences Personal Computer version (SPSS/PC, 1998).

achievements and educators' opinions and views are all initially reported and discussed either via the use of frequency distribution tables, or overall percentages, or both.

Second, evidence of any existing correlations was sought between the broad range of variables under investigation. However, only significant correlations are reported.

These were found on the opinions/views expressed by respondents on:

- items which attempted to measure the roles and responsibilities attributed to advisory boards and to those of a national professional body;
- items which attempted to measure perceptions of existing programs and perceptions of future program developments;
- items which attempted to measure opinions of current staff qualifications and those for future staff qualifications.

Third, a factor analysis was conducted on data collected in sections 6 and 7 using a five-point Likert scale to facilitate data analysis⁴. Factors that had Eigenvalues of greater than 1 were included in the data analysis. Cronbach's coefficient alpha was used to assess the reliability of each item grouping created by the factor analysis. Factors with reliability of .40 or greater were included in the data analysis.⁵ Items which double loaded on factors and which therefore were difficult to attribute with

4 Using Principal Axis Factoring (PAF) with varimax rotation.

5 It must be stressed that the results from this factor analysis must be interpreted with great caution. Primarily, because factor analysis usually requires a minimum of five subjects per variable and is usually applied to population greater than 101. However, it was felt that factor analysis would nevertheless provide an appropriate method of data simplification in grouping highly correlated items from sections 6 and 7 of the questionnaire. These factors were, however, only used as a guide in the interpretation of the data.

any degree of certainty were either discarded ($<.7$), or treated with caution ($>.7$), depending on the distribution of the loadings.

9.4 Results

The results are presented and discussed in the six sections below.

9.4.1 Personal Details

The information gathered in the personal section served two main purposes. First, it enabled any similarities and differences in the professional background of respondents to be identified, and second, it enabled the information, where appropriate, to be correlated with data sought in the later sections.

Table 9.1 Personal Details Distribution

Personal Details (n=46)						
Current academic level	A	B	C	D	E	Total
	-	27%	40%	22%	11%	100%
Qualifications	< Dip	Diploma	Degree	Masters	Doctorate	
	-	2%	11%	33%	54%	100%
No of Years	0	1 to 3	4 to 6	7 to 10	> 10	
Experience in industry	12%	24%	24%	16%	24%	100%
Experience as an educator	2%	11%	27%	18%	42%	100%
Experience in management	9%	20%	42%	11%	18%	100%

All respondents completed the section on personal details. Data on respondents' personal details are reported in Table 9.1. As the Table illustrates, the majority of respondents (73%) occupied a Level C position or above in their college or university. This high proportion of seniority was expected given the target population and the nature of their position and responsibilities. The majority of respondents were well qualified with 87% holding Masters or Doctoral qualifications. Interestingly, respondents' experience in industry was quite variable with an even distribution

across the 0 to +10 years range. Experience in education was predictably higher with 60% of respondents in the +7 years range, and only 13% of respondents with 3 or less years of experience as educators. Experience in management tended to be more equally spread with the 4 to 6 years range registering the greatest number of respondents (42%), with the remainder equally divided in the less than 3 years (29%) and more than 7 years (29%) categories.

The table clearly shows that respondents were well qualified professionals in relatively senior academic positions, with a mix of experience across industry, education and management. The relatively strong reported emphasis on “educational experience” is not surprising given the nature of the target population. Perhaps more surprising is the reported 27% of respondents who are still at the lecturer B level, yet occupying positions of responsibility with regards to the management of tourism and hospitality programs in Australian universities and colleges. This may reflect the small size of some tourism and hospitality departments, as well as the lack of status attached to overall coordination responsibilities in academia.

9.4.2 Departmental Staff Profile

Response rate for this section was low, with only 50% of respondents providing the required data. The information sought here was specific to the overall composition, experience, and qualifications of tourism and hospitality academic staff in Australian universities and colleges. The data reported and discussed here refers solely to the graduate studies' classification. Table 9.2 provides a summary of the responses.

Table 9.2 Departmental Staff Distribution

Departmental Staff Profile (n=23)	Full Time	Part Time
Academic staff employment	High (60-80%)	Low (20-40%)
Gender Males	High (60-80%)	Low (20-40%)
Gender Females	Low (20-40%)	High (60-80%)
Academic levels	B (50%) & C (40%)	A (40%) & B (50%) & contracts
Qualifications	Medium (some Doctorates but mainly Masters qualifications)	Low (Degree or less)
Experience in industry	Low (< 5yrs)	Med. to High (7 to 10 yrs)
Experience as educators	Med. to High (7 to 10 yrs)	Low (1 to 3 yrs)
Experience in management	Medium (4 to 6 yrs)	Low (1 to 3 yrs)

The data is described using a high/medium/low classification. For example, in the measurement of academic staff employment, a “high” score is registered in the full time section and a “low” score in the part time section, indicating that the majority of staff employed in tourism and hospitality departments in colleges and universities were reported as being employed on a continuing full time basis. Whereas in the measurement of staff experience in management, full time staff are considered as having only a “medium” level of experience with between 4 to 6 years in management, and part-time staff register a “low” score with an average of 1 to 3 years in management.

The results in Table 9.2 point to both the overall similarities and differences between full and part-time staff currently employed in tourism and hospitality graduate programs. It suggests that most graduate tourism and hospitality programs employ

both full-time and part-time staff, and that industry experience is more likely to be emphasised in the selection of part-time graduate staff, whereas academic credentials and greater educational experience are deemed more essential for full-time graduate staff. The industry experience focus, at least for part-time graduate staff, supports Lewis' (1982) contention that tourism and hospitality educators with industry contact are better prepared and thereby more capable of giving students a state-of-the-art industry background.

The trends in the data from full-time tourism and hospitality graduate staff in academic credentials, recorded experience in industry, education, and management are consistent with those found in the personal details profile obtained from respondents⁶. Moreover, there was no evidence in the collected data that tourism and hospitality departments in Australian universities and colleges differed significantly from each other in either their employment patterns or breakdowns of full-time to part-time graduate academic staff.

Respondents' opinions on academic staff qualifications and experience were further sought on six variables summarised in Tables 9.3 and 9.4. Opinions were sought on academic staff qualifications and experience which they felt were currently of value to tourism and hospitality programs as well as their impressions on what should be required from staff in the future. A classification of "strong support, support, neutral, and divided" is used in these tables. For example, 62 % of respondents either agreed

⁶ Although there is currently a shortage of doctorate qualifications among academics in the area as argued by Zabel (1992), it is possible that this is simply the result of a natural phenomenon in a developing area as argued by Davidson (1997). As this research did not attempt to measure the number of academic staff currently undertaking doctoral studies, it is not possible to infer how quickly the situation is likely to change.

or strongly agreed with the need for academics to “communicate regularly and keep in touch with industry”, thus supporting it as an important current issue. Whereas, 49% of respondents did not have a strong opinion on whether a doctoral qualification was currently necessary.

Table 9.3 Opinions on Current Academic Staff Qualifications and Experience

Opinions on Academic Staff Qualifications (n=46)	Current %(SA/A, N, D/SD)	Mean
Communicate regularly and keep in close touch with industry.	Support (62,29,9)	3.8
Develop relevant courses using state-of-the-art and emerging technologies.	Support (60,31,9)	3.8
Have strong industry management experience as well as good academic credentials.	Support (65, 22, 13)	3.5
Publish regularly in refereed academic tourism and hospitality journals.	Moderate Support (56,9,36)	3.5
Hold a doctoral qualification.	Neutral (42,49,9)	3.4
Tailor graduate programs to meet the needs and requirements of industry	Divided (49,16,36)	3.3

Note: SA=5, A=4, N=3, D=2, SD=1

Table 9.4 Opinions on Future Academic Staff Qualifications and Experience

Opinions on Academic Staff Qualifications (n=46)	Future %(SA/A, N, D/SD)	Mean
Develop relevant courses using state-of-the-art and emerging technologies.	Strong Support (93, 2, 5)	4.3
Tailor graduate programs to meet the needs and requirements of industry	Support (84,11,4)	4.3
Communicate regularly and keep in close touch with industry.	Strong Support (89, 7, 4)	4.2
Publish regularly in refereed academic tourism and hospitality journals.	Support (68,28,4)	4.2
Hold a doctoral qualification.	Support (65,31,4)	3.7
Have strong industry management experience as well as good academic credentials.	Support (73, 13,13)	3.6

Note: SA=5, A=4, N=3, D=2, SD=1

As can be observed from Tables 9.3 and 9.4, all the variables registered support from respondents. However, respondents were less willing to commit themselves with

respect to the current need for a doctoral qualification, and were divided in their opinions on whether academic staff currently teaching in programs should “tailor graduate programs to meet the needs and requirements of industry”. Interestingly, this contradicts respondents’ opinions on the importance of “industry focus” expressed in the next section.

Correlations between these variables are reported in Table 9.5. Correlations were strong for five of the six variables, reflecting a strong association of opinions on current/future perceptions on staff qualifications and experience. Indeed, Spearman’s Rho is significant at the .01 level (2-tailed) on five of the variables and the magnitude of correlation (R^2) is significant on three of the variables.

Table 9.5 Correlations Factors on Current and Future Academic Staff Qualifications and Experience

Opinions on Academic Staff Qualifications (n=46)	Mean Current	Mean Future	Rho	R^2
Publish regularly in refereed academic tourism and hospitality journals.	3.5	4.2	.852**	73%
Hold a doctoral qualification.	3.4	3.7	.801**	64%
Develop relevant courses using state-of-the-art and emerging technologies.	3.8	4.3	.779**	61%
Have strong industry management experience as well as good academic credentials (Masters degree).	3.5	3.6	.688**	47%
Communicate regularly and keep in close touch with industry.	3.8	4.2	.524**	27%
Tailor graduate programs to meet the needs and requirements of industry	3.3	4.3	.133	2%

** Significant at .01 level (2-tailed)

The data reflects that current full and part-time graduate academic staff already have a mix of experience and academic qualifications. Moreover, respondents were of the opinion that higher levels of academic credentials and industry experience should be

essential in the future for academic staff to contribute successfully to tourism and hospitality programs.

9.4.3 Course Details

Response rate for this section was restricted to those respondents whose institutions offered graduate courses in tourism and hospitality management. In total, 52% of the respondents said that they were either already, or about to get involved in graduate education.

There was a wide range of variations in reported course titles applicable across the Graduate Certificate, and Graduate Diploma levels with variation in award title even more prominent at the Masters level. As there seems to be no agreement on common terminology for use of course titles, it is plausible to assume that such diversity may in fact be creating confusion among prospective students and employers seeking to evaluate different courses for their own purposes.

Reported dates of course commencement would seem to indicate that the majority of new initiatives in the graduate area have taken place in the last decade. Although this corroborates impressions gained from the literature in the area, this data fails to recognise the existence of graduate courses which began earlier⁷. Data provided on the duration of courses also reflects an equal amount of diversity. Graduate Certificates range from a brief period of 3 to 12 months part-time, with 1 full-time semester (6 months) registering the greatest popularity among institutions. Duration of Graduate Diplomas range from a short full-time semester course to two years part-

⁷ See Appendix 2.

time, with 1 year full-time registering the greatest popularity among institutions.

Respondents were equally divided in their report of the length of time required to complete a Masters degree, with 42% respectively in both the one and two-year full time option.

Table 9.6 provides a summary of the responses obtained on some of the variables under investigation. It must be stressed that not all respondents provided answers to all questions in this section.

Table 9.6: Course Details I

Course Details (n=24)	Graduate Certificate	Graduate Diploma	Masters Degree	Doctoral Degree
Full Time Mode	100%	100%	100%	100%
Part Time Mode	50%	50%	50%	50%
Compulsory Core	75%	66%	66%	N/A
Nested	50%	45%	33%	N/A
Distance learning	25%	20%	40%	N/A
Use of Advisory Board	90%	80%	66%	N/A
Use of emerging technology	33%	33%	50%	N/A

It can be observed from Table 9.6 that there is a range of variations in the variables applicable across the Graduate Certificate, Graduate Diploma and the Masters levels. As can be observed from the table both modes of full and part-time studies are available in respondents' institutions, with a ratio of 2:1 of respondents preferring full-time to part-time mode of course delivery. This is an interesting observation given the nature of students likely to undertake graduate programs in this area. The data provided on the existence of "a compulsory core" in these programs is also worthy of note. Most (reported) programs incorporate a compulsory core across award levels. However, respondents to this survey provided little evidence in supporting the notion that "a common curriculum" should be established in tourism

and hospitality. There is clearly a perceived difference of opinion in the acceptability of “a common curriculum” as opposed to that of “a compulsory core” which can vary from award to award and institution to institution. Moreover, emerging technology is being used in only one third of graduate certificate and graduate diploma courses and in only half of masters’ courses. A greater proportion of institutions also report seeking advice from advisory boards at the graduate certificate and graduate diploma level than at the masters’ level (this point is discussed at length in the next section). Finally, of greater importance perhaps is the report that the majority of courses across these awards are not available through distance learning. This ties in with the earlier data on mode of delivery which favoured full-time over part-time studies in this area.

Table 9.7: Course Details II

Course Details (n=24)	Graduate Certificate	Graduate Diploma	Masters Degree	Doctoral Degree
Professional Content				
Mostly Theoretical	25%	12%	33%	60%
75% Theoretical25% Applied	25%	20%	58%	40%
50% Theoretical50% Applied	37%	66%	8%	
25% Theoretical75% Applied	12%			
Mostly Applied				
Management Content				
Mostly Theoretical	25%	33%	25%	25%
75% Theoretical25% Applied	12%	45%	40%	25%
50% Theoretical50% Applied	63%	22%	33%	25%
25% Theoretical75% Applied				25%
Mostly Applied				
General Course Structure				
Very Flexible			8%	50%
75% Flexible25% Structured	12%	12%	8%	25%
50% Flexible50% Structured	63%	55%	40%	25%
25% Flexible75% Structured	24%	12%	40%	
Very Structured		20%	5%	
Specific Course Bias (more than one apply)				
Tourism	50%	33%	33%	40%
Hospitality	30%	33%	33%	20%
Financial	20%	15%	12%	10%
Management		12%	15%	10%
Human Resources			30%	10%
Marketing		12%	12%	10%
Travel	10%	12%		

The data reported in Table 9.7 is specific to course content and structure. It is worth noting that although most respondents reported a certain degree of flexibility in course structure across awards, both the professional and management contents tend to have more of a theoretical than applied bias. This is especially the case at the Masters level. Specific reported biases across awards reflects a predominant focus on the tourism and hospitality areas, although it is not easy to understand to what extent or depth, and with what focus the tourism and hospitality element is included in each case.

The data reported in Table 9.8 is specific to the role of industrial placement, and the nature of strategic alliances into which institutions enter. It is relevant to note that neither industrial placements nor strategic alliances with other institutions are features of graduate tourism and hospitality management programs in Australian colleges and universities. Indeed, there is a significant contrast between these findings and those of Cook (1988), Lebruto et al. (1994) and Stuttz (1995), with respect to industrial placements.

Table 9.8: Course Details III

Course Details (n=24)	Graduate Certificate	Graduate Diploma	Masters Degree	Doctoral Degree
Industrial Placement				
No placement	100%	90%	100%	100%
4 weeks or less				
5 to 8 weeks				
9 to 12 weeks				
13 weeks or more placement		10%		
Other Institution Involvement				
No other institution	62%	75%	100%	90%
Other University				10%
TAFE Institute	25%			
Private Provider	12%	15%		
Industry Partner				

Table 9.9: Course Details IV

Course Details (n=24)	Graduate Certificate	Graduate Diploma	Masters Degree	Doctoral Degree
Required pre-entry work Experience				
No work experience	12%	33%	60%	75%
1 to 2 years experience	63%	12%	25%	12%
2 to 3 years experience	12%	55%	15%	
3 to 4 years experience				12%
5 or more years experience	12%			
Required pre-entry Qualifications				
None required	50%	33%	25%	20%
Certificate				
Diploma	25%			
Degree	25%	66%	75%	80%
Course Fees				
HECS only			8%	35%
Under \$2500	25%			
\$2500-\$5000	75%	20%		
\$5000-\$7500		20%	16%	
\$7500--\$10000		60%	32%	15%
Over \$10000			44%	50%

The data reported in Table 9.9 refers to the importance attached to pre-entry work experience and pre-entry qualifications, and the level of course fees charged. The data suggest that pre-entry work experience may be perceived by educators as increasingly less important after the Graduate Certificate level. A possible cause for this may well be that, in some cases at least, students move into the Graduate Diploma and Masters courses having already completed the Graduate Certificate. However, it is still predominantly the case (but not always) that prior qualifications are expected of students who enter graduate studies. Interestingly, there is an inverse relationship at the Graduate Certificate level between pre-entry work experience and qualifications. This was expected given the purpose and nature of most Graduate Certificate programs in Australian colleges and universities. These are often designed to attract students who are employed and have been away from studies for a

considerable period of time. Annual full-time equivalent course fees clearly vary according to the award undertaken, ranging from HECs only to fees in excess of \$10,000. As expected, the data shows a proportionate increase across award levels, with Graduate Certificates at the lower end and Masters and Doctorates at the higher end of the fee structure. Again, this is within the expected norms as Graduate Certificates are shorter and therefore proportionately less costly to operate.

9.4.4 Student Enrolment, Graduation and Employment Profiles

Responses obtained for this section were low, with only 12 respondents providing incomplete data, and results were inconclusive. As insufficient responses were available to determine any obvious pattern, this section was excluded from in depth analysis. The results are summarised in Tables 9.10 - 9.13.

Table 9.10: 1999 Enrolment Profile Distribution I

Enrolment Profile (n=12)	Graduate Certificate	Graduate Diploma	Masters Degree	Doctoral Degree
Applications	5%	72%	16%	6%
Places Offered	100%	83%	30%	100%
FT Enrolments	40%	95%	67%	77%
PT Enrolments	60%	5%	33%	23%

Although the data is scant, it can be observed from Table 9.10 that in 1999 72% of all applications were for Graduate Diplomas, indicating that this level is by far the most popular. Some 83% of applicants were successful in obtaining a place in a Graduate Diploma, whilst only 30% of applicants were successful in being offered a place in a Master's program. The data also points to the majority of students electing to study in full-time mode. This is not altogether surprising given the earlier figures from Table

9.6 which showed that only half of the programs were actually available in part-time mode, and few if any available by distance. Indeed, if students are offered an alternative to full time study in only half of the available programs, then it follows that the majority of enrolments must be in full-time on-campus mode.

Table 9.11: 1988 Enrolment Profile Distribution II

Enrolment Profile (n=12)	Graduate Certificate	Graduate Diploma	Masters Degree	Doctoral Degree
Applications	6%	76%	12%	5%
Places Offered	27%	12%	25%	
FT Enrolments	40%	76%	63%	
PT Enrolments				

The popularity of Graduate Diplomas does not appear to have waned, as reported in Table 9.11. Indeed, 1988 figures show a similar pattern to 1999 with the exception that fewer positions were actually offered to students in 1988. Although mode of study figures are incomplete, it can be observed that the full-time mode was equally popular in 1988, albeit, because it was also the dominant mode available.

Table 9.12: Graduation Profile Distribution

Graduation Profile (n=12)	Year	Graduate Certificate	Graduate Diploma	Masters Degree	Doctoral Degree
	1998	6%	71%	21%	3%
	1990	12%	58%	27%	2%

As expected, data on graduation profile for the years 1990 and 1998 in Table 9.12 correspond with the nature of course enrolments, with the majority of graduates at the Diploma level.

Table 9.13: Employment Distribution

Employment Profile (n=12)	Year	Tourism	Hospitality	Other Service Sector	Non Service Sector
	1998	20%	30%	50%	-
	1990	20%	10%	50%	20%

Finally, it can be observed from Table 9.13 that employment distribution was not exclusive to the tourism and hospitality industry, with 50% of graduates moving into a variety of non-defined service sector industries.

9.4.5 Opinions on the Role of a National Professional Body and the Role of an Advisory Board in Terms of Standing and Recognition of Tourism and Hospitality Courses in Australia.

Educators' opinions were sought about the role of both an advisory board and a national professional body in terms of the standing and recognition of tourism and hospitality courses in Australia. The results are summarised in tables 9.14 - 9.17.

It can be observed from Table 9.14 that respondents had favourable opinions on seven of the nine variables which tested for how advisory boards could be useful to tourism and hospitality programs. Strong support was expressed on two of those variables, with two others registering a neutral response. Indeed, it must be stressed that the level of "neutral" responses (>40%) on these two variables could imply that respondents were either not clear about the question, or did not have a strong opinion on the issue, or both.

Table 9.14: Opinions on the Role of Advisory Boards

Opinions on how Advisory Boards could help (n=46):	Advisory Board %(SA/A, N, D/SD)	Mean AB
Determine if a tourism and hospitality program is meeting its mission and objectives.	Solid Support (65, 22, 13)	3.6
Determine that tourism and hospitality curricula are in line with industry needs and requirements.	Solid Support (67, 11, 22)	3.4
Raise the professional standard of tourism and hospitality management education.	Moderate Support (58, 29, 13)	3.4
Determine ways of improving tourism and hospitality programs.	Moderate Support (56, 33, 11)	3.4
Establish a minimum level of quality for tourism and hospitality programs.	Moderate Support (53, 31, 15)	3.4
Increase support and recognition from industry for tourism and hospitality programs.	Moderate Support (51, 25, 24)	3.4
Increase accountability of tourism and hospitality programs to the industry.	Moderate Support (52, 18, 30)	3.3
Determine if the parent university's mission and objectives are consistent with the tourism and hospitality program's mission and objectives.	Neutral (38, 40, 22)	3.1
Establish a common curriculum in tourism and hospitality.	Neutral (22, 53, 25)	2.9

Note: SA=5, A=4, N=3, D=2, SD=1

Similarly, it can equally be observed from Table 9.15 that respondents had relatively favourable opinions on six of the nine variables being investigated on the roles of a national professional body. Of significance are the notable differences found on two of the variables, with an almost equal polarisation of favourable and unfavourable views. Indeed, it is surprising that such a division be expressed on the item testing for "increase support and recognition from industry". The expectation was that such a variable would receive at least moderate support, as it did in respondents' evaluation of the roles of advisory boards. This could explain the perception among educators that a national professional body would have relatively little influence on industry directions and focus. This result is not surprising, perhaps, given the highly diversified and fragmented nature of the industry.

Table 9.15: Opinions on the Role of a National Professional Body

Opinions on how a National Professional Body could help (n=46):	Professional Body %(SA/A, N, D/SD)	Mean PB
Establish a minimum level of quality for tourism and hospitality programs.	Solid Support (61, 22, 17)	3.4
Determine that tourism and hospitality curricula are in line with industry needs and requirements.	Solid Support (60, 22, 18)	3.4
Determine ways of improving tourism and hospitality programs.	Moderate Support (58, 19, 23)	3.3
Increase accountability of tourism and hospitality programs to the industry.	Moderate Support (58, 16, 26)	3.3
Determine if a tourism and hospitality program is meeting its mission and objectives.	Moderate Support (54, 24, 22)	3.3
Raise the professional standard of tourism and hospitality management education.	Moderate Support (53, 27, 20)	3.3
Increase support and recognition from industry for tourism and hospitality programs.	Divided (43, 20, 37)	3.2
Establish a common curriculum in tourism and hospitality.	Divided (40, 29, 31)	3.2
Determine if the parent university's mission and objectives are consistent with the tourism and hospitality program's mission and objectives.	Neutral (31, 42, 27)	2.9

Note: SA=5, A=4, N=3, D=2, SD=1

Thus, there was a common agreement that both bodies would help “determine that tourism and hospitality curricula are in line with industry needs and requirements”. The role of the advisory board was recognised for its function in “determining if a tourism and hospitality program is meeting its mission and objectives”, and the role of a national professional board for its function in “establishing a minimum level of quality for tourism and hospitality programs”. As can be observed, the other variables received either moderate or negligible support.

Evidence of any existing correlations was sought between the opinions/views expressed by respondents on items which attempted to measure the roles and responsibilities attributed to advisory boards, and to those of a national professional

body⁸. Table 9.16 shows reasonable correlations (significant at the .01 level 2 tailed test) between all items. However, only one of the nine items registered significant magnitudes of correlation at the 71% level, that of “increase support and recognition from industry for tourism and hospitality programs”.

Table 9.16: Correlation Factors Advisory Board/National Professional Body

Opinions on how Advisory Boards & a National Professional Body could help (n=46):	Mean AB	Mean PB	Rho	R ²
Increase support and recognition from industry for tourism and hospitality programs.	3.4	3.2	.841**	71%
Determine ways of improving tourism and hospitality programs.	3.4	3.3	.651**	42%
Increase accountability of tourism and hospitality programs to the industry.	3.3	3.3	.651**	42%
Determine if the parent university's mission and objectives are consistent with the tourism and hospitality program's mission and objectives.	3.1	2.9	.579**	34%
Establish a common curriculum in tourism and hospitality.	2.9	3.2	.582**	34%
Raise the professional standard of tourism and hospitality management education.	3.4	3.3	.524**	27%
Determine that tourism and hospitality curricula are in line with industry needs and requirements.	3.4	3.4	.486**	24%
Determine if a tourism and hospitality program is meeting its mission and objectives.	3.6	3.3	.461**	21%
Establish a minimum level of quality for tourism and hospitality programs.	3.4	3.4	.442**	20%

** Significant at the .01 level (2-tailed)

Factor analysis was also conducted to uncover any underlying factor structure among the variables under investigation. It was felt that such analysis of the variables would undoubtedly reveal a reduced set of factors in grouping variables, thus facilitating both description and implications. In order to identify if there were any underlying dimensions across the nine variables with regards to both the roles of an advisory board and a national professional body, a factor analysis using Principal Axis

⁸ Using the non-parametric Spearman rank-order correlation (Rho).

Factoring with Varimax rotation and Kaiser Normalisation was conducted. Results of the factor analysis are summarised in Tables 9.17 and Table 9.18.

Table 9.17: Factor Analysis on Respondents Opinions of the Roles of an Advisory Board

(n=46)	Factor #1 Industry Focus	Factor #2 Program Direction
Determine that tourism and hospitality curricula are in line with industry needs and requirements.	.884	
Determine ways of improving tourism and hospitality programs.	.846	
Increase accountability of tourism and hospitality programs to the industry.	.839	
Establish a minimum level of quality for tourism and hospitality programs.	.806	.454
Raise the professional standard of tourism and hospitality management education.		.804
Determine if the parent university's mission and objectives are consistent with the tourism and hospitality program's mission and objectives		.708
Determine if a tourism and hospitality program is meeting its mission and objectives.*	.451	.597
Increase support and recognition from industry for tourism and hospitality programs.		.581
Establish a common curriculum.*	.564	.477
Variance Accounted for by the Factor	38.835%	27.696%
Eigenvalue	3.495	2.493

* Discarded item due to double loading coefficient <.7

The search for highly intercorrelated variables showed considerable correlation coefficients exceeding the required 0.3 level for factor analysis. Thus, the correlation matrix was deemed suitable for factoring. Bartlett's Test of Sphericity was significant, and the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy (MSA) met the required level (>.6), with most MSA well above the acceptable level of 0.5. Initial factoring extrapolated two factors with Eigenvalues greater than one and accounting for 74% of the variance. However, varimax rotation enabled a better 2-factor fit to be achieved, still accounting for 66.5% of variance. A strong correlation was obtained for both factors in the factor transformation matrix.

The first factor variate which measured the underlying factor that was most strongly reflected in the set of nine original variables, was labelled "industry focus". It contained six items, 3 pure and 3 complex, suggesting that an advisory board would enhance the "industry focus" of tourism and hospitality programs⁹. Cronbach's alpha was used to assess the reliability of item grouping under that factor. The alpha was equal to .91 demonstrating the existence of strong item reliability.

The second factor was labelled "program direction". It also contained six items, 3 pure and 3 complex, suggesting that an advisory board would help programs achieve a more focused direction both within the industry and within the tertiary educational sector¹⁰. Cronbach's alpha was also used to assess the reliability of items grouping under that factor. The alpha was equal to .87 demonstrating the existence of strong item reliability.

The correlation matrix obtained for the items under investigation in respect of the roles of a national professional body also showed considerable correlation coefficients exceeding the required 0.3 level. Again, the correlation matrix was deemed suitable for the same series of tests as outlined above. The results showed Bartlett's Test of Sphericity to be significant, the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy (MSA) to meet the required level (>.6), with most MSA well

⁹ Pure items load on one factor only, showing strong correlations for a single factor, whereas complex items are always difficult to attribute. Complex items can show strong correlations on each of the factors, and as such must be treated with caution. As a result, complex items with double loading coefficients of less than .7 were discarded, as it was difficult to determine accurately to which of the factors they should be attributed.

¹⁰ The second factor was orthogonal to the first, thus measuring a different trait from the one tapped by the first factor variate.

above the acceptable level of 0.5. Also, initial factoring extrapolated two factors with Eigenvalues greater than one which accounted for 82% of variance. It was found, however, that varimax rotation enabled a better 2-factor fit to be achieved, still accounting for 78% of variance, with moderate correlation obtained for both factors in the factor transformation matrix.

Table 9.18: Factor Analysis on Respondents Opinions of the Roles of a national Professional Body

(n=46)	Factor #1 Quality & Image	Factor #2
Determine ways of improving tourism and hospitality programs.	.925	
Establish a minimum level of quality for tourism and hospitality programs.	.909	
Determine that tourism and hospitality curricula are in line with industry needs and requirements.	.902	
Determine if a tourism and hospitality program is meeting its mission and objectives.	.828	
Increase accountability of tourism and hospitality programs to the industry.	.725	
Establish a common curriculum in tourism and hospitality.*	.679	.491
Determine if the parent university's mission and objectives are consistent with the tourism and hospitality program's mission and objectives	.667	
Increase support and recognition from industry for tourism and hospitality programs.		.978
Raise the professional standard of tourism and hospitality management education.*	.645	.632
Variance Accounted for by the Factor	56%	22%
Eigenvalue	5.036	1.995

* Discarded item due to double loading coefficient <.7

As can be observed in Table 9.18, the first factor labelled "quality and image" contained 8 items, 6 pure and 2 complex, suggesting that a national professional body would enhance the "quality and image" of tourism and hospitality programs¹¹.

Cronbach's alpha was used to assess the reliability of items loading under this factor.

The alpha was equal to .95 demonstrating the existence of strong item reliability.

¹¹ Complex items with double loading coefficients of less than .7 were discarded, as it was difficult to determine accurately to which of the factors they should be attributed.

The second factor contained only 3 items, 1 pure and 2 complex, and as such failed to meet the required minimum of two pure items per factor necessary for meaningful analysis (Diekhoff, 1992).

Acknowledging the limitations which impede the above factor analysis, the findings suggest that educators support and recognise the important roles attributed to advisory boards in light of providing courses with greater industry focus and program direction. The findings also suggest that educators perceive that the role of a national professional body would enhance the quality and image of hospitality and tourism courses in Australia.

It is also interesting to note respondents' strong opinions that advisory boards have a clear responsibility towards ensuring that "courses have a greater industry focus", in light of their divided responses on "the need to tailor graduate programs to meet the need and requirements of industry". Establishing a more relevant industry focus without strong links to industry needs poses an interesting dilemma.

9.4.6 Perceptions of Respondents on Existing Programs and Future Developments in Tourism and Hospitality

Respondents' opinions were also sought on the twenty variables summarised in Table 9.19 below. Opinions were sought about both current tourism and hospitality programs (Table 9.19) and future developments in the area (Table 9.20).

Table 9.19: Perceptions on Existing Programs

Perceptions that Existing Tourism & Hospitality Programs are (n=46):	Existing Programs % (SA/A, N, D/SD)	Mean EP
Benefiting the tourism and hospitality community.	(75, 18, 4)	4.1
Preparing individuals to become the future managers of the industry.	(76, 15, 9)	3.9
Organised to extend participants' knowledge and skills.	(76, 13, 11)	3.9
Meeting graduate academic requirements and expectations.	(74, 18, 8)	3.9
Meeting industry needs and requirements.	(69, 27, 4)	3.8
Focusing on functional areas.	(67, 22, 11)	3.8
Focusing on strategic areas.	(67, 27, 6)	3.7
Structured to include professional, general management, & specialised management modules.	(56, 31, 13)	3.6
Helping individuals perform better in the industry.	(51, 42, 7)	3.6
Strengthening the industry overall.	(51, 44, 4)	3.6
Meeting the needs and requirements of the educational institution.	(45, 40, 15)	3.6
Encapsulating key knowledge areas identified in the literature and by industry.	(49, 44, 7)	3.6
Meeting the needs of an increasingly diverse range of students.	(49, 44, 7)	3.5
Developing in line with industry changes.	(58, 20, 22)	3.5
Incorporating the essential elements of specialised management education.	(49, 44, 7)	3.5
Organised so as to deliver a 'cost-effective' specialist management education.	(40, 49, 11)	3.5
Easily accessible to individuals without prior qualifications in the field	(42, 44, 13)	3.4
Helping to address the problems of industry 'burnout' and 'dropout'.	(29, 29, 42)	2.8
Available and offered in a modular format and in a flexible time frame.	(20, 29, 51)	2.6
Both flexible and adaptable.	(29, 42, 29)	2.1

Note: SA=5, A=4, N=3, D=2, SD=1

It can be observed in Table 9.19 that respondents expressed favourable views on seven variables and unfavourable views on three other variables relating to existing programs. The mean results obtained for the remaining 10 variables are neither sufficiently positive nor negative to assert any meaningful implication. Indeed, the level of "neutral" responses (>40%) on nine of those ten variables could imply that

respondents were either not clear about the question, or did not have a strong opinion on the issue, or both.

Table 9.20: Perceptions on Future Program Developments

Perceptions that Future Developments in Tourism & Hospitality Programs Should be (n=46):	Future Programs %(SA/A, N, D/SD)	Mean FP
Organised to extend participants' knowledge and skills.	(91, 4, 5)	4.5
Both flexible and adaptable.	(92, 4, 4)	4.4
Meeting graduate academic requirements and expectations.	(87, 9, 4)	4.4
Incorporating the essential elements of specialised management education.	(80, 16, 4)	4.3
Strengthening the industry overall.	(84, 9, 7)	4.3
Preparing individuals to become the future managers of the industry.	(84, 9, 7)	4.2
Benefiting the tourism and hospitality community.	(82, 9, 9)	4.2
Meeting industry needs and requirements.	(78, 16, 7)	4.1
Meeting the needs of an increasingly diverse range of students.	(89, 4, 7)	4.1
Organised so as to deliver a 'cost-effective' specialist management education.	(87, 7, 7)	4.1
Focusing on strategic areas.	(82, 11, 7)	4.1
Focusing on functional areas.	(89, 7, 4)	4.1
Structured to include professional, general management, & specialised management modules.	(76, 16, 9)	4.1
Encapsulating key knowledge areas identified in the literature and by industry.	(82, 11, 7)	4.1
Meeting the needs and requirements of the educational institution.	(82, 9, 9)	4
Developing in line with industry changes.	(87, 4, 9)	4
Helping individuals perform better in the industry.	(71, 20, 9)	3.9
Helping to address the problems of industry 'burnout' and 'dropout'.	(67, 27, 7)	3.6
Easily accessible to individuals without prior qualifications in the field	(42, 47, 11)	3.5
Available and offered in a modular format and in a flexible time frame.	(47, 40, 13)	3.5

Note: SA=5, A=4, N=3, D=2, SD=1

It can equally be observed from Table 9.20 that all but two variables received favourable views from respondents on items relating to future developments. The significant proportion of variables registering high mean scores was expected. However, the relatively high proportion of "neutral" responses registered on both "program access and format" highlights the ambivalent attitude of respondents on these two critical factors.

Thus, responses directed at the current state of play were more revealing, with clear support polarisation of opinions on seven of the twenty items, and clear disagreement on two others.

Evidence of any existing correlations was also sought between the opinions/views expressed by respondents on items which attempted to measure perceptions of both existing programs and of future program developments. Table 9.21 shows reasonable correlations (significant at the .01 level 2 tailed test) between all but two of the items. However, only four of the items registered significant magnitudes of correlation, with the highest magnitude of correlation at 65%.

Table 9.21: Correlations Factors on Existing and Future Programs

Perceptions that Existing & Future Tourism & Hospitality Programs are/should be (n=46):	Mean EP	Mean FP	Rho	R ²
Meeting the needs and requirements of the educational institution.	3.6	4	.807**	65%
Helping individuals perform better in the industry.	3.6	3.9	.756**	57%
Organised so as to deliver a 'cost-effective' specialist management education.	3.5	4.1	.753**	57%
Meeting graduate academic requirements and expectations.	3.9	4.4	.745**	56%
Structured to include professional, general management, & specialised management modules.	3.6	4.1	.719**	52%
Focusing on strategic areas.	3.7	4.1	.716**	51%
Organised to extend participants' knowledge and skills.	3.9	4.5	.714**	51%
Focusing on functional areas.	3.8	4.1	.695**	48%
Encapsulating key knowledge areas identified in the literature and by industry.	3.6	4.1	.693**	48%
Developing in line with industry changes.	3.5	4	.656**	43%
Meeting the needs of an increasingly diverse range of students.	3.5	4.1	.651**	42%
Easily accessible to individuals without prior qualifications in the field	3.4	3.5	.603**	36%
Meeting industry needs and requirements.	3.8	4.1	.548**	30%
Available and offered in a modular format and in a flexible time frame.	2.6	3.5	.513**	26%
Incorporating the essential elements of specialised management education.	3.5	4.3	.459**	21%
Preparing individuals to become the future managers of the industry.	3.9	4.2	.444**	20%
Strengthening the industry overall.	3.6	4.3	.449**	20%
Benefiting the tourism and hospitality community.	4.1	4.2	.442**	20%
Helping to address the problems of industry 'burnout' and 'dropout'.	2.8	3.6	.181	3%
Both flexible and adaptable.	2.1	4.4	.149	2%

** Significant at the .01 level (2-tailed)

Table 9.22: Factor Analysis Existing Programs

(n=46)	Factor #1 Program relevance & effectiveness	Factor #2 Program organisation	Factor #3 Program flexibility & adaptability	Factor #4 Program Access
Preparing individuals to become the future managers of the industry.	.859	.421		
Strengthening the industry overall.	.785		.547	
Meeting graduate academic requirements and expectations.	.769	.495		
Benefiting the tourism and hospitality community.	.754			
Organised to extend participants' knowledge and skills.	.733	.584		
Meeting industry needs and requirements.	.716			
Focusing on functional areas.*	.658	.496		
Incorporating the essential elements of specialised management education.*	.555	.452	.414	
Helping individuals perform better in the industry.*	.550		.674	
Focusing on strategic areas.*	.529	.473		.502
Organised so as to deliver a 'cost-effective' specialist management education.	.444	.831		
Meeting the needs and requirements of the educational institution.		.804		
Structured to include professional, general management, & specialised management modules.		.728		
Meeting the needs of an increasingly diverse range of students.*		.636		.465
Both flexible and adaptable.			.707	
Developing in line with industry changes.			.676	
Helping to address the problems of industry 'burnout' and 'dropout'.			.671	
Available and offered in a modular format and in a flexible time frame.			.637	
Easily accessible to individuals without prior qualifications in the field.				.973
Encapsulating key knowledge areas identified in the literature and by industry.				.431

* Discarded item due to double loading coefficient <.7

In order to identify if there were any underlying dimensions across the twenty items with regards to both respondents' perceptions of existing programs and their perceptions of future developments in the area, a factor analysis using Principal Axis

Factoring with Varimax rotation and Kaiser Normalisation was conducted. Results of the factor analysis are summarised in Tables 9.22 (existing programs) and Table 9.23 (future programs) respectively.

The correlation matrix obtained for the items under investigation for respondents' perception of existing programs showed considerable correlation exceeding the required 0.3 level. Again, the correlation matrix was deemed suitable for the same series of tests as outlined above. The results showed Bartlett's Test of Sphericity to be significant (.000), however the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy (MSA) was lower (.343) than the required level (>.6), with most MSA below the acceptable level of 0.5. The low MSA level was attributed to the small number of responses and the large number of items under investigations in this section. Initial factoring extrapolated four factors with Eigenvalues greater than one which accounted for 80% of variance. It was found, however, that varimax rotation enabled a better 4-factor fit to be achieved, still accounting for 75% of variance.

The first factor labelled "program relevance and effectiveness" contained 11 items, 2 pure and 9 complex, suggesting that the perception of respondents was that current tourism and hospitality programs were both "relevant and effective" in successfully meeting stakeholders' needs and requirements. Cronbach's alpha was used to assess the reliability of items grouping under this factor. The alpha was equal to .91 demonstrating the existence of strong item reliability for items grouped under this factor.

The second factor labelled “program organisation” contained ten items, 2 pure and 8 complex, suggesting that the perception of respondents was that existing tourism and hospitality programs were currently poorly organised so as to address the needs and requirements of current stakeholders. Cronbach’s alpha was used to assess the reliability of items grouping under this factor. The alpha was equal to .91 demonstrating the existence of strong item reliability for items grouping under this factor. However, given that stakeholders have differing needs and requirements, the dilemma remains as to which of these are best being served by the current structure.

The third factor labelled “program flexibility and adaptability” contained seven items, 4 pure and 3 complex, suggesting that the perception of respondents was that existing tourism and hospitality programs were neither flexible nor adaptable to change. Cronbach’s alpha was used to assess the reliability of items grouping under this factor. The alpha was equal to .86 demonstrating the existence of strong item reliability.

The final factor labelled “program access” failed to meet the minimum required number of items for meaningful analysis (Diekhoff, 1992).

As for the previous correlation matrix items under investigation for respondents’ perception of future programs showed considerable correlation exceeding the required 0.3 level. Again, the correlation matrix was deemed suitable for the same series of tests as outlined above. The results showed Bartlett’s Test of Sphericity to be significant (.000), however the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy (MSA) was lower (.486) than the required level (>.6), with most MSA

below the acceptable level of 0.5. Again, the low MSA was attributed to the small number of responses and the large number of variables under investigations in this section. Also, initial factoring extrapolated four factors with Eigenvalues greater than one and accounting for 82% of the variance. It was found, however, that varimax rotation enabled a better 2-factor fit to be achieved and still accounting for 79% of variance.

As can be observed in Table 9.23, the first factor labelled “future benefits” contained fourteen items, 5 pure and 9 complex, suggesting that the perception of respondents was that stakeholders’ “future benefits” could be strengthened in light of future program developments. Cronbach’s alpha was used to assess the reliability of items grouping under this factor. The alpha was equal to .97 demonstrating the existence of strong item reliability.

The second factor labelled “future needs” contained thirteen items, 4 pure and 9 complex, suggesting that the perception of respondents was that future program developments would enhance the likelihood of programs meeting “future tourism and hospitality needs”. Cronbach’s alpha was used to assess the reliability of items grouping under this factor. The alpha was equal to .96 demonstrating the existence of strong item reliability.

Both factors 3 and 4 failed to meet the minimum number of items required for meaningful analysis (Diekhoff, 1992).

Table 9.23: Factor Analysis Future Programs

(n=46)	Factor #1 Future Benefits	Factor #2 Future Needs	Factor #3	Factor #4
Benefiting the tourism and hospitality community.	.882			
Preparing individuals to become the future managers of the industry.	.838			
Meeting industry needs and requirements.	.822	.404		
Helping individuals perform better in the industry.	.806			
Developing in line with industry changes.	.788			
Incorporating the essential elements of specialised management education.	.702	.601		
Focusing on strategic areas.*	.670	.520		
Organised to extend participants' knowledge and skills.*	.661	.674		
Strengthening the industry overall.*	.646	.570		
Helping to address the problems of industry 'burnout' and 'dropout'.	.589			
Meeting graduate academic requirements and expectations.	.514	.715		
Both flexible and adaptable.*	.447	.674		
Focusing on functional areas.	.416	.744		
Organised so as to deliver a 'cost-effective' specialist management education.*	.409	.727		
Meeting the needs of an increasingly diverse range of students.		.890		
Meeting the needs and requirements of the educational institution.		.749		
Encapsulating key knowledge areas identified in the literature and by industry.		.614		
Structured to include professional, general management, & specialised management modules.		.533		
Easily accessible to individuals without prior qualifications in the field.			.926	
Available and offered in a modular format and in a flexible time frame.				.937

* Discarded item due to double loading coefficient <.7

Acknowledging the limitations which impede the above factor analysis, the findings suggest that educators are of the opinion that current tourism and hospitality programs:

- are relevant and effective;
- are poorly organised to meet the needs and requirements of its stakeholders (not clear as to which needs or which stakeholders);
- lack flexibility and are difficult to adapt so as to meet changing demands.

The findings also suggest that educators are of the opinion that future developments will enhance stakeholders' benefits and contribute positively to meeting their future needs.

9.5 Summary

The results of the data analysis were presented in this Chapter. The questionnaire design was discussed and the purpose of each section was highlighted together with responses. It was established that the 78% return rate was considered satisfactory to provide valid statistical interpretation to the data. Three data analysis strategies were outlined in light of their appropriateness and limitations.

The results were presented in six sections. First, the nature and background of respondents was established in light of their qualifications, experience, and levels of appointment. Second, a departmental staff profile for graduate tourism and hospitality programs in Australian colleges and universities was established. Third, graduate course details provided by respondents were analysed. It was next argued that a graduate student profile could not be established due to insufficient valid data provided by respondents. Fifth, the opinions of respondents on the roles of a national professional body and of an advisory board were analysed in light of the nine items

under investigation. Finally, respondents' perceptions on existing programs and future developments in tourism and hospitality were analysed.

The next Chapter will discuss these findings in light of the research hypotheses developed in Chapter 8.

Chapter 10

Discussion of Findings

10.1 Introduction

In this chapter each of the eight hypotheses is reviewed and either accepted or rejected in light of the results outlined in Chapter 9. The main aim of this chapter is to provide a summary of the results of the empirical results reported in the thesis and to discuss the implications in the context of the hypotheses outlined in Chapter 7.

10.2 Discussion of Empirical Results

10.2.1 Investigation of Hypothesis 1

The first hypothesis was directly related to the future success of tourism and hospitality management education. It stated that:

Hypothesis 1: The future success of tourism and hospitality management education lies in the development and growth of graduate programs, attracting students from a wide variety of educational, cultural, and management background and experience.

The test of this hypothesis was in many ways also a test of the acceptability of the graduate tourism and hospitality management education model generated in Chapter 6. Thus, many of the variables under investigation tested for the support or rejection of various parts of the model. The results obtained and classified in Table 9.20 go somewhat towards lending support to this hypothesis, and to the model. The mean scores obtained on the twenty variables were all strong (>3.5), and 18 of the twenty variables received the unambiguous support from respondents. Moreover, results from the factor analysis conducted on items relating to future developments of

graduate programs, and reported in Table 9.23, showed strong item bunching for both factors associated with future needs and benefits.

Thus, decision-makers identified future developments in this area as likely to result in:

- benefits to the tourism and hospitality community;
- preparing individuals to become the future managers of the tourism and hospitality industry;
- meeting industry needs and requirements;
- helping individuals perform better in the industry;
- developing in line with industry changes; and,
- incorporating the essential elements of specialised management education pertinent to the industry.

In addition, there was unambiguous support for future graduate programs to incorporate functional and strategic areas and to re-structure to include professional, general and specialist management modules. Therefore, the prospect for future developments along the line of the model generated in Chapter 6 appear strong both in terms of generating clear agreements among tourism and hospitality decision makers as to what is needed, and in terms of their perceptions for changes in direction.

These findings suggest that tourism and hospitality decision-makers recognise that the future success of the area lies in attracting students from a wide variety of educational, cultural, and management backgrounds into the graduate area. There is

also support for a change in direction and a general agreement as what these courses should consist of. Indeed, the model proposed in Chapter 6 appears to offer a viable alternative to what is currently happening.

The results show a common understanding among decision-makers as to the need for change and the direction of that change. Future change should achieve greater flexibility and adaptability of programs, greater satisfaction of industry needs, as well as commitment from industry professionals. There is support also for incorporating an increasing range of diversity in student backgrounds, knowledge and skills.

Thus, the results are reasonably favourable towards at least a partial acceptance of hypothesis 1. Although an argument could be put towards accepting hypothesis 1 in full, the restricted nature of the data set together with the limitations of the tests conducted imply that some caution must be applied to the interpretation of the results.

10.2.2 Investigation of Hypothesis 2

The second hypothesis addressed the relevance and effectiveness of graduate courses and their ability to meet industry's needs. Hypothesis 2 was in two parts:

Hypothesis 2a: On average, educators perceive that graduate tourism and management education is both relevant and effective.

Hypothesis 2b: On average, educators perceive that graduate tourism and management education addresses the industry's complex and changing needs.

The results summarised in Table 9.19 and directly relating to these hypotheses need careful interpretation. Although the mean scores are generally positive (>3.5) on 12

of the 20 variables, the high percentage of “neutral” responses on eight of the variables makes any assertions and interpretations difficult. However, as expected, tourism and hospitality decision-makers considered that existing programs are:

- preparing individuals to become the future managers of the tourism and hospitality industry;
- strengthening the industry overall;
- meeting graduate academic requirements and expectations;
- benefiting the tourism and hospitality community;
- organised so as to extend participants’ knowledge and skills beyond what they have already achieved in previous studies; and,
- meeting industry needs and requirements.

In addition, the results from the factor analysis (Table 9.22) showed strong item bunching on the factor identified as grouping variables supporting program relevance and effectiveness. Consequently, hypothesis 2a is considered to be strongly supported.

Further, there is also some evidence of support from the above for the contention that graduate tourism and hospitality management education is contributing to the development of a more effective and productive tourism and hospitality workforce. These results coincide with those of Lennon (1989) who reported that the majority of tourism and hospitality educators he had interviewed were also of the opinion that they were meeting the needs and requirements of the industry.

In contrast, the reported lack of “flexibility and adaptability” together with the lack of support shown for “program organisation” contributes significantly to existing

programs' inability to address the industry's complex and changing needs and the rejection of hypothesis 2b. Results from Table 9.19 indicate that respondents were of the opinions that current programs were not:

- available in a flexible time frame;
- addressing the problems of industry "burnout" and "dropout"; and,
- sufficiently flexible and adaptable.

Indeed, it is difficult to reconcile how decision-makers can, on the one hand, view programs as being "relevant and effective", and on the other perceive a strong lack of "flexibility and adaptability" as well as an inability in addressing the issues of industry "burnout" and "dropout". Furthermore, the lack of support for hypothesis 4, discussed below, tends to support the position that graduate programs are possibly neither sufficiently flexible nor adaptable to cater for an increasingly diverse range of students with and without prior qualifications and experience. These concerns reflect the lack of responsiveness by educational establishments to the massive and important changes occurring throughout the tourism and hospitality industry, and impacting on management education as discussed by Haywood (1989), Goodman (1991), Umbreit (1992), Lewis (1993), and Powers and Riegel (1993).

10.2.3 Investigation of Hypothesis 3

The third hypothesis focused on what graduate tourism and hospitality management education should consist of. Hypothesis 3 stated that:

Hypothesis 3: There is general agreement among educators as to what should constitute professional graduate tourism and hospitality management education in Australia.

Hypothesis 3 was also in line with the graduate model developed in Chapter 6. The model stipulated flexible modes of delivery, adaptable modular structures, multiple access paths into programs, as well as the establishment of closer links with industry and a process for national recognition of high quality standards at the graduate level. The evidence from the data (Tables 9.20 and 9.23) in terms of future developments required in the area go some way to support the changes in direction, delivery modes, structure, and the desirable rapprochement with industry stipulated in the model. Indeed, there is general agreement among educators as to what should constitute professional graduate tourism and hospitality management education in Australia. Areas of focus include and match a number of those incorporated in the model, namely:

- finance, accounting, human resource management, marketing and strategy;
- meeting the needs of an increasing diverse range of students;
- meeting the needs and requirements of the educational establishment;
- encapsulating key knowledge areas identified in the literature and by industry as essential to future management development;
- structured to include professional modules, general management modules, and specialised management modules.

There is also substantial support from the data to concur with the findings of Partlow and Gregoire (1994) who investigated the relevance of Master's degrees in tourism and hospitality management based on the perceptions of graduates. Moreover, these findings also concur with Van Hoof (1991) who focused on the opinions of tourism and hospitality recruiters, Enz et al. (1993) who surveyed hospitality professionals

and MPS alumni, and Bach and Milman (1996) who sought the opinions of faculty, students, and advisory boards.

Consequently, hypothesis 3 is considered to be strongly supported. Indeed, as argued for hypothesis 1, the data also supports a change to the proposed graduate tourism and hospitality education model developed in Chapter 6.

10.2.4 Investigation of Hypothesis 4

The fourth hypothesis addressed the issue of access into graduate programs.

Hypothesis 4 stated that:

Hypothesis 4: There is general agreement among educators that an entry path should exist into graduate tourism and hospitality management programs for individuals without previous formal academic qualifications.

Results from Table 9.20 on variables directly addressing this issue are at best inconclusive. Although both items which were directly tied to the testing of this hypothesis achieved means of 3.5, the high percentage of neutral responses registered on these items must raise caution in their interpretation. Such a high level of “non-commitment” on these two variables is significant, particularly when considering the unequivocal support registered by respondents on the other 18 items addressing future developments in the area. Results from factor analysis are also inconclusive (Table 9.23). This leads to the rejection of hypothesis 4.

Thus, there appears to be little support from decision-makers to facilitate future access into graduate programs by creating a pathway for those students without

formal qualifications. The rejection of hypothesis 4 is significant in that it points to a firmly held belief among decision makers in colleges and universities that graduate studies should be accessible to students who can arguably demonstrate that they have already attained a certain level of qualifications and experience. This is in contrast to the increasing pressures from external bodies (government and industry) for alternative access routes as well as for the recognition of work experience in lieu of qualifications. Moreover, it fails to recognise what Airey (1995) identified as one of his five important influential themes which will affect educational developments in the future, namely the increasing access to courses and the resulting changes in enrolment patterns, course assessment, and delivery mechanisms.

10.2.5 Investigation of Hypothesis 5

The fifth hypothesis addressed the issue of relevance and contribution by programs towards achieving a more productive workforce. Hypothesis 5 stated that:

Hypothesis 5: There is general agreement among educators that graduate tourism and hospitality management education directly contributes to the development of a more effective and productive tourism and hospitality workforce.

As expected, results from variables directly testing this hypothesis showed considerable expressions of support. Thus, tourism and hospitality decision-makers overwhelmingly considered that existing programs are directly benefiting the tourism and hospitality community, as well as preparing individuals to become the future managers of the industry. Results from factor analysis (Table 9.22) further supported current program relevance and effectiveness, with considerable items grouping under this factor. These included, among others:

- preparing individuals to become the future managers of the industry;

- strengthening the industry overall;
- meeting graduate academic requirements and expectations;
- benefiting the tourism and hospitality community;
- organised to extend participants' knowledge and skills;
- meeting industry needs and requirements;
- helping individuals perform better in the industry.

Consequently, hypothesis 5 is considered to be strongly supported. Although not unexpected, this result raises some interesting issues. If tourism and hospitality decision-makers believe that current graduate courses are in fact contributing to the creation of a better and more effective and productive tourism and hospitality workforce, then what is the incentive for change? Furthermore, given the unequivocal rejection of hypothesis 2b, to what degree and at what level are current courses considered to be effective? There is somewhat of a dichotomy here similar to that found in the results which lead to the acceptance of hypothesis 2a and the rejection of hypothesis 2b. How can programs, on the one hand, successfully prepare individuals to meet future challenges, and on the other fail to develop in line with industry changes? Such a paradox reveals an element of inconsistency in some tourism and hospitality decision-makers' opinions and views on the current state-of-play of the area.

10.2.6 Investigation of Hypothesis 6

The sixth hypothesis addressed the roles and responsibilities of advisory boards and those of a national professional body. Hypothesis 6 was in two parts:

Hypothesis 6a: There is general agreement among educators of the need to promote both the involvement of industry, and the contribution of professional bodies to build commitment, support, and recognition of the importance of graduate tourism and hospitality management education.

Hypothesis 6b: There is general agreement among educators that Advisory Boards provide a strong industry focus and direction in graduate tourism and hospitality management program development.

Results from Table 9.15 indicate relative support for most of the variables seeking respondents' opinions on the roles of a national professional body. However, respondents were almost equally divided in their beliefs that a national professional body would increase the support and recognition from industry for tourism and hospitality programs, as well as help in the establishment of a common curriculum. In addition, results from the factor analysis (Table 9.18) showed strong support for the role of a national professional body in promoting both quality and image, with considerable items grouping under this factor. These included, among others:

- improving tourism and hospitality programs;
- establishing a minimum level of quality for tourism and hospitality programs;
- determining that tourism and hospitality curricula are in line with industry needs and requirements;
- determining if a tourism and hospitality program is meeting its mission and objectives;
- increasing accountability of tourism and hospitality programs to the industry; and,
- determining if the parent university's mission and objectives are

consistent with the tourism and hospitality program's mission and objectives.

However, as stated earlier, these results must be interpreted with some caution given the type of limitations imposed by the size and composition of the data set.

Consequently, hypothesis 6a is considered to be partially rather than fully supported.

Results from Table 9.14 also show support for most of the variables under investigation, with seven of the nine items registering positive mean scores (>3.3). The lower mean scores on the remaining two variables were more likely due to the high level of neutral responses from respondents rather than a strong expression of disagreement. Results from factor analysis (Table 9.17) also showed strong support for the role of advisory boards in providing industry focus and direction for programs. Items grouping under the factor associated with industry focus associated the role of advisory boards as:

- determining that tourism and hospitality curricula are in line with industry needs and requirements;
- determining ways of improving tourism and hospitality programs;
- increasing accountability of tourism and hospitality programs to the industry; and,
- establishing a minimum level of quality for tourism and hospitality programs.

Once again, however, these results must be interpreted with some caution given the type of limitations imposed by the size and composition of the data set.

Consequently, hypothesis 6b is considered to be partially rather than fully supported.

Thus, both hypotheses received moderate support. In essence, it confirmed that the role of advisory boards in particular is perceived as an essential ingredient in providing both an “industry focus” and a clear “direction” for graduate programs. The results also confirmed that a national professional body has an important role in the development, application, and monitoring of quality standards. As already argued, developing and sustaining the quality of tourism and hospitality courses has become a key issue for the sector in the 1990s, and a number of government and private sector bodies have taken steps to underpin this process¹.

The results in respect of these hypotheses were also compatible with previously reported findings (Lefevre and Withiam, 1998; Conroy et al., 1996). Furthermore, the formal and informal interaction between education and industry is perceived by educators as positive and beneficial. Experiences are shared, gaps in the body of knowledge identified, and research partnerships are forged. Educators can then re-invest some of the information and knowledge into the delivery of their programs and the content of their curricula, providing benefits to students and to themselves. As a result, the standards of teaching and learning are established, continually reviewed and dissipated. Nevertheless, as Go (1990) argued, the task of maintaining co-alignment between the two remains challenging, given the constant nature of change pervading the area.

¹ At the international level, the World Tourism Organisation (WTO) has established a work program for tourism education and monitors both the quality of tourism education, and that of tourism education institutions. Similarly the European Union has instigated a European Tourism Education Network (ETEN) which has pledged to establish and maintain quality standards in tourism education.

10.2.7 Investigation of Hypothesis 7

The seventh hypothesis related to the emphasis in curriculum content, structure, and delivery mode. Hypothesis 7 was in three parts:

- Hypothesis 7a:** There is no significant difference in the general emphasis on curriculum content of graduate tourism and hospitality programs currently (1999) offered across Australian universities.
- Hypothesis 7b:** There is no significant difference in the general structure of graduate tourism and hospitality programs currently (1999) offered across Australian universities.
- Hypothesis 7c:** There is no significant difference in the delivery mode of graduate tourism and hospitality programs currently (1999) offered across Australian universities.

In essence, it was expected from the analysis of primary documents that respondents would confirm these hypotheses. Results outlined in Tables 9.6-9.9 provide such evidence.

In the case of Graduate Certificate courses, professional content tends to be more theoretical than applied, whilst management content appears more evenly balanced, with perhaps a greater proportion of courses with a tourism bias. The majority of courses at this level are reported as having a fair element of flexibility, although 75% of them boast a compulsory core. Given the relative short time frame of Graduate Certificates, it is somewhat surprising to find such a contradictory result. Indeed, evidence from primary documents tends to confirm a rather high level of structure in programs at this level. Industrial placements do not appear to form any part of Graduate Certificate studies, although this level of graduate studies registered the highest proportion of joint programs offered in conjunction with other institutions

(37%). Interestingly, only one-third of respondents reported making use of emerging technologies in their Graduate Certificate programs.

The results relating to Graduate Diploma courses indicate that two-thirds of programs have an even mix of theoretical and applied bias to their professional content, whilst their management content appears more skewed towards the theoretical end of the spectrum. As expected, both the areas of tourism and hospitality registered the strongest biases. Although more than half of the courses claim to have a fairly flexible structure, two-thirds of programs at this level also insist on a compulsory core. As Graduate Diplomas are longer than their Graduate Certificate counter-parts, it is possible to find a structure which can accommodate both the compulsory core and some element of flexibility. Only 10% of Graduate Diplomas include any industrial placement as part of their studies, and only a minority of these programs is delivered in conjunction with other institutions. Once again, only one-third of respondents reported making use of emerging technologies in their programs.

The results pertaining to Masters' degrees indicate a fairly strong bias towards theoretical professional and management content, with a reported element of greater structure at that level than in the previous two. This is more consistent with the two-thirds majority of programs which listed a compulsory core. Industrial placements do not appear to form any part of Masters' degree studies, and no programs were reported as being delivered in conjunction with other institutions. Interestingly, only half of the respondents reported making use of emerging technologies in their Masters' programs.

Thus, all three hypotheses 7a-c were considered to be supported by the results. It was therefore confirmed that the majority of graduate programs are still not available via distance learning or in flexible mode, offer no significant differences in either the structure of the curriculum or the content. Moreover, despite an apparent commonality (as well as a lack of flexibility) across modes of delivery, structure, and curriculum content, there is surprisingly little evidence of support for the establishment of a common core curriculum. If, as Cooper et al (1994) argued, flexibility in education is an essential component in the 1990s, then it would appear that this is an important missing factor for graduate tourism and hospitality management courses in Australia. In essence, it is difficult for current programs to develop a competitive advantage and maintain a sustainable position without incorporating such ingredients as: curriculum modularisation, multiple methods of delivery, as well as multiple access routes. In other words, reducing existing rigidity across curriculum, structure, and modes of delivery, is essential to achieving any future success².

10.2.8 Investigation of Hypothesis 8

The final hypothesis investigated the nature and make-up of graduate tourism and hospitality management educators. Hypothesis 8 stated:

Hypothesis 8: Graduate tourism and hospitality educators must be individuals with a combination of strong academic credentials, research, and industry experience to provide the leadership and vision necessary to develop, establish and promote forward thinking curricula.

² It is interesting to note that this commonality across existing graduate programs extends to industrial placement. The majority of Australian graduate programs have no industrial placements, a position contrary to that argued by Cook (1988), Lebruto et al (1994), and Stutts (1995).

As expected, there was strong support from tourism and hospitality decision-makers on all six variables relating to future academic staff qualifications and experience (Table 9.3). However, only four of those variables received support with regards to current academic staff qualifications and experience (Table 9.4). Thus, it is presently considered important to:

- communicate regularly and keep in close touch with industry;
- develop relevant courses using state-of-the-art and emerging technologies;
- have strong industry management experience as well as good academic credentials; and,
- publish regularly in refereed academic tourism and hospitality journals.

However, respondents were clearly not decided on the importance of a doctorate, and were divided in their opinions on whether staff should tailor their programs to meet with the needs and requirements of industry. Nevertheless, hypothesis 8 is considered to be well supported.

The results also indicate a mix of qualifications and experiences in the combination of staff currently teaching in graduate programs (Table 9.2). This further supports Heinman's (1987) argument that to be relevant colleges and universities need to attract staff with a wide range of scholarly and industry experience. However, given how this profile is currently achieved, it also suggests that the field faces a dilemma in that it may be difficult to expect both a high level of industry work experience as well as a doctoral degree. Thus, if the field seeks the acceptance of and recognition from other academic disciplines, it may need to evaluate carefully the amount of

industry work experience required of individuals who possess doctorates (and vice-versa). This debate also reflects on the nature and level of appointments. The data suggests that in general part-time graduate academic staff are appointed at a lower level than their full-time equivalent. Moreover, the majority of appointments for both full and part-time staff are below Level D. This may well reflect the fact that the discipline is still young and that, with time, a greater proportion of staff will achieve a higher level of appointment. It could also be argued that the criteria used for senior appointments in Australian colleges and universities require a scholarship focus which most tourism and hospitality graduate part and full-time staff have not yet achieved.

The results on hypothesis 8 were also compatible with previously reported findings (Nebel et al., 1986; Powers and Riegel, 1984; Watchel and Pavesic, 1983). The challenge remains, however, to achieve an appropriate balance of qualification and experience in selecting staff for graduate programs. The view from industry is that long term retention of managers is not only tied to the nature and type of students admitted into programs, but also in the ability of academics to generate commitment to the industry (Lefevre and Withiam, 1998). Such a commitment could only be generated by staff with strong industry links and personal work experience, both of which are increasingly difficult to find as the focus of academic institutions shifts to research, publications and academic scholarship.

10.3 Conclusions from Main Empirical Findings

This research has recognised that the future success of the area lies in attracting students from a wide variety of educational, cultural, and management backgrounds into the graduate area. It has also revealed that current graduate programs are perceived as both relevant and effective, yet lacking flexibility and adaptability.

This research further demonstrated that the rationale put forward and presented as an alternative graduate studies model for the area is viable. Had a contrary finding emerged; the model would have been viewed as (a) incompatible with the views of decision-makers in graduate tourism and hospitality management education, and (b) indefensible as a relevant and feasible alternative for the successful future development of the area. The only exception to the model which emerged from this research lies in the critical area of access.

The research has also highlighted a lack of empirical support for the provision of flexible access routes. This is surprising, given the evidence, notably from MBA programs, and the common prescription of the management literature that multiple access routes are becoming an essential element in programs' ability to respond to their changing environments. Thus, the lack of support for change in this area could be due to several factors. First, tourism and hospitality management education is still emerging as a discipline in its own right, and as such is still searching for recognition within academia. Second, decision-makers are reluctant to create what could be perceived as "soft" entry paths into the graduate area. Third, graduate programs have traditionally focused on building on previously acquired knowledge from

undergraduate studies. Finally, another contributing factor could be the multiple resultant changes to programs' structure, curriculum, delivery mode which would have to be initiated as a result of freer access.

In conclusion, it would appear that the signs for graduate tourism and hospitality management education in Australian colleges and universities are positive. As a discipline, it appears well shaped to face up to increasing demands, respond to new challenges and opportunities, and deliver the expected gains and benefits to an increasingly diversified customer group.

Chapter 11

Conclusion

11.1 Introduction

Since the mid 1980s, many new tourism and hospitality programs in colleges and universities have been initiated both in Australia and overseas. Accompanying this rapid growth has been the concern that tourism and hospitality programs and their staff have lacked consistent quality and relevance. This thesis has explored these issues, as well as reviewed tourism and hospitality graduate programs in colleges and universities in Australia in 1999. This Chapter briefly reviews the main points discussed in the thesis, and presents concluding remarks.

11.2 Summary

As stated in Chapter 1, the purpose of the thesis was to investigate the rapid expansion, growth, and perceived quality and viability of tourism and hospitality management education in Australia. The primary aim was to establish how well graduate courses are serving stakeholders' needs, responding to the complexities of their environment, and providing the type of academic and professional leadership expected of graduate programs (as perceived by tourism and hospitality decision makers in colleges and universities).

It was argued in Chapter 2 that the tourism and hospitality industry is a major contributor in terms of national wealth creation. However, the industry needs a steady supply of suitably qualified, motivated and committed managers to ensure its position

as one of the major contributors to economic growth and to enhance its own development potential. The quality of employees, and as a consequence their level of productivity, is directly tied to the nature and quality of the training and education which they receive. It was demonstrated that both training and education impact on labour markets, on the level of staff turnover, on job security as well as career opportunity. It was also shown that both training and education come at a certain cost, but that this cost is justifiable in that it should result in a more productive and efficient labour force. The training and education of staff for the tourism and hospitality industry was shown to be an important aspect of assuring service quality within the industry. Indeed, Ross (1997) argued that education was a major ongoing issue for all hotels because of its importance in the provision of high quality service. Implicit in the arguments presented in Chapter 2 was the notion that the industry must continually improve its image of working conditions and alter its wage structure if it is to compete in the marketplace for graduates. Such changes would then broaden its appeal to include a larger segment of the labour force.

In Chapter 3 it was argued that although the study of tourism and hospitality is relatively new in universities, the area is gaining credibility, maturity, and popularity in spite of difficult beginnings. However, the impetus to expand programs in higher education institutions has been much more driven by demand from students than by pressures from government, academics or even the industry. The perceived scepticism, distrust, and lack of understanding of the new range of tourism and hospitality courses among large sections of the industry was noted, as were steps which could be taken to improve educational instruction in tourism and hospitality management. It was also argued that the design of education and training programs in

tourism and hospitality management is rendered more complex by the difficulty in establishing and identifying the roles and responsibilities of managers in the industry. The needs of tourism and hospitality managers were identified and the corpus of professional knowledge in hotel, catering and institutional services as cited by Jones (1990) was outlined. The important surveys of Tas (1988) and Baum (1990) were summarised, and contextualised along the lines of management competencies identified as either “essential” or “of considerable importance” for management in the industry, and which should be included in tourism and hospitality university education.

In Chapter 4, similarities between the state of tourism and hospitality education and that of general business and management education in the 1980s were outlined. It was argued that successful curriculum changes in tourism and hospitality require educators to embrace both major industry changes and accept a culture change which would shift focus from national to global environments, without losing sight of local industry needs and applications. It was also argued that educators must recognise the important effects of clientele characteristics in both program design and student selection. It was further argued that a mismatch exists between the qualities and characteristics which employers are seeking in graduates, and those which tertiary institutions view as desirable. Indeed, the recent increase in course proliferation described in this thesis has not produced any evidence that this mismatch is being addressed, and the sector still suffers from both high attrition rates as well as poor graduate transfer rates, which may help explain the industry’s shortage of graduates. The solution to these dilemmas might be the increased involvement of relevant stakeholders in hospitality/tourism curriculum design, via such bodies as Advisory

Boards. Indeed, the implicit nature of tourism and hospitality as a diverse and complex body necessitates taking account of industry views, actions and influences on education and training. Educators face a challenge of maintaining a relevant and flexible co-alignment between industry and education. The need to be innovative in terms of course direction, content, programming and delivery was noted in this thesis as implicit requirements for those involved in effective and up-to-date tourism and hospitality management education

The nature of curriculum debates manifested most commonly, firstly, on the notion of core curriculum, and secondly, on the scope and nature of industry input into curriculum development and design (Shepherd and Cooper, 1995), were debated in Chapter 5. It was demonstrated that the establishment of a core curriculum in tourism and hospitality management education in Australia is supported by those who see it as a way to improve the overall quality of teaching and learning and the standard of the information delivered. However, those who oppose the establishment of a core curriculum argue that it would stifle innovation, reduce the development of the body of knowledge, and ask whether educators requiring core curriculum guidelines should be teaching tourism and hospitality management at all. Thus, in the development of the tourism profession, it is fundamental that the components and functions of this industry, along with its effects, be understood (Howell & Ulysal, 1987). Such a perspective of the industry and its component forces should help tourism and hospitality management educators in their design of future curricula. As a result, future students should be better prepared to enter the industry and make greater contributions earlier in their careers.

In Chapter 6, issues specifically relating to graduate programs were explored. It was argued that graduate programs are perceived to symbolise institutional quality and maturity. Some of the salient features of graduate programs in tourism and hospitality were highlighted, and it was demonstrated that many of the issues which are of concern at the graduate level are similar to those highlighted at the undergraduate level. Previous research in the area has pointed to a need to elucidate further on some of the key characteristics which distinguish graduate from undergraduate programs. These issues together with the need for graduate programs to keep up with industry changes and demand, point to a need to take stock of the current situation in an attempt to identify areas that present challenges for the future. Clearly, the rapid expansion in tourism and hospitality education has given rise to issues concerning over-provision, the quality and monitoring of staff and courses, as well as how tourism and hospitality courses can continue to meet the needs of the various stakeholders who have an interest in the education process.

In Chapter 7, it was argued that the focus on tourism and hospitality education should shift from the vocational and undergraduate levels to the graduate level. Strategic, economic, operational and functional arguments were presented to support this stance. Moreover, it was argued that tourism and hospitality management education has now reached a level of maturity to offer a wide variety of in-depth courses significantly different from that found in traditional vocational and undergraduate programs. A number of research questions and hypotheses were established.

Chapter 8 focused on presenting the methodology underlying the constructs of the survey instruments. The construction of the population was described, as were the instruments used for data collection. The methodology design and structure were outlined, as were the methods and timing of data collection. The scope and limitations of the methodology was also acknowledged. The findings were reported in Chapter 9 and discussed in Chapter 10.

11.3 Conclusion

Results obtained from the analysis of the data support the proposition for a change of direction in graduate tourism and hospitality management education, and demonstrate a general agreement in terms of content and structure, lending support to Pavesic's (1989) claim for a paradigm shift. However, there is little evidence to support access facilitation into graduate programs, and little recognition of what Airey (1995) identified as a critical success factor for future development. This is found to be in contrast with the increasing pressures from external bodies (government and industry) for the provision of alternative access routes as well as for the recognition of work experience in lieu of qualifications.

The results of the analysis also revealed an interesting dichotomy. Current programs were found to be both "relevant and effective" whilst also lacking "flexibility and adaptability". Thus, whilst existing programs may be perceived as successfully preparing individuals for the industry and of general benefit to the tourism and hospitality community, they were equally perceived as failing to adapt to their

changing environment. This contradiction was explored, and it was argued that it is difficult to sustain an argument defending the relevance and effectiveness of programs which, on the one hand, fail to meet and adapt to the changing needs of industry, and on the other fail to address the problems of industry burnout and dropout.

However, the rationale put forward and presented as an alternative viable graduate studies model for the area was not challenged. It was concluded that had a contrary finding emerged, the model would have been viewed as incompatible with the views of decision-makers in graduate tourism and hospitality management education, and indefensible as a relevant and feasible alternative for the successful future development of the area.

Overall, the results of this thesis add to the body of knowledge in both the tourism and hospitality management literature. The thesis also provides a link between the critical areas of vocational, undergraduate and graduate tourism and hospitality management education. The results of the thesis provide a basis for planning future strategies for the successful development of the area. The results also contribute to the understanding of the underlying factors influencing tourism and hospitality management education in Australian colleges and universities.

11.4 Directions for Future Research

The research design employed in this thesis incorporated a comprehensive investigation of existing (1999) graduate tourism and hospitality management programs in Australian colleges and universities. It also sought to obtain the opinions of decision-makers on some of the fundamental concepts underlying the area, and to test for the support of alternative viable future directions. Five distinct areas surfaced as requiring further investigation. First, the need to obtain further data so as to clarify how existing programs can be deemed both “relevant and effective” whilst also lacking “flexibility and adaptability”. Second, the need to clarify why there was little support for creating multiple access routes into graduate tourism and hospitality management programs. Third, having successfully established a current program and staff profile, it would be useful to establish a graduate profile. Although this was attempted here, it was not possible to reach a meaningful position given the lack of data. Fourth, there is a need to investigate further the roles and responsibilities attributed to both advisory boards and professional bodies. Finally, there is a need to monitor the future success and effective contribution of graduate tourism and hospitality management programs over the long term.

Further research is therefore recommended in the form of:

- A comparative study to measure “relevance and effectiveness”, “flexibility and adaptability”, and “access routes” as these relate to graduate tourism and hospitality management education. Information could be sought from various stakeholder groups, and results compared to determine if opinions differed on these issues.

- A longitudinal study to replicate the portion of this study dealing with decision-makers' opinions concerning the role of advisory boards and that of a national professional body. A further study could shed light on such things as: the composition of advisory boards; the extent to which a national body could intervene in establishing quality standards in light of Australian universities and colleges being self-accrediting programs. It could also indicate whether the role of a national professional body would receive recognition from industry, and investigate how such a body could be effectively coordinated.
- A study to establish which segments of the tourism and hospitality industry employ the majority of graduates, as well as the nature of the positions offered to graduates. This study should also determine the number of graduates attached to each discipline.
- A pilot study of the proposed alternative graduate model.

Further research is justified only if improved data can be made available. Improved data potentially allow (a) a sharper distinction between some of the variables requiring further investigation, and (b) more insights into the nature of tourism and hospitality programs in colleges and universities in Australia. In relation to (a), the possibility exists for a comparative analysis between the perceptions of educators, with those of other stakeholders. Since it is doubtful that a precise notion of what constitutes both "relevant and effective" and "flexible and adaptable" graduate tourism and hospitality management education can ever be formulated without improved data, the risk remains (in any research design) that there will always be conflicting views reflecting various stakeholders' interests.

In relation to (b) a survey of external stakeholders may strengthen the research design by permitting a comparison of opinions to validate those already obtained. For example, the development of multiple access routes into graduate programs may be viewed more favourably by external stakeholders. If this could be observed, it would be possible to confirm the inference that the opinions of those in positions of responsibility conflict with those of external stakeholders, and as a result strategies could be developed to bring each group closer. Moreover, other industry-education-like variables could be measured and compared.

Thus, in order to be effective, traditional tourism and hospitality management education must be broadened to reflect the specialised concerns of the diverse group of industries that make up tourism and hospitality, their stakeholders, and the changing frame of reference from domestic or international to a global orientation.

APPENDIX 1

Undergraduate Tourism and Hospitality Courses in Australian Colleges and Universities: 1998

Institution	Hospitality & Tourism Courses	Duration In Years	Student No.	First Year of Operation
HOSPITALITY COURSES				
Australian International School Australian Capital Territories	Hotel Management	3 FT	>100	1995
Bond University Queensland	Hospitality Management	2 FT no vacations	<50	1989
Edith Cowan University Western Australia	Hospitality Management (Bachelor of Business)	3 FT	<120	1991
Griffith University Queensland	Hotel Management	3 FT	<170	1990
	Club Management (Bachelor of Business)	3 FT	35	1995
	Food Service Management (Bachelor of Business)	3 FT	30	1997
La Trobe University Victoria	Hospitality and Management (Bachelor of Business)	3 FT	60	1993
Northern Territories University	Hospitality Management (Bachelor of Hospitality)	3 FT	115	1990
RMIT University Victoria	Hospitality Studies (Bachelor of Applied Sciences)	4 FT	65	1988
Southern Cross University New South Wales	Hotel and Catering Management (Bachelor of Business)	3 FT	70	1997
University of New South Wales	Marketing and Hospitality Management (Bachelor of Commerce)	4 FT	75	1989
Queensland University	Hospitality Management (Bachelor of Business)	3 FT or 6 PT	130	1974
Western Sydney University New South Wales	Hospitality Management	3 FT	120	1990
Victorian University of Technology	Catering Management (Bachelor of Business)	4 FT	100	1974
	Hospitality and Tourism Management (Bachelor of Business)	4 FT	20	1978

TOURISM COURSES				
Central Queensland University	Tourism (Bachelor of Arts)	3 FT	100 + 100 Ext	1992 & 1996
Charles Sturt University New South Wales	Tourism (Bachelor of Business)	3 FT	30	1984
	Ecotourism (Bachelor of Applied Sciences)	3 FT	50	1995
Curtin University Western Australia	Tourism Management (Bachelor of Commerce)	3 FT	50	1997
Edith Cowan University Western Australia	Tourism Management (Bachelor of Business)	3 FT	130	1990
Flinders University South Australia	Ecotourism (Bachelor of Technology)	3 FT	30	1996
	Cultural Tourism	3 FT	30	1997
Griffith University Queensland	Tourism Management (Bachelor of Business)	3 FT	75	1994
	Ecotourism (Bachelor of Sciences)	3 FT	20	1996
James Cook University Queensland	Tourism (Bachelor of Administration)	4 FT	110	1988 and 1996
La Trobe University Victoria	Tourism and Hospitality (Bachelor of Business)	3 FT	100	1995
Monash University Victoria	Tourism	3 FT	40	1996
Murdoch University Western Australia	Tourism (Bachelor of Arts)	3 + 1 FT	50	1997
RMIT University Victoria	Tourism (Bachelor of Arts)	3 FT or 6 PT	45	1993
Southern Cross University New South Wales	Tourism (Bachelor of Business)	3 FT	120	1989
Sunshine Coast University College Queensland	Tourism Management (Bachelor of Business)	3 FT	55	1997
Ballarat University Victoria	Tourism (Bachelor of Management)	3 FT	60	1989
Canberra University Australian Capital Territories	Tourism (Bachelor of Arts)	3 FT	150	1989
Newcastle University New South Wales	Recreation and Tourism (Bachelor of Social Sciences)	3 FT	30	1989
University of Notre Dame Western Australia	Tourism (Bachelor of Business)	3 FT	10	1997
Queensland University	Tourism Management (Bachelor of Business)	3 FT or 6 PT	140	1987
	Travel Management (Bachelor of Business)	3 FT or 6 PT	70	1994
University of South Australia	Tourism and Hospitality Management (Bachelor of Business)	1 FT	10	1993
University of Technology Sydney New South Wales	Tourism Management (Bachelor of Arts)	3 FT	100	1989

Tourism Courses (Cont.)				
Western Sydney University New South Wales	Tourism	3 FT	55	1995
	(Bachelor of Applied Sciences)			
	Tourism Management	3 FT	100	1993
Victoria University of Technology	(Bachelor of Commerce)			
	Tourism Management	4 FT	70	1978
	(Bachelor of Business)			
	Tourism Small Enterprise Management	3 or 4 FT	20	1996
(Bachelor of Business)				
Regional Tourism Management	3 or 4 FT	20	1996	
(Bachelor of Business)				

APPENDIX 2

Graduate Tourism and Hospitality Courses in Australian Colleges and Universities: 1998

Institution	Hospitality and Tourism Courses	Duration	Student No.	First Year of Operation
Australian International School Australian Capital Territories	Hotel Management (Masters of Business Administration)	18 mths		
Blue Mountains International Hotel Management School Leura New South Wales	Hotel Management (Graduate Diploma)	18mths	21	1994
Canberra University Australian Capital Territories	Tourism Management (Graduate Diploma)	1 FT	15	1991
	Tourism (Masters of Arts)	2 FT		1996
Edith Cowan University Western Australia	Tourism and Hospitality (Doctor of Philosophy)			
Griffith University Queensland	Tourism (Graduate Diploma)	1FT	n/a	1988
	Leisure Management (Graduate Diploma)	1 FT		
	Hospitality Management (Masters)	1FT		1994
	Tourism Management (Masters)	1 FT		1995
La Trobe University Victoria	Tourism and Hospitality (Doctor of Philosophy)			
	Tourism Management (Graduate Diploma)	1 FT	n/a	1997
	Hospitality Management (Graduate Diploma)	1 FT	n/a	1997
	Tourism Management (Diploma)	1 PT	n/a	1997
	Hospitality Management (Masters of Arts – residential)	2 FT	n/a	1997
	Tourism Planning (Masters of Arts – residential)	2 FT	n/a	1997
	Tourism (Doctor of Philosophy)			1997
Northern Territories University	Tourism (Masters)	1 FT		1996
	Hospitality Management (Masters)	1 FT		1997
	Tourism and Hospitality (Doctor of Philosophy)			1997

RMIT University Victoria	Tourism Management (Masters of Arts – residential)	2FT/4PT	24	1993
	Hospitality Management (Masters of Arts – residential)	2FT/4PT	24	1993
	Tourism and Hospitality (Doctor of Philosophy)			1993
	Tourism Management (Masters of Applied Sciences)	18 mths		1998
	Hospitality Management (Masters of Applied Sciences)	18 mths		1998
	Tourism and Hospitality (nested Graduate Diplomas)	12 mths		1998
	Tourism Management (Graduate Certificate)	6 mths FT		
	Tourism Management (Graduate Diploma)	12 mths		1994
Southern Cross University New South Wales	Tourism (Masters of Sciences)	1 FT		
	Hospitality (Masters of Sciences)	1 FT		
	Tourism and Hospitality (Doctor of Philosophy)			
	Hospitality (Graduate Certificate Commerce)	6 mths		
University of New South Wales	Hospitality (Graduate Diploma Commerce)	12 mths		
	Hospitality (Masters of Commerce)	1 FT		
	Hospitality Management (Graduate Certificate)	6 mths FT		
	Tourism Management (Graduate Certificate)	6 mths FT		
Queensland University	Travel Management (Graduate Certificate)	6 mths FT		
	Hotel Management (Graduate Certificate)	6 mths FT		1998
	Hospitality Management (Graduate Diploma)	12mths	n/a	1993
	Tourism Management (Graduate Diploma)	12mths		
	Travel Management (Graduate Diploma)	12 mths		
	Tourism (Masters of Business)	12 mths		
	Hospitality (Masters of Business)	12 mths		
	Travel (Masters of Business)	12 mths		
	International Hotel Management (Masters)	12 mths		
	Tourism and Hospitality (Doctor of Philosophy)			

Curtin University Western Australia	Tourism Management (Graduate Certificate)	6 mths		1998
	Tourism Management (Masters)	12 mths		1998
James Cook University Queensland	Tourism (Graduate Diploma)	12 mths		1990
	Tourism (Masters)	12 mths		1990
	Tourism (Doctor of Philosophy)			1990
Monash University Victoria	Tourism Operations (Graduate Certificate)	6 mths FT	n/a	n/a
	Tourism (Graduate Diploma in Arts)	1FT		
	Tourism Management (Graduate Diploma)	1FT		
	Tourism (Masters of Arts)	1 FT		
	Tourism and Hospitality (Doctor of Philosophy)			
Southern Cross University New South Wales	International Tourism Management (Masters)	1Ft		1994
University of Notre Dame Western Australia	Tourism (Masters of Philosophy)	1 FT		
	Tourism (Masters of Business)	1 FT		
University of Technology Sydney New South Wales	Tourism Management (Graduate Certificate)	6 mths FT		
	Tourism Management (Graduate Diploma)	12 mths		
	Leisure Management (Masters)	1 FT		
	Tourism Management (Masters)	1 FT		
	Tourism (Masters of Arts)	1 FT		
	Hospitality Management (Masters)	1 FT		
	Tourism and Hospitality (Doctor of Philosophy)			
Western Sydney University New South Wales	Hotel Management (Graduate Certificate)	6 mths FT		
	Tourism Management (Graduate Certificate)	6mths FT		
	Hotel Management (Graduate Diploma)	12 mths		
	Tourism Management (Graduate Diploma)	12 mths		
	Tourism (Masters of Applied Sciences)	1 FT		
	Hospitality (Masters of Applied Sciences)	1 FT		

Western Sydney University New South Wales (cont.)	Hotel Management (Masters of Business Administration)	1 FT	
	Tourism Management (Masters of Business Administration)	1 FT	
Victoria University of Technology	Tourism and Hospitality (Doctor of Philosophy)		
	Hospitality and Tourism (Graduate Diploma)	1FT	1990
	Hospitality Management (Graduate Diploma)	1 FT	1990
	Tourism Management (Graduate Diploma)	1FT	1990
	Hospitality Management (Masters of Business)	18 mths	1991
	Tourism Management (Masters of Business)	18 mths	1991
	Tourism and Hospitality (Doctor of Philosophy)		

Appendix 3

The Role and Responsibilities of Government Bodies in Tourism and Hospitality Education in Australia

This appendix focuses on the roles and responsibilities undertaken by government bodies with respect to the governance and management of courses in tourism and hospitality education in Australia. Whilst not directly pertinent to the line of argument developed in the thesis, the issues contained in this Appendix were felt to be sufficiently relevant to warrant further exploration and clarification.

The Role of Government Bodies in Tourism and Hospitality Management Training and Education in Australia

The Commonwealth Government body with primary responsibility for training is the Australian National Training Authority (ANTA). Each State and Territory government has a department with responsibility for vocational education and training (VET) policy development and implementation. The Commonwealth, State and Territory ministers with responsibility for VET collectively constitute the ANTA Ministerial Council (MINCO).

In the mid-1980s, Australia was experiencing high levels of unemployment, currency devaluation, high inflation and a long-term decline in its terms of trade. There was a widespread belief that fundamental restructuring of the economy was required to improve the productivity and international competitiveness of Australian industries. Reform of the VET system was seen as a necessary step to address some of these issues. Dawkins (1989), then Commonwealth Minister for Employment, Education and Training, argued that VET reform was necessary on the grounds that:

- workers needed to obtain higher-level skills to facilitate structural change occurring within the economy;
- Australia faced on-going skill shortages;
- there was an increase in the role of training resulting from the award restructuring process;
- there was a need for people in the workforce to cope with technical and demographic changes occurring in the workplace; and
- there were inequalities in the ability of all people to access education and training.

Dawkins set the following broad objectives:

- increase national investment in training;
- improve the quality and flexibility of the VET sector;
- ensure greater consistency between VET courses, allowing national portability of qualifications;
- increase access to training and education for disadvantaged groups; and,
- streamline the process of recognising qualifications obtained overseas.

As a result of the 1989 Dawkins recommendations, the VET sector in Australia underwent considerable structural change. One key objective of the VET reform process was to encourage increased industry involvement in the development of training initiatives. Industry Training Advisory Bodies (ITABs) were created to facilitate industry involvement in the process of VET policy formulation and implementation.

The national tourism ITAB is Tourism Training Australia, with each State and Territory having an ITAB representing local tourism interest, and collectively referred to as the Tourism Training Network (TTN). TTN represents the interests of:

- accommodation providers;
- clubs and resorts;
- restaurants and cafes;
- travel services;
- airline cabin crew and terminal operations; and,
- casinos and attractions.

TTN receives funding from government and also raises its own revenue.

Employers, employees, training providers, and government agencies are represented on the TTA board. However, many tourism businesses are small firms with different training requirements to the large represented firms, which led the 1996 national Industry Commission on Tourism Accommodation and Training to conclude that:

The interest of small business are not adequately represented in the process of developing tourism training policy (p.313).

TTA is also the endorsed competency standards body for tourism. In this role TTA is responsible for developing competency standards against which the appropriateness of tourism training curricula are assessed. The National Training Board for all areas of tourism training endorsed tourism competency standards. The endorsed competency standards cover the areas of: food and beverage; guest services; kitchen; clubs and gambling; tour operations; meetings and conventions; hospitality management; tourist attraction; tour guiding; retail travel; tourist information services; and tour wholesaling. Using the endorsed tourism competency standards, TTA has developed competency-based training modules for use by tourism training providers. TTA also encourages businesses to take on more trainees, and is responsible for allocating funds for tourism trainee-ships.

Government Accreditation and Industry Recognition of Tourism and Hospitality Training and Education Management Programs

Accreditation

As the range of qualifications for tourism and hospitality broadens, it has become essential that the selection and delivery of information at the various levels of education and training be synchronised. The logical progression from the first stage through to the third is important to ensure that students can chart their own progress and develop a deep understanding of the subject area.

The proliferation of courses and levels does stretch the credibility of the body of knowledge of tourism and hospitality, and students may find themselves using the same texts and materials at differing levels of the educational system. Moreover, an inherent danger with tourism and hospitality courses is the dilution of quality, particularly as the sector has few barriers to entry. Developing and sustaining the quality of tourism and hospitality courses has become a key issue for the sector in the 1990s and a number of government and private sector bodies have taken steps to underpin this process. Thus, at the international level, the World Tourism Organisation (WTO) has established a work program for tourism education and monitors both the quality of tourism education, and that of tourism education institutions. Similarly the European Union has instigated a European Tourism Education Network (ETEN) which has pledged to establish and maintain quality standards in tourism education.

Table 1: The National Framework for the Recognition of Training Principles (NFROT)

Course Accreditation	
Principle 1	Courses shall be relevant to market or industry needs, identify occupational or educational outcomes and enable the achievement of national competency standards where these have been established.
Principle 2	Course standards are appropriate to the requirements of the particular credential.
Principle 3	Courses use competency based training, where the outcomes of courses are specified as competencies
Principle 4	Courses provide for multiple entry and exit points and recognition of prior learning.
Principle 5	Flexible learning using various delivery modes is accommodated.
Principle 6	Articulation arrangements for credit transfer should be specified.
Principle 7	Customisation of courses should be allowed for, while maintaining the integrity of the course.
Principle 8	Promote access and participation.
Principle 9	Appropriate assessment.
Principle 10	On-going monitoring and evaluation
Trainer Registration	
Principle 1	Providers of recognised training shall be registered
Principle 2	Registered providers will have appropriate staff.
Principle 3	Training is delivered in an adequate and safe environment.
Principle 4	Registered providers shall be responsible and ethical in their student relations.
Principle 5	Registered commercial providers shall provide evidence that students will be protected from financial exploitation
Principle 6	Providers shall be registered for a fixed term, not longer than five years, and be subject to quality control.

Source: VEETAC, 1991

In Australia, both government and industry offer processes by which a tourism-training provider can have its courses assessed and subsequently accredited or recognised as meeting a particular quality standard. State or Territory Training Authorities (STAs) offer government accreditation of courses. The National framework for the recognition of training principles is outlined in Table 1 above.

It is important to note that any training provider with government accreditation can issue students with formally recognised qualifications, and that only students of government accredited courses can obtain government financial subsidies towards their studies. Moreover, accreditation has specific meanings within the operations of government, and it is not appropriate to refer to industry recognition as accreditation. Indeed, industry recognition of tourism courses is offered through a separate process that has been developed and is administered by TTA.

Responsibility for, and implementation of, government accreditation resides with the individual STAs. A register of government accredited training courses and registered providers is maintained by each STA and a national register of government accredited courses is maintained by the Standards and Curriculum Council, which operates within the ANTA framework.

Industry Recognition

The system of industry recognition was established in response to the increase in the number of private providers offering tourism and hospitality training courses. Industry recognition was seen as a mechanism that allowed reputable private training providers to distinguish themselves from less reputable training providers. TTA operates the industry recognition system, and ensures that a directory of industry recognised courses and training providers is maintained¹.

Table 2: Comparison of the AQF and AHRP Recognition Levels

AQF	AHRP Recognition Level	Typical Hospitality Work Functions
Advanced Diploma	Management specialist	Department Manager/Small business manager
Diploma	Management core	Unit manager (eg. Restaurant manager)
Certificate IV	Supervisory	Supervisor
Certificate III	Advanced	Team leader
		Trade
		Specialist non-trade
Certificate II	Basic	Multi function (eg., food and beverage server)
Certificate I	Introductory and some basic	Single function (eg. Bar attendant)

Under the system of industry recognition, trainees can undertake individual training modules or combine a series of modules that fulfils the requirements of a credential as established by the Australian Qualification Framework (AQF); consequently, there is direct alignment between formal qualifications, as per the AQF, and industry recognition levels as illustrated in Table 2. However, training providers can offer courses without either government accreditation or industry recognition.

This dual system of government accreditation and industry recognition has raised concerns with regards to validity and comparability between government-based and industry-based processes. Moreover, as the competition for students between private

¹ Industry recognition is available from one of two panels established by TTA, either the Australian Hospitality Review Panel (AHRP) or the Australian Tourism Training Review Panel (ATTRP).

and government institutions has intensified, the issue of a dual system has also raised questions of duplication in application processes and resources allocation².

The purpose of both accreditation and industry recognition is to ensure that providers are accountable for delivering relevant and up-to-date courses, so that graduates are both employable and competent in their future functions. The real difference between the two lies in the focus, with industry more vocationally concerned and government oversight more curriculum and skills concerned. Indeed,

...accountability for public funds spent on training is ensured through a number of mechanism, including regulation of curriculum and courses. The significance of government control of these relates to the need to ensure that training provides relevant skills for specific workplaces and for general market mobility. Industry involvement in accreditation of curriculum and courses, within a framework of government regulation, is a mechanism for ensuring the publicly funded training provides relevant skills. The issue of more or less stringent government control of industry based curriculum and course recognition is no more or less pertinent than it is for other providers, including publicly owned providers (DEETYA, 1996, p7).

The AGB McNair (1995) survey of the Australian tourism industry showed a limited awareness of the industry's own training recognition processes. The results shown below in Table 3 are indicative of low familiarity for all groups other than the 5 star hotel establishments.

Table 3: Awareness of Tourism Training Initiatives

Training Initiative	1-2 sta r %	3 sta r %	4 sta r %	5 sta r %	All %
AHRP	11	16	28	70	18
ATTRP	11	19	30	65	19
ACCESS	16	19	32	57	21
Tourism/hospitality trainee-ships	49	57	62	65	55

Note: AHRP – Australian Hospitality Review Panel
ATTRP – Australian Tourism Training Review Panel
ACCESS – Hospitality Skills Recognition and Assessment Program

The above results clearly demonstrate a lack of familiarity and awareness of the available training initiatives, other than for the tourism/hospitality trainee-ships. Although such figures are of concern, it must be noted that neither AHRP or ATTRP are of themselves training programs per se, but accreditation programs to ensure training providers and resource material are appropriate and relevant. Thus, it is possible that the respondent to the AGB McNair study may have valued the training institutions and programs without being aware of the bodies involved and their roles and responsibilities.

² It should be noted that inter-State/Territory rivalry in Australia has also undermined the processes of government accreditation.

In 1995 TTA estimated that there were 300 training providers operating with AHRP recognition and 104 training providers operating with ATTRP recognition, and that combined these providers offered 1300 courses of instruction.

The Profile of Qualifications in the Tourism and Hospitality Industry

As argued in Chapter 2, one notable feature of the tourism work force in Australia is the high proportion of people in management positions without formal qualifications. Table 4 denotes the qualification profile of employees in the tourism industry, and compares it to the labour force as a whole in the period 1989-1994. The official labour force statistics suggest that formal training is either not required or its value is not recognised in tourism.

Table 4: Qualification Profile of Employees in the Tourism Industry

Type of qualification	Tourism				All Industries	
	1989	1994	1989%	1994%	1989%	1994%
Degree and higher level	11788	15722	3.5	4.4	10	13.6
Trade Certificate, Diploma and other	29808	39431	8.9	11	16.1	16.4
Without post-school	56608	50605	16.8	14.1	19.6	17
Still at school	215333	229092	64	63.7	51.8	50.7
Total	22786	24963	6.8	6.9	2.3	2.2
	336323	359813	100	100	100	100

Source: ABS Labour Force Survey

Note: Between 1989 and 1994 the ABS changed the way it categorised educational qualifications. For this reason, in 1994, 'trade' includes skilled vocational qualifications; and 'total certificate, diploma and other' includes associate diplomas, undergraduate diploma, an unknown portion of basic vocational qualifications and qualifications where the study was for less than one semester.

As the above figures indicate, in 1994, only 4.4 per cent of the tourism-related labour force had a degree or higher level qualification compared with 13.6 per cent for the all industries category. Although the proportion of people with degrees who were working in tourism-related occupations increased between 1989-1994, the increase was less than for the labour as a whole.

Training and Education Providers for Tourism and Hospitality in Australia

The Technical and Further Education sector (TAFE), universities, the school system, industry associations, private education providers, and some workplaces provide formal tourism and hospitality training courses in Australia. On-the-job training is also used extensively in the tourism industry. The accepted Australian Qualifications Framework (AQF), and the Australian Standards Framework (ASF) delivered by these providers is summarised in Table 5 below.

Table 5: Nominal relationship between the Australian Qualifications Framework and the Australian Standards Framework

<i>Australian Qualifications Framework</i>			<i>Australian Standards Framework</i>
<i>Secondary schools sector</i>	<i>Vocational education and training sector</i>	<i>Higher education sector</i>	<i>ASF level</i>
		Doctoral Degree	8
		Master's Degree	8
		Graduate Diploma	8
		Graduate Certificate	8
		Bachelor Degree	7
	Advanced Diploma	Advanced Diploma	6
	Diploma	Diploma	5
	Certificate IV		4
	Certificate III		3
	Certificate II		2
	Certificate I		1
Senior secondary certificates of education eg HSC			

As can be observed in the table, the vocational education and training sector offers qualifications up to and including Advanced Diplomas, whereas the higher education sector is responsible for issuing qualifications from Diploma to Doctoral levels. Thus, the province of both the TAFE and private provider sectors is limited to those qualifications at or below level 6 of the Australian Standards Framework..

The Technical and Further Education (TAFE) Colleges

The Technical and Further Education (TAFE) colleges account for the majority of formal education courses offered in Australia. Of total TAFE enrolments, the majority are hospitality related, and in 1995 there were some 80 different courses offered (King, 1995). These range from certificate programs to apprenticeship courses, to fully integrated two-year programs. Demand for places continue to out-strip supply. In the state of New South Wales alone, it was estimated that in 1995, 5000 students were turned away from hospitality and catering courses (Carr, 1995).

While funding for universities has come from the Commonwealth Government, TAFE funding and jurisdiction on the other hand is largely organised at the State/Territory level. Consequently, there has been relatively little coordination. Despite the desire to have articulation agreements for career path-ways from TAFE to university level, the reality has been quite different, and Lewis, (1992) indicated that the actual amount of credit granted in all fields of study within institutions offering tourism and hospitality courses was relatively small. Indeed, Bushell and Robertson (1995) found that within hospitality and tourism programs at 13 of the 18 universities examined, more than 60% of the students investigated with previous TAFE study received no credit for their previous TAFE study.

In 1991, there were 51,676 enrolments in tourism-related award courses offered at TAFE colleges. Over the three years to 1994 this number increased by 34 per cent to 69,422. Table 6 denotes the breakdown of enrolments in tourism related TAFE courses between 1991-1994. In 1994, there were also more than 30,000 enrolments in non-award tourism-related courses. As these non-award courses do not result in a recognised qualification, it is not likely that they were undertaken as a means of entry into the workforce.

Table 6: Number of Enrolments in Tourism Related TAFE Courses, by Level of Qualification Awarded 1991-94

Course of study	1991	1992	1993	1994
Diploma and Ass. Diploma	4744	5012	6440	7852
Advanced Certificate	7020	5673	10245	11069
Trade Certificate	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	9477a
Certificate	22994	27141	35428	28318
Other qualifications	16918	16768	15373	12726
Total award enrolments	51676	54594	67486	69442
Non-award b	18733	10193	15144	31300
Total enrolments	70409	64787	82630	100742

A 1994 was the first year that the categories of Certificate and Trade Certificate were reported separately

B People completing non-award courses are not issued with a recognised qualification or certificate of achievement. Such courses include those undertaken for recreation, leisure and personal enrichment

n.a. Not available (see note a)

Source: NCVET

As a result of government training policy and the funding provided, there were by 1994 a significant number of people undertaking training courses. Indeed, in 1994, TAFE enrolments in vocational tourism-related courses were equivalent to about 65 per cent of the entire stock of people with post-school qualifications already working in tourism and hospitality.

Universities

The establishment of tourism and hospitality management courses and their postwar expansion, especially at the university level, may be viewed as a significant development. To a certain extent, tertiary tourism and hospitality management courses offer an alternative to vocational tourism and hospitality studies, which are predominantly technical in nature.

The university-based courses in tourism and hospitality management education have their origin in America and Britain, where for example, the hotel school at Cornell University (USA) came on stream in 1922, and the University of Surrey (UK) and the University of Strathclyde (UK) had developed programs in the early 1970s.

The university tourism and hospitality management courses tend to offer students a broader, often multi-disciplinary, outlook through the compulsory study of the humanities, social sciences, and liberal arts. They also offer greater depth through the nature of academic research. In contrast, vocational and technical tourism and hospitality courses leading to certificates and diplomas are vocational in nature.

Universities now provide both vocation specific education and general education. General education equips graduates with skills that are valuable in a range of occupations, including tourism and hospitality. Thus, it is not possible to estimate the number of people enrolled in courses which will lead them indirectly into employment in the tourism and hospitality industry. However, it is possible to analyse student numbers who are enrolled in identifiable tourism and hospitality courses, as illustrated in Appendices 1 & 2.

It should be noted that the origins of current university-level hospitality and tourism education in Australia predated the first courses being offered within institutions designated as universities. The tertiary level institutions focusing on diploma and degree level vocational education were known as Colleges of Advanced Education (CAE). They were similar in their mission to the former Polytechnics in the UK. By 1990, the recommendation of mergers that came out of the Dawkins report (see above), saw the CAEs either joining with established universities, or together with one another, and upgrading their status to that of a university. Coupled with the expansion of the university sector, and the under-supply of graduates for a growing tourism industry, the number of courses in tourism and hospitality grew quickly³.

Currently, there are 38 universities in Australia with 20 of them now offering some type of courses in tourism and hospitality⁴. The tourism and hospitality programs in Australia are either three or four years in duration to obtain a Bachelor's degree. Some programs have a component of compulsory practical work placement, though this may range from a few months to one year. As is the case in the US, the location of programs within the university structure varies from the Faculty of Business, to Education, to Resource Science and Management. In addition, some universities may offer an additional "Honours" option to the basic degree. However, unlike the UK, where the "Honours" component is usually integrated into the degree program, this "add-on" component is a further year of supervised self-directed research. In addition to these complexities, other universities also offer their degree programs through distance learning as well as on more than one campus.

Private Providers

Tourism and hospitality courses are offered at private training colleges across Australia which provide training at the vocational education and training (VET) level. Until recently, there was very limited private sector involvement in degree training and where this occurred, it was through private-public sector partnerships or via articulation.

With demand for TAFE places being so great, and with the government focusing on university level education, the need for skills education has continued to grow. Making education more relevant to the world of work, several enterprising hotels have become private autonomous training providers. This means they are entitled to offer nationally accredited courses in competition with TAFE colleges, and to charge

³ See Appendices 1 & 2.

⁴ 36 being government funded and 2 being private.

fees. Currently, various hotel companies, such as Hilton International Hotels, Intercontinental Hotels, Sheraton Hotels, and Pan Pacific Hotels, have begun to offer these certified training courses to students.

In addition, several foreign private providers have entered Australia in partnership with local organisations. With a focus on a more traditional European style of hotel management training, Swiss-accredited hotel schools have opened. The first was the Blue Mountains Hotel School in New South Wales; it was followed by the establishment of the Swiss Hotel Association's International College of Hotel Management at Regency College in South Australia. In addition, a relationship has been established between the US based Cornell University's School of Hotel Administration and the Canberra Institute of Technology. A degree program in Hotel Management offered through the recently established Australian International Hotel School, began in 1994, with graduate programs planned to follow.

Appendix 4

Models of Tourism and Hospitality Management Education

In this appendix, a number of accepted and practiced models of tourism and hospitality management education will be outlined. Pros and cons are outlined for: the hotel school model; the general management program with a tourism focus model, the liberal arts program with a tourism focus, the hybrid model of tourism and hospitality education, as well as the three pronged approach. Their application to the tertiary Australian tourism and hospitality management education sector is investigated, and it will be argued that although certain characteristics of each model can be found in Australian programs, no model actually dominates the sector.

Overview

Tertiary level hospitality and tourism education is a relatively recent phenomenon, originating with the 1920s U.S. extension programs to assist those interested in planning and managing their own hospitality businesses (McIntosh, 1992). In contrast, hospitality tourism degrees in Pacific Rim countries developed much later, albeit with adjustments to course content to reflect global and local trends (Wells, 1996).

The traditional Swiss and French hotel schools are by definition the only true international institutions in the hospitality/tourism management education sector today. The original concept of the functional hotel school evolved in Switzerland, when small hotels were converted to hotel schools. The idea was to give students practical training in the real situation as opposed to a simulation, and would result in students in a functional hotel school gaining competency in skills much faster than students attending traditional hotel schools (Jayawardena, 1996). From these humble beginnings grew institutions with a current reputation for international understanding and inter cultural skills they provide to students. Thus, the Institut de Management Hotelier International (IMHI) offers post-graduate management courses in hospitality, recruiting students from around the world, educating them as global managers with strategic skills, developing courses in all disciplines around global themes¹. Moreover, IMHI is recognised as a leader in bringing industry into the classroom and the classroom into the field (Nowlis, 1996).

When Cornell University in the United States started its hotel program in the 1920s, the industry was just departing from its phase as a cottage industry and entering a new era of professional operation. The first hotel chains appeared, the industry expanded as never before, and modern technology attracted a new market of leisure and business travellers. Since that time, the industry has evolved rapidly, expanding along national and international lines. New segments and new brands have emerged, together with new structures both in ownership and management contracts. New ways of managing marketing, technology, financing, staffing, and other key

¹ IMHI is located near Paris in France and jointly administered by Cornell University and the Ecole Supérieur des Sciences Economiques et Commerciales.

managerial and operational aspects have changed the complexity and nature of work in the industry. For instance, the industry's chief source of financing changed from private owners backed by banks in the 1980s to publicly funded investors in the 1990s, with real estate investment trusts and specialist lodging companies enjoying major shareholdings in the industry in the late 1990s.

Although tourism and hospitality education has evolved during that time, embracing along the way structural and directional industry changes, a number of educational models have remained popular and accepted both within the industry, and by academics and students alike.

The Hotel School Model

The most internationally recognised program of this type is located at Cornell University in the United States². Traditionally, the single most distinguishing characteristic of the hotel school model has been a very single-minded focus on preparing individuals to become managers of hotel and resort properties. The graduates of programs adopting this model have been well received by the hotel sector for many years, and have been recognised as good operational as opposed to strategic managers. This lack of strategic focus in the hotel school model has resulted in a tendency for larger hotel chains to hire persons with Master of Business Administration (MBA) degrees for positions requiring a broader management perspective.

In terms of structure and content, Hotel School programs generally consist of two main components. They are:

- courses related to various operational aspects of the hotel property such as food and beverage management, front desk operations, hotel facility operation and maintenance, and legal aspects of hotel operations;
- courses related to various aspects of management required for the successful running of a hotel (sales and marketing management, hospitality accounting, information systems for hotel management).

The end product of such a program is an individual who has good knowledge and skills relating to the operation and management of a hotel or resort property. The trade-off that has been made is to forego the broader liberal arts and language training available in most university level programs, and to provide a more focused management education than that offered in a more general management program. Finally, while changes have occurred in recent years, the course content of hotel school programs very typically makes little reference to, or linkage with, the rest of the tourism industry.

² Other well regarded programs based on a similar model can be found at the University of Nevada at Las Vegas (USA), Virginia Polytechnic University (Blackburg, Virginia, USA), Florida International University (Miami, Florida, USA), the Pennsylvania State University (State College, Pennsylvania, USA), the University of Guelph (Guelph, Ontario, Canada), the Hague Hotel School (the Hague, Netherlands), and the University of Surrey (Guilford, UK).

However, whatever limitations they may have, the fact remains that a well designed and well delivered Hotel School program still receives considerable support from the hotel industry.

The General Management Program with a Tourism Focus Model

The General Management program with a Tourism Focus (GMTF) model emerged in an attempt to broaden the educational experience of undergraduate students while still providing a strong industry orientation. The structure and content of programs based on this model can be summarised thus:

- the core of the program is general management education, which also includes the liberal arts, languages and mathematics as program requirements;
- the program is structured to enable students to take a number of courses related to the tourism and hospitality industry. Some programs may also provide the option of focusing on one specific sub-sector of tourism such as transportation, planning, or even hotel management;
- in order to obtain the operational knowledge and skills provided by Hotel Schools, GMTF programs frequently include a number of practical work terms as an integral part of the learning process. The cost is a program that usually requires five instead of four years to complete.

GMTF programs are usually located in Schools of Business or similar academic units. While such programs have been developed in response to industry demand and with its ongoing advice, the programs of this type which do exist are generally relatively new and do not have an extensive track record³.

Liberal Arts Programs with a Tourism Focus (LAPTF)

This category includes a very broad range of program types including:

- ***Discipline-based programs*** with a tourism component or a tourism emphasis. Such programs are most commonly related to the fields of geography, economics or sociology. These programs tend to depend heavily on one or two individuals for their reputation and, as such, have not proven to be highly successful on a broad scale⁴.
- ***Recreation or Leisure Studies Programs*** which frequently include a significant tourism component. Such programs tend to be multi-disciplinary in nature. They usually draw most heavily on the social sciences although they tend to involve input from such fields as physical education and computer science. One important characteristic of these

³ Examples of such programs can be found at the University of Hawaii, University of Central Florida Michigan State University, the University of Calgary and the University of Victoria.

⁴ One example can be found in the Geography Department at McGill University.

programs is that they tend to have an academic, as opposed to an industry, orientation⁵.

- *Multi-disciplinary Majors in Tourism Studies* are somewhat similar to the previous category. However, they are distinguished by the fact that they tend to have a much stronger industry orientation. As a result, they often include some management related courses, a greater emphasis on language training and, increasingly, courses which relate tourism planning to environmental issues⁶.

While the above type of Liberal Arts programs in tourism is frequently criticised as being too theoretical or not sufficiently oriented to the needs of industry, it does possess some real strengths. First, it provides students with a much broader understanding of the societal dimensions of tourism and its impacts. Second, it offers students a high degree of flexibility in selecting courses that are of particular interest to them. Third, it tends to provide students with knowledge in areas that, while not directly dealing with tourism, are highly relevant for success in the field. Finally, such programs are highly adaptable and, as such, have been able to incorporate new topics and issues (such as environmental studies) more quickly than more structured programs.

A Hybrid Model of Tourism and Hospitality Education

A hybrid model was put forward by Ritchie (1995). Ritchie believes that two types of programs are generally required to meet the tourism and hospitality education and training needs of a region. He argued that the first type of program required be a Traditional Hotel School designed to prepare managers to operate effectively hotel and resort properties, albeit with graduates recognising their role within the broader tourism industry. The second type of program (the hybrid model) he advocated should be designed to train managers and future industry leaders for the tourism industry defined in its broadest sense. Such a program should impart both managerial skills for a range of tourism positions, as well as provide the kind of general education which will enable graduates to continue learning and to grow as individuals as they pass through various stages in their careers.

Based on specific criteria, the model attempted to take into account the lessons learned from programs designed earlier. The criteria provided insights into how the actual structure and content might be designed and developed, and suggested the kind of organisational arrangements that might be most appropriate for housing and delivering such a program. The criteria underlying its design were:

- the program should draw on the experience of others around the world, but should reflect the specific needs and resources of the community in which it is located;

⁵ Examples of such programs are found at the School of Leisure and recreation Studies (Breda, Netherlands), George Washington University (Washington, D.C., USA) and the University of Waterloo (Ontario, Canada).

⁶ Examples of such programs are at Ryerson Polytechnical institute (Toronto, Ontario, Canada) and at James Cook University (Townsville, Australia).

- the program should be responsive to the needs of industry while producing graduates that are capable of understanding and managing tourism's total range of economic, social and cultural impacts on the residents of the host region;
- the program should provide students with a balance of conceptual material and practical experience as an integral part of the program;
- the program should provide students with a perspective that balances economic development and environmental protection;
- the program should balance the development of more practical management skills with the development of more general understanding of the various social science disciplines and language skills that are to provide a quality tourism product on a sustainable basis;
- the design of the program should build on the existing skills of committed individuals in the community while systematically undertaking a long term development program for new, younger faculty members;
- the first program should be located in a region for which tourism is a very significant component of the local economy and where a commitment to tourism development and tourism education is evident.

Ritchie's 1995 hybrid model incorporated the following features:

- a five-year program of studies which included a total of 24 months practical work experience as an integral part of the program;
- a strong management orientation balanced with an emphasis on those social science disciplines which contributed to a broader understanding of tourism and its impacts;
- a balanced perspective concerning tourism development and environmental protection and enhancement;
- the development of language capabilities; and,
- a strong emphasis on the development of close working relationships with tourism organisations in both the public and private sectors.

Such a program, Ritchie argued, sought to provide academic rigour, integrating the study of the social sciences, business, languages, mathematics and computer science, and the field of tourism itself.

The Three Pronged Approach to Tourism Education

Echtner (1995b) advocated a combination of three types of tourism education programs: professional, vocational and entrepreneurial, where each of the components focus on the development of distinct skills which, when combined, offer a comprehensive and effective tourism education.

Professional Education in Tourism

Professional tourism education is academic in nature. Theoretical concepts are provided, and the student's ability to interpret, evaluate and analyse is developed (Cooper and Westlake, 1989). The ultimate goal of professional education is a broad understanding of the tourism industry and its unique issues and challenges. Such an

approach to tourism education supplies the qualified manpower needed at a strategic level for both the public and private sectors.

The complexity of the tourism industry, together with the need to develop a comprehensive view of the subject, indicates that professional education is best accomplished at a tertiary (university) level. Jenkins (1980) suggested that although the emphasis will vary between institutions, such programs should incorporate three broad areas of study⁷:

- analytical frameworks for interpreting global tourism flows and trends;
- the examination of the models of tourism administration at the country level;
- techniques for conducting feasibility studies and impact evaluation.

In addition, there is a need to incorporate into the program a variety of subjects such as business administration, marketing, geography, sociology, and planning, in order to address the multi-disciplinary nature of the tourism industry.

Vocational Skills in Tourism

The second approach to tourism education advocated by the three pronged model is the development of vocational skills. The main objective of this approach is the acquisition of the knowledge and competencies that apply to a specific tourism position, often at front-line or supervisory level. The content of such courses tends to be less theoretical than that of professional education programs, dealing more with developing certain skills to handling on-the-job problems (Cooper and Westlake, 1989). Examples include training for hotel personnel (front desk, housekeeping), restaurant personnel (chef, bartender, waiter/waitress) and tourism services (tour guide, travel counsellor).

Adequate vocational training is critical in order to deliver effectively the products and services required by the tourism industry. The content of a specific tourism vocational program will vary depending upon the particular occupation for which individuals are being trained. However, all tourism vocational programs should include the following two components:

- the teaching of appropriate skills – both technical and attitudinal;
- the practical application of these skills through on site simulation and/or cooperative programs with industry.

In order to provide vocational training for various levels, Goeltom (1988) suggested a four tiered diploma system:

- Diploma I: providing training for entry level personnel;
- Diploma II: providing training for supervisory level personnel;

⁷ Examples of professional tourism education programs include the International Institute of Tourism Studies at George Washington University (USA), the Department of Management Studies for Tourism and Hotel Industries at the University of Surrey (UK), the World Tourism Education and Research Centre at the University of Calgary (Canada). All of these institutions offer professional tourism education programs at both the undergraduate and graduate levels, and all are recognised as centres of tourism education by WTO. WTO also conducts professional tourism education via seminars on a diverse range of topics including tourism planning, marketing, statistics, and training.

- Diploma III: providing training for middle managerial level personnel;
- Diploma IV: providing training for managerial level personnel.

A more simplified model to that adopted as the AQF as illustrated in Table 2 in Appendix 3.

Entrepreneurial Development in Tourism

In the past decade the debate concerning the content and approach to tourism education programs has focused on the relative merits of professional education versus vocational skills. In addressing the issue of tourism industry development and education in developing countries, Echtner (1995b) advocated an entrepreneurial development model as the third prong of her three-pronged model. She argued that in order to develop an indigenous business sector, knowledge of the skills needed to set up and operate tourism enterprises was needed, and that this was where the third approach to tourism education, entrepreneurial development, was essential. Citing the Swedish "Improve Your Business" program as an example of a successful entrepreneurial development program imported and adopted for use into eleven African nations, Etchner argued that the entrepreneurial model could draw on the strengths of existing programs adapted for local conditions.

Each component of the three-pronged approach to tourism education develops certain important and necessary tourism manpower. Professional education, with its emphasis on a comprehensive understanding of the various components of the tourism industry, provides planners, policy makers, researchers and strategists. Vocational training furnishes the skilled personnel needed to deliver the services in the various tourism sectors, such as hotels, restaurants, airlines and travel services. And finally, entrepreneurial development ensures that local individuals will be equipped with the knowledge and proficiency to initiate and manage their own tourism ventures. Echtner (1995b) argued that when combined, these approaches provided an effective education system for the human resources needed by the tourism industry.

Application to Australian Tourism and Hospitality Education

The development of tertiary-level hospitality and tourism degrees in Australia has been a recent phenomenon, particularly in comparison with the US and the UK. As already noted, in the US, the Hotel School at Cornell University was established in 1922. In the UK, the Scottish Hotel School was established in 1944, and it formally became part of the University of Strathclyde in 1964 (Gee, 1994). But it was not until 1974 that the then Footscray Institute of Technology in Melbourne introduced its program in hospitality management⁸.

Historically speaking, hotel/hospitality management programs have tended to be established before those in tourism. As has happened in the US and the UK, tourism programs in Australia have grown out of a number of disciplines – such as recreation, leisure, geography, and hotel management. However, unlike in the US and the UK,

⁸ Now part of Victoria University of Technology.

the development of hospitality and tourism management programs in Australia happened almost simultaneously. This has often been the cause of considerable overlap in terms of course content and direction, as well as the naming of the various programs.

Coupled with the expansion of the university sector and the under supply of graduates for a growing tourism industry, the number of courses in tourism and hospitality grew quickly. Thus, Craig-Smith, Davidson, and French (1994) identified that in 1987 there were only three institutions offering programs in Australia. Three years later, in 1990, there were 16 and in 1995, 21 were listed. Of the courses offered by the universities eight indicated they focused specifically on tourism, five specifically on hotel/hospitality management, and eight claimed to have programs in both areas.

In all these programs there were a number of educational models being applied. From the traditional Hotel School Model through variations on Etchner's three pronged approach, and including Ritchie's hybrid model, as well as the GMTF and LAPTF models. It is difficult to argue that Australian programs differed much from their US or UK counterparts in their application of educational frameworks, other than perhaps for the fact that in Australia the distinction made between tourism and hospitality is not as pronounced as overseas.

Appendix 5

Partlow's Summary of Consensus Responses on Level of Education and Degree of Experience Required for Competence in Hospitality Management

Competency by education level ^a	Experience level yr. ^b
Not related to education	
Implements policies and procedures	< 3 ^c
Evaluates guest satisfaction	< 3
Supervises personnel effectively	< 3
Monitors standards and procedures	< 3
Solves employee grievances	< 3
Hires personnel	< 3
Maintains professional and ethical standards	< 3
Bachelor's	
Conceptualises managerial responsibilities	< 3
Develops department goals and objectives	< 3
Develops policies and procedures	< 3
Develops employee production standards	< 3
Coordinates use of equipment and personnel	< 3
Develops effective merchandising techniques	< 3
Utilises industrial engineering techniques	< 3
Analyses operation's cost, volume, and profit	< 3
Coordinates intra and interdepartmental functions	< 3
Designs purchasing, production and service control	< 3
Evaluates effectiveness of operation	< 3
Utilises situation analysis in decision making	< 3
Establishes a guest security system	< 3
Maintains financial records	< 3
Plans budget	< 3
Analyses financial statements	< 3
Plans orientation and training programs	< 3
Develops job descriptions	< 3
Conducts job analysis	< 3
Coordinates management team	< 3
Delegates appropriate functions to personnel	< 3
Initiates performance appraisal program	< 3
Develops equipment specification	< 3
Evaluates use of computer	< 3
Determines facility layout and design	< 3
Maintains effective union management relations	< 3
Utilises principles of material management	< 3
Master's	
Conducts and/or directs research	> 3
Prepares funding proposals	< 3
Manages all legal aspects of operation	< 3
Applies research methodology and results to operations	> 3
Utilises appropriate investment management methods	> 3
No Consensus^d	
Develops a strategic marketing plan	> 3
Utilises mathematical forecasting techniques	< 3
Implements energy conservation	< 3
Provides motivational environment	< 3
Communicates effectively, both verbal and written	< 3
Maintains effective employee, guest, and community relations	< 3
Evaluates new developments in hotel and restaurant management	< 3

^a Fifty percent or more of respondents agreed on the responses indicated, unless no consensus is specified.

Scale; 1 = not related to level of education, 2 = bachelor's, 3 = master's

^b extent of professional experience required for competency development. Scale; 1 = no experience necessary, 2 = less than 1 year; 3 = 1 to 3 years, 4 = more than 3 years.

^c The four experience levels were collapsed into two: < 3 years and > 3 years.

^d Less than 50 percent agreed on a response. Source: Partlow (1990), pp. 29-30.

Appendix 6: Questionnaire

To ensure that records are accurate it would be helpful if you would provide the following information.

Please note Section 1a is optional.

Section 1a: Institution Details

- 1.1 Name of Institution: _____
- 1.2 Address of Institution: _____
- 1.3 Name of Department/
Faculty/School: _____
- 1.4 Head of Department/
Faculty/School: _____
- 1.5 Contact Name: _____
- 1.6 E-mail Address: _____
- 1.7 Telephone: _____
- 1.8 Fax: _____

NOTES: Department/Faculty/School: please use your judgement as to the most appropriate unit within your institution.
Contact Name: best point of contact in addition to the Head of Department/Faculty/School.

Section 1b: Personal Details

To ensure accurate classification of information it would be helpful if you would provide the following information.

1.9 What is your personal current academic level?

- Level E (Professor)
 - Level D (Associate Professor)
 - Lecturer C (Senior lecturer)
 - Lecturer B
 - Lecturer A
 - Other, please specify:
-
-

1.10 How many years of tourism and hospitality industry experience do you have?

- 0 years of experience
 - 1-3 years of experience
 - 4-6 years experience
 - 7-10 years experience
 - Over10 years experience
 - Other, please specify:
-
-

1.11 How many years experience as an educator in tourism and hospitality do you have?

- 0 years of experience
 - 1-3 years of experience
 - 4-6 years experience
 - 7-10 years experience
 - Over10 years experience
 - Other, please specify:
-
-

1.12 How many years of management experience do you have?

- 0 years of experience
 - 1-3 years of experience
 - 4-6 years of experience
 - 7-10 years of experience
 - Over10 years of experience
 - Other, please specify:
-
-

1.13 What is your highest attained degree?

- A doctoral degree
 - A masters degree
 - A bachelors' degree
 - A diploma qualification
 - Below a diploma qualification
 - Other, please specify:
-
-

Section 2: Staff Profile

To help estimate how many lecturers are involved in teaching tourism and hospitality subjects in management education programs it would be helpful if you would provide the total number of those teaching in tourism and hospitality programs in your institution as well as those specifically concerned with tourism and hospitality.

Notes:

1. Total academic staff: refers to the total number of lecturers involved in teaching units on tourism and hospitality courses, including for example teachers of finance, marketing, accounting, management.
2. Total tourism and hospitality academic staff: refers to the total number of lecturers involved in teaching tourism and hospitality units. A tourism and hospitality course unit is defined as one lasting at least one semester of which at least 50% of the content is focused specifically on tourism and hospitality (please use judgement for this).
3. Part-time: lecturers who are employed by the institution on part-time contract basis (fewer than 30 hours per week), excluding visiting speakers.
4. Percentage: for questions 2.1 - 2.14, please estimate approximate percentages.

2.1 Percentage of academic staff in 1999:

- | | | |
|-------|----|---|
| _____ | 1. | Full-time equivalent (T.& H. and other) |
| _____ | 2. | Part-time equivalent (T.& H. and other) |
| _____ | 3. | Other, please specify: |
-
-

2.2 Percentage tourism and hospitality academic staff in 1999:

- | | | |
|-------|----|-------------------------------|
| _____ | 1. | Full-time equivalent (Female) |
| _____ | 2. | Full-time equivalent (Male) |
| _____ | 3. | Part-time equivalent (Female) |
| _____ | 4. | Part-time equivalent (Male) |
| _____ | 5. | Other, please specify: |
-
-

2.3 Percentage of *full-time* equivalent academic staff in the following levels:

- | | | |
|-------|----|-------------------------------|
| _____ | 1. | Level E (Professor) |
| _____ | 2. | Level D (Associate Professor) |
| _____ | 3. | Lecturer C (Senior lecturer) |
| _____ | 4. | Lecturer B |
| _____ | 5. | Lecturer A |
| _____ | 6. | Other, please specify: |
-
-

2.4 Percentage of *part-time* equivalent academic staff in the following levels:

- _____ 1. Level E (Professor)
- _____ 2. Level D (Associate Professor)
- _____ 3. Lecturer C (Senior lecturer)
- _____ 4. Lecturer B
- _____ 5. Lecturer A
- _____ 6. Other, please specify:

2.5 Percentage of *full-time* equivalent academic staff with tourism and hospitality industry experience:

- _____ 1. 0 years of industry experience
- _____ 2. 1-3 years of industry experience
- _____ 3. 4-6 years of industry experience
- _____ 4. 7-10 years of industry experience
- _____ 5. Over10 years of industry experience
- _____ 6. Other, please specify:

2.6 Percentage of *part-time* equivalent academic staff with tourism and hospitality industry experience:

- _____ 1. 0 years of industry experience
- _____ 2. 1-3 years of industry experience
- _____ 3. 4-6 years of industry experience
- _____ 4. 7-10 years of industry experience
- _____ 5. Over10 years of industry experience
- _____ 6. Other, please specify:

2.7 Percentage of *full-time* equivalent academic staff with experience as educators in tourism and hospitality:

- _____ 1. 0 years of experience
- _____ 2. 1-3 years of experience
- _____ 3. 4-6 years of experience
- _____ 4. 7-10 years of experience
- _____ 5. Over10 years of experience
- _____ 6. Other, please specify:

2.8 Percentage of *part-time* equivalent academic staff with experience as educators in tourism and hospitality:

- _____ 1. 0 years of experience
 - _____ 2. 1-3 years of experience
 - _____ 3. 4-6 years of experience
 - _____ 4. 7-10 years of experience
 - _____ 5. Over 10 years of experience
 - _____ 6. Other, please specify:
-
-

2.9 Percentage of *full-time* equivalent academic staff with management experience:

- _____ 1. 0 years of management experience
 - _____ 2. 1-3 years of management experience
 - _____ 3. 4-6 years of management experience
 - _____ 4. 7-10 years of management experience
 - _____ 5. Over 10 years of management experience
 - _____ 6. Other, please specify:
-
-

2.10 Percentage of *part-time* equivalent academic staff with management experience:

- _____ 1. 0 years of management experience
 - _____ 2. 1-3 years of management experience
 - _____ 3. 4-6 years of management experience
 - _____ 4. 7-10 years of management experience
 - _____ 5. Over 10 years of management experience
 - _____ 6. Other, please specify:
-
-

2.11 Percentage of *full-time* equivalent academic staff whose highest attained degree is:

- _____ 1. A doctoral degree
 - _____ 2. A masters degree
 - _____ 3. A bachelors degree
 - _____ 4. A diploma qualification
 - _____ 5. Below a diploma qualification
 - _____ 6. Other, please specify:
-
-

2.12 Percentage of *part-time* equivalent academic staff whose highest attained degree is:

- _____ 1. A doctoral degree
 - _____ 2. A masters degree
 - _____ 3. A bachelors degree
 - _____ 4. A diploma qualification
 - _____ 5. Below a diploma qualification
 - _____ 6. Other, please specify:
-
-

2.13 Does your Department/School/Faculty offer Graduate program(s) in tourism and hospitality?

YES

If yes, please go to page **7**.

NO

If no, please go to page **12**.

SURVEY OF TOURISM AND HOSPITALITY GRADUATE LEVEL COURSES IN AUSTRALIA

INSTITUTION: _____

COORDINATOR: _____

Section 3: Course Details

3.1 Please complete the table below.

General Course Information	Graduate Certificate	Graduate Diploma	Masters Degree	Doctoral Degree	Other, Please specify
Course Title? (in brief)					
First year of operation?					
Length of course (1999)?					
Mode of attendance F/T; P/T; Both?					
Compulsory Core Component? YES/NO					
Please indicate if any of these courses are 'nested'? YES/NO					
Available through Distance Learning? YES/NO					
Use of Advisory Board in course design & monitoring? YES/NO					
Use of emerging technologies (eg. Internet, WWW, Lotus Notes) in 1999 course delivery? YES/NO					

3.2 How would you best describe your course(s) professional content in 1999?

Professional Content	Graduate Certificate	Graduate Diploma	Masters Degree	Doctoral Degree	Other Please specify
Mostly Theoretical					
75% Theoretical 25% Applied					
50% Theoretical 50% Applied					
25% Theoretical 75% Applied					
Mostly Applied					
Other, please specify					

3.3 How would you best describe your course(s) management content in 1999?

Management Content	Graduate Certificate	Graduate Diploma	Masters Degree	Doctoral Degree	Other Please specify
Mostly Theoretical					
75% Theoretical 25% Applied					
50% Theoretical 50% Applied					
25% Theoretical 75% Applied					
Mostly Applied					
Other, please specify					

3.4 How would you best describe your general course(s) structure in 1999?

General Course Structure	Graduate Certificate	Graduate Diploma	Masters Degree	Doctoral Degree	Other Please specify
Very Flexible					
75% Flexible 25% Structured					
50% Flexible 50% Structured					
25% Flexible 75% Structured					
Very Structured					
Other, please specify					

3.5 How would you best describe your specific course(s) bias in 1999?

Specific Course Bias	Graduate Certificate	Graduate Diploma	Masters Degree	Doctoral Degree	Other Please specify
Tourism					
Hospitality					
Financial					
Management					
Human Resources					
Marketing					
Other, please specify					

3.6 Is/are your course(s) operated with any other institution(s) in 1999?

Other institutions' involvement	Graduate Certificate	Graduate Diploma	Masters Degree	Doctoral Degree	Other Please specify
No other institution					
Other University					
TAFE Institute					
Private Provider					
Industry Partner					
Other, please specify					

3.7 Does/do your course(s) include a period of industrial placement?

Industrial Placement	Graduate Certificate	Graduate Diploma	Masters Degree	Doctoral Degree	Other Please specify
No placement					
4 weeks or less					
5 to 8 weeks					
9 to 12 weeks					
13 weeks or more placement					
Other, please specify					

3.8 Does/do your course(s) require previous relevant management work experience as a condition for enrolment?

Required pre-entry work experience	Graduate Certificate	Graduate Diploma	Masters Degree	Doctoral Degree	Other Please specify
No work experience					
1 to 2 years experience					
2 to 3 years experience					
3 to 4 years experience					
5 or more years experience					
Other, please specify					

3.9 Does/do your course(s) require previous relevant qualifications as a condition for enrolment?

Required pre-entry qualifications	Graduate Certificate	Graduate Diploma	Masters Degree	Doctoral Degree	Other Please specify
None required					
Certificate					
Diploma					
Degree					
Other, please specify					

3.10 Please give an indication on the fees charged for your course(s).

Course Fees (F/T equivalent p/a)	Graduate Certificate	Graduate Diploma	Masters Degrèe	Doctoral Degree	Other Please specify
HECS only					
Under \$2500					
\$2500-\$5000					
\$5000-\$7500					
\$7500--\$10000					
Over \$10000					
Other, please specify					

Note: This information will not be published for individual institutions. It will be used only to produce averages.

Section 4: Student Profile

For each question in section 4 please give the figures for the first year the course was offered (if available), and the figures for 1999.

4.1 Number of applications received:

Applications	Graduate Certificate	Graduate Diploma	Masters Degree	Doctoral Degree	Other Please specify
First year of operation 19__					
1999					

4.2 Number of places offered:

Places offered	Graduate Certificate	Graduate Diploma	Masters Degree	Doctoral Degree	Other Please specify
First year of operation 19__					
1999					

4.3 Number of (total) enrolments:

Enrolments Total	Graduate Certificate	Graduate Diploma	Masters Degree	Doctoral Degree	Other Please specify
First year of operation 19__					
1999					

4.4 Please indicate the number of full-time (FT) and part-time (PT) enrolments (Please estimate percentages if exact numbers are not available).

Enrolments Mode (FT/PT)	Graduate Certificate	Graduate Diploma	Masters Degree	Doctoral Degree	Other Please specify
First year of operation 19__	FT PT	FT PT	FT PT	FT PT	
1999	FT PT	FT PT	FT PT	FT PT	

Section 5: Student Achievement

For each question in section 5 please give the figures for the first graduation year of the course, and the figures for 1998.

5.1 Numbers graduating with Post-graduate awards (Please estimate percentages if exact numbers are not available).

Course ending in	Graduate Certificate	Graduate Diploma	Masters Degree	Doctoral Degree	Other, Please specify
19__					
1998					

5.2 Student Employment (Please estimate percentages if exact numbers are not available)

Course ending in	Tourism	Hospitality	Other service sector	Non Service Sector	Not Known
19__					
1998					

Section 6: Opinions

The following statements seek your opinion on the role of a national professional body (PB) and advisory board (AB) in terms of standing and recognition of tourism and hospitality courses in Australia.

Please circle the most appropriate number which best reflects your opinion on the following issues.

Would recognition and support from a national professional body (PB) and the involvement of an advisory board (AB) help:

- 6.1 Determine if a tourism and hospitality program is meeting its mission and objectives.
- | | | | | | | | |
|-----------|----------------|---|---|---|---|---|-------------------|
| PB | Strongly agree | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | Strongly disagree |
| AB | Strongly agree | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | Strongly disagree |
- 6.2 Determine if the parent university's mission and objectives are consistent with the tourism and hospitality program's mission and objectives.
- | | | | | | | | |
|-----------|----------------|---|---|---|---|---|-------------------|
| PB | Strongly agree | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | Strongly disagree |
| AB | Strongly agree | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | Strongly disagree |
- 6.3 Establish a minimum level of quality for tourism and hospitality programs.
- | | | | | | | | |
|-----------|----------------|---|---|---|---|---|-------------------|
| PB | Strongly agree | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | Strongly disagree |
| AB | Strongly agree | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | Strongly disagree |
- 6.4 Determine ways of improving tourism and hospitality programs.
- | | | | | | | | |
|-----------|----------------|---|---|---|---|---|-------------------|
| PB | Strongly agree | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | Strongly disagree |
| AB | Strongly agree | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | Strongly disagree |
- 6.5 Raise the professional standard of tourism and hospitality management education.
- | | | | | | | | |
|-----------|----------------|---|---|---|---|---|-------------------|
| PB | Strongly agree | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | Strongly disagree |
| AB | Strongly agree | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | Strongly disagree |
- 6.6 Determine that tourism and hospitality curricula are in line with industry needs and requirements.
- | | | | | | | | |
|-----------|----------------|---|---|---|---|---|-------------------|
| PB | Strongly agree | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | Strongly disagree |
| AB | Strongly agree | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | Strongly disagree |

6.7 Increase accountability of tourism and hospitality programs to the industry.

PB Strongly agree 5 4 3 2 1 Strongly disagree

AB Strongly agree 5 4 3 2 1 Strongly disagree

6.8 Increase support and recognition from industry for tourism and hospitality programs.

PB Strongly agree 5 4 3 2 1 Strongly disagree

AB Strongly agree 5 4 3 2 1 Strongly disagree

6.9 Establish a common curriculum in tourism and hospitality.

PB Strongly agree 5 4 3 2 1 Strongly disagree

AB Strongly agree 5 4 3 2 1 Strongly disagree

Section 7a: General Views

The following questions seek your perceptions of existing programs as well as your perceptions of future developments in the area.

Please circle the most appropriate number which best reflects your opinion on the following issues.

1. Your perception of existing programs (EP) in tourism and hospitality offered at your institution is that they are:

2. Your perception of future programs (FP) in tourism and hospitality to be offered at your institution is that they should be:

7.1 Both flexible and adaptable.

EP	Strongly agree	5	4	3	2	1	Strongly disagree
-----------	----------------	---	---	---	---	---	-------------------

FP	Strongly agree	5	4	3	2	1	Strongly disagree
-----------	----------------	---	---	---	---	---	-------------------

7.2 Meeting industry needs and requirements.

EP	Strongly agree	5	4	3	2	1	Strongly disagree
-----------	----------------	---	---	---	---	---	-------------------

FP	Strongly agree	5	4	3	2	1	Strongly disagree
-----------	----------------	---	---	---	---	---	-------------------

7.3 Meeting graduate academic requirements and expectations.

EP	Strongly agree	5	4	3	2	1	Strongly disagree
-----------	----------------	---	---	---	---	---	-------------------

FP	Strongly agree	5	4	3	2	1	Strongly disagree
-----------	----------------	---	---	---	---	---	-------------------

7.4 Meeting the needs of an increasingly diverse range of students.

EP	Strongly agree	5	4	3	2	1	Strongly disagree
-----------	----------------	---	---	---	---	---	-------------------

FP	Strongly agree	5	4	3	2	1	Strongly disagree
-----------	----------------	---	---	---	---	---	-------------------

7.5 Meeting the needs and requirements of the educational institution.

EP	Strongly agree	5	4	3	2	1	Strongly disagree
-----------	----------------	---	---	---	---	---	-------------------

FP	Strongly agree	5	4	3	2	1	Strongly disagree
-----------	----------------	---	---	---	---	---	-------------------

7.6 Preparing individuals to become the future managers of the tourism and hospitality industry.

EP	Strongly agree	5	4	3	2	1	Strongly disagree
-----------	----------------	---	---	---	---	---	-------------------

FP	Strongly agree	5	4	3	2	1	Strongly disagree
-----------	----------------	---	---	---	---	---	-------------------

7.7	Developing in line with industry changes.						
EP	Strongly agree	5	4	3	2	1	Strongly disagree
FP	Strongly agree	5	4	3	2	1	Strongly disagree
7.8	Incorporating the essential elements of specialised management education pertinent to the industry.						
EP	Strongly agree	5	4	3	2	1	Strongly disagree
FP	Strongly agree	5	4	3	2	1	Strongly disagree
7.9	Helping to address the problems of industry 'burnout' and 'dropout'.						
EP	Strongly agree	5	4	3	2	1	Strongly disagree
FP	Strongly agree	5	4	3	2	1	Strongly disagree
7.10	Helping individuals perform better in the industry.						
EP	Strongly agree	5	4	3	2	1	Strongly disagree
FP	Strongly agree	5	4	3	2	1	Strongly disagree
7.11	Strengthening the industry overall.						
EP	Strongly agree	5	4	3	2	1	Strongly disagree
FP	Strongly agree	5	4	3	2	1	Strongly disagree
7.12	Benefiting the tourism and hospitality community.						
EP	Strongly agree	5	4	3	2	1	Strongly disagree
FP	Strongly agree	5	4	3	2	1	Strongly disagree
7.13	Organised so as to deliver a 'cost-effective' specialist management education.						
EP	Strongly agree	5	4	3	2	1	Strongly disagree
FP	Strongly agree	5	4	3	2	1	Strongly disagree
7.14	Focusing on the areas of leadership, communication, teamwork, problem solving, and ethics.						
EP	Strongly agree	5	4	3	2	1	Strongly disagree
FP	Strongly agree	5	4	3	2	1	Strongly disagree
7.15	Focusing on the areas of finance, accounting, human resource management, marketing, and strategy.						
EP	Strongly agree	5	4	3	2	1	Strongly disagree
FP	Strongly agree	5	4	3	2	1	Strongly disagree

7.16 Easily accessible to individuals without prior qualifications in the field.

EP Strongly agree 5 4 3 2 1 Strongly disagree

FP Strongly agree 5 4 3 2 1 Strongly disagree

7.17 Available and offered in a modular format and in a flexible time frame.

EP Strongly agree 5 4 3 2 1 Strongly disagree

FP Strongly agree 5 4 3 2 1 Strongly disagree

7.18 Organised to extend participants' knowledge and skills beyond what they have already achieved in previous studies.

EP Strongly agree 5 4 3 2 1 Strongly disagree

FP Strongly agree 5 4 3 2 1 Strongly disagree

7.19 Structured to include professional modules, general management modules, and specialised management modules.

EP Strongly agree 5 4 3 2 1 Strongly disagree

FP Strongly agree 5 4 3 2 1 Strongly disagree

7.20 Encapsulating key knowledge areas identified in the literature and by industry as essential to future management development.

EP Strongly agree 5 4 3 2 1 Strongly disagree

FP Strongly agree 5 4 3 2 1 Strongly disagree

Section 7b: Academic Staff Qualifications

This section surveys your opinion on academic staff qualifications required to teach tourism and hospitality programs.

1. In your opinion, it should be essential for academic staff currently teaching on tourism and hospitality programs to:

2. In your opinion, it should be essential for academic staff in the future to teach on tourism and hospitality programs to:

7.21 Hold a doctoral qualification.

Current	Strongly agree	5	4	3	2	1	Strongly disagree
----------------	----------------	---	---	---	---	---	-------------------

Future	Strongly agree	5	4	3	2	1	Strongly disagree
---------------	----------------	---	---	---	---	---	-------------------

7.22 Publish regularly in refereed academic tourism and hospitality journals.

Current	Strongly agree	5	4	3	2	1	Strongly disagree
----------------	----------------	---	---	---	---	---	-------------------

Future	Strongly agree	5	4	3	2	1	Strongly disagree
---------------	----------------	---	---	---	---	---	-------------------

7.23 Communicate regularly and keep in close touch with industry.

Current	Strongly agree	5	4	3	2	1	Strongly disagree
----------------	----------------	---	---	---	---	---	-------------------

Future	Strongly agree	5	4	3	2	1	Strongly disagree
---------------	----------------	---	---	---	---	---	-------------------

7.24 Develop relevant courses using state-of-the-art and emerging technologies.

Current	Strongly agree	5	4	3	2	1	Strongly disagree
----------------	----------------	---	---	---	---	---	-------------------

Future	Strongly agree	5	4	3	2	1	Strongly disagree
---------------	----------------	---	---	---	---	---	-------------------

7.25 Tailor graduate programs to meet the needs and requirements of industry.

Current	Strongly agree	5	4	3	2	1	Strongly disagree
----------------	----------------	---	---	---	---	---	-------------------

Future	Strongly agree	5	4	3	2	1	Strongly disagree
---------------	----------------	---	---	---	---	---	-------------------

7.26 Have strong industry management experience as well as good academic credentials (Masters degree).

Current	Strongly agree	5	4	3	2	1	Strongly disagree
----------------	----------------	---	---	---	---	---	-------------------

Future	Strongly agree	5	4	3	2	1	Strongly disagree
---------------	----------------	---	---	---	---	---	-------------------

Monday 19 April 1999

Dear Tourism and Hospitality Graduate Program Coordinator,

I am seeking your voluntary participation in a study focusing on tourism and hospitality graduate programs in universities in Australia. Your participation will ensure that a complete picture of the current state of the field of tourism and hospitality graduate management education will be formed.

The purpose of the study is to investigate specific aspects of tourism and hospitality graduate programs in Australia. It is also to solicit the opinions and views of program coordinators on such issues as those related to the roles, responsibilities, and functions of professional associations and advisory boards with respect to graduate management education in tourism and hospitality. This study aims to provide information useful to course coordinators, faculty, professional organisations, and industry.

The questionnaire is being mailed to every tourism and hospitality program coordinator in universities around Australia.

Could you please complete the enclosed questionnaire which should take about 1 hour of your time. For the sole purpose of follow-up mailings, the questionnaire is identified by code number. However, confidentiality of responses is ensured. For your convenience I attach self-addressed, postage-paid envelope for the return of the questionnaire. If you wish to receive a copy of the results of this study, please mark where indicated on the final page of the questionnaire.

Please do not hesitate to write or call me if you have questions about this study. My contact details are:

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Thank you in advance for your cooperation.

Yours sincerely,

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Changes to Questionnaire after Trial Run

- The explanatory notes attached to section 2 which, in the original questionnaire, came at the end of the section were shifted to the top of section 2.
- A percentage estimation was thought to be more likely to encourage responses in Section 2 as opposed to the original ordinal scale used. Although the researcher accepted that a percentage grouping would be less accurate than an ordinal grouping, it was considered sufficiently accurate given that the data would be grouped for the purpose of analysis.
- The format of sections 3, 4 & 5 were changed to a table style so as to facilitate ease and speed of completion. The original style used a multiple page system which required respondents to fill-in a different section for each graduate program on offer. It was felt that this was both cumbersome and time consuming. The table format provided greater clarity as well as a quick overview of the information required from participants. It was also felt that the analysis of the data provided would be simplified by adopting such a format.
- The Likert scales used in sections 6 & 7 were changed from a seven-point to a five-point format. It was the opinion of the respondents in the pilot group that the more complex seven-point scale did not offer any significant advantage in response interpretation.
- Wording of a number of questions were clarified, additional explanatory instructions were provided to respondents, and the wording of the accompanying letter was slightly altered.

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