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STAKEHOLDERS' EXPECTATIONS OF HOTEL MANAGEMENT EDUCATION — A Malaysian Perspective

Rahmat Hashim

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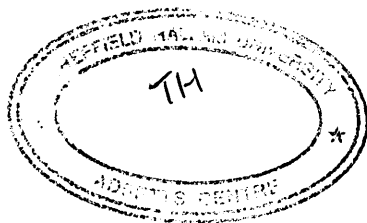
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STAKEHOLDERS' EXPECTATIONS OF HOTEL MANAGEMENT EDUCATION — A Malaysian Perspective

ABSTRACT

Development of the tourism industry in Malaysia is a recent phenomenon. Today, the industry is one of the major revenues of the Malaysian economy. As elsewhere, the Malaysian tourism industry is labour intensive; much of its future success depends significantly on the quality of its labour. While industrial growth generally is making great impact on the Malaysian economy, there has been considerable debate about the contribution of Malaysian higher education, including hotel management education. Critics have commented that graduates lack certain basic competences and that higher education providers have not kept up with the times. Educational institutions have been criticised for not developing appropriate competences required by industry, especially for the entry-level management position.

At the same time, the current state-of-the-art in the hotel business is becoming more sophisticated and complex in today's robust business environment. This poses additional challenges for hospitality management educators in developing nations. It is widely acknowledge that today's entry-level managers need a diversity of competences in order to meet the demands of the industry. In this respect, an effective hotel management education programme must be able to respond to the demands of the competitive business environment. At the same time, the rapid development of new hotel or hospitality management programmes, not to mention the enrolment figures of existing hotel schools, has led to an increased concern about programme credibility and effectiveness. Educational institutions must respond to the requirements and needs by developing relevant knowledge and competences. This research project proposes that actual needs (based on the Malaysian context) should be investigated and referred to in curriculum planning. These needs should be drawn from relevant key stakeholders based in industry and wider areas of society.

The study does not attempt to empirically investigate the pedagogical issues related to curriculum planning or provide a total definition of a curriculum. Nevertheless, the findings of this study do provide a concrete foundation and aspiration for educators to consider when designing hotel management curriculum. However, the issues of learning, teaching and assessment have been incorporated in developing a conceptual curriculum planning model in order to provide a comprehensive view of the planning process.

To collect the data, the research project utilised a combined-method approach: mailed questionnaire and semi-structured interview. Factor Analysis was conducted on the data. The analysis reveals that the one hundred and four (104) competence statements were represented by twenty-five (25) factors (loading factor of greater than .40). These factors captured 73.2 per cent of the total variance. Of the twenty-five (25) factors,

thirteen (13) factors had a single loading, presumably error factors. However, they were included in the discussion since they provided useful dimensions of this study. These competence statements were further treated by one-way ANOVA to determine the differences among stakeholders. Overall, most of the differences were detected between students and educators and students and industry professionals. Differences between educators and students and educators and industry professionals were also detected, but to a lesser extend. Overall, the results have indicated that even though there are differences in the stakeholders' expectations, there is consensus regarding the central themes of hotel management education. Stakeholders considered personal (self) development and communication as crucial ('soft' domain). At the same time, the results revealed that technical (operation), and functional competences are equally crucial in developing future managers.

The outcomes of this study lead to the development a conceptual curriculum planning model for hotel management curriculum relevant to the needs of Malaysia (or elsewhere), as well as in other vocational areas. The model can be applied in the ongoing evaluation of hotel management education programme.

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CHAPTER 1

1.1 INTRODUCTION

For many nations, tourism has proven to be an impetus for economic development, particularly for developing nations where tourism has helped broaden the economic base. In certain cases tourism growth has been seen as necessary for economic salvation (Gunn, 1993, Chik, 1997) and also for countries' prestige and international legitimacy (Seekings, 1993). The exceptional growth in Malaysian tourism industry has become the key sub-sector in generating revenues and career opportunities. Given this scenario, tourism's unprecedented growth has generated exceptional demand for hospitality services (New Straits Times, 1996a).

However, success or failure of tourism industry relies heavily on how the host nations control and manage the industry, implementation of alternative strategies and manage its resources, including human (Chik, 1997, Go, 1995, Savignac, 1996, Schlachter, 1998, Vellas and Becheral, 1995). At the core, the survival, competitiveness and prosperity of the industry depends largely on the workforce.

As the industry expands, so too does the demand for trained and competent workforce. Organisations have now turned their attention to the development of managerial competence as a mechanism to stay competitive in this new

era of globalized business (Prahalad and Hamel, 1990, Goh, 1995, Robert and Shea, 1996). Intensified global competition has also increased the pressure on business to respond quicker and develop new and innovative approaches to compete in the business. Subsequently, the competitive hotel business environment suggests that managerial demands in the future will be different from the past.

At this point, what is certain and already evident in many industries and sectors of the developing countries is that foreign companies are encroaching on this development, and local businesses are faced with a situation in which they must now pursue new strategies in order to survive (Rhinesmith, 1991, Sruvinas, 1995). Whether they like it or not, developing nations businesses are becoming increasingly linked to the new globalized business environment, including the hospitality industry.

The central issue now is the availability of competence workforce to manage this competitive business environment. Fierce competition in the industry is influencing the nature and scope of managerial work at all levels. Subsequently, today's higher educational institutions experience more impacts than ever before in this rapidly changing business environment. This in turn, has serious implications for the way in which curriculum model is conceptualised and managed.

Education holds the key to the nation and industry's growth. This will depend largely on Malaysia's ability to provide a more comprehensive and effective human resource development programmes, including higher education programmes, that are designed to face this challenging task. Hotel management education providers have to make a quantum leap to increase managerial competence formation in the country and make education and training more responsive to the economy and the industry needs.

The industry believes that an educational institution should incorporate relevant competences and developments in the industry if graduates are to perform effectively in the world of work. It is believed that the prosperity and future of the industry will be thwarted due to an incapable workforce who are not able to handle the uncertainties and turbulent of the business environment. An effective hotel management education programme must be planned to enable it to respond to the demands of this constantly changing and full of uncertainties business environment. It is crucial for hotel management graduates to possess relevant managerial competences upon their graduation from degree granting hotel management programmes. Blum (1996) stresses that

> *Many hospitality managers who will be responsible for meeting the challenges of tomorrow are the hospitality management students of today. How well they are prepared to meet these challenges depends on the quality of the current curriculum and educators.*

While the industry's growth generally is making great impact on the Malaysian economy, there has been considerable debate about the contribution of Malaysian higher education, including hotel management education (Cooke, 1995, External Academic Advisory Board, 1995, New Straits Times, 1996a, Razak, 1997, Yong, 1996, Zulaiha, 1994). Educational institutions have been blamed for not keeping up with the times and developing the competences required by the industry (Razak, 1997). Apart from this, the traditional academic dominated system has been accused to produce a significant increase in the number of graduates who attain qualifications while not actually being competent.

The industry has criticised hospitality schools for not responding to the challenges posed by the unprecedented progress of the industry. (External Academic Advisory Board, 1995). Collectively, the Board agrees that hotel management programmes in Malaysia have become too much of an acquisition of theoretical knowledge rather than an orientation towards the wider and real world. However, it was not mentioned as to what are the specific requirements of the industry and what is expected of hotel management graduates.

It is clear that the responsibility for the industry development lies not only with the sub-sectors of the industry but also with the hotel education system of each country. Pavesic (1993) posits that

Hospitality management paradigm concerning content and delivery of hospitality education needs to change for programme to survive

However, most studies on the specification of managerial competence or factors associated with the effectiveness of hotel management programmes were conducted in the developed nations. Their findings were limited within their own cultural and economic domain.

Western management practices might not fit very well or 'incongruent' (Abdullah, 1996) with the local economic and cultural context. However, this does not mean to imply that there are no common elements, which can be absorbed and learned from other cultures. In the same vein, Drucker (1992) posited that there are important similarities, regardless of the different cultural setting, in what managers do. The task here is to ensure that any management theories and practices from abroad are being translated and contextually interpreted into local terms. As such, educational institutions are responsible to include in the curricula of hotel management education programmes a critical examination of the concepts and techniques based on the underlying values of how things are done in Malaysia.

Europe and the U.S.A. have dominated the development of hospitality or hotel management education because these regions have been the driving force in terms of international travel and tourism. However, over the last decade, the main characteristic of development in global tourism has been the emergence of new destination and tourism originating countries,

particularly in the Asia Pacific region. As such, this development has created new opportunities and demand for hospitality management education in support of fast evolving tourism destinations such as Malaysia.

This research project proposes that actual needs and expectations (based on Malaysian context) should be investigated and referred to in the curriculum planning effort. The conceptualisation of expectation is described in term of *deserved or desired level* (Miller, 1977) or *predictive expectations* (Prakash and Lounsbury, 1984). According to Miller (1977), this level is referred to as the *must be, should be or ought to be.*

According to Oliver (1996, p, 91) expectations are crucial in determining *'a standard for later judgements of product* (graduate) *performance'*. There is the possibility that different individuals or groups may place different emphasis (expectations) on the various competence statements. This is due to the fact that there are several sources (external or internal) that influence groups' or individuals' expectations formation (Oliver, 1996, pp. 80-83). As Bocock and Watson (1994, p. 4) put it

> *The vision of the future was one in which the organization of the curriculum would become more complex and problematic...; that more external bodies would impose their interests; that stakeholders other than academic staff would influence its definition....*

However, the differences between groups' (stakeholders) expectations or perceptions can provide valuable information for future planning. As such, the

stakeholder concept could provide the most appropriate organising principle in identifying those expectations. Lacking such understanding would cause a mismatch between what is expected and what is being learned. By ascertaining what the stakeholders expect, it will enable hotel schools to develop a curriculum and their competences in a dynamic environment.

Institutes of higher education should be more than places for academic development, and that institutes of higher education should develop not only academic competences but also occupational and personal competences. As such, it is imperative for institutes of higher education to ascertain the expected personal and occupational competences. This study is, therefore, concerned with the development of the appropriate framework or specification of managerial competence (personal and occupational) and its implications for curriculum planning. These competences can be identified from relevant stakeholders based in industry and wider areas of society. It is argued that education is a process and as such, educational research carried out with reference to one single stakeholder group can be regarded as partial and bias (Hakim, 1987, Middlehurst and Barnett, 1994, Razak, 1997).

Quantitative and qualitative approaches are used in collecting the data. Because a relevant instrument to identify the competence construct is required, several stages (surveys) were necessary to develop and validate it. This strategy focuses on those managerial competences that provide a competitive advantage and relevant (in the local context) for the industry.

Managerial competence may be conceptualised as either a part of the person performing the job, as represented by personal qualities or attributes (*inputs*), or as part of the job being performed, as depicted by occupational skills (*outputs*) or a combination of both (Jirasinghe and Lyons, 1996).

To identify and verify the managerial competences, three major surveys were planned. First, the initial list was adapted from various sources. The list was pretested and piloted with respect to content and relevancy. This was followed by the identification of a panel of experts. Next, questionnaires were mailed to the experts and interview sessions were conducted. Then the sample was determined and questionnaires were mailed. Factor analysis was used to reduce the number of competence statements into common dimensions. Finally, the experts were interviewed again for verification.

The present study sought to provide data to assist and provide directional guidance to hotel management schools in developing or improving hotel management programme at the bachelor degree-granting level in Malaysia.

1.2   The Research Problem in Context

Malaysia, like other developing nations, believes that tourism is one of the economic sectors that will act as the catalyst for long term growth. The Malaysian tourism industry emerged from the periphery of Malaysian economic policy to the mainstream during the 1980's. In 1999, the total receipts from tourist activities had generated RM 12 billion, ranking tourism as

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the third major revenue for the country after manufacturing and palm oil (Malaysian Tourism, 2000). At the same time, up to the economic turbulence, Malaysia has continued to receive a high level of investment from foreign investors. According to Malaysian Industrial Development Authority (MIDA) (Malaysian Tourism, 1998) a total of RM 8,599.3 million was invested in hotel and tourism related projects in 1997. This development has registered a 61.2% increase as compared to 1996.

Malaysia has not been immune from the current economic turmoil in the region. Amid the spectacular growth, the recent economic turbulence illustrates that tourism is a vulnerable industry. The industry's development is sensitive to changes in political and economic stability, safety and health issues. Changes in any of the above components have serious short-term and long-term impact towards the success story of the industry. For example, visitor volume increased to 1.6 million in 1980 and doubled in 1986, but the number of tourist arrivals in 1991 and 1992 dropped markedly.

Globally, the Gulf War has attributed to the detrimental effect on world travel (Malaysian Tourism, 1993). The same trend continues in 1997 and 1998 tourist arrivals to Malaysia experienced a negative trend which could be attributed to several factors, namely the outburst of virus Coxsackie B in Sabah and Sarawak, the haze problem and economic meltdown in major generating market such as Thailand and Indonesia (Malaysian Tourism, 1999). No doubt that the number of tourist arrivals originating from the region

has decreased but there are opportunities for Malaysia to lure more tourists from other regions, particularly Europe, to visit the country due to much cheaper travel cost. In the first half of 1999, tourism industry in Malaysia was showing early signs of recovery by recording a 113 per cent (3.2 million) increase in tourist arrivals over the same period in 1998 (Suffian, 1999, Malaysian Economic Report, 1999/2000). See Table 1.1 for tourist arrivals and receipts from 1981 to 1999.

Table 1.1: Tourist arrivals and receipts 1981-1999

Year	Tourist Arrivals	(%) Growth	Total Revenue (RM million)	(%) Growth
1981	2,533,104	-	1,001	-
1982	2,774,698	+ 9.5	1,132	+13.1
1983	2,926,550	+ 5.5	1,329	+17.5
1984	2,947,314	+ 0.7	1,426	+ 7.3
1985	3,109,106	+ 3.5	1,669	+ 8.2
1986	3,217,462	+ 3.5	1,669	+ 8.2
1987	3,358,983	+ 4.4	1,795	+ 7.5
1988	3,623,636	+ 7.9	2,012	+12.1
1989	4,846,320	+33.7	2,803	+39.3
1990	7,445,908	+53.6	4,500	+60.5
1991	5,847,213	- 21.5	4,283	- 4.8
1992	6,016,209	+ 2.9	4,595	+ 7.3
1993	6,503,860	+ 8.1	5,066	+10.2
1994	7,179,229	+10.7	8,298	+63.8
1995	7,468,749	+ 3.8	9,175	+10.6
1996	7,138,452	- 4.4	10,354	+12.6
1997	6,210,921	- 13	9,700	- 6.3
1998	5,500,000	- 10	8,600	- 11.5
1999	7,931,149	+42.9	12,321	+43.6

Source: Malaysian Tourism, MTPB, 1999, 2000 & Malaysian Economic Report 1999/2000.

Signs of recovery in the economy have also become more apparent. The recovery would definitely lead to enter a sharp growth phase in the year 2000 and beyond (Kaur, 1999). The prospects for the tourism growth in the country would remain reasonably favourable in the coming years and that the Asia/Pacific region, especially in the Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN) will continue to attract foreign tourists as well as foreign investors.

The tourism industry has tremendous implications on the balance of payments to most developing nations and the development is at a much faster rate in the developing nations than the developed nations (Chik, 1997, Schlachter, 1998). Despite the recent mishap, the World Tourism Organisation (WTO) is confident that the Asian region will retain its position as the world's fastest growth in tourism by 2010 (Schlachter, 1998) where China will become the world's favourite destination by 2020.

According to the WTO (1998) there will be an increase demand for inbound travel into Eastern Asia Pacific region (which include Southeast Asia), for long-haul markets, notably from Europe and the U.S.A. in the next few years. Nevertheless, tourism industry will register a modest growth world-wide and confidently forecast despite the negative impacts caused by the financial crisis (Malaysian Tourism, 1999). At the same time, the currency crisis had prompted the government to restrict overseas education. Thus, higher education institutions in Malaysia have to respond and play a bigger role as an agent of economic growth (Razak, 1997). The Government believes that

the currency crisis would boost the education sector as a source of growth and foreign exchange earner and to promote Malaysia as a regional centre for education excellence (Star, 1998a). However, according to the Minister of Education, Datuk Seri Najib Razak (1997), in order to establish such a centre, it would eventually mean institutions of higher learning must provide quality education and their graduates should be competent enough to perform effectively in the world of work.

Notwithstanding this development, hotel management schools offering undergraduate degrees in Malaysia have not yet concentrated their efforts towards ascertaining the extent to which the "competences" they teach to their management students correlate with the "competences" expected by the industry. If the importance of this issue is not recognised then the educational programme will lack purpose and effectiveness.

Generally speaking, the pressure for such educational provision has led to the utilisation of hotel management education models which are drawn from Europe or the U.S.A., without giving further considerations of their appropriateness to the environment into which they have been imported (Go, 1995, Lan Li & Kivela, 1998). To a certain extent, this has involved the wholesale importation of curriculum, learning and teaching methods from abroad without any critical appraisal or a simplistic approach in curriculum development (Cheng, 1986, Baum, 1995).

1.3   Statement of Research Problem

Hospitality or hotel management education is now playing an important role in providing support for the unprecedented development of the industry. As the industry grows, so does the number and size of the hotel management programmes which supply the industry with their outputs (graduates). Not only are the existing programmes growing but numerous new programmes can be observed emerging as a result of the rapidly expanding industry needs (Faculty of Hotel and Tourism Management, 1998, Othman and Ishak, 1999). This is in line with the Government's democratisation of higher education. By 2020 the Government is expected to see 40 per cent of school leavers to join higher education compared to 13 per cent at present (Razak, 1997). In an effort to expand its role in society, Institut Teknologi MARA (ITM) introduced its Bachelor's degree in hotel management in June 1995. This latest development is an indication of its commitment towards the industry and the nation.

Technically speaking, ITM is the only public degree-granting institute of higher education in Malaysia to offer a programme at this level and is therefore pioneering in Malaysia hospitality education. There are few private colleges offering hotel management education at bachelor's level. These private colleges do not have the power to confer degree-level programmes. In order to conduct degree-level programmes, they are run in conjunction with foreign colleges or universities (for example, PERNAS Hotel School is collaborating with Vatel Institute, France, Taylor's College of Hotel and Restaurant

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Management with the *Academie de Grenoble*, France and so forth).

Currently, none of these programmes have been accredited by the

Government and students enrolment is very poor (Saidin, 1997).

The rapid development of new hotel or hospitality management programmes

has led to an increased concern about programme credibility and

effectiveness (Zulaiha, 1994, External Advisory Panel, 1995, Hamzah,

1997). Zulaiha (1994, p.4) identified that

> *there is growing discontent (and to a certain degree impatience) with*
>
> *the quality of our graduates — their competences.*

Cooke (1995) also stressed on this situation. She reported that the

educational system in Malaysia has failed to keep pace with the country's

growth. Apparently, there is a growing concern both about the content of

hotel management programmes and the performance of their graduates. In

ITM's case, the urge to examine the effectiveness of the curriculum is not an

urgent agenda. Yet, how can an effective hotel management programme of

study be developed without ascertaining what common denominator exists

among key stakeholders regarding the managerial competences they

perceive as important for entry-level hotel managers? Generally speaking,

hotel or hospitality management programmes in Malaysia offer no consensus

for either potential students (what to expect from their educational experience)

or potential employers (what to expect from graduates). There exists no

concerted effort in the areas of determining the needs of industry on a

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consistent basis. Despite the criticism, there has also been no initiative taken by any higher educational institutions or establishments to identify the managerial competences and expectations of the Malaysian hotel industry that could be used as a guideline for developing an effective hotel management education at the bachelor's level.

In any educational inquiry efforts, what is taught and how it is learned must be the most important agenda (Boyatzis *et al*, 1995) if not the relevancy of the programme is questionable. The issue of relevancy has become major issue for the hotel management professionals. A curriculum, which is relevant and grounded in competence, could be considered as having the characteristic of Habermas's (1978, p. 308) theory of 'Cognitive Interest'. According to Grundy and Henry (1995), the term 'Cognitive Interest' refers to:

> *an expression of the fundamental need of human being to reproduce both itself and those aspects of human society which are deemed to be of most worth.*

They added that a curriculum, informed by the 'Cognitive Interest' has a definite way of determining what should be taught and learned, and relevant assessment strategies. This approach requires a new planning mindset. This notion can also be understood by the term coined by Hickman and Silva's (1987) 'complex management'. Hickman and Silva (1987) believe that in today's complex business environment, management needs to include all

the variables that are affecting organisational success. The notion of 'complex management' refers to an attitude about managing a situation or an organisation. This 'complex management', which can be divided into three management precepts, includes 'perspective management', 'power management' and ' pivot management'. According to Hickman and Silva (1987), 'Perspective management' uses the unifying principles of understanding the disparate viewpoints to forge a common understanding of the organisation's purpose without ignoring the diversity of expectations of the stakeholders. The 'power management' takes into the consideration of the stakeholders' viewpoints before any action or decision is taken.

On the other hand, the 'pivot management' involves developing a network of relationships to accomplish the desired goals. As such, the complex business environment requires educational institutions to have a new way of thinking about managing key stakeholders and the curriculum. Meeting both increasing demand and the challenge posed by the industry criticism are critical issues for hospitality management education in Malaysia. These issues should take precedence over others in the management of hotel schools' agenda.

1.4   Aims and Objectives

As mentioned earlier, currently there are no specific model or guideline for public or private colleges and universities that wish to develop and offer a bachelor's degree in hotel management. Historically speaking, the

development of hotel management education in Malaysia replicates aspects of that in the West (i.e. the U.S.A., U.K. and Switzerland), in Howe, Gaeddert and Howe's (1993) words this is referred to as 'stealing shamelessly'. The issues of appropriateness and relevance of many western educational models, management concepts and methods were never addressed. Interested parties, including the Government and industry have questioned its relevancy in its national or local context. Hotel management education in Malaysia needs to take a new direction and dimension if it is to fulfil the local demands and maintain its relevancy (Baum, 1995; Abdullah, 1996). As such, managerial competences are put forward in this study as an approach to conceptualise the underpinning rationale behind the issue of relevancy.

All competence models are about performance (Mansfield, 1989). In this context, managerial competence is viewed as the description of job performance which includes both the technical or occupational aspects and the individual (or behavioural) aspects in carrying out the duty. Two major approaches to managerial competences are considered in the identification process since both models are relevant in educational setting. It is hoped that this approach will provide a broader aspects of the work role and enhance the learning process.

Aims

The primary aim of this study is:

to investigate the key stakeholders expectations of the bachelor's degree

level of hotel management education in Malaysia.

Objectives

The objectives of this study are:

1.   To identify the key stakeholders in Malaysian hotel management

      education;

2.   To identify the degree of importance of the various functional areas

      that are considered important in hotel management education

      (bachelor's degree- level);

3.   To identify the managerial competences expected of Malaysian hotel

      management graduates and evaluate their importance; and

4.   To develop a conceptual curriculum planning model of hotel management

      education which takes account of the key stakeholders' expectations (in

      light of objectives 2 and 3) and the Malaysian context.

1.5   The Importance of the Study

The current state-of-the-art in the hotel business is becoming more

sophisticated and complex in today's robust business environment (Oh and

Parks, 1999). To date most studies carried out to identify the relevancy of hospitality education curriculum have been initiated in the developed nations, particularly in the UK and USA (Tas, 1988, Baum, 1992, Harris *et al*, 1997, HCIMA, 1998, HEFCE, 1998). Very little effort has been given to studying the relevancy of hospitality management education curriculum in developing countries, particularly in the Southeast Asia region. Hospitality education in developing nations should take into consideration of the their different economies and local business structure. Replicating or adopting hospitality management education from abroad without giving further considerations will lead to ineffectiveness (Baum, 1992, Howell and Uysal, 1987).

The outcomes of this study will include a conceptual model of curriculum development relevant to the needs of Malaysia that can also be applied in other vocational areas. The model can also be applied in the ongoing evaluation of hotel management education programmes as well as the planning of new ones. Under any circumstances, higher vocational education must be seen to be the responsibilities of all parties concerned, that is, the key stakeholders. On the outset, there has to be a close liaison among these key stakeholders. In the same respect, the importation of Western hotel management education model should be re-evaluated for its relevancy within one's cultural context.

The findings of this study would enable educators to have a better idea as to what are the requirements to teach future hotel managers. The results of this

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inquiry can also be used as a basis for developing relevant hotel management curricula to prepare graduates to meet the future needs of the industry and other interest groups. In order to be able to handle uncertainties and future shocks, Malaysian managers and managers-to-be must have the right competences embedded in their own local context (Abdullah, 1996, Yong, 1996).

1.6   Limitations of the Study

This study deals primarily with hotel management education in Malaysia. The limitations of this study are twofold. First, the introduction of the concept of managerial competence in curriculum planning should not be viewed as a panacea. Rather, the concept should be viewed as *'a glue to integrate development strategies'* (Boam and Sparrow, 1992, p.175). This stands in contrast to existing approaches, which concentrated on the design of curriculum to meet 'assumed' needs.

This study does not claim and intend to develop a competency-based hotel management programme since the competence-based approach seems to involve much more than just mere identification of competence statements. At the same competence-based education (CBE) was claimed to denote an oversimplified view of the value of higher education. This appears to present a reductive and mechanistic view of the complex process of human learning (Bernstein, 1990).

Second, since the research project focuses on the development of a specification of managerial competences and its implication for curriculum development rather than investigating the factors contributing to curriculum effectiveness, the study makes no attempt to empirically investigate the pedagogical issues associated with curriculum planning. This is beyond the scope of this study. There are several important factors contributing (pedagogical issue) to curriculum relevancy and effectiveness. Pedagogical issues cover a wider spectrum of teaching and learning theories and it also concern with the philosophical modelling of the curriculum (Chen and Davies, 1999).

Since the specification of managerial competences identified in this study do have an impact on the development of these competences, a broad concept of competence development and associated teaching, learning and assessment systems (pedagogical issues) are discussed and incorporated in the proposed curriculum planning model (Chapter 8).

Apart from this, the study was conducted over one set of managerial competences. No single list of competences can claim to cover all the managerial competences required by a manager and, therefore, the list is not exhaustive. The survey conducted in this study is a preliminary and initial effort, not an established refined competence framework.

1.7   Structure of Thesis

The thesis is organised as follows:

Chapter One is the introductory chapter; it attempts to highlight the industry's development and its implication for hotel management education in Malaysia. It also underlines the aims and objectives of the research project, problem context and identify the scope and limitations of the study. The following two chapters hope to set the scene.

Chapter Two presents a brief introduction to Malaysia and its tourism development. This chapter attempts to unveil the importance of tourism industry to the nation's revenue and how this could help Malaysia's prosperity and development. A brief discussion of Malaysian history, socio-cultural, Malaysian economic and tourism industry development are included.

Chapter Three explores the development of hospitality management education in the U.S.A., the U.K., Germany, France, Switzerland and Malaysia. The aim of this chapter is to highlight the development and organisation of hospitality management education in the developed countries.

Chapter Four highlights the central themes of this research project. It reviews the relevant literature pertaining to the issues at stake. Chapter Four is divided into two headings. The first heading discusses the stakeholder concept as one of the approaches to manage the diverse expectations from

those who are perceived to have a legitimate interest in the programme. The concept of stakeholder is defined as any group or individual who can affect or is affected by the organisation's purpose.

Key stakeholders affect decision making within the organisation, through their influence on organisational priorities and objectives. Failure to respond to these stakeholders could signal the ineffectiveness or demise of the organisations. Education providers have come to realise that competitiveness in education relies heavily on the ability to face the changes created by the business environment.

The second heading reviews the concept of managerial competence as an alternative approach to position the programme's effectiveness in the constantly changing environment. Presently, business organisations are placing greater emphasis on determining competences of college graduates. In educational setting, both competence concepts (behavioural and occupational) have strong implications in curriculum planning and it is, therefore, included in the discussion. To understand and appreciate the initiative better, a brief history of the concept is included. The main idea of this chapter is to highlight the benefits to be derived from the competence concepts in developing an effective hotel management curriculum in Malaysia.

Chapter Five reviews some of the studies carried out by individuals and hospitality schools regarding the effectiveness of hotel management

education. Different approaches were employed to identify those factors that lead to the improvement and development of an effective hospitality management.

Chapter Six presents the research approach and methods and the surveys planned for the research project that includes the selection of the methods employed, development of the research instrument, sampling and method of data treatment (analysis).

Chapter Seven systematically presents the analysis and results of the three surveys employed in this research project (Experts survey, Stakeholder survey and Validation survey).

Chapter Eight puts together the empirical findings (stakeholders' expectations), as well as a discussion of the proposed curriculum planning model for Malaysian hotel management education. It presents the conceptual curriculum planning model of Malaysian hotel management education that takes into account the stakeholders' expectations.

Chapter Nine is the Conclusion Chapter. This is basically a summary to the research project. The chapter also includes the delimitations of the results and ends with further research opportunities.

1.8 Summary

This chapter attempts to highlight the important issues surrounding hospitality management education in Malaysia. The necessity for this research stemmed from the great increase in Malaysian tourism and the subsequent need for an effective hotel management education. Not only should education be responsive to a dynamic business world but should also facilitate in its graduates the ability to be able to learn and grow in such environment (life long learning skills). The unprecedented development and sensitivity of the industry will definitely pose a challenge for higher education institutions. Go (1990, 1995) has underlined several issues and challenges facing the hotel education programmes. He added (1990, p. 8) that

educators and human resource specialists must respond to change and become more innovative in terms of course direction, content, programming and delivery".

Competent work force is the most valuable asset for any service establishments especially in turbulent times. They are substantially responsible for providing competent workforce in order to maintain the progress of the industry's development. In the same notion, higher education institutions must progress in tandem with the industry in order for Malaysia to build a strong foundation to ensure the sustainability of its economic growth.

This has strong implications for educational institutions in their curriculum planning efforts. Notwithstanding the criticism and crisis, educational

institutions must provide the competences and volume of competent individuals required by this complex industry to handle the business uncertainties and turbulent. However, no curriculum of a college or university can claim that they have provided students with all branches of knowledge and competences to equip them to perform all functions in society (Enz *et al*, 1993).

Nevertheless, education plays an important role in providing support for the development of industry. In order to play an effective role, hospitality education needs to be more sensitive towards the changing environment of the business world. By listening to those groups who are interested in the development of the educational programme and develop an appropriate mode of action, a more relevant and effective programme can be designed to meet those needs. In order to define the focus of any learning experiences, it is imperative for educational institutions to establish what are the key stakeholders' expectations (managerial competences) of hotel management graduates. It is envisaged that there is a need to develop a conceptual curriculum planning model, which reflects the Malaysian economy and hotel industry.

To illustrate the ever increasing need for competent workforce in Malaysia the following chapter will examine the importance of tourism industry to the Malaysian economy and the associated expansion of the hotel industry.

CHAPTER 2

MALAYSIA AND TOURISM DEVELOPMENT

2.1 Introduction

Having established the research problem and its aims and objectives in the preceding chapter; this chapter aims to set the scene by providing an overview of the Malaysian tourism development. The tourism industry has contributed quite substantially to the country's Gross National Product and it is a substantial employer of labour. However, a series of mishaps such as haze, the Coxsackie virus outbreak and the financial crisis in the region, has affected the tourism industry. Despite these mishaps, the tourism industry in Malaysia is an important sector in the economy and poises to contribute much more to the Malaysian economy as well as employment opportunities (Malaysia Economic Report, 1997/1998). To set the platform, a brief description of the historical development of Malaysia is included.

2.2   A brief History of Malaysia

Malaysian history is one of continual contact with foreign ascendancy. Malaysia's strategic geographical position was the most important factor in the commercial and travellers meeting place between east and west. This has brought together people of diverse cultures and origin. The colonial era was a time of major economic transformation. During this epoch, the export of raw

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materials continued to be the mainstream of the country's economic activities. The economic success during this era resulted in an acute labour shortage for the rubber and tin industries that forced the British to import labour from India. This again altered the racial fabric of Malaysia.

Prior to 1405, the Malay Peninsula was under the rule of Cambodian-based Funan, the Sumatran-based Srivijaya and the Java-based Majapahit empires. The Chinese arrived in Melaka in 1405. The arrival of the Arab and Indian Muslim merchants and the Chinese around the fifteen-century and Melaka's close political relation with China had added to the heterogeneity of Malaysian political culture.

In 1511, the Portuguese took control of Melaka (one of the 14 states in Malaysia), followed by the Dutch in 1641. Francis Light's arrival in Pulau Pinang (Penang) in 1786 has strengthened the British position in Malaysia. The British took control of the interior of the peninsula when tin was discovered. The British reign in Sabah and Sarawak came into action when Charles Brooke overpowered a revolt against the Sultan of Brunei in 1841.

The introduction of western administration also contributed towards the introduction of the English education and legal system to the country. Through treaties, political pressures and diplomacy, the British gradually extended their command and control over all the states of the Malay Peninsula. By the 1920s, all the states in Malaysia were under the British rule.

The struggle and momentum of nationalism were first ignited in the 1930s. Malaysia is a multiethnic and multicultural nation and sometimes referred to as "Asia in miniature" (Khoo Kay Kim, 1997). Of the total 22 million Malaysians, the Malays or Bumiputras (61%) are the largest community followed by the Chinese (28%), Indian (8%) and others (3 %). Nevertheless, Malaysians believe that in order to move forward we need to combine our communal, collectivistic and spiritual based orientation to co-exist with a healthy mix of individual spirit and competition to promote social and economic progress (Abdullah, 1996).

The first federal election was held in 1955, the UMNO (United Malays National Organisation), MCA (Malaysia Chinese Association), MIC (Malaysia Indian Congress) Alliance, headed by Tunku Abdul Rahman, won an overwhelming victory and Tunku was appointed as the first Federation Chief Minister. In 1957, the Alliance had forced the British to relinquish their sovereign power in Malaysia. The Federation of Malaya (as it was called prior to 1957) gained its independence in 1957. The late Tunku Abdul Rahman, Malaysia's first Prime Minister, in a speech in Singapore mooted the idea of the formation of Malaysia (including Brunei). Consequently, Sabah, Sarawak and Singapore joined Malaya to establish Malaysia in September 1963. However, Singapore withdrew from the confederation in 1965 and became an independent state.

2.3   Malaysian Economy

In tune with other developing countries in the world, Malaysia is seeking

better economic stability and growth in various ways. In the past, Malaysia,

like any other developing nations relies heavily on primary commodities

export sector for capital (namely rubber, palm oil, tin, cocoa and timber) to

further its economic development plans. When prices of these commodities

dropped and caused a huge decline in Malaysian's foreign exchange, this

situation has forced Malaysia to diversify its economic activities.

Despite this fact, the Malaysian government believes that in order to achieve

future growth, a sectoral balance through diversification must be present.

With this diversification, the government hoped that the Malaysian economy is

able to resist the uncertainties and shock of the world economy. The

Malaysian government believes that in the economic development process,

agriculture and manufacturing sectors are still considered as the important

sectors. At the same time, it is stressed that the service sector, including

tourism, can provide the needed revenue for the economy. The Government

intends to develop the service sector as an important industry generating

growth and development in the economy. Particularly, the Government hopes

to address and reduce the deficits in the services account of the balance

payments (Second Outline Perspective Plan, 1991-2000). Today, the service

sector has contributed 46.4 per cent to the Gross Domestic Product in the

second quarter of 1999 (Malaysia Economic Report, 1999/2000).

2.3.1 The Economic Growth

Malaysia's geographical position and political stability were considered the vital ingredients contributing to the economic development (Khoo Kay Kim, 1997). Malaysia is made up of two distinct parts: Peninsular Malaysia and the east Malaysia states of Sabah and Sarawak in the North Borneo. The South China Sea separates the two regions (650 km). Since 1989, Malaysia has experienced a period of rapid economic growth. During the period of 1991-1996, Malaysian economic performance has been impressive with a high growth of 8.7 per annum (Malaysia Economic Report, 1997/1998). The economic growth during this period was accompanied by a structural transformation of the Malaysian economy that resulted in the gradual shift from one relying solely on the export of primary commodities to a more industrial and service-based economy.

The pace of Malaysia's economic development is set by the National Development Plan (NDP), which consists of several development plans. The NDP aims to achieve

> a balanced development of the economy in order to establish a more
>
> united and just nation..." (Mohamad, 1991, p.3).

One of the major issues highlighted in the plan is on the development of productive workforce. This has to be met through developing the necessary competences to meet the challenges of the economy (see Figure 2.1).

Figure 2.1:   The National Development Plan (NDP) encompasses the
               following critical aspects:

- *striking an optimum balance between the goals of economic growth and equity;*

- *ensuring a balanced development of the major sectors of the economy so as to increase their mutual complementaries to optimise growth;*

- *reducing and ultimately eliminating the social and economic inequalities and imbalances in the country to promote a fair and more equitable sharing of the benefits of economic growth by all Malaysians;*

- *promoting and strengthening national integration by reducing the wide disparities in economic development between states and between urban and rural areas;*

- *developing a progressive society in which all citizens enjoy greater material welfare, while simultaneously imbued with positive social and spiritual values, and an increased sense of national pride and consciousness;*

- ***promoting human resource development including creating a productive and disciplined labour force and developing the necessary skills to meet the challenges in industrial development through culture of merit and excellence without jeopardising the restructuring objectives;***

- *making science and technology an integral component of socio-economic planning and development, which entails building competence in strategic and knowledge-based technologies, and promoting a science and technology culture in the process of building a modern industrial economy; and*

- *ensuring that in the pursuit of economic development, adequate attention will be given to the protection of environment and ecology so as to maintain the long-term sustainability of the country's development.*

Source: Second Outline Perspective Plan, 1991-2000, pp. 15-16.

Overall, the policies and strategies of development and growth of the nation found in the National Development Plan (Second Outline Perspective Plan, 1991-2000, p.12) were planned based on the:

> *diversities of Malaysian - ethnic, linguistic, cultural and religious as well as regional- so that a harmonious, tolerant and dynamic society could progressively be created.*

As far as development is concerned, Malaysia is guided by the Vision 2020, which is a mental image of Malaysia as a developed nation that is

> *... infused by strong moral and ethical values, living in a society that is democratic, liberal and tolerant, caring, economically just and equitable, progressive and prosperous, and in full possession of an economy that is competitive, dynamic, robust and resilient.*
>
> *(Mohamad, 1991, p. 7)*

A major concern in the NDP is to promote human resource development creating a productive workforce and developing the necessary competences for the industry and economy. Policies to enhance human resource development to meet the needs of the rapidly growing service sector, including hotel sector, are given primary attention by the Government. The need for the acceleration of the development of human capital in Malaysia is essential, as the economy has shifted from agricultural to industrial and service industries, where work demands more effective management of the resources.

The Malaysian government's strategy to accelerate the development of the workforce lies in the improving of the educational system. The growth of the economy and the demand on the workforce require educational planners to examine the needs and expectations of the industry and the economy. As the educational system has changed towards the acquisition of knowledge and competences in preparation for work rather than educational idealism (Scott and Watson, 1994, Razak, 1997), the better educated workers tend to bring with them more knowledge and competences into the workplace.

In the same context, efforts have to be made to ensure that the education system keeps abreast and delivers the changing demand of the market place and society. In addition, the Government hopes to establish Malaysia as a regional centre of educational excellence. It is imperative, therefore that institutions of higher learning should be more market driven and to position themselves as the centres that are responsible for providing a positive contribution towards the realisation of such vision.

2.3.2 Service Sector

Economic diversification has been facilitated by the rapid growth of industrialisation, which was given impetus by the Industrial Master Plan (IMP) (Malaysian Economic Report, 1997/98). The aim of the IMP is to transform Malaysia from an agriculture-base, small sized economy into a full-fledged industrial country. As part of the strategy, the nation's future economic growth has to attract further private investment from foreign (Direct Foreign

Investment -DFI) and local companies. The government is confident that the NDP will provide a stimulus for the private sector's (local and foreign) participation in the Malaysian economy (Ibrahim, 1997/1998). He says (p. 3) that

> *The Government will continue to assist the private sector to play its role in spearheading the nation's economic development.... the Government will continue to work in close productive partnership with the private sector to jointly address the domestic and global challenges facing the nation.*

To further boost the economic growth, IMP recommended improvement in the service sector, including the tourism industry. In 1996 the service sector (retail, hotel and restaurant) has contributed 12.4 per cent (total service sector was 44.6 per cent) of the total GDP. As stated earlier, the tourism industry remained the key sub-sector in generating the needed revenues.

Today the tourism industry is one of the important service sectors of the Malaysian economy. The Government hopes to create the service sector, particularly the tourism sector, as competitive (in terms of opportunity and growth) as the manufacturing sector to the foreign and local investors. As far as the Government is concerned, tourism industry has been a positive contributor to the Service Account in the Balance of Payment (Malaysian Economic Report 1999/2000).

2.3.3 Growth Factor

Malaysia believes that the long-term productivity and competitiveness of its economy depends on the quality of its labour force. At the same time, the Government also realise that an integral aspect of being a productive citizen is employment. In order to stay ahead of the competition,

> *Malaysian economy must be powered by human resources with the skills to harness and manipulate the information and the latest technologies acquired and learned from any source of civilisations.*
>
> (Malaysia Economic Report, 1997/1998, p. 37)

This ambitious vision depends largely on Malaysia's ability to provide more effective educational and training programmes. Malaysian workforce must acquire the knowledge and competences of superior management technique. In this respect, Malaysia has given education and training top priority in its national development policy (Second Outline Perspective Plan 1991-2000, 1991). Malaysia believes that in order to compete with the rest of the world, Malaysia must have a cohort of competitive and competent workforce to drive the nation's competitive advantage. Realising the importance of human resource development in quest of productivity growth, the Government has invested a substantial amount of money in the education and training system. To set the pace of becoming a fully developed nation by the year 2020, The New Development Policy (NDP) has placed greater emphasis on the development of educated, well-trained and flexible manpower (Second Outline Perspective Plan 1991-2000, 1991).

2.3.4 Tourism Industry Development

Prior to 1980's, Malaysia was not among the attractive tourist destination in Southeast Asia countries, and there is a lower level of awareness of the industry. This was partly due to the lack of government interest and involvement in the industry. The visitors' arrivals in 1967 were only 25,000 (4% of the total arrivals in the Southeast Asia region). However, the situation has changed in the early 1980's. During the last decades, Malaysia has given increasing attention to developing the tourist industry as a means of promoting economic development within her economies.

Today, the tourism industry emerges from the peripherals of economic policy to the mainstream in mid 1980's. The Government realised and believed that tourism is one of the economics sectors, which has potential for growth beyond the short term. With the confidence and optimistic precept about the industry, Malaysia has considered tourism as one of the major income for the economy. In comparison to some other Southeast Asian nations, especially Thailand and Singapore, Malaysian tourism is much less developed.

Malaysian Tourist Development Corporation was established in 1972. Following the creation of the Tourism Development Corporation (TDC), the Government has been active in developing a well-planned tourism industry. The main aims of TDC include to increasing tourism revenue, to increase

employment opportunities, development of potential tourism attractions and encouragement of private sector participation in developing the industry. The importance of the industry to the Malaysian economy leads to the creation of a new Ministry of Culture, Arts and Tourism in 1987. With the globalisation of tourism, each country and region tries to establish its own identity or image in the tourist markets. The creation of a Ministry combining tourism, culture and arts has a national purpose and agenda. Its mission is to create a local awareness of cultural matters, national identity and heritage, and to enhance national pride and commitments. After the creation of the new ministry, the Tourism Development Corporation was renamed as Malaysia Tourism Promotion Board (MTPB is used hereafter). The major role of MTPB is to basically

1. stimulate and promote tourism to and within the country,

2. stimulate, promote and market Malaysia (international and domestic) as a tourist destination,

3. co-ordinate all marketing and promotional activities relating to tourism, offers recommendations to the Minister as to the adoption of appropriate methods, measures and programmes to facilitate or stimulate the development and promotion of the tourism industry in Malaysia.

The role of MTPB in promoting tourism was significant to the Malaysian tourism industry. The Malaysian Tourism Promotional Board is fully financed by the government and reports directly to the Ministry of Culture, Arts and Tourism. As part of its function, MTPB is responsible for the implementation

of tourism policy, including the development and promotion of the industry.

In this respect MTPB had organised various promotional activities, home

and abroad, which gave the extra boost for the industry. In line with the

tourism sector's future growth, the Malaysian Government realised the

importance of the convention and exhibition market segment. Although

contributing a small share of arrivals (about 3 per cent), this market seems

to be growing.

The MICE (Meetings, incentives, conventions and exhibitions) market is one

of the fastest growing sectors in the region (Hutchinson, 1997). It was

reported (Malaysian Tourism, 1996) that in 1986 there were 119 conferences

held in Malaysia with an attendance of 37,680 delegates (45 were

international conferences). In 1989 the number of conferences increased with

a total of 99,000 participants. In 1996, Putra World Trade Centre (PWTC),

one of the finest convention centres in the region, registered about 108,410

foreign delegates attending different events and contributed a total of 400,000

roomnights (Malaysian Tourism, 1998). The opening of the International

Congress and Convention Association (ICCA) Asia Pacific office in Kuala

Lumpur in 1998 has boosted the country reputation as a meeting, incentive,

convention and exhibition (MICE) destination.

2.3.5   Private Sector Involvement

The tourism industry in Malaysia will continue to play a major role in the

nation's development process. However, the Government alone cannot

provide all the mechanisms to propel Malaysia towards the next millennium. Hence, the private sector has to play a major role in the nation's development process. To complement the government efforts, private sectors are encouraged to participate in promoting the service sector and its sub-sectors as the major revenue to the economy.

The Malaysian government introduced the Promotion of Investment Act 1986 (see Figure 2.2) to encourage more private sector participation in the tourism industry. Since 1986, the tourism investors enjoyed similar incentives to those offered to the manufacturing sector. In the same Act private organisations are encouraged to play a more active role in education and training.

To increase private sector participation in education and training, large private corporations are encouraged to expand their existing training facilities. Investment Tax Allowance (ITA) of 100 per cent for a period of 10 years is given to companies intending to undertake technical or vocational training. This allowance will be abated from the statutory income.

The abatement of each assessment year is limited to 70 per cent of the statutory income. Existing companies providing technical or vocational training, which intend to upgrade their training facilities, are also eligible for this incentive. This incentive is not automatically given to those large organisations intending to establish their own institutes of higher education.

Figure 2.2: Promotion of Investment Act 1986

- **Pioneer Status**, which gives an initial five years of tax relief and, in order to encourage reinvestment and expansion, a further five years if certain requirements are met.

- **Investment Tax Allowance** of up to 100 percent in respect of qualifying capital expenditure incurred within five years of project approval.

- **Industrial Building Allowance**, which consists of an initial allowance of 10 percent an annual allowance of 2 percent in respect of capital expenditure incurred on a hotel building which is used for the purpose of hotel business carried on by a pioneer company, or a company granted investment tax allowance.

- **Tax Exemption** for Tour Operators who bring in at least 500 foreign tourists through group inclusive tours. Operators must be approved by the Malaysian Tourism Promotional Board.

- **Double Deduction of certain expenses** for tax purposes, including that for hotels and tour operators on overseas promotions and on costs of training approved by the Ministry of Culture and Tourism from year of assessment 1991(Investment Tax Allowance Only)

- **Exemption of import duty** on completely knocked down (CKD) components and excise duty in respect of locally assembled limousines used in the tourism sector subject to prescribed conditions

Source: Malaysia Economic Report 1997/98

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Double deduction is allowed on expenses incurred on training programmes (approved by the Minister of Culture, Arts and Tourism), which intend to upgrade the level of skills and professionalism. Apart from these tax allowances, the Government also provides preferential government loans to small business entrepreneur, especially to those bumiputras (indigenous Malays) tourism industry.

To further add to the list, the Government has also allowed tax exemptions on some selected hotel equipment such as kitchen equipment, laundry equipment, to name a few. The Government hopes that with the introduction of this tax relief allocation, greater participation from the private sector would become a reality. The government is anticipating a deficit in terms of the balance of payment of the service sector due to the recent financial turmoil in the region.

To safeguard the future development and the sensitivity of the industry , the Government has taken several steps to ensure that the support from the private sector will continue. For example, the formation of the National Economic Action Council (NEAC is used hereafter) is to handle and overcome the recent economic problem. NEAC has introduced some recovery plans. To facilitate the recovery plan of the industry, the NEAC has recommended several measures to address the current situation (Sharir, 1998, NEAC, 1998) Among them are:

1. More emphasis should be given to strategic markets that are not affected by the financial crisis, such as Europe, USA, Middle East etc;

2. To optimise the effectiveness of marketing and promotions, joint promotion efforts between the Government and the private sectors are encouraged,

3. Aggressive promotion campaigns in domestic tourism,

   To set up Malaysian Tourism Promotion Action Council (MTPAC). Members include the Malaysian Tourism Promotion Board, Malaysia Association of Hotels (MAH) and Malaysian Association of Hotel Owners (MAHO).

2.3.6 The Hotel Industry

The tourism industry has been booming in the ASEAN region in recent years. This exceptional growth had created great demand for hotels. Table 2.1 indicates the breakdown of tourist receipts for 1999. The lodging (32%) and food and beverages (19%) components are the major contributors to the total receipts. These three components have contributed approximately 51% of the total tourist expenditure.

At present, there are 1,419 hotels in Malaysia, of which 233 hotels are in Kuala Lumpur with a total of 33,500 rooms (Malaysian Tourism, 2000). This is a representation of 35 percent of the total number of rooms in Malaysia. It is reported that in 1998 the total direct hotel employment was 138,943 or 64 per cent of the total employment in the tourism industry (Malaysian Tourism, 1999). See Table 2.2 for the total employment by sector.

Table 2.1: Breakdown of Tourist Receipts 1999

Expenditure items	(RM '000)	%
Accommodation	3,893	31.6
Shopping	2,723	22.1
Food and Beverages	2,353	19
Local Transport	1,170	9.5
Domestic Airfares	739	6
Organised Tours	677	5.5
Entertainment	406	3.3
Misc	357	3
Total Expenditure	**12,318**	**100**

Source: Malaysian Tourism, 2000

Table 2.2: Distribution of Manpower in National Tourism Industry by Sectors

Sector	1998	% (rounded)
Hotel	73,127	64.2
Travel & Tour Operating Business	11,788	10.3
Airlines	23,174	20.4
Tourist Attractions with Management	4,653	4.1
Tourism Educational Inst.	1,077	1
Total	**113,819**	**100**

Source: Malaysian Tourism, 1999

Despite the recent economic crisis, many large, multinational companies are still maintaining their strong attitudes towards the region (Harley, 1998, Pettafor, 1998). Lodging still plays a major sector in terms of tourism receipt and employment (Malaysian Tourism, 1999). As with other sub-sectors that

are experiencing growth, the tourism development in Malaysia is constrained by certain factors that need serious consideration and planning. In the midst of accelerated growth, challenges emerge in the forms of mounting concern of the effectiveness of hotel management education. In the same note, regionalisation and globalisation mean that hotel companies in Malaysia have to compete within and outside the country.

In Malaysia, much of the increase in supply is in the four- and five-star hotels. The large, international hotel companies, for example Sheraton, Hilton Ramada etc., are the major players. Hotel companies are increasingly becoming sophisticated and must be managed by international standards. In order for companies to compete, managers must be competent to handle the business challenges.

2.4   Summary

The Malaysian Government strongly commits itself to the development of her tourism industry in the firm belief that it will bring substantial economic benefits to the country. Malaysia's economic development and growth should be given due recognition. The tourism industry in Malaysia has created a new dimension and vision for better future. With the recovery of the financial crisis in the region, the Malaysian tourism industry is expected to offer a better and stronger impact to Malaysia's economic growth. The hosting of the Commonwealth Games in 1998 and the Formula One, without doubt, has provided the impetus for the tourism industry's development. Malaysia is confident that the industry will further strengthen its role in the Malaysian economy. The tourism industry is expected to contribute further for the needed income.

To further strengthen the industry's contribution towards the economy, the Government is giving greater emphasis on building up the tourism infrastructure as well as the need for manpower training and competence development. In order to achieve what has been set forth, Malaysia has to accelerate the efforts of increasing the supply of competent workforce to undertake the challenges created by the ever-changing business environment. This is to ensure that the level of factor productivity can be attained. To complement the Government's efforts, greater private sector participation in all areas of the industry, including education and training is being encouraged through a number of promotional plans, tax and incentive

schemes. Malaysia is confident that the target to become a fully developed nation can be achieved if educational and training institutions play a greater role in developing the required workforce.

CHAPTER 3

THE DEVELOPMENT OF HOTEL MANAGEMENT EDUCATION

3.1   Introduction

The chapter discusses the development of hotel management education in the U.S.A., the U.K., Germany, France, Switzerland and Malaysia. The purpose here is to understand and contrast the development and organisation of hotel management education in each country. As a comparison, the U.S.A, the U.K., France, Germany and Switzerland, were selected for this study. Their selection were based on their reputation in hotel management education. High quality programmes in tertiary education in hotel management is still considered to be available in these countries, especially in the U.K. and U.S.A.   However, due to the scarcity of materials available and personal contacts proved to be of very little assistance, a full comparative analysis of hotel management education in these countries is not possible. The approach taken is more of an overview of hotel management programme in each country.

The focus of this chapter is on the development of Malaysian hotel management education. As a background to the main discussion, a brief history of the industry and early development of hotel management education in the U.K. and U.S.A. is included. This is followed with a discussion of hotel management education and its relevancy to the hotel

industry in each country. The chapter ends with an overview of hotel management education in these countries.

3.2   A Brief History of the Industry

To discuss the development of hotel education it is considered incomplete if the history and the development of the industry itself are not mentioned. It is presumed that the history and the development of the industry have been influentially shaping the structure of hotel education, especially its curriculum. This can be reflected in the early hotel education programmes, in the U.K. and the U.S.A., where the emphasis was on skills.

It was reported (Lundberg, 1994) that the word 'hotel' was introduced in London in 1760 when the Fifth Duke of Devonshire constructed a crescent-shaped building to house the Grand, the Centre and St Anne's hotel. Across the Atlantic, n the U.S.A., the use of the word 'hotel' was adopted in the 1790s when the Carre hotel in New York City was built. Most American authors such as Lundberg (1994), claim that the 'modern hotel' was an American invention, tracing it back to the development of the Tremont House hotel in Boston in 1829. However, some suggest that the first modern hotel was the Hotel Baur au Lac in Zurich that was built in 1838.

This dispute, notwithstanding, the development of purpose built 'modern hotels' did not substantially occur until the end of the nineteenth century. Many of the well-known London hotels opened in the period between 1890 to 1910.

The European hotel was substantially different from its American counterpart and this has led to different approaches in managing and operating hotels. European hotels were developed from the 'country home' concept and were operated to meet the needs of the 'rich' and 'powerful'. On the other hand American hotels were said to have a more entrepreneurial approach and therefore were more commercial in nature (Lattin, 1993). Hotel management during this period was said to be a management of personality. The emphasis was on the face-to-face ability to satisfy the guests.

With the changing socio-economic context (life style, travel etc.), the development of the industry began to take a different direction. At the same time, the development of the hotel and tourism industry in the U.K. and the U.S. has stimulated educational institutions to offer a broader based hotel programme (for example, professional management education). This includes the recognition that educational needs exist at the managerial level as well as operation and craft if the exceptional growth in the industry is to be supported. The need for a formal and well-structured hotel management programme is now widely recognised throughout the world. An effective hotel management education must exist in order to deliver competent workforce for the industry.

3.3   Hotel Management Education in the Developed World

Early development of hotel management education has centred in most developed nations. Much of its development began in France, Switzerland

and Germany where the apprenticeship approach was initiated. The U.S.A. and the U.K. are believed to pioneer hotel management education at the degree level. As part to understand better, the different approaches to hotel management and a brief comparison of hotel management in these countries are included.

Every organisation (including educational institution) has an obligation to meet their customers' or stakeholders' expectations and needs. It is also a fact that every organisation must continually adapt to changes in those expectations and needs. Holding on to this principle, hotel management programmes in the U.K. and U.S.A., for example, are constantly re-evaluating their hotel management programmes to ensure that the programmes are meeting the requirements of the industry and various individuals and organisations.

In the following pages, a brief discussion of hotel management education in developed nations and Malaysia is presented and contrasted. The discussion mainly revolves on the important elements of hotel management education in each country, which include programme's aims and objectives, structure and quality control.

3.3.1 Hotel Management Education in the United States of America

Hotel (or hospitality) is one of the oldest industries in the world (McCain and Rapple, 1996). However surprisingly, it was not until 1922 that Cornell

University's School of Hotel Administration established the first undergraduate programme in hotel and restaurant management. In the United States, the American Hotel and Motel Association (AHMA) was responsible for initiating a programme of instruction for hotel management at college level (*ibid*). In 1917 Frank Dudley, president of AHMA, chaired an education committee to study the industry's needs. One of the recommendations made in that study was to establish a hotel school in 1922 at Cornell University, New York (Lundberg, 1994). The rapid changes in the U.S. demographic trends caused a fast development of the hotel business, which in turn called for capable managers. In the past, the standard managerial model in the hotel industry is traditionally based on a solid background in routine operations. However, these traditional practices and knowledge are revealed to be obsolete and not effectively responding to the current market needs. Management education was the key answer to this growing demand for effective and high performance hotel managers (Lundberg, 1994).

It was claimed that this happened 286 years after the establishment of the first American institute of higher education (American Council on Education, 1992). Five years later, in 1927, Michigan State University and Purdue University joined Cornell University (see Table 3.1 below) to offer bachelors' programmes in hotel and restaurant management.

Johnson and Wales University is considered the largest hospitality school in the United States with a student population of more than 2,000 students

followed by the University of Nevada, Las Vegas. Most of the four-year

degree programmes (bachelor's degree) in the U.S. universities can be

broken down into three distinct phases: two years are devoted to general

education, one year to business education and one year of specialised or

professional subjects in hotel management (McCain and Rappole, 1996).

Table 3.1: Undergraduate Programme Established Before 1950

School	Date Started	City, State
Cornell University	1922	Ithaca, New York
Michigan State Univ.	1927	East Lansing, Michigan
Purdue Univ.	1927	West Lafayette, Indiana
Univ. Of New Hampshire	1929	Durham, New Hampshire
Washington State Univ.	1932	Pullman, Washington
Tuskegee Univ.	1936	Tuskegee, Alabama
Oklahoma State Univ.	1937	Stillwater, Oklahoma
Pennsylvania State Univ.	1937	College Park, Penn.
Univ. Of Denver	1946	Denver, Colorado
New York City Tech. Coll.	1947	New York, NY.
Florida State Univ.	1947	Tallahassee, Florida

Source: McCain and Rappole, 1996

Prior to 1950, there were only 11 hotel management schools in the U.S.A.

However, a substantial expansion of hotel management programme took

place between 1970-1990. Currently, in the U.S., there are more than 150

colleges and universities (out of 2,190 four-year colleges and universities in

the U.S.A.) offering undergraduate programmes in hotel/hospitality

management education (Pavesic, 1984, p.15). The key distinction among these institutions is between the publicly and privately funding provisions. For the publicly funded institutions they are funded mainly by the states with minimum federal aid.

3.3.1.1   Programme Structure

Casado (1992) stresses that hotel management curricula greatly differ according to the programme's aims and objectives, the sectors of industry covered and where it is housed. For instance, depending on where the programme is housed, hotel management programmes curricula developed different 'core' requirements. Hotel, Restaurant and Institutional Management (HRIM) Department at Iowa State University is housed in the College of Family and Consumer Sciences whereas Hotel and Restaurant Administration at Washington State University is housed in the College of Business and Economic. In these examples, students are required to fulfil certain college and department requirements and a certain number of credit hours ranging typically from 120 to 128.5 credit hours in order to graduate.

At Iowa State University, during their freshman year (first year), students are required to fulfil certain college requirements such as 5 credit hours in family and consumers sciences subjects and 11 credit hours in humanities which include 3 credits hours of an approved art principles subject. At Washington State University students are required to fulfil certain College core courses (subjects). These required courses are: 9 credit hours of Economics, 6 credit

hours of Mathematics, 4 credit hours of Decision Sciences, 6 credit hours of Management Information Science and 3 credit hours of Business Law and Accounting (See Appendix I Washington State University and Iowa State University Programmes).

On the other hand, the School of Hospitality Business at Michigan State University is housed in the Eli Broad College of Business and offers a more business-based curriculum, which focus on managerial leadership. The philosophy behind this is that they believe that hospitality is a business and a special type of business (Michigan State University (1998/1999).

Likewise, the uniqueness and complexity of hotel business has forced Cornell's School of Hotel Administration to accept the fact that traditional approach to hotel management education and theory do not always fit comfortably in today's hotel business. These dimensions are reflected in their hotel management curriculum. Students are required to fulfil four major groupings which include: required courses (subjects) in hospitality management, courses (subjects) concentrating on an aspect of the industry, distributive electives outside the Hotel School and free electives either in the School or elsewhere. The elective courses (subjects), particularly those outside the school, aim to ensure that students will experience a well-rounded education. Because of the international character of the business today, students are also encouraged to take foreign languages.

Since its inception, the hotel management programme at Cornell University supported the hospitality industry's development offering programmes that are geared towards graduates' managerial preparation in the hotel sector. Due to the business nature of the industry, Cornell's School of Hotel Administration offers nine major areas of concentration. See Table 3.2 for the nine major areas of study.

Table 3.2:   Cornell's School of Hotel Administration Areas of Concentration at   First Degree level

Operations Management
1. Human Resources Management
2. Food and Beverage Management
3. Marketing and Tourism
4. Property - asset Management
5. Communication
6. Operation and Information Technology
7. Financial Management
8. Law

Source: School of Hotel Administration, 1998

In the first and second year, students will experience a more structured programme of study than their third and final years. Students will begin and complete the sequence of required courses (subjects) before they can decide

on their concentration. Regardless of the field of concentration, students'

course work will reflect current and prospective industry trends. The focus of

most courses (subjects) is conceptual skills which they believe will serve

graduates well as an executive, managers or owners, keeping pace with the

changes in the industry (School of Hotel Administration, 1998). Internship

programme is also a requirement in Cornell's hotel management programme.

At the same time, these institutions developed most of the educational

programmes for specific and economic needs. For example, situated in the

heart of Las Vegas, the economic activities of the state are reflected in the

University of Nevada's, Las Vegas (UNLV) hotel management curriculum.

UNLV's offers Casino Management concentration as one of the disciplines for

students to select. The importance of the gaming industry to Nevada's

economic growth has led the University to create the International Gaming

Institute (IGI). The IGI is part of the University's College of Hotel Administration.

The IGI is committed to the development and research of the gaming industry.

However, there is one common feature in all those programmes. McCain and

Rapple (1996) report that the common denominator in most American hotel

management programmes is the paid internship (the U.S.A. terminology for

industrial attachment/training or co-operative education placement or work

placement) programme. Students are required to undergo at least one paid

internship (ranging from 450 hours to 1000 hours) of on-the-job learning

during their undergraduate years (Cornell's School of Hotel Administration is

an exception. Internship programme is not required or compulsory for its Bachelor of Science in Hotel Management programme).

The total number of hours and credit hours allocated for internship programme varies depending greatly on each individual school (Iowa States University, 1998/1999, Johnson & Wales University, 1998/1999, Michigan States University, 1998/1999, Purdue University, 1998/1999, Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University, 1998/1999, University of Nevada, Las Vegas, 1998/1999). For example, hotel management programme at the University of Nevada, Las Vegas designates 0 credit hours for its 600 hours internship programme (University of Nevada, Las Vegas, 1998). On the other hand, Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University designates 6 credit hours for its 600 hours internship programme (Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University, 1999).

3.3.1.2 Quality Provision

The provision of higher education in the U.S.A. is a complex one. The constitution of the United States made no provision for a system of national standard involvement in the educational process of the country (Alexander, 1980). The method of development and maintenance of standards for college and university education programmes has been decentralised to the states and accrediting agencies (Harcleroad, 1980).

Voluntary accreditation remains the traditional form of quality control in the U.S.A and it is uniquely American. Accreditation at higher level education is either institutional and/or specialised (Berengarten, 1983, p. 11, COPA, 1982). Institutional accreditation basically refers to the entire educational institutional such as a college or university. Institutional accrediting bodies may be national or regional. National Institutional Accrediting bodies include such organisations as the Association of Independent Colleges and Schools, the National Association of Trade and Technical Schools, etc. The Regional Institutional Bodies include the New England Association of Colleges and Schools, North Central Association of Colleges and Schools, Middle States Association of Colleges and Schools, etc. (COPA, 1982).

Specialised accreditation, on the other hand, examines selected units such as hospitality management programme and concerns itself primarily with effective professional practices. It is typically the professionals within the respective field or discipline who have assumed the responsibility of self-regulation such as American Assembly of Collegiate Schools of Business (AACSB), Council for Hotel, Restaurant and Institutional Education (CHRIE) (COPA, 1982).

3.3.2 Hotel Management Education in the United Kingdom

Prior to 1950, early development of degree-levels hotel management education remained within the U.S.A. but the U.K. eventually began to introduce its own programme after the Second World War. Higher education in hotel management education began to emerge during the 1950s (Fuller, 1983). By

the 1960s, undergraduate programmes in hotel/hospitality education were offered at Battersea College of Technology (later The University Surrey) and the Scottish Hotel School (which was originally part of the Scottish College of Commerce) and later amalgamated with the Royal College of Science and Technology to become University of Strathclyde in 1964 (Gee, 1994).

In the early stage of development in the U.K., hotel/hospitality management programmes had a strong emphasis on the vocational and technical skills involved in food and lodging. In its early development, most hotel schools typically had the word 'Catering' to emphasis the importance of this area of study. The course design and the content of the programme had been influenced strongly by the industry. In this respect, early hotel/hospitality education seemed to be more vocationally oriented to meet the industry needs rather than a rounded education for the students (Fuller, 1983).

Fuller (*ibid*) stresss that hospitality curricula in this era are based on skills oriented training. During the 1970's and 1980's, hotel and catering education in the U.K. expanded dramatically. By the end of the 1980s there were over forty first-degree courses in hospitality management programme available in the U.K. In 1985-1986 alone twelve degree-level courses in hotel/or hospitality management had been approved by the Department of Education and Science, the majority of which were offered at the new universities (DOE and DOS, 1985).

In the early stage of development the intention of the Battersea College of Technology (The University Surrey) and the Scottish Hotel School (Strathclyde University) to expand their syllabi to include business management subjects was gaining support from the newer hotel entrepreneurs. However, this was controversial. Some traditionalists amongst hoteliers still preferred the older approach which was based on skill (Fuller, 1983). Industrialists expected graduates to have achieved more practical skills which is common throughout the rest of Europe. However, this approach was considered to be obsolete and not effectively responding to current market needs.

3.3.2.1 Programme Structure

The rapid development and changes within the higher education and industry have resulted in great concerns among industry professionals with today's graduates, which they claim to be lacking in certain competences. Towards this end, hotel management education has made a major leap in attempting to link more closely between business and educational needs (HMSO,1987). To achieve this, the Government together with other professional bodies have embarked on several initiatives such as the HEQC's 'Graduateness' and 'Key skills' projects and HCIMA's 'Corpus of Management Excellence' project. For example, the 'Corpus of Management Excellence' aims to provide guidance to hotel schools about curriculum development and course design. This will help them to develop a programme of study that is relevant to the industry and the students future careers (HCIMA, 1998). Students have to fulfil certain core

subjects and any appropriate options (subjects) that students wish to include as part of their learning experiences.

At the same time, higher education institutions are aware of the international context in which the industry operates. More hotel schools are now offering International Hospitality Management as part of their programme of studies (for example, the University of Brighton, Buckingham University, Sheffield Hallam, Surrey University etc.). For example, Sheffield Hallam University offers a B.Sc. in International Hotel and Catering Management. In order to gain this international degree qualification, students are required to complete some relevant international units, foreign language and international exposure.

To support the European dimension and complement this approach is the encouragement offered to facilitate students to gain exposure in other countries or institutions through students exchange programmes (IRDAC, 1992). Socrates, the first European initiative that covers at all levels of education, was introduced in 1995. Its main objectives are to develop a European dimension in education by promoting mobility of both teachers and students and encouraging cross-border recognition of academic qualifications. The most successful programme within the Socrates framework is the European Community Action Scheme for Mobility of University Students (ERASMUS – created eight years before the more global Socrates programme) was established to assist students in gaining

international exposure. A European Credit Transfer System (ECTS) has been introduced to make it much easier to compare qualifications among European nations (Ministry of Education, Science, Research and Technology, 1996).

The major difference between the programmes in the U.K. and the U.S.A. is in the area of work placement or internship. The internship in the U.S.A. is normally not supervised or controlled by academic staff, as compared to the supervised work experience (SWE) in the U.K. In the U.K. work placement is considered important to hotel management education (sandwich programme). Work placement is an integral part of the curriculum in a sandwich programme. Thus, a sandwich undergraduate programme has been developed aiming at the blending of theory with practical experience through experimental learning (DiMicelli, 1998). In the U.K. the benefits that can be derived from work placement have long been acknowledged and appreciated (as long as they can provide the evidence that learning is taking place in the work place).

The work placements (lasting between 18 and 48 weeks, depending on the level of programme) aim to give students the opportunity to experience the operational aspects of the industry. The programmes are designed to combine and to expand the knowledge and competence acquired in schools. At the same time, SWE programmes can provide the students with the opportunities to experience and develop their managerial competences and problem-solving activities (Department of Education and Department of

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Science, 1985). For instance, Sheffield Hallam University offers a 48-week of paid industry placement for those students who wish for a four-year sandwich degree. However, only 4 degrees (B.Sc. (Hon) in Food & Consumers Studies, B.Sc. (Hon) in Hotel & Catering, B.Sc. in Hotel & Tourism and B.Sc. in Food Marketing) within the programme have such requirement (Sheffield Hallam University, 1997). The grades or marks obtained from this placement do not affect or contribute towards degree classification. See Appendix II for Sheffield Hallam University's Hotel management programme.

Typically, the most commonly used higher education entrance qualifications in the U.K. are the General Certificate of School Education (GCSE) or the General Certificate of Education (GCE) A-levels. These qualifications are used as benchmarks for entry, but equivalent qualifications such as HND, NVQs, GNVQs, BTEC (Edexel), SQA, and so forth are equally acceptable. Prospective candidates (Bachelors and HND), in almost all universities, must apply through the Universities and College Admissions Service (UCAS).

There are some principal differences between the U.S.A. and the U.K. The most obvious difference between these nations is on the educational systems themselves (Baum, 1992), as well as the time frame of programmes offered (Moreo and Christianson, 1988). In most universities in the U.K. there are two kinds of degrees: an 'honours' degree which is taken by most students and which is traditionally more specialized, and an 'ordinary' or 'general' degree, which usually covers a wider range of subjects. In recent years, the content

and arrangement of many honours courses have broadened considerably. This trend is especially noticeable in the new universities. Another type of degree which is being introduced into some universities is the 'modular' degree, which allows some flexibility to students.

Typically, the three-year route is designed for those with existing work experience. The four-year sandwich route is typically for students who do not have any prior experience. On the four-year sandwich route, the third year is devoted to industrial placement. The bachelor's degree offered in the U.S.A. universities requires four years to complete as compared to three years in the U.K.'s universities (except the 4-years sandwich programmes which combine academic study at the university with training in industry).

Nevertheless, the three-year programme in the U.K. is similar to the theoretical four year except in the U.S.A system, the first two years are devoted to general education. However, the American approach is slowly being adopted in some hotel management programmes in the U.K. For example, Glasgow Caledonian University is offering hotel management programme which promote core business skills within strong vocational concepts (Glasgow Caledonian Prospectus, 1999/2000). In most instances, hotel management programmes in the U.K. incorporate student-led research, field based exercise, case studies and overseas work experience placements opportunity.

3.3.2.2   Quality Provision

Higher education institutions in the U.K. come under direct responsibility of the state. The system also ensures the quality of the programmes offered through an inspection system. The U.K. educational system is more centralised than the one in the U.S.A.   The validation and quality provision are monitored by two sector-wide agencies: the Quality Assurance Agency (QAA) and the Higher Education Funding Councils (HEFCs) (British Council, 1998). The HEQCs look at the quality of a department's research and graded it on a scale of one to five (one being the lowest), indicating national or international standards of excellence.

On the other hand, the QAA for higher education assesses the quality of teaching by subject. The teaching quality assessment is based on curriculum content, teaching, learning and assessment, student progression, student support, learning resources and quality assurance and enhancement (British Council, 1998). Typically, continuous assessment using a variety of different instruments such as projects, case studies and examinations are adopted.

Quality assessment is also another important feature in both countries. In the U.S.A the method of development and maintenance of quality for college and university education programmes has been decentralised to the states and accrediting agencies (for example the Council on Hotel, Restaurant, and Institutional Education (CHRIE)). (Table 3.3 illustrates the fundamental

differences between these two nations). Apart from this, the cultural and structural differences between the hotel industries of these countries also play a significant role in influencing hotel management education (Baum, 1992). According to Baum (1992) the structure of the U.K. hotel industry is significantly different from that in the U.S.A., with a greater dominance of small and medium-sized properties.

Table 3.3 : Fundamental differences between the U.S.A. and U.K.

	U.S.A	U.K.
Duration	4 years	3 years (or 4 years sandwich)
Industrial Attachment	Not supervised	Supervised
Quality Assessment	Decentralised	Centralised
Curriculum	General (first two years)	Focus and Specialised (the whole duration)

3.3.3 Hotel Management Education in France

French higher education is characterised by a great variety of institutions. Higher education in France is provided in the institutes and colleges of advanced technology, universities and *grandes ecoles*. Typically, after the *'Baccalaureat'* (obtained at 18 years of age), students can choose to enter to any one of the three categories of higher education. Organisation and admission procedures vary according to the type of institution and the purpose of the education provided (CEDEFOP, 1996). Higher education institutions in France are largely financed by the state.

The university programme in France is structured into three cycles:

- For the first two years students who complete the programme successfully are awarded either a DUT degree (*Diplome Universitaire de Technologie*) or a DEUG *(Diplome d'Etudes Universitaires Generales)*.

- The second cycle is a consolidation cycle of advanced general, scientific and technical education leading to the exercise of professional responsibilities. Successful completion in the second cycle will lead to the conferment of a *'Licence'* (DEUG + one year) or in scientific and technical discipline which requires an additional of 2 years after DEUG and *'maitrise'* (License + one year).

- The third cycle offers highly specialised education and training in research. Students are selected from among applicants holding a *'maitrise'* or other equivalent qualification. The third cycle leads to either:

  - a DESS degree (*Diplome d'Etudes Superieures Specialisees*) which is of vocation nature (one year), or

  - a DEA (*Diplome d'etudes Approfondies*) a one year research-based programme and upon successful completion candidate can proceed to a doctoral degree programme (3-4 years). This can be done either at the *'universites' or 'Grandes Ecoles'*.

Higher education is also available in private higher education institutions. These private institutions are diverse and very selective in their intake exercises. A *Baccalaureat* is required (like other public institution) but is not enough to secure a place. To gain recognition from the state, these private institutions have to submit their application to the Government (CEDEFOP, 1996).

Private institutions that have been recognised by the government are allowed to conduct university level courses. Recognised institutions are entitled to receive state subsidies and public education grants (CEDEFOP, 1996). However, they are subject to inspection and their appointments of their directors and academic staff is subject to approval from the Government.

Most higher education degrees in France are nationally defined and controlled by the Ministry of Education. The Government and industry have strong influence on curriculum and course content of management education including hotel and catering management programme (Barsoux and Lawrence, 1990, Rutter and Teare, 1992, CEDEFOP, 1996). For example, the curriculum for vocational degrees or *'Diplomes professionalises'* is developed and monitored by national boards of directors from various sectors of the industry. All higher vocational education institutions include in their curricula one or several compulsory placements with the industry *'stage'*. These institutions are responsible to find and manage students' placements (Fraisse, 1999).

3.3.3.1   Programme Structure

However, majority of hotel education programmes are conducted through the state vocational education system (Rutter and Teare, 1992). The state vocational education system is organised into three streams; the *'Centres de Formation d'Apprentis* 'which offers the *'Certficat d'Aptitude Professionelle'* (apprentice programme), the *'Lycee d'enseignement Professionnels'* which offers the *'Brevet d'Etudes Professionelles'* (BEP), *Lycee d'Enseignement Technique Hotelier* (hotel schools) which offers *Baccalaureat Technologie* (better known as *Brevet Technicien Hotelier* prior to 1993) or *'Brevet Technicien Superiur'* (BTS) qualifications equivalent to the Edexcel (formerly known as BTEC) or Higher National Diploma (U.K.) and SQA (formerly known as SCOTVEC) (Rutter and Teare, 1992).

Degree programmes are confined to BTS and mature individuals from within the industry. However, there are no direct routes to university studies for general certificate holders (CAD or BEP). Presently, there are several *Institut Universitaire de Technologie* (IUT) attached to universities (faculty within a university) offering *Diplome Universitaire de Technologie* (DUT) which lead to a *Licence* in Hotel Management. See Table 3.4 of the eight IUTs

The fundamental craft base of vocational education system has been maintained and degree programmes are introduced to add a new dimension of hotel management education (Rutter and Teare, 1992). However, the development of French hotel management programme (from craft to degree

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level) is different from the experience that has taken place in the U.K. In France, the balance between managerial and craft base qualifications has been broadly maintained. In the U.K., it was claimed that the shift in emphasis from craft to higher qualifications in hotel and associated programmes has been brought about more by considerations of academic status and rewards than by any reflection of the industry's needs (*ibid*).

At present there are eight IUTs which have been accredited by the French Ministry of National Education, Higher Education, Research and Technology to offer hotel and restaurant management education at various degree-levels (*License, Maitrise* or *DESS, DEA*) (SFERE, 1998).

Table 3.4:   IUTs offering Hotel and Restaurant Management Programme

University	Highest Degree Awarded
1. *Universite de Toulouse Le Mirail, Toulouse*	*DESS*
2. *Universite Blaise Pascal, Clermont-Ferrand*	*Maitrise*
3. *Universite Charles de Gaulle Lille III, Lille*	*License*
4. *Universite de Perpignan, Perpignan*	*Maitrise*
5. *Universite d'Angers, Angers*	*Maitrise*
6. *Universite J. Fourier, Grenoble*	*Maitrise*
7. *Universite de Savoie, Chambery*	*Maitrise*
8. *Universite de Marne La Vallee, Marne La Vallee*	*Maitrise*

Source: SFERE, 1998

The duration for the diploma programmes that are offered in most hotel schools is two or three years (for example, *Ecole des Arts Culinaires et de l'Hotellerie* (EACH)). BEP or Baccalaureate holders are eligible to apply for admission. Presently there are two routes available for Baccalaureate (or equivalent qualification) holders. Students at EACH can enrol in the two-years programme which leads to the *Baccalaureat Technologie* or the 3-years programme leading to a diploma which is recognised as a *'Licence'* by the University of Lyon III (Ecole des Arts Culinaire et de l'hoteliere (EACH), 1998). The first two years of the programme concentrate on the operational aspects of the industry and some aspects of functional management. Students are required to undergo their industrial attachments (16 weeks) after the first year. See Table 3.5 for EACH's diploma programme in Hotel and Restaurant Management.

In the final year, students are exposed to overall management function, which include the decision-making technique, management communication skill and analysis. At this stage, students are encouraged to work in groups to carry out class projects and research.

Students enrolled in the three years option require twenty-three weeks of full-time study at the school devoted primarily to hotel, functional management and other applied sciences subjects and twenty weeks of practical classes each year. During their final year, students take advance management subjects, which is followed by five months industrial attachment as 'management

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trainee'. Learning approaches at this level are experiential rather than directive. In most instances, case studies approach is adopted in learning business management subjects.

Table 3.5 : EACH's Diploma Programme

First Year	Second Year
Bakery and Pastry I	Pastry and Bakery II
Introduction to F&B Management	Restaurant Management
Restaurant Operation	Reservation
Dining Room Service	Housekeeping Management
Food Science I	Human Resources
Hygiene and Safety	Front Office Management
Nutrition	Marketing
Food Sensory	Languages
Communication Skills	Communication Skills
Hotel Engineering	Hotel Engineering
MIS	MIS
Language	Cost Accounting I
Economics of Tourism	Conference and Exhibition Management
	Planning and Investment
	Law

Third Year
Human Resources Management
Communication Skills
Finance
MIS
Economic Analysis
Budgeting
Law
Marketing Management
Cost Accounting II
Management Decision Making
Strategic Management
Industrial Attachment

Source: *Ecole des Arts Culinaires et de l'Hotellerie* Prospectus, 1998

The programme is designed to give students a comprehensive education and training in the hotel and restaurant operations and management. They are

equipped with the knowledge and skills necessary to take on the challenges of the industry particularly in the area of information technology. Work placement is also another important element in the programme. Students are responsible to identify the appropriate training place before the school proceeds with the arrangement (*Ecole des Arts Culinaires et de l'Hotellerie* Prospectus, 1998). Unlike in the U.K., there are four hotel schools in France operating training hotels (*hotels d'application*). The four main French hotel schools are *Thonon-les-Bains, Grenoble, Toulouse* and *Bordeaux*.

Apart from this, the development and internationalisation of the hotel industry in Europe have made it necessary to find a compromise between the industry needs and the educational system in Europe. Consequently, in 1988 twenty hotel schools agreed to create European Hotel Diploma (*EURHODIP*). *EURHODIP* delivers 2 European diplomas: European Diploma of Technician (craft-based qualification) and European Diploma of Hotel Management (BTS equivalent) (EURHODIP, 1998). For the European Diploma of *Technicien*, students must pass all hotel operation subjects, which include:

1. Cuisine (including bakery and pastry),

2. Food & beverage services,

3. Front office operation, and

4. Housekeeping.

5. Work placement

For the European Diploma of Hotel Management, students must fulfil all requirements for the European Diploma of Technician plus some additional subjects (see Table 3.6 for the additional subjects).

Table 3.6: Additional subjects required to qualify for the European Diploma of Hotel Management

1. European culture,

2. Hotel law,

3. Economics of Tourism in Europe,

4. Management (including Strategic Management, Financial Management, IT),

5. European tourist geography,

6. Hotel sales and marketing,

7. Human resource management in the European hotel industry,

8. European nourishing habits, and

9. Languages.

Source: EURHODIP, 1998

Work placement is also a requirement in the *EURHODIP* programme. The duration and contents of the work placements differ according to the levels of the studies. For example, students pursuing the hotel management programme have to fulfil at least 600 hours of industrial attachment. Students are expected to possess strong multi-cultural, as well as foreign languages,

and international perspective of the industry (EURHODIP, 1998). The major difference between *EURHODIP* and standard French hotel management programmes is the international outlook of *EURHODIP* programme. Students undergoing the *EURHODIP* have to learn from an international perspective. For example, students have to learn cuisine from nine different European countries.

Most of the subjects carry the word 'International or European' to denote the international perspective of the subjects. These diplomas delivered by *EURHODIP* are controlled by the Examinations Commission to ensure the quality of the curriculum. Work placement plays a crucial role in EURHODIP. Students are encouraged to do their work placement either outside their hometowns or in other foreign countries. The main purpose of the work placement is to ensure a strong integration of cultural differences and mastery of foreign languages. See Table 3.7 for *EURHODIP's* Hotel Management curriculum and a standard French Hotel School curriculum.

Hotel management programme at IUT is more general in its approach. Various individuals and groups (industry and government) closely monitor the programme in terms of its quality. The programme aims at developing available theoretical knowledge, technical and practical skills, and modern management techniques to students and future managers (SFERE, 1998). The duration varies according to the level of studies. For example, at the

Ecole des Arts Culinaires et de l'Hotellerie	EURHODIP
Operation	*Operation*
* Cuisine (including bakery and pastry) * Front office operation/management * Food & beverage services * Housekeeping * Hotel Reservation	* Cuisine (including Pastry Arts) (cuisine of 9 different European countries) * Front office operation * Housekeeping * Food & Beverages services
Nutrition	*Nutrition*
* Food hygiene and safety * Nutrition and Dietetics *Food testing and sensory	* European nourishing habits
Management	*Management*
* Cost accounting * Human Resource Management * Communication * Marketing management * Planning & Investment * Financial management * Budgeting * Economic analysis * Hotel Engineering * Restaurant Mgmt. * Decision Making * Strategic Mgmt.	* Human Resource management in the European hotel industry * Hotel law in Europe * Economics of Tourism in Europe, * Management (including Strategic Management, Finance & Accounting) * Hotel sales and marketing
Communication	*Communication*
* MIS * Languages * Communication Skills	* Information Technology * Languages.
Tourism	*Tourism*
* Sociology of tourism * Conference and exhibition * Economics of Tourism	* European tourist geography * European culture
Work placement	*Work placement*
* Yes	* Yes

Sources: Ecole des Arts Culinaires et de l'Hotellerie (EACH), 1998
            EURHODIP Pamphlet, 1997

University of Toulouse II, students with BTS qualification require one academic year to qualify for the *'Licence'* (BTS or DUEG + one year) and an additional of one year for *'Maitrise'* (*Licence* + one year).

Generally, students have to learn 200 hours of General Management subjects in their first year and another 50 hours in their second year, 160 hours of the Business Environment subjects (first year) and another 70 hours in their second year, 130 hours for Communication subjects for their first year and an additional of 190 hours in their second year. It is obvious that the programme stresses the importance of communication in which students have to fulfil 320 hours of communication subjects to graduate.

Students enrolled in the hospitality programme at *The Universite of Toulouse le Mirail,* for example, are able to select two options (Hotel and Restaurant or Tourism Management) for their specified field of study. Degree level programmes conducted at The University of Toulouse and other IUTs are confined to entrants with the BTS qualification or equivalent (see Table 3.8 for the University of Toulouse's hotel management programme).

Table 3.8: The University of Toulouse Le Mirail Programme

	First year (Hours)	Second year (Hours)
General management		
Science of Decision Making	20	20
Business Analysis	60	30
Financial Analysis	40	
Marketing	50	
Business Strategy	30	
Business Environment		
Economic	60	
Law I	40	
Law II	40	
Geography (Implication for Mgmt.)	20	
Communication		
IT	30	40
English	30	30
Other Languages	40	40
Managing People		50
Human Relations		30
International Dimension		
International Marketing		40
Europe and Its Organisation		30
Financial Management		30
International Business Strategy		30
Training & Development		30
Option A: Hotel & Restaurant		
Kitchen Management	30	30
Restaurant Management	30	30
Accommodation Management	30	40
Hotel Engineering	30	30
Wine Management	30	
Culture and Hotel Business	30	
Physiology		30
Nutrition & Dietetics		30
Option B: Tourism		
Careers in Tourism Business	60	
Project Design and Development	60	
Management	90	
Recreation and Tourist Attraction Management	130	
Research Methods	30	

Source: The University of Toulouse , 1996

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3.3.3.2 Quality Provision

Higher education institutions in France have experienced the same fate as their counterparts in the US, U.K. and Malaysia. They have been criticised for not meeting the industry's requirements (Rutter and Teare, 1992). The terminology employers used to describe this problem was lack of *'savoir faire'* and *'savoir etre'* referring to the education system as being failed to provide an effective vocational guidance and to respond to the requirements of the labour markets.

To improve the situation, the Higher Education Act was introduced to promote closer link between educational institutions and the industry. Apart from this, the *'Centre Regional des Oeuvres Universitaires et Scolaires'* (CROUS) was set up to develop programmes and monitor the programmes' effectiveness. The Government has also established the National Evaluation Committee to carry out quality assessment in French Higher education (CEDEFOP, 1996).

3.3.4 Hotel Management Education in Germany

Higher education institutions in Germany are organised and funded by the *Lander* from the budget of the Ministry of Education and Cultural Affairs or the Ministry of Science and Research (Ministry of Education, Science, Research and Technology, 1997). Each of the 16 *Lander* (states) is responsible for the design and funding of a higher education institution within its area of jurisdiction. The German system has no equivalent with the U.S.A., U.K.,

Switzerland or France system of higher education. The idea or concept of 'undergraduate' does not exist in Germany (Rutter and Teare, 1992).

The German diploma is designed in such a way that it combines professional qualification and academic qualification. There are three types of state and state-recognised higher education institutions. They include Universities (including technical universities), Colleges of Arts and Music and *Fachhochschulen* (polytechnic equivalent). Admission to these institutions requires the *Allgemeine Hochschureife* (specialised qualification) *or Fachgebundene Hochschureife* (general qualification). These qualifications are obtained after 12 or 13 years of schooling (A-level equivalent).

In most *Lander* there is a binary system mainly delivered by Universities and *Fachhochschulen*, with some provision in specialised institutions (Nursing, Teacher Training, Tourism etc.). In addition to the binary system, there are six *Lander* offering academic training at *Berufsakademie* (for example, Baden Wurttemburg) where the states and large multinational companies (e.g. Bosch and Daimler Benz) work together to design more relevant higher education and shorter programmes. Technically, *Berufsakademie* is not considered as an institution of higher education but rather it is an alternative to higher education (Ministry of Education, Science, Research and Technology, 1997).

The *Berufakadamie Studienakadamie* (study institution) combines academic with practical in-company professional training (dual system approach). The

degrees conferred by *Berufasakadamie* (professional academics) are considered equivalent to those of *Fachhochschulen* degrees. There is one *Berufakadamie, Staatliche Studienakadamie, Ravensburg,* which offers hospitality and tourism management programme at degree levels, (bachelor and post-graduate) (World Directory of Tourism Education and Training, 1994, Thelen, 1998). To gain entrance to this type of institution, a student must secure an offer from an employer. Majority of higher education institutions are state-run institutions maintained by the *Lander.* The validation of private institutions of higher education is the responsibility of each *Lander.*

3.3.4.1 Programme Structure

There are no universities or *Fachhochschule* (or the then polytechnic, U.K.) offering hotel management programmes. Hotel subjects are offered as an individual unit (electives) either in business and economics or home economics discipline (Hermann, 1998). However, there are several German universities offering tourism management as a specified field of study (the Universities of *Munich, Berlin, Rostock and Gesamthochschule Paderborn*) in their economics programmes. There are two *Fachhochschulen (Kempten and Heilbronn)* offering tourism management studies (European-orientated programmes) at post-graduate level. Presently, there is no official quality assessment system ów/ämnational level (Ministry of Education, Science, Research and Technology, 1997). Higher education institutions (private or public) are subject to state supervision, which is exercised by the *Lander.*

Most hotel management programmes are offered in public and private

Hotelfachschule (two/three year hotel schools).

The aim of education and training provided at *Fachschulen* is to enable

graduates to take on responsibilities in middle management position.

Fachschulen (including *Hotelfachschule*) only take pupils who have

completed vocational training in a recognised occupational requiring training

and have the relevant practical experience. The oldest hotel school in

Germany is the *Bavaria Hotelfachschule* in *Altotting*. Unlike in France, no

hotel schools in Germany operate training hotels. The compulsory subjects in

Fachschulen comprise three areas: communication, technology/ organisation

and area of specialisation (for example, production, design, business, hotel

etc.).

Public *Hotelfachschule* normally attract German nationals compared to private

Hotelfachschule, which attract foreign students. Most of the private

Hotelfachschule are concentrated in Bavaria. In private *hotelfachschule*

curriculum, foreign languages have been given more emphasis and

considered as one of the major components in the curriculum. As with public

Hotelfachschule, private *Hotelfachschule* have to fulfil certain requirements for

accreditation. In order to gain State accreditation, the curriculum must include

four major components. This includes Languages (English, French, German

etc.), Economics (political and business), Business Management (Marketing,

finance, taxation, accounting, information technology) and Hotel management

(including technology, nutrition, planning etc.). See Table 3.9 for hotel

management curriculum at *Bad Worishofen Hotelfachschule.*

Table 3.9: *Bad Worishofen Hotelfachschule* (two-year programme)

	Year 1 (hours/week)	Year 2
Practical Food and Beverage Services	4	4
Management (strategic management, Organisational Behaviour, etc.)	4	6
Hotel accounting and finance	4	4
Taxation administration	3	3
Hotel management	2	2
Hotel marketing	3	3
Personal policy and Industrial law	3	3
Business law	3	3
Information Technology	6	6
Social studies	2	2
Statistics	3	3
Sociology	2	2
Economics	2	
Languages (French, German and English)	10	10

Source: *Hotelfachschule Bad Worishofen,* 1999

3.3.4.2 The Dual System

Any discussion into the provision of skill or competence development in Germany

must consider the dual system, as this is the *modus operandi* of competence

education and training for most German industries. The dual system has its

origins in the corporatism of the German state where business and commerce

demanded a profound knowledge of business technical skills (Dessinger, 1997).

Craft-based education begins at *Berufsschule. Berufachschulen* are full-

time schools, which prepares students for an occupation (vocational

education) as well as extending their general education. The *Berufsschule* are targeted towards students who are already committed to a specific vocation (for example hotel, restaurant etc.). Programmes in *Berufsschule* are complemented by planned or structured training programme in the workplace. The training in the workplace is a fundamental component in the *Berufsschule*. This whole system of education is known as the *dual system*.

The *dual system* is an important part of vocational education and training of Germany. In the *dual system,* education and training are divided between the two establishments responsible for education and training: the company and the vocational school. Relevance is a main pillar of the dual system. In the context of dual system of vocation education, the *Berufsschule,* are autonomous place of learning. The *Berufsschule* (vocational school) work together with the companies participating in the vocational education and training. *Berufsschule* subjects cover the material for each occupation requiring formal training as set out in the *Rahmenlehrplan* (Curriculum framework). On the other hand, the skill and knowledge to be acquired in the course of training at workplace are set out in the *Ausbildungordnung* (Training regulation) and broken down in terms of content and duration in the training plan. The main purpose is to enable them

> *to carry out their occupation duties and to help shape the world of work and society as a whole with a sense of social and ecological responsibility* (Ministry of Education Science, Research and Technology and Technology, 1997, p.153).

Within the *dual system*, both the teaching staff in the *Berufsschule* and the instructors in the partner companies are responsible for the vocational training of the students (Ministry of Education, Science, Research and Technology, 1997). Federal law (Vocational Training Act) applies to training in a company and the education received in school is the responsibility of the *Lander*. The Vocational Training Act prescribes a training contract, which formalised such issues as working time, employment-related rights and remuneration (Ministry of Education, Science, Research and Technology, 1997). Another aspect of the Act focuses on how an apprentice in the dual system has to be instructed and what knowledge and skills have to be provided in order for the apprentice to be effective in the workplace.

In the dual system, the vocational school follows the training received in a company. Trainees are required by the education laws to attend the vocational school. The purpose of attending the vocational school is to supplement the training received by trainees in companies and fill gaps in general education (Ministry of Education, Science, Research and Technology, 1997). The *Lander* determines the syllabi for vocational and general subjects taught in vocational and higher vocational education (Ministry of Education, Science, Research and Technology, 1997). Trainees in the dual system take the final examinations which are administered by the authorities (for example, Chambers of Industry and Commence, Agriculture etc.). These final examinations consist of a practical and a written part.

3.3.4.3   Quality Provision

Majority of the *Hotelfachschulen* require potential candidates to have undergone three years of apprenticeship and at least two years of working experience (Thelen, 1998). In *Hotelfachschulen*, industrial attachment is not part of the requirements. Hotel programmes offered at this *Fachschulen* aim to equip students with knowledge and competences for general hotel management especially at the supervisory and middle management level.

Hotelfachschulen work closely with DEHOGA (industry representative) in determining the quality as well as establishing standards of the programme (Thelen, 1998). The industry is represented by DEHOGA, the sole trade association for catering and hotelkeeping in Germany. As in France, in Germany the Government (states level) and industry (represented by DEHOGA– *Deutscher Hotel-und Gaststattenverband EV*) are very influential in determining the contents and direction of hotel management education (Thelen, 1998). They are responsible for general and vocational schools, and for chambers of commerce, which are given the power by virtue of federal legislation (Duncan, 1992). However, DEHOGA does not directly involve in the running and management of *Hotelfachschulen* (Thelen, 1998).

Students would follow a rigid scientific education without any practical training for managerial jobs. Students who pass all the requirements receive a diploma conferring the title of *Hotelbetriebswirt* or Mastercraftsman. The industry will recruit students with strong scientific and functional

specialisation. The industry is assumed to play a major role in determining the skills required and in developing their in-house training for the individual's managerial skills.

Hotel managers in Germany normally are the products of the education system that provides a strong base of craft education and training (Thelen, 1998). Recently, however, there are several initiatives taken to address the issue of higher education provision for hotel and catering management (Thelen, 1998). A number of individuals from the industry, backed by DEHOGA, established a training centre called *Institut fur System-gastronomie* (not part of Germany education system) which is concerned with providing management education for individuals who intend to work in the larger restaurant chains or hotel groups. This is basically a post-experience training centre.

The programme is more towards the combination of technical and general management competences. The programme is designed around themes of social and economic environment, financial management, managing people, managing operation and general management. As in most American business schools, case studies are used as learning materials.

3.3.5 Hotel Management Education in Switzerland

Higher education remains the responsibility of the Confederation and *Cantons*. There is no one unified 'Swiss educational system' (Frick, 1998).

However, the Confederation has full responsibility on two Federal Institutes of Technology (Zurich and Lausanne). Switzerland has been one of the first major countries to develop tourism as a major industry. However, none of the seven full-fledged cantonal universities offer hotel management programme. Entrance to Swiss universities is quite rigid. Apart from this prerequisite individuals must possess the Swiss matriculation certificate or a foreign certificate that has been recognised by the university as being equivalent.

All hotel schools or institutes are private institutions and receive no financial assistance from either the state or association (Frick, 1998). As such, hotel schools have the power to determine the curriculum and the quality of the programmes. This flexibility allows the schools to decide autonomously the direction of the programme (*ibid*).

3.3.5.1   Programme Structure

Currently, higher education in Switzerland is moving toward a binary system following the initiative to introduce the university of applied sciences equivalent to *Fachhochschulen* in Germany or *Haute Ecoles Specialisees*, France. At present there are seven regional universities of applied sciences, the *Fachhochschulen* or *Hautes ecoles specialisees* or *Scuole universitarie professionali*. These universities of applied sciences offer a limited curriculum, which put education for professional practise at their core.

At present, *Ecole Hoteliere de Lausanne* (the first hotel school in Switzerland founded in 1893) is the only hotel school that has been recognised by the Swiss Confederation as *'Haute Ecole Specialisee'* (HES) to offer programme of studies at university level qualification (*Ecole Hoteliere de Lausanne Prospectus, 1998)*. At *Ecole Hoteliere de Lausanne,* for example, the duration a *'Licence'* in Hotel and Restaurant Management (*ibid)* is 4 years (8 semesters). *Ecole Hoteliere de Lausanne* is also the official training institute of the Swiss Hotel Association. See Table 3.10 for a standard Swiss hotel programme (*Ecole Hoteliere de Lausanne*).

As part of the requirement, students have to undergo 2 semesters of industrial attachment (*Pratiques en entreprise*). In this 4-year programme, students start with basic courses in kitchen and service (theory and practical) during their first and second semesters. It is expected that students are prepared to be immediately operational for their first internship (semester 3). In the fourth semester, students are required to take subjects that cover the Room Division area before they proceed to do their second internship (semester 5). In the sixth semester onward (semester 6, 7 and 8), students are required to take subjects that are more international in their scope particularly in the business management subjects. Many subjects are conducted in the form of seminars. At the same time students in their seventh semester are being given the option to declare their concentration.

Table 3.10 : Standard Swiss Hotel Management Programmes

Ecole Hoteliere De Lausanne

Semester 1
Food & Beverage Operation I
Food Production (theory & practical)
Food Service (theory & practical)
Menu Planning & preparation
Wine & spirit
Business Administration
Accounting I
Menu Costing

Personal Development
Languages

Communication skills
Computer workshop

Semester 3
Internship

Semester 2
Food & Beverage Operation II
Food Production (theory & practical)
Restaurant service
Nutrition
Banqueting
Business administration
Accounting II
Principle of Marketing
Microeconomics
Human Resources Management
Engineering
Personal Development
Languages

Communication skills
Computer workshop

Semester 4
Food & Beverage III and Room Division
Restaurant Operation and supervision
Front Office Management
Housekeeping

Business Administration
Accounting III
Marketing Management
Law
Economics of Tourism
Human Resources Management
Engineering

Personal Development
Languages
Communication
Computer workshop

Semester 5
Internship

Semester 6
Hotel Management
F&B Management
Room Division Management
MIS
Business Statistics

Con't...

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Hotel Finance
Tourism Development
Tourism Marketing

Personal Development
Languages
Communication

Semester 7
Business Management
Financial Management
Marketing Management
International Human Resources

Semester 8
Business Management
Interdisciplinary Case studies
Business Simulations
Industry Research Project

Specialisation/Electives (able to select for their specialisation)
Corporate Finance
Intercultural Business Strategy
International Chain Management
Organisational Behaviour
Business in Asia
Casino Management
International Marketing

Intercultural Business Strategy
Management Research

Source: *Ecole Hoteliere de Lausanne*), 1998

Most Swiss hotel schools recognise the importance of English language in the industry. Hence, there are several hotel schools offering hotel management programmes using English as the medium of instruction. The first hotel school to use English (introduced in 1979) as its medium of instruction was the Swiss Hotel Association Hotel Management School (founded in 1954) *"Les Roches"*. At present, of the 15 hotel schools, 11 use English as the language of instruction (SHSA Annual Report, 1997).

To strengthen the Swiss hotel management education, Swiss hotel schools were given the right by the Swiss Government to offer British or the U.S.A

Bachelor's degrees. Quite a number of hotel schools in Switzerland have educational links, franchises or collaboration with universities or colleges either in the U.S.A., U.K., Australia, Spain or India. For example, *"Les Roches"* in collaboration with Norwich Hotel School, U.K. offers a Bachelor of Science degree in International Hospitality Management, the *Institut Hotelier "Cesar Ritz"* has a joint bachelor's programme with the Washington State University in the USA.

Centre International de Glion (CIG) offers a Bachelor of Science conferred by the University of Wales and collaborate with Cornell University in academic exchange programme, the *Domino Carlton Tivoli* (DCT) in Luzern has a joint bachelor's and master's degree with Johnson and Wales University, U.S.A. Another example of this co-operation is the *International Hotel and Tourism Training Institute* (IHTTI) in Basel. IHTTI collaborates with the University of Bournemouth, U.K. to offer the Bachelor's of Arts in International Hospitality and Tourism Management. The degree is awarded by the University of Bournemouth, which has been recognised by 24 members of the Swiss Confederation (the *Cantons*) (IHTTI, 1998).

At the same time, the credit transfer programme is also another form of co-operation between Swiss hotel schools and U.S.A. universities. Students studying at the *Hotel Institute Montreux* can transfer (credit transfer programme) to other universities in the U.S.A. such as the University of Northern Arizona, Cornell University, Florida International University, New

Hampshire College, the University of South Carolina and the University of Nevada, Las Vegas. In 1993, the International College of Hotel Management, the only Swiss hotel school outside Switzerland, was established in Adelaide, Australia. The college is located on the campus of the Regency Institute of TAFE (Technical and Further Education) in Adelaide. Besides the diploma, the college collaborates with the University of South Australia to offer a degree programme in International Hotel Management.

The Swiss Hotel Schools franchise system does not limit its operation in the developed nations. The *Swiss School of Tourism and Hotel Management* in Chur has a joint bachelor's programme with the University of Delaware in the USA and operates a franchise programme with Merit Swiss Asia School of Hotel Management in Ooty, India. Merit Swiss Asian School of Hotel Management (M-SASH) offers Swiss approach to hotel management education and training. Students at Merit Swiss Asian School of Hotel Management (M-SASH) can complete their Swiss Diploma in India. Students at M-SASH follow the exact programme, which is being offered in Switzerland. The school believes that the Swiss approach to hotel management would provide students with the advantage of world-wide employment. The Swiss hotel schools have strong affiliation with the Swiss Hotel Association (founded in 1882), a professional body representing the hotel industry.

3.3.5.2 Quality Provision

Apart from this, the Swiss Hotel Schools Association (ASEH) is the main body representing all leading hotel schools committed to maintaining high quality educational and professional standards (*Sekretariat* ASEH, 1995/1996). ASEH members include all leading hotel schools *(e.g. Belvoirpark Hotel School, Ecole Hoteliere de Geneva, Hoehere Gastronomie Fachschule, Hotel Institute Montreux, Institute of Hotel Management "Cesar Ritz", Swiss Hotel Association Hotel Management School "Les Roches", etc.),* the Swiss Hotel and Restaurant Association and the Swiss Union of Hotel Employees. To become a member of ASEH, every school has to undergo a very strict procedure of accreditation (Sekretariat ASEH, 1995/1996).

- *ASEH establishes standards of quality for professional education and training;*

- *ASEH member schools are Hotel & Restaurant management schools offering courses leading to a Swiss Hotel Management Diploma;*

- *ASEH member schools follow high Swiss standards of professional education and industry experience; and*

- *ASEH prescribes high ethical standards in promotion and advertising.*

In Switzerland for any individual to become a manager in the industry, the law requires the individual to hold a management licence called *'Patent'* . The license is issued by the *'Canton'* (County) in which the establishment is

located. The validity is limited within its territory. In order to obtain the license, one must attend courses and pass a comprehensive examination. However, if the applicant holds the hotel management diploma from a recognised institution, she or he only needs to attend some short courses and pass a brief examination, which includes local laws, social insurance regulation etc.

3.3.6 A Brief History of Malaysian Higher Education and Hotel Management Education

The history of higher education in Malaysia is relatively new. Much of its history began in Singapore. The establishment of King Edward VII College of Medicine in 1912 and Raffles College, a liberal education college, were in fact notable relics of British higher education system introduced in Malaysia. As a result of a recommendation of the Carr-Saunders Commission on higher education in Malaysia, the King Edward VII and Raffles College were amalgamated to establish the University of Malaya (at Singapore) in 1949.

In 1957, a Kuala Lumpur division of University of Malaya was set up. With the separation of Singapore in 1962, the two divisions were separated to form two separate universities. The Singapore campus became the National University of Singapore (NUS), and the Kuala Lumpur campus maintained the name as the University of Malaya. At this period the University of Malaya was the only university in Malaysia. Twelve years after independence (1969), Malaysia's second university, the University of Science Malaysia, was established. In 1970s and 1990s another nine universities were

established (for example, the National University of Malaysia (established in 1970), the University of Pertanian, Malaysia (established in 1971), the University of Technology (established in 1972), Northern University (established in 1984) etc). At present there are eleven public universities in Malaysia.

Historically, the development of higher education in Malaysia was based on the old colonial influences. During its early development, the British system of higher education became the basis of higher education system in Malaysia (University of Malaya Prospectus, 1998). The curriculum, content and character of the education system of these universities were basically British oriented. The curriculum was overtly espoused by both the western philosophy and the indigenous leader of the country and has continued after the country has achieved independence. Students' capabilities are based on written examinations given at the end of each semester. However, the Malaysian Government realised that this approach has little impact on the effectiveness of the Malaysia's higher education system. It is an accepted fact that educational systems are microcosms of the societies of which they belong and that they should be made relevant to the needs of the local industry and economy (Drucker, 1985).

The Malaysian Government policy on education has been orientated to meet the skilled manpower needs of the nation and national integration (Economic Planning Unit, 1996). Within the framework, education particularly the higher

education is expected to play a key role in the nation building and in the economic development of the country.

Higher education in Malaysia is going through reformation. As part of the reformation process, the University and University Colleges Act, 1971, amended in 1995, which enables public institutions of higher education to be corporatised. This initiative attempts to give public institutions of higher learning greater autonomy to manage the institutions in a more proactive and responsible manner by being responsive to the changing needs and requirement of the society. Within the context of 'postmodernism' ideology, the Government believes that higher education providers should be called to public account rigorously and make their performance accessible to the stakeholders.

As stated in Chapter 2, the Government alone cannot provide all the mechanisms to propel Malaysia towards the next millennium. Hence, the private sector is urged to play a major role in the nation's development process. The implementation of the Private Higher Education Act, 1996 enables the private sector to establish degree-granting colleges and universities. At present there are four private universities in the country. In the same Act, foreign universities are given the permission to set up branch campuses in the country. So far, Monash University, Australia and Nottingham University, U.K. are the only two foreign universities with their branch campuses in Malaysia (Berita Harian, 1998, p.7).

To further encourage the participation of private sector in education, the Promotion of Investment Act, 1986 provides incentive additional to those provided under the Income Tax Act, 1967. This includes Special Building Allowance for Education to encourage private sector involvement in providing education at all levels. In terms of encouraging Malaysian to study locally, the Government has withdrawn the tax relief (Tax Exemption Act) given for children studying in higher institution abroad.

The withdrawal of the tax relief is also part of the government initiative to reduce the outflow of ringgit. Another initiative taken to lighten financial burden and encourage students to study locally is the introduction of the 3+0-degree programme. With the 3+0-degree programme, it allows private higher education institutions to conduct the entire foreign degree programmes locally. This means that there would be tremendous savings for local students intending to pursue foreign degree programmes.

Malaysia hotel management education's history is also relatively new. Hotel management education in the developed nations is well established compared to Malaysia. Despite being new, hotel management programmes have been growing rapidly in Malaysia. In its early development, Malaysian hotel education has strong emphasis in the technical skills of food and accommodation (Certificate and Diploma).

3.3.6.1 The First Hotel School and Programme Structure

Historically, hotel education in Malaysia is a duplication of the west particularly Switzerland, the U.K. and the U.S.A. This can be traced back in the early development of hotel education at Institut Teknologi MARA (ITM) itself. During its early development, hotel management education is considered a non-traditional academic discipline. At this point, hands-on approach education is recognised as the best way to learn about the industry. As such, the development of higher level cognitive skills and managerial competences is not a priority. On the other hand, industry recruiters consider these experiences as an important and necessary foundation for management trainee candidates. The industry recruiters seek out graduates of the programme that require operational abilities in the academic setting and believe, including educators, that these are the graduates best prepared to handle the business challenges of hotel management.

The Institut Teknologi MARA's School of Hotel and Tourism Management was established in 1967 and was the first institute of higher education to offer a hotel management programme at diploma-level (HND equivalent in the U.K. and associate degree in the United States). The School had a humble beginning with just three full-time lecturers and supported by other servicing lecturers from various schools within ITM and part-time lecturers from the industry. Hotel management education in Malaysia began with the introduction of a 3-year diploma programme (Swiss influence) in Hotel and Catering Management in 1969 (now called Diploma in Hotel Management).

At that time physical resources were minimal with just three classrooms, a training kitchen and a training dining room. Feedback from the industry has led the school to introduce certificate programmes (six months and one year) in the operational areas of Housekeeping, Front Office, Waiting and Food Preparation. Between 1974 and 1976, three additional diploma programmes (Foodservice, Tourism and Culinary Arts) were introduced.

The diploma programme attracted 20 students in its initial enrolment (See Table 3.11 for the course structure). The main purpose of the school is to accelerate the development of semi-professional and professional manpower for the hotel and food service industry. It provides training at craft and supervisory-levels of employment by offering diploma (three years) and certificate (six months to one year) courses.

The objective of these programmes is to equip students with the knowledge and skills (vocational skills) specific to the hospitality industry. These programmes focus more on vocational skills rather than professionals education. The establishing of a vocationalized curriculum in Malaysia was, therefore, a policy which was blatantly espoused by Western philosophy. Thus, during this period, and presently, little research is done on how well this approach has actually fulfilled its social purpose.

Table 3.11: ITM's Diploma in Hotel Management

Semester 1	Semester 2
Introduction to Hospitality Mgmt.	Basic Western Cookery
Food Service Sanitation	Basic Pastry
Kitchen Management	Fundamentals of Food
Introduction to Nutrition	Principles of Management
Economics	Housekeeping Operation
English	English/French
Religious Studies	Religious Studies
Semester 3	**Semester 4**
Principles of Accounting	Principles of Marketing
Introduction to Computer	Computer Application (Hotel)
F&B Service Management	F&B Cost Control
Commercial Food Production I	Restaurant Management
Front Office Operation	Commercial Food Production II
English/French	English/French
Religious Studies	Religious Studies
Semester 5	**Semester 6**
Industrial Training	Entrepreneurship Studies
	Human Resources Management
	Hospitality Marketing
	Innkeeper's Law
	Physical Plant Maintenance
	Hospitality Management Accounting
	Religious Studies

Source: ITM's Faculty of Hotel and Tourism Management, 1997

With the rapid development of the industry and the unquenchable demand for

a qualified workforce, the school has had no other alternative but to continue

to expand. The Malaysian Government's commitment to the industry and

hotel education had resulted in the approval of a new complex for the school.

In 1992, the school moved to its new home with more extensive facilities. The

new building includes a 40 room-training hotel, a banquet hall (200 capacity),

2 meeting rooms (20-25 capacity), Laundry and linen room, 3 production

kitchens (main kitchen, pastry kitchen and butchery), 2 outlet kitchens and 1

artist room.

Due to the socio-economic position of the indigenous people mentioned in the previous chapter, the Government has made a policy that all programmes conducted by any public institute of higher education must include at least one entrepreneurial subject. Entrepreneur studies are introduced as a compulsory subject and an important element in the curriculum. Programmes conducted at ITM consist of two important components: the teaching of relevant knowledge and competences (which takes place on campus) and the industrial attachment with the industry. As part of the requirements of the diploma programme, students have to complete a six-month practical training in the industry.

In 1995, the school moved a step forward by introducing the Bachelor's degree in hotel management education. The degree programme focuses on the managerial aspects of planning and analysis as well as opportunities for research into areas of interest in the hotel industry. The duration of this programme is three years. The degree programme has been structured without the element of flexibility (see Table 3.12 for the course structure).

Students are required to take all the prescribed subjects. In hotel management education the 'Food and Beverage' elements of the programmes are seen as the primary subjects. Very often kitchen and restaurant facilities are considered to provide the positive image and reputation of hotel schools. This is an indication of how hotel management programmes are seen as showing pieces

of education and how students are expected to conform to the expected norm

of waiters and waitresses, cooks and housekeeping attendants.

Table 3.12:   Course Structure (a three-year B.Sc in Hotel Management)

Semester 1	Semester 2
Food Service Sanitation	Principles of Accounting
Kitchen Management	Economics
Introduction to Nutrition	Principles of Management
Fundamentals of Food	F&B Service Management
Housekeeping Operation	Commercial Food Production
Front Office Operation	F&B Cost Control
English	Religious Studies
Religious Studies	English/French
	Innkeeper's Law
Semester 3	**Semester 4**
Service Management	Food & Beverage Operation Analysis
Managerial Economics	Room Division Operation Analysis
Hospitality Human Resource Mgmt.	Hotel & Restaurant Design & Layout
Hospitality Financial Management	Service Marketing
	Business Statistics
Semester 5	**Semester 6**
Internship (352 hours)	Hospitality Business Strategy
Research Methodology	Management Information System
Hospitality Seminar	Research Project

Source: Faculty of Hotel and Tourism Management, 1998

Students holding a Diploma or *Sijil Tinggi Persekolahan* (A-Level equivalent)

qualification are eligible to apply. In the first year, students are exposed to the

production and operation aspects of the business. However, those holding a

Diploma are able to complete the degree programme in two years. The

degree programme requires students to carry out a research project (thesis)

in their final semester. To prepare students for this project, they are required

to undergo a three months industrial attachment (not supervised) in during

their third semester. The main objective of this attachment is to allow students to identify their area of interest for their research project. ITM's degree programme has adopted the analytical approach in learning and understanding the industry.

In general, the commonly offered subjects are of those found in most hotel programmes in developed nations. Whilst it is easy to erect a building to house a hotel school, it is not always easy to find the requisite books and journals which are auxiliary but vital to the better understanding of the subjects and the business. All relevant literature on the subjects is imported mainly from the United States or the United Kingdom.

The recognition of the American management practices and education system (semester) has been inculcated in Malaysian hotel management education (Hamzah, 1998). Because the educational background from which many of the academic staff come is western oriented (overseas educated especially from the United States), their notions of teaching and learning is heavily based on their overseas experiences. Little attention is given on the local context. As it has been mentioned earlier, adopting hospitality management education from abroad without giving further consideration will lead to ineffectiveness (Baum, 1992, Howell and Uysal, 1987). Most academic members come straight from universities and with no industry experience to be able to support their theoretical knowledge. The present

education system has seen little changes in the curriculum and teaching methodology.

3.3.6.2 Private Participation

As it was mentioned earlier, the Government alone cannot provide all the mechanisms to propel Malaysia towards the next millennium. Hence, the private sector is urged to play a major role in the nation's development process. At present there are more than fifteen private colleges offering hotel related programmes at various levels (certificate, diploma, degree etc.). See Appendix III for the list of the major private colleges offering hotel programmes and the level of qualifications. These colleges offer a two-year diploma and have twinning or collaborative programmes with overseas colleges to offer overseas qualifications (for example French BTS or U.K.'s HND). Their programmes are more general as compared to ITM's programme.

None of these colleges has been given the power to grant degree-level qualifications. Those who wish to offer degree-level programme must established some form of collaboration or co-operation with local or foreign universities. This collaboration comes in the various forms namely twinning programme, credit transfer or advance standing programme (for example, Sunway College with Oxford Brookes University, U.K., New Hampshire College, U.S.A. and so forth. The students with Diplomas need only one or two years (depending on the arrangement made with the respective university

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or college) to complete their Degree in Hospitality, distance learning programme, or 3+0 programme (for example, Taylor's Hotel School collaborates with the *Academie de Grenoble*, France and PERNAS Hotel School with Vatel Institut, France) (Taylor's College, 1998, Othman and Ishak, 1998).

With the 3+ 0 programme, students are able to complete their programmes of studies in Malaysia without going abroad (for example, French *Baccalaureate Technologie d'Hotellier* or BTS at Taylor's Hotel School and VATEL's Degree programme at PERNAS Hotel School). Working together with their counterpart in France (Vatel Institute and *Academie de Grenoble*), both Taylor's Hotel School and PERNAS Hotel School hope to incorporate the best western (French) management practices and the rich Malaysian cultural values in their educational aims. Through the collaboration with Vatel Institute, France, PERNAS Hotel School believes that this could realise Malaysian cultural strengths and combine with the best European hotel and services practices which lead to the development of their motto of *'Fusing Asian traditions with international management standards'* (PERNAS Hotel School, 1999). The collaboration also allows PERNAS Hotel School to adapt the Vatel's programme to suit local requirements (Soong, 1999). See Table 3.13 for the PERNAS Hotel School (Vatel's degree programme) syllabus. The degree programme comprises of three modules: Year 1 - Certificate (Food & Beverage), Year 2 - Diploma (Hotel Management) and Year 3 - Degree (International Hotel, Catering and Tourism Management). Basically, in

the early stage students are exposed to the Food and Beverage operational

skills. When students fulfil the requirements they are awarded the Certificate

of Food and Beverage. Students with the certificate can proceed to the

diploma programme for another one year.

Table 3.13 : PERNAS (in collobration with Vatel Institute, France) Hotel School
Degree Programme Syllabus.

Certificate (Year 1)	Diploma (Year 2)
Food Production	English for Hospitality Industry
F&B Service Operation	Food Production Management II
Food Production I	Front Office Operation Management
F&B Management I	MIS
Wine and Bar	Housekeeping Operation
Nutrition and Hygiene	Food Production Management
MIS	Language (Bahasa Melayu)
Professional Development	Sales and Marketing
English/French	Human Resources Management
Int'l Cultural Studies	Accounting Management
	International Travel and Tourism

Bachelor's (Year 3)
Food & Beverage Management
Management Practise in Hospitality Operations
MIS
Marketing and Sales Management
Financial Management
International Economic and Tourism Development
Resort and Condominium Management
Franchising in the Hospitality Industry
Quality Management
Seminar in Hospitality Management
Management Project/Dissertation
Properties Management
Law
Marketing and Tourism
Human Resources Management
Personal and Professional Development
Languages (Bahasa Melayu and French)

Source: PERNAS HOTEL SCHOOL, 1999

The focus of the diploma programme is on the Room Division sector and functional management subjects. Upon successful completion of the programme students are awarded with the Diploma in Hotel Management. To proceed to the degree programme (one year), students are required to take advance management subjects and tourism subjects. The programme leads to the award of Bachelor of Science in International Hotel, Catering and Tourism Management. The degree programme conducted at PERNAS HOTEL SCHOOL is more technical orientated (French approach) in its approach compared to ITM's degree programme. At this point, however, these schools are not successful in term of attracting students to enrol in these programmes.

3.3.6.3   Quality Provision

With the rapid development of the industry, the industry professionals are now beginning to question the effectiveness of this approach in preparing future managers. With the recent expansion of hotel management programmes in Malaysia, there is a pressing need to ensure that the programmes offered by private colleges and universities are of high quality. In response, the Government has established the National Accreditation Board in 1997 to monitor standards and provide assistance and guideline for quality control and assessment of courses offered.

The objective of the National Accreditation Board is to determine the standards and quality of courses offered at public and private institutions of higher learning (for public institutions of higher learning the Ministry of

Education is directly responsible for accreditation). So far, only one college (Sunway College) has submitted their application for accreditation and approval to conduct degree-level programme in hospitality management.

According to the guidelines established by the Board, only those institutions that have obtained accreditation are allowed to collaborate or go into twinning arrangements with foreign institutions. Before any new courses are introduced, it is mandatory for private Institutions of Higher Learning to obtain approval. Authorisation is granted based on the evaluation of five components, which include general information on courses offered, teaching staff, curriculum management system and the physical facilities at the institution. Apart from this, under the Institutions of Higher Learning Act 1996 and National Accreditation Board Act 1996, several subjects are made compulsory at private institutions of higher learning (to avoid foreign qualification ignoring the complexity of the local cultural environment). They are National Language A (for Malaysian), National Language B (for non-Malaysian), Malaysian Studies, Islamic Studies (for Muslim) and Moral Studies (for non-Muslim).

3.4 Hotel Management Education in the U.S.A., U.K. and Continental Europe (France, Germany and Switzerland) and Malaysia– an Overview

All models have one common agenda: to produce competent individuals for the industry's development and competitiveness. However, there are several

features that differentiate between the U.S.A., Europe and Malaysian hotel management programmes (degree-level). Early development of hotel management education mirrors its industry. European education in hotel or related disciplines was officially initiated in 1893 in Lausanne, Switzerland, by the local hoteliers association. The European hotels were started as a 'mom and pop' industry, where doers rather than thinkers are necessary (Baum, 1992). Initially, the provision of courses at higher education level in hotel or related disciplines across Europe had a long tradition of similarity, based on a solid background in routine operations. The assumption that has been driven by the early development of hotel management education in Europe has considered of the hotel manager as an individual that is able to perform all the duties with the lodging and restaurant business (Formica, 1996).

Traditionally, educational structure in hotel or related fields has highlighted the importance of operational aspects of the industry and Malaysia is no exception. Generally speaking, early development of hotel education has been mainly concerned with educating and training students in hotel operations around food production and service, housekeeping and reception often neglecting other functional areas of management. However, this approach was revealed to be obsolete. The rapid development of the industry and increasing competition in the industry indicate that this approach was revealed to be irrelevant and not effectively responding to the current industry needs. In response, today's hotel management education has seen a

shift in emphasis from being technical or operational based to a balance of managerial and technical qualification.

European hospitality education model is more craft-oriented and great emphasis is given to technical skills of restaurant or hotel operations. This approach aims at developing sufficient skills to become functional managers. Some, particularly Germany, Switzerland and France, lay emphasis on vocational education and training through apprenticeships. Such a method of education could be seen as being the apprenticeship programmes in Germany, Switzerland, U.S.A and France. These programmes are sponsored by government, private organisations and unions. For example, in Germany, the 'Dual system' (*Duales System*) has worked effectively in offering sophisticated education and training which in most cases have responded well to the needs of the economy (Ministry of Education, Science, Research and Technology, 1997).

The German Government has claimed that the dual system has proved its success, as is shown by its ability to react effectively to many changes occurring in the economy and in the society. However, the system is also without critics. It was claimed that the dual system has been unable to adapt to the changes in German economy and the system is in danger of losing the involvement and commitment of employers (Dessinger, 1997). The dual system works well in a centralised economy but is unable to transpose its strength into a decentralised economy (Clarke *et al*, 1994). Unlike Germany,

apprenticeship programmes in the United States are used as method of controlling supply of some trades such as machinists, plumbers, carpenters and so forth (Kempner *at el*, 1993). Apprenticeship programmes in the U.S.A. are usually operated by Unions, and their offerings have little in common with the dual system. The apprenticeship programmes assure graduates of employment upon completion of their training (*ibid*).

The rapid changes in demographic trends in the late 1940's had resulted a fast development of large domestic hotel companies which in turn called for competent managers. The demand for multi-functional qualified managers is a necessity in large hotels. Hotel management education has responded to the industry's need by offering hotel management programme that is geared towards students' managerial preparation in the hotel sector (Formica, 1996).

Hotel management curriculum between these countries is getting blurred (Moreo and Christianson, 1988, Formica, 1996). Lately, however, it has been noted that hotel management education in Europe is developing a growing interest in the American approach and system to academic and managerial aspects of hotel management education (Frick, 1998). For example, European higher education institutions, are increasingly adopting the U.S.A. semester and credit hour systems or the case study approach in learning hotel management concept (Formica, 1996). The same applies to hotel management education (degree-level) in Malaysia where there *is a growing interest in the American approach and system to academic and managerial*

aspects of hotel management education (Hamzah, 1998). However, the American approach allows students to be an active participant in the process of learning. Most people are *'culturally conditioned'* and are likely to have different learning styles (Hofstede, 1980).

Societies in high power-distance and collectivism culture, educators or teachers insist on having exclusive control over teaching and learning situation. Students are excluded from any active role in making decisions about their own learning. The relationship between learning and culture should also be well understood. Today, hotel management education worldwide is facing another era of development — the globalisation of the industry and internationalisation of hotel management curricula.

Since the end of the 1970s, rapid growth of new destinations and the business environment have been shaping the industry into a highly global and competitive one. This in turn requires an effective hotel management education, which has become a critical requirement for managers and future managers in order to succeed in this 'global' industry. These events have become the keywords of the 1990s and beyond. Internationalisation of hotel management education in Malaysia is not a recent phenomenon. Technically, the Malaysian hotel management curriculum has been internationalised since its inception. Malaysian students are well informed about the industry in the developed nations rather than their own. The scarcity of local textbooks and journal on the Malaysian hospitality industry and management concept has

forced teaching staff to rely heavily on foreign textbooks and management concepts and cases as their teaching materials.

Another obvious difference between these nations is on the educational systems itself and its structures (Baum, 1992), accessibility, as well as the time frame of programmes offered (Moreo and Christianson, 1988, NEDO, 1989). For example, the four-year programme at *Ecole Hoteliere de Lausanne* which focuses on basic courses in kitchen and service during students' initial stage. Towards the end (last two semesters) of the programme students are required to take general management subjects, which provide a wider perspective of the industry.

On the other hand, in the U.S.A., students typically start with more general education and then move towards more specific hotel and business subjects in their last two years. It can be said that the American hospitality model provides a more management-oriented aiming to prepare future managers with well-rounded managerial competences (for example strategic thinking, problem solving, leadership and so forth). Bachelor's degree offered in the U.S.A. universities requires four years to complete as compared to three years in U.K. and countries in the continental Europe universities (except the sandwich programme). However, the three-year programme in the U.K. is similar to the theoretical four year except in the U.S.A system, the first two years are devoted to general education.

In most cases, the expansion of educational opportunities is regarded as a necessary social investment for future economic growth. In the same note, the U.S.A. and the U.K. are well ahead of France, Germany and Switzerland in terms of wider accessibility and educational opportunities. This can be seen through the massification of higher education and educational opportunities in both countries (Schuller, 1995). Typically, hotel management education in France, Germany and Switzerland follow a single route.

The entrance to degree-level or equivalent is restricted to those holding the prescribed qualification. For example, in Germany *hotelfachschulen* only admit individuals who have completed vocational training and have relevant practical experience (Thelen, 1998).

Similar situation applies to France and Switzerland. Only those individuals with the *Diplome d'Etudes Universitaires General* (DEUG)/ BTS are eligible to apply for degree-level hotel management programme in France. In most cases, the expansion of educational opportunities is regarded as a necessary social investment for future economic growth (Razak, 1997). Generally, the developed nations are well ahead of Malaysia in terms of wider accessibility and educational opportunities. In Malaysia, the entrance to degree-level qualification is restricted to Diploma (or equivalent) holders or *Sijil Tinggi Persekolahan* (STP).

Quality assessment is also an important feature in these countries. The European and Malaysian educational systems are more centralised than the U.S.A. For example, the quality provision and accreditation of hotel programmes in Europe and Malaysia are monitored by the central Government via its agencies. As mentioned earlier, in the U.S.A the method of development and maintenance of standards for publicly funded college and university education programmes has been decentralised to the states and accrediting agencies.

The Constitution of the United States made no provision for a system of national uniform involvement in the educational processes (Alexander, 1980). Hospitality management programmes in the U.S.A. represent a wide range of differences in regard to programme emphasis, geographic location, student population and tradition (Pavesic, 1984). In the U.S.A. accreditation and quality control develope from a strong tradition of voluntary action. The voluntary self-regulated of educational programmes is uniquely American (institutions' freedom and social responsibility are maintained through voluntary accreditation) (Berengarten, 1983). This volunteerism is seen as a salient feature of the accreditation process. The Table 3.14 attempts to contextualise the differences.

There is one element that is considered a common feature in all countries – internship (or industrial attachment, cooperative work placement) is an integral part of the curriculum. It has been reported that in all cases

internship or industrial attachment or work placement has contributed positively towards students' professional development and the programme' objectives and enhance employment opportunities (Casado, 1992, King, 1994). The only difference lies in the way the internship is conducted. In the U.S.A. and Malaysia, internship or work placement is normally not supervised or controlled by academic staff, compared to supervised work experience (SWE) or internship in the U.K. or continental Europe (for example the professional educational law 'Berufbildungsgesetze' in Germany).

Internships or work placements are an integral parts of the study programmes and are carried out under the supervision of the schools in the U.K., France, Germany and Switzerland. Students undergoing their internships must conform to the employers' employment terms and conditions. Industrial attachment or placement is an important aspect in any examination of the relevance of higher education to employment. It is a fact that those graduates with relevant experience from industrial attachment are better placed in the labour market.

Table 3.14 : Degree-level Hotel Management Programme in the U.S.A., Europe and Malaysia

	U.S.A.	U.K.	GER.	FR.	SWISS	MALAYSIA
Industrial Attachment	Not Supervised	Supervised	Supervised	Supervised	Supervised	Not Supervised
Structure of the Programme	General/Specialised	Specialised	Specialised	General/Specialised	Specialised	Specialised
Entrance/Accessibility	Wide	Wide	Narrow	Narrow	Narrow	Narrow
Duration	4 years	3-4 years	3-4 years	2-3 years	2-4 years	2-3 years
Quality Control	Decentralised	Centralised	Centralised	Centralised	Decentralised	Centralised
Part of University Programme	Yes	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes

3.5   Summary

This chapter starts by reiterating the brief history of hotel industry and hotel management education in the U.S.A. and U.K. A general description of hotel management programmes in the U.S.A. and U.K., Germany, Switzerland, France and Malaysia is discussed. The reason for this inclusion is to have a general view of how hotel management education is conducted in these countries vis-à-vis the Malaysian hotel management education.

The study believes that all cultures have the same aims and goals of education, that is, to develop, excel and prosper individuals, however, it should be remembered and recognised that each culture has its own unique cultural setting and values. In the same vein, educational systems are microcosms of the societies of which they belong. In the same spirit, each must have its own indigenous model of learning and development. In certain cases, the wholesale implementation of a Western orientated programme and system would be disastrous or be totally counterproductive (Kempner *et al*, 1993).

The apprentice model, which is being utilised and well developed in Germany is well established. Germany, Switzerland and France are contended with their vocational education system. The Germany 'dual system', for example, has worked well offering advanced and sophisticated education and training which in most cases has responded well to the needs of the industry and

economy. Unlike in these countries, apprenticeship programmes in the U.S.A have not been well developed.

Another common element found in these three countries (Switzerland, France and Germany) is that their governments have a strong link with the industry in determining the content of the curriculum and the direction of the programme. The pragmatic view of linking education and economy in these countries, the U.S., U.K., Germany, France and Switzerland, has long been acknowledged and practiced.

In today's economic environment, higher education institutions in Malaysia must be unrelenting in pursuing the long-term goals of producing capable future managers to handle difficult situation in the ever-challenging business environment. According to Ibrahim (Star, 1998b), the most immediate challenge is that *'our higher institutes of education must contribute directly to growth'* (Ibrahim, 1997).

CHAPTER 4

LITERATURE REVIEW

Introduction

Once the aim and objectives have been identified, it is crucial in any research endeavour to review the relevant literature that will contribute towards an in-depth understanding of the issues. However, writing a literature review is not an easy task, especially when the research topic involves several important and interrelated disciplines. In such a case, the researcher has to structure the review in such a manner that those disciplines are present in a format that provides a useful context. The purpose of this chapter is to review the literature relevant to the conceptual planning efforts that can be incorporated in developing or improving degree-level hotel management programme in Malaysia.

Like any organisations, educational institutions are in constant interaction with the environment. The environment in which organisation exist today is complex and diverse. The environment comprises a wide range of influences — including economic, socio-cultural, political, technological, resources, and so forth – to which the organisation is sensitive and must respond in order to function effectively. Recent trends in education have served to emphasis the need for educational institutions to be more responsive to those individuals or groups who are perceived to have a legitimate stake in their activities

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(Aspinwall, *et al*, 1992). The expectations of these individuals or groups take centre stage when decision to review the effectiveness or relevancy of any educational endeavour. As such, the researcher has to make choices based around the issues that need to be addressed and most likely to provide a better understanding and insight into the investigation in hand.

Hence, to encapsulate the issues involved, the literature review chapter is divided into two parts. The first part (4.1) introduces the idea of stakeholders in managing diversity. Educational institutions are now experiencing an unprecedented level of demands and expectations from the stakeholders (Schuller, 1995, Mohamad *at el*, 1995). Key stakeholders affect decision making within organisation, through their influence on organisational priorities and objectives. Failure to respond to these stakeholders could signal the ineffectiveness or demise of the organisations (Drucker, 1985, p. 151).

The second part (4.2) of the chapter focuses on the importance of managerial competences in managing complex business environment. Management education must be well informed of the new demands on management practices. Institutions of higher education must be aware of the changes that are taking place in the industry and the necessary competences required to handle these changes. As an approach to understand the new demands and expectations, the concept of managerial competences is discussed.

This part also includes a brief history of the concept and continues with the discussion of the conceptual models, which have been developed to identify those managerial competences. To further grasp the fundamental issues surrounding managerial competences, the concept of knowledge and understanding is reviewed. Knowledge and understanding are part of the curriculum content of all higher vocational education and among the essential components of competence.

The Stakeholders Concept

4.1   Introduction

Despite the region's recent erratic economic and currency crisis, the tourism industry is still playing an important role in the Malaysian economy and continues to contribute substantially to the economy. Nevertheless, as we all know, the tourism industry is labour intensive. Much of its future development depends significantly on the quality of its labour force (Tas, 1988; New Strait Times, 1996a). This in turn has created new challenges and pressures for hospitality management education providers to respond effectively. However, there has been considerable debate recently about hospitality management education, inferring that hospitality education providers have not kept up with the times. This is implying that educational institutions are not monitoring the environmental changes and are insensitive to the changes taking place.

Alongside the dramatic development of the industry, hotel management education providers are currently experiencing great pressure to ensure that their graduates are equipped with the necessary competences to perform effectively in the world of work. Apart from this, higher education institutions are also been pressured to equip graduates with life-long learning capability (Mohamad, 1991, Star, 1998c). It is widely acknowledged that today's entry-level managers in the 'new economy world order' need a diversity of

competences in order to meet the demands of the industry (Buergermeister, 1983; Cockerill, 1989, New Strait Times, 1996b).

In today's environment, educational institutions have to align themselves with the business environment in order to play their role in the society. It should be stated at the outset that the term environment here is referred to as the aggregate of all external and internal conditions affecting the existence of an organisation (Bennett, 1997). Hence, it is important for educational managers and leaders to recognise and conceptualise the interdependency and multiplicity of the environmental forces that have the most relevancy to the operation and have the greatest influence in their decision-making process (Freeman, 1984, Pfeffer and Salancik, 1985, Jacobs, 1997).

This environment consists of groups and individuals who have the power and the ability to influence the organisation's objective and decision- making process (Bennet, 1997). Failure to respond to these groups and individuals could signal the ineffectiveness or demise of the establishments (Drucker, 1985, p.151).

Each of these groups and individuals has the ability to influence organisation's objective and direction. At the same time, each group and individual has its own expectations and priorities of what constitute an effective programme of studies. Within this environment, organisations have to deal and negotiate with the groups and individuals to achieve their desired goals. One approach

that has been used to manage the multiplicity of expectations is the stakeholder concept (Enz *et al*, 1993, Hamel and Prahalad, 1994). Educational institutions should be socially responsible and seek ways to satisfy their key stakeholders. In this context, there is no *prima facie* priority of one set of stakeholders or interests over another (Savage *et al*, 1991).

In this section of the Literature Review Chapter, the stakeholder concept is introduced as a mechanism to understand and manage diversity (Aspinwall *et al*, 1992, Donaldson and Preston, 1995, Zadek *et al*, 1997). The discussion starts with a brief history of the concept and its development. This is followed by an examination of stakeholders in institutions of higher education. Go, (1995) stresses that

> *educators and human resource specialists must respond to change and become more innovative in terms of course direction, content, programming and delivery.*

In the same note, Savage *et al* (1991, p. 91) state that

> *To cope with the environmental turbulence and uncertainty... business executives and education managers must effectively manage their stakeholders* (emphasis added).

4.1.1 Stakeholder Concept

It is said that the history of the term stakeholder is difficult to trace. According to Freeman (1984), the term was used precisely in the early work of the Stanford Research Institute (now called the Stanford Research Institute

International Inc.) in 1963. In its early development, Freeman (1984) states the concept of stakeholder was limited in scope and pertains primarily to gathering general information about traditional external groups namely the stockholders (owners). The primary expectation centred on the profit function of the organisation. Stockholders expect a financial return on their investment in the form of profit and determine the financial position and value of the company.

Preston and Sapienza (1990), however, argued that the concept was already been adopted earlier when General Electric Company identified their major groups of 'stakeholders', which include customers, employees, community and shareholders. During this period, it was believed that the company's shareholders would benefit if the customers, employees and community requirements and expectations were satisfied. As the business environment is becoming more complex, the concept of stakeholder has broadened to include any group or individual who can affect or is affected by the organisation's purpose. These groups may prevent or encourage the achievement of the organisation's goals.

Environmental forces, both the internal and external, are created by individuals and groups who constitute the society. These individuals and groups are sometimes referred to as the stakeholders of an organisation because they have influence over and interest in the organisation (Ackoff, 1970; Freeman, 1984; Mitroff, 1983) even though they may not be formally a part of it. These individuals or groups are sometimes referred to as "players"

(McCormick, 1986), "clientele groups", "claimants" or "stakeholders" (King and McClelland, 1978).

Goodstein *et al* (1993) view the stakeholders as those individuals, groups, and organisations who will be impacted by or interested in the organisation's strategic management. They stress that the stakeholders must be identified and their concerns must be determined in order to facilitate the planning process. They added that once the stakeholders are identified, the impact of various future states on the different stakeholders could be considered part of the strategic planning process. It also can provide a better picture of the changes (and expectations) that are taking place in the business environment. Thus, Freeman (1984, p. 46) believes that

> *A stakeholder in an organisation is by definition any individual or group who can affect or are affected by, the achievement of an organisation's mission.*

The stakeholder concept, according to Freeman (1984), can be useful in integrating some of the issues around the concept of organisational strategy. According to Roberts and King (1989), stakeholder management attempts to direct an organisation, taking into consideration its relationship with internal and external environmental forces. The stakeholder concept could be used to enrich the understanding of the internal and external changes in the business environment. The term stakeholder can lead managers to believe that these interest groups have a stake in the organisation. The term 'stakeholder'

connotes "legitimacy" in the sense that their demand on the organisation is legitimate, regardless of the appropriateness of their demand if the organisation were to understand the system better (Freeman, 1984).

In order to effectively manage relationships with the organisation's stakeholders, the organisation must understand the process, which involved (Freeman 1984, p. 294):

1. *The identification of the organisation's stakeholders and their perceived stakes.*

2. *The implicit or explicit management of the organisation's relationship with its stakeholders, and whether the process 'fits' with the rational stakeholder map of the organisation.*

3. *The set of transactions or bargains between the organisation and its stakeholders.*

Stakeholder management capability is a term used to describe the ability to put these three levels of analysis or process together. An organisation is said to have a high stakeholder management capability when it is able to identify and balance the interests of the various stakeholders to achieve the organisation's goal. Stakeholder analysis (Freeman, 1984 and Aspinwall *et al*, 1992) or stakeholder audit (Goodstein *at el*, 1993, Roberts and King, 1989) is used by some firms to identify and identify these expectations. On the other hand, an organisation which does not understand, or even realise that they

exist, who the stakeholders are and has no strategy for negotiating with stakeholders is said to have a low stakeholder management capability.

According to Savage *et al* (1991), stakeholders must be effectively managed in order to cope with environmental turbulence and uncertainty. They say that organisational strategists must consider how to manage the stakeholders. In this way, management can assess each stakeholder's potential "to threaten" or "to co-operate" with the organisation. They identify four different types of stakeholders, namely the supportive, mixed blessing, non-supportive and marginal stakeholders. They conclude that the two dimensions — potential for threat and for co-operation — allows a manager to classify stakeholders into these four types. This would enable managers to develop strategies to manage their stakeholders with different levels of potential.

A successful organisation would be able to determine the prosperity of a community and the health of environment (Cannon, 1994). This is accomplished through managing the relationships with stakeholders groups rather than with society as a whole (Clarkson, 1995). The extent to which management responds to and fulfils stakeholder needs is a measure of responsiveness or performance (Wood, 1991, Clarkson, 1995). At the same time, society expects something in return. Quoted in Cannon (1994, p. 32), Task Force on Corporate Social Performance (1980) believes that

> *Business corporations exist primarily to produce goods and services*
>
> *that society wants and needs. Achieving this objective is the first and*

foremost responsibility; if they are unsuccessful in this mission, they

cannot reasonably be expected to assume others.

(Task Force on Corporate Social Performance, 1980 quoted in

Cannon, 1994)

Private or public corporations also depend on society to provide the resources

needed for its survival. According to Pfeffer and Salancik (1985), to acquire

the resources from the society, organisations must interact with those who are

in control of these resources. They continue saying that because the

organisations do not control the resources needed; acquiring these resources

may be *'problematic and uncertain'.* At the same time, the society is expected

to provide an environment which business organisations are able to carry out

their responsibilities (Cannon, 1994). Pfeffer and Salancik (1985, p. 147) say

that

Survival of the organisation is partially explained by the ability to cope

with environmental contingencies; negotiating exchanges to ensure the

continuation of needed resources is the focus of much organisational

action.

Stakeholder concept has forced management to be susceptible towards the

needs and requirements of the stakeholders (Freeman and Evan, 1990). The

view that business organisations exist solely to serve the firm's stockholders

mentioned earlier has led business organisation to reassess their objectives

that there are another important roles that organisations are accountable for.

Due to its nature, stakeholders are made up of different groups varying in size

and influence. As it is stated before, stakeholders have the ability to either

support or destroy the organisation's purpose. Each group tries to use some

source of power to control decisions and actions. Mintzberg (1983) suggests

that in order for an organisation to address the issues, it needs to

understand which interest groups that are present, what needs each seeks to

fulfil, and how each is able to exercise power to fulfil them. However,

stakeholder approach or model does not imply that all stakeholders should be

equally involved in all processes and decisions (Donaldson and Preston,

1995).

4.1.2 Stakeholders in Education

What has been discussed about stakeholder management so far

concentrate in the business sector. The stakeholder concept can also be

equally an effective management tool for educational institutions in dealing

with diversity (Boyatzis *et al*, 1995, Roberts and King, 1989,). Traditionally,

within the context of education, it assumes that the only valid measures of

success and quality are the ones determined by educators. This

presumption tends to encourage insularity and close our minds from

listening to other legitimate views, which could have an impact on the

development of an institution (Aspinwall et al, 1992). Boyatzis *et al* (*ibid*)

stress the importance of willingness to listen and respond to their needs

(stakeholders) when managing change is called for. Accordingly, Aspinwall

et al (1992) suggest that, a better alternative available in evaluating an issue

is by using the stakeholder analysis approach. From an education point of view stakeholder is described as

> any person or organisation with an interest in, or a justifiable claim to need to know, the outcomes of the educational process. (Ashcroft and Palacio, 1996, p. 19)

In educational context, Aspinwall *et al* (1992, p. 84) identify four kinds of stakeholders. They are:

1. *Clients or customers: all the individuals and groups who are served by the programme in question.*

2. *Suppliers: all those who provide resources of energy, finance and materials to enable the programme to take place.*

3. *Competitors and collaboration: all those who provide an alternative and service provided by the programme, or whose collaboration is necessary if it is to be effective.*

4. *Regulators: all those, such as government agencies and examination boards, who establish policies and rules.*

In addition to this, they have outlined (p. 85) several important points about stakeholders. They are:

1. *Stakeholders can be both internal and external,*

2. *Stakeholders can relate to present or future relationship,*

3. *Some groups may have more than one kind of stake in the school or college, for example the government and*

4. *The relative importance of stakeholders may increase or decrease over time.*

Harvey, Burrows and Green (1992, p. 64) have identified eight key stakeholders in higher education . They are as follows:

- Students;
- Employers;
- Governmental (subdivided into ministerial departments- DFE, DE);
- Funding Councils;
- Teaching staff in higher education institutions;
  Managerial Staff in higher education (including bodies such as the CDP and the CVCP);
- Accrediting and validating bodies (e.g., BTEC (Edexcel));
- Assessment bodies (e.g., HMI).

The study conducted by Harvey, Burrows and Green (1992) aims to produce a set of quality criteria that are ranked in order of preference reflecting the expectations of all the various stakeholders identified. Although they realise that each of the stakeholders has multiple needs and interests, the study hopes to reconcile this diversity and that a set of core criteria would emerge. These criteria could then be used to evaluate existing quality assurance and determine its appropriateness and usefulness in the higher education context. See Appendix IV for the ten core criteria that have been identified as important in quality assessment.

Their finding has high degree of compatibility with another (independent) study conducted by Sandison (1996). Four additional stakeholders are added to the list. They are:

1. The suppliers of goods and service to universities,

2. The secondary education sector,

3. Other universities and

4. The Nation.

From Sandison's analysis, however, four key stakeholders in higher education emerged namely the students, industry, educators and government.

Another study that addresses the issue of stakeholder was undertaken by Enz *et al* (1993) and Dittman (1997) at Cornell University. In this study, they identifie four key stakeholders namely the industry professionals, alumni, students, and the faculty members. However, the study clearly defines the identified stakeholders as those *"individuals with interest in or knowledge of the Cornell University hotel school."*

Higher education institutions must respond to various individuals and groups and determine their concerns in order to facilitate the planning process. Reavill (1998) adopted Checkland's (1981) soft systems model and identifies twelve (12) stakeholders in studying the relationship between stakeholders and the higher education system. In addition to Harvey, Burrows and Green's and Sadison's lists three additional stakeholders are identified which includes the family and dependents of the students, Commerce and industry and Universities' employees.

According to Reavill (*ibid*) there are still more to be identified. However, Reavill feels that students, employer, family and universities are the most important stakeholders. Nevertheless, according to him, the identification of

these stakeholders is relatively easy. The most difficult part is when to establish their relative power. For example, the government is considered the owner of public higher education institutions. However, the government (through its agencies) is not interested in the financial value of the institutions per se but the value of the nation in terms of her economic success and the development of the people. Employers may be more interested in graduates who have the potential to be 'good' employees or students may wish to develop a set of skills and competences that equip them for employment.

In such a case, Aspinwall *et al* (1992, p. 84) say that, when evaluating a particular educational issue, one needs to ask the question whose interests and perceptions are we taking into account. They reminded that it is important to identify those who have a stake in the programme (or an issue), and consider their expectations and potential influence.

There is no doubt that the concept of stakeholders must include a broad range of groups and individuals. However, in practice organisations must also be willing to exclude certain groups who have little or no impact on the issue(s) being addressed (Freeman, 1984, Boyatzis *et al*, 1995). Freeman adds that the concept of stakeholder could focus on satisfying the needs of a small number of specific stakeholder groups.

Given the diversity of the stakeholders, differences of opinion emerge between them. Mitroff (1983) suggests that the initial disagreement should be

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considered as strength since it informs us of the different options and work toward a final point of shared commitment and possible solution alternatives. Stakeholder concept has become an accepted management philosophy in dealing with diversity and discontinuity (Donaldson and Preston, 1995).

4.1.3 Managing Diversity

Studies have shown that meeting stakeholders' expectations in education poses the most difficult and challenging task. Despite these challenges, managers should evaluate the environment for those stakeholders that are likely to influence the decision-making process of the organisation (Freeman, 1984). According to Boyatzis *et al* (*op cit*), to handle the differences of opinion and diversity, stakeholders' priority setting is necessary for effective strategy planning and the change process. They believe that it is impossible for any organisation to satisfy the needs and expectations of all stakeholders.

Doyle (1994) suggests that another approach to managing stakeholders' differences is in the notion of 'tolerance zone'. In this approach, organisations can match the minimum expectations of all key stakeholders. He adds that the task of management is to broaden the 'tolerance zone' through creating a long-term mutuality of interest between potentially disparate stakeholders interests. Doyle (1994, p.,130) describes that

> *By broadening the tolerance zone, management creates potential for*
> *new initiatives. Since the minimum expectations of the stakeholders are*

met, the pressures to sacrifice the long-term for short-term performance

are curtailed.

He (p. 130) describes the danger of only paying attention to one particular
stakeholder or group,

> *...intensified focus on satisfying one stakeholder group increases the*
> *chances of a collision with other groups.*

Given the circumstances we must not loose heart or ignore those challenges
in the quest to better improve hotel management education, particularly in
Malaysia, which in return will benefit the industry and society. As Casado
(1992) puts it

> *rejection of the expectations will definitely threaten to undermine the*
> *institute of higher education creditability.*

Institutions of higher education must be aware of the key role they perform on
the boundary of the institution. Recent trends in education have stressed the
need for education providers to be more responsive and transparent to those
who are perceived to have a legitimate interest in the development of
hospitality education.

4.1.4 Summary

Organisations do not exist in a vacuum and neither they are islands that can live unto them, ignoring the world around them (Handy, 1985). The academic dogma that institutions of higher education pursue knowledge for its own sake should be given serious thought and consideration. After a long period of stability, institutions of higher education in Malaysia now are confronted with an unprecedented pace of change. This should ignite some initiatives to rethink the way we (educators) managed the curriculum.

These demands are different and most of the time in conflict with the demands of others. Educational institutions are in no position to satisfy all these demands simultaneously. However, the best they can do is to understand thoroughly these demands and manage them accordingly. Lacking a systematic framework for understanding these changes will put educational institutions in a very difficult situation to navigate the future direction of the any establishments (Toffler, 1980).

To better understand and respond to this increasingly changing organisational environment, the concept of stakeholder management is reviewed and explored. However, the applicability of this concept depends greatly on how managers in organisations (private or public) understand and manage the external and internal environment that they currently face.

It seems clear that many institutes of higher learning are coming out of their traditional behaviour of self-sufficiency, and considering the way in which they interact with their environment. The era of stability and certainty is over. The relationships between the higher education providers and the environment are highly complex. The society's expectations of the institution are widely diversified.

Conflicts of interest in the educational institutions are inevitable. Nevertheless, ignoring them is not the best alternative available because stakeholders have the ability to either support or destroy the organisation purpose. It is often said that '*by entering into conflict with things that we understand ourselves best'* (Minogue, 1973, p. 226). In the same notion, the Centre for Educational Research and Innovation (CERI) (1982, p. 31) concludes that:

> *Whether we look at the university's link with the economy,*
> *integration with the immediate environment or its component*
> *groups, the promotion of democratisation or participation in*
> *regional policy, we find a curious mixture of specific demands*
> *and indifference, expectations and distrust.*

This complexity can only be understood through its dependence and transformation with their environment and stakeholders. If these relations are kept to a minimum it is very difficult to achieve their aims and objectives (Cannon, 1994). Nevertheless, ignoring this fact is not the best alternative; in fact, it is the obligation that institutes of higher education must accept of being

accountable in their activities to the society. At the same time, higher educational institutions must act to change. If not it will be just another 'academic' activity to call for a change. As Oviatt and Miller (1989, p. 310) put it

> The ideas of pundits who urge change in business research and education but who devote little or no attention to the reasons for the current conditions are as irrelevant as the impractical academic theories they criticise.

Managerial Competence

4.2   Introduction

It was suggested in the preceding part (Literature review I) that understanding

the environment allows organisations to ponder the interrelationships of the

stakeholders involved, and influences upon their activities (Morgan, 1988,

Mohamad, 1991, Aspinwal *et al*, 1992). Like any organisation, educational

institutions are accountable to stakeholders for their actions. Since higher

education has a responsibility to the stakeholders, its activities must not

depart from the mainstream of the society. Higher education institutions must

exist vis-à-vis the society. It is an accepted tenet that this organisational

environment in which organisation exists is constantly changing. Taking

account of the economic importance of the industry, and specifically

hospitality industry, emphasis must be placed on the quality of graduates

completing Hospitality Management programmes. In the same vein, higher

education curriculum should become more 'relevant' to individual and society.

Relevance is a powerful concept in the discourse of higher education. The

issue of relevance should be viewed as the set of competence within the

context of the environment.

Organisational success depends heavily on its ability to exploit opportunities

and on its determination and persistence (Hayes, 1985). As employers seek

to position themselves competitively in the constantly changing business environments, they require individuals with the right competence to take on the challenges created by the unpredictable and turbulent business environment. As the whole concept of skills and abilities move toward the need for competence, business organisations have begun to place greater emphasis on determining 'competences' of their future managers (college graduates) (Morgan, 1988, Heywood, 1994, Winter and Maisch, 1996, HEQC, 1997). Morgan (1988, p. xi) explained the shift

> *...in the past managerial competence went hand in hand with the possession of specific skills and abilities, it now seems to involve much more.*

In the same vein, competence also needs to be defined in such a way that incorporates the view of stakeholders (Boam and Sparrow, 1992).

However, in educational circles the concept of competence or competency is still a debatable and controversial concept. The concept of competence is still *"a contested set of ideas in educational circles"* (Elliot, 1991; Woodruffe, 1991; Burgoyne, 1993; Eraut, 1994; and Barnett, 1992, 1994). For instance, Eraut (1994) believes that the direct link between education and employment is an attack on the liberal university tradition. To some educators, this shift is seen as a challenge and loss of 'independence' of educational curricula and their subjection to the demands of the industry (Elliot, 1991 and Field, 1991). According to Carr (1993), the problem regarding the term competence *'lies a sort of fallacy equivocation'*. To a certain extent, the competence vocabulary

exists in terms of common words but not in terms of *'shared meaning'* (Hayes, 1993, Wade, 1994). Nevertheless, Barnett (1994, p.58) acknowledges the limitations of the conventional practice of higher education. He says that

> *If higher education is in part the acquisition of skills, we must conclude*
> *that a higher education must develop [a] double capacity: the ability to*
> *frame a situation in a range of possible ways and the capacity to identify*
> *the appropriate skills to bring to bear on the situation as defined.*

Barnett (p.147) believes that in order for the notion of 'competence' to be appropriate in higher education context

> *skills and competence must be complex; they must involve reflection,*
> *judgement, values, and breadth of understanding.*

It is the contention of this study that an effective hotel management curriculum can be developed based on the competences, which also emphasised complexity, judgement, and understanding, should be proactive in relation to the future.

At the same time, the development of managerial competences must not only look at what are the present and past practices which produced excellent results to an organisation. It is not enough, either, to look or identify what excellent organisations have done (Morgan, 1988). Similarly, from an education perspective, replicating or importing well established programmes

from the developed countries will also lead to ineffectiveness due to the different socio-cultural, economic context of the host country (Baum, 1992). In developing managerial competences more should be done than "*drive through the rearview mirror*" (Morgan, 1988). Barnett (1994) argues that the concept of competence in higher education must go *'beyond competence'*, namely *'life-world becoming (life-long learning)'* – a form of *'reflective knowing'* which accepts the status of both knowledge and practice to *'continuous scrutiny'* (Lashley, 1999).

In order to facilitate the planning and development of degree-level hotel management curriculum in Malaysia, the study believes that the best initial approach is to identify what is expected — managerial competences — of students graduating from hotel management programme. There are several approaches available in determining these expectations. For example, the expectations can be based on the subjects offered by hotel schools (Pavesic, 1984) or it can be based on the competences expected of graduates for entry-level managers (Tas, 1988, HCIMA, 1994, 1998). However, identifying stakeholders' expectations based solely on subject or knowledge areas might not provide the whole picture of the issue.

At the same time, knowledge is also an integral part of professional education (HCIMA, 1998). Managerial competence offers an alternative approach to capture both issues since it focuses on the knowledge as well as the

competence elements of a person and work or function. The results could provide a better framework for educators or curriculum planners to consider the essentials when planning or developing a curriculum. Nevertheless, the introduction of the competence concept in curriculum planning should not be viewed as a panacea. Rather, the concept should be considered as '*a glue to integrate development strategies*' (Boam and Sparrow, 1992, p. 175).

As an attempt to conceptualise the stakeholders' expectations, Part II of this Literature Review begins with the discussion of concept of competence, and the issues engulfing the concept in hotel management education, the first part of this section discusses the framework for conceptualising the issues of knowledge and understanding (underpinning aspect of competence). Knowledge and understanding are seen as constructs and are required to sustain effective performance to new situations with the occupation. It is a fact that the knowledge and understanding components are part of the curriculum content and part of the main substance of managerial competence (Morgan, 1988).

It continues with the discussion of the competence issue in curriculum development and the major approaches (or models) of competence, that is, the "behavioural or inputs" and the "occupational standard or outputs" approaches to competence. Each model has its own advantages and disadvantages. At the outset, the study believes that the various interpretations and approaches to managerial competence are regarded as

complementary rather than contradictory. Both are also concerned about performance. Hence, the study sought to capture a comprehensive picture of competence by bringing together the two approaches — competence comprising of competenc(i)es (Stuart and Lindsay (1997).

The discussion will also include the discussion of competence and management education and other issues surrounding the concept of competence, for example competence life cycle, transferability, educational objective and 'graduateness'.

To avoid getting entangled in definition problems, this study makes no attempt to discuss the various philosophical approaches in defining *what is knowledge and understanding (*the essential components to competence)? However, the importance of the components has led the present study to include some discussions on the issues of knowledge and understanding, consciously or unconsciously. This is merely to develop the boundary of the research project.

4.2.1 Knowledge & Understanding

Knowledge and understanding are the essential components to competence. Competent performance relies heavily on the knowledge and understanding of the particular task and job role. Wolf (1990) stresses the importance of knowledge and understanding are themselves constructs that are perceived to contribute to competence. According to Wolf (1990), knowledge and understanding can be inferred from measures of competence or direct

measures. Eraut (1990) posits that competent practitioners have to know (knowledge) several possible course of actions which they could take (understanding). In the same vein, Black (1990, p. 50) says

> *'Knowing' may not only involve holding information, but also valuing it, understand when and how to apply it, making choices within it and other behaviours which can be classified as 'cognitive skills'.*

Crombag *et al* (1979), cited in Kirschner *et al* (1997), identify two types of cognitive skills, which are relevant to the discussion of knowledge and competence. The two cognitive skills are *'Operations on knowledge'* and *'Operations with knowledge'*.

'Operations on knowledge' refers to the operations that are performed on knowledge which lead to the development of new knowledge. According to Kirschner *et al* (1997), the simplest example of *'Operations on knowledge'* is memorisation. More analysis and evaluation are needed for higher or complex *'Operations on Knowledge'*. This could be referred to Bloom's *et al* (1956) taxonomy of knowledge: *analysis, synthesis and evaluation*. In other words, higher level *'Operation on knowledge'* improves or deepen knowledge (Anderson, 1980). On the other hand, *'Operations with knowledge'* aims at verifying results or products. The consequences of the operation can be illustrated in reality or in Bloom's term, *application*. As far as Black and Wolf (1990, p. 6) are concerned knowledge and understanding should be seen as

A body of knowledge of information possessed by an individual and

how it s organised internally and its application in different context

and situation.

In any educational process, the concept of understanding is as important as

knowledge and any other concepts that contribute towards individuals learning

process (Barnett, 1994). Barnett (1994, p. 99) views understanding as *"a*

description of a state of consciousness." Barnett says that if someone wants to

understand something, it must be done independently.

For the purposes of this study, knowledge and understanding are seen as the

central focus to educational discussion. Knowledge and understanding are

said to be the prerequisite of competence (Eraut, 1994; Mansfield, 1988;

Wolf, 1990). Knowledge and understanding are also seen as an integral part

of competent performance. However, to avoid any confusion and 'sterile

debate' on knowledge and understanding the study will consider them as one

relevant to competence (Wolf, 1990). The present study adopts the definition

of knowledge and understanding as

> *a body of knowledge of information possessed by an individual and how it*
>
> *is organised internally and its application in different context and situation.*
>
> (Jirasinghe and Lyons, 1996, p. 41)

Jirasinghe and Lyons (1996, p. 42) believe that

> *Knowledge and understanding is seen as essential in the*
>
> *development of standards its description a necessary step to specify*

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the evidence required to make a safe inference for each element of

competence.

Jirasinghe and Lyons (*ibid*) argue that the role of knowledge and understanding should be explicitly described in developing, what they called, 'descriptors' to measure and assess standards.

In the process of developing NVQs and SVQs (Employment Department, 1993) knowledge and understanding are considered vital when developing standards and refining or improving standards. In NVQ, individuals must apply their 'knowledge and understanding' to perform any task. Bruner's (1977) also stresses that

> *...the learning is a process of not something that one knows about but is,*
>
> *rather, something one knows how to.*

In this respect, Mitchel *et al* (1990, p. 23) observed that knowledge and understanding are seen

> *as an enabler.... is a way of looking at the knowledge issue in*
>
> *relationship to individuals who are to learn how to be competent and*
>
> *who will wish to be assessed on their competence.*

The occupational standards (NVQ) and behavioural (McBer) approaches acknowledge the importance of knowledge and understanding in testifying an individual's competence, although differences exist in the appropriation of the knowledge and understanding elements into the exercise. From the occupational standards perspective, knowledge and understanding (and

cognitive skills) are part of performance (Employment Department, 1993). The

evidence of knowledge and understanding can be drawn from performance

and this can be achieved through various means, for example

- *Observing an activity,*

- *Examining products and outcomes of activity,*

- *Looking at records,*

- *Reviewing third party or third party testimony, and*

- *Questioning candidates both in relation to particular tasks and/or any*

  evidence of indicated through the different courses of action.

In NVQ context, the knowledge and understanding element required in

relation to particular task will not become clear until the range of statement

for a qualification is decided or *'recontextualising competence'* (Wolf, 1990).

Range statements are developed to make qualification easier to understand

(Grugulis, 1997, p. 435). For example, in deciding what knowledge is required

in understanding client needs; the range statement would be *"understanding*

the needs of various or different client groups". Consequently, to understand

these needs, one of the knowledge statement required is to identify what are

the needs of these different client groups (Hayward, 1995). The purpose of

the range statement is to identify the breadth of the knowledge and its

transferability, and to indicate the underpinning knowledge and understanding

(DOE, 1993).

Nevertheless, the kinds and levels of knowledge and understanding, which lead to competence have various interpretations and understanding to different people (Eraut, 1994, Wolf, 1990, Debling, 1989). As Debling (1989, p.85) points out that

> knowledge and understanding in itself has different interpretations: knowledge of facts, an ability to reiterate a theory as evidence of understanding, and/or referring to complex cognitive processes.

Wolf (1990, p. 31) stresses that if we decide to assess or measure knowledge and understanding separately *"we will be doing at one remove."* Wolf adds that any tests that measure only factual recollection are inadequate measures of knowledge and understanding are unlikely to provide any evidence of competence, since all measures of competence provide evidence of knowledge and understanding. Any distinction between knowledge and understanding are also unhelpful (Stephenson and Weil, 1992). There are dangers in taking any of them in isolation (Jessup, 1991). According to Mansfield (1991) and Barnett (1994), it is an accepted notion that knowledge and understanding contribute to competence, even if we are unable directly to observe or measure them. With regards to the differences in interpretation of the term 'knowledge and understanding, Mansfield (1991, p. 19) stresses that

> in theory or in practice, the difference between knowledge and understanding may not be that significant where occupational standards are concerned.

4.2.2 Managerial Competence

The concept or idea of competence as it is understood and used today has its beginnings in psychological theory. It is said that the 'modern regime' of competence initiative owes its life to Harvard psychology professor David McClelland and founder of the McBer consultancy. In one of his earliest book on Competence era, McClelland (1973) argues that the traditional academic examinations did not predict or indicate job performance or success in life. Competencies (in the U.S. terminology), he argues, could be used as one of the variables to predict success. The term 'competency' was coined to replace the narrower term 'skill'. In this case, McClelland defines competency as *"an underlying characteristic of a person that causes effective or superior performance in a job."*

Competencies (U.S.) in this context can be motives, traits, skills, aspects of one's self-image or role, or a body of knowledge which one uses (Kandola, 1996). Although the definition has been criticised for being too broad, McClelland believes that each particular competency is backed up by a list of 'behavioural indicators' that define it. In the U.S. this approach is widely used in most organisations to improve their competitive advantages.

In the U.K., the reports by Handy (1987) and Constable and McCormick (1987) are said to have a great influence on the competence movement (Tregaskis and Dany, 1996). In it early development, the emphasis on competence movement has its root in training and development before the

notion was applied to education (Mansfield and Mathews, 1985). Most of the competence initiatives were likely to refer to the National Vocational Qualifications (NVQs) and Management Charter Initiative (MCI). Within the system, the occupational standards are defined according to the requirements of the occupation that are documented in terms of elements of competence, performance criteria, range statements and evidence requirements. An individual wishing to pursue the qualification is required to produce portfolios of evidence covering each element stated above.

The term **'competence or competency'** also faces the same fate as knowledge and understanding (Mansfield, 1993). Mansfield says that

> *there is a fundamental problem in using the term 'competence' – particularly the nouns 'competence' or 'competency' – since the meanings are unclear and apply to many different and often conflicting descriptions of human behaviour.*

Literature on competence or competency management has adopted a range of terms (or a plethora of terms) to describe their ideas on the subject. In certain cases terms like — *skills, competencies, capabilities, attributes, distinctive competences, core competences, organisational knowledge, enterprise, tangible and intangible assets*— are sometimes used interchangeably by different authors. For example, three decades ago Andrews (1971) introduced the term 'distinctive competence' to identify what

are the skills that an organisation does best which Prahalad and Hamel (1990) call 'core competence'. Prahalad and Hamel (*ibid*) introduced the phrase 'Core Competence' to define the skills and technologies which contributed to the organisation's competitive advantages. Andrew (*ibid*) adopted the term from Selznick's work in 1948 which was considered to be one of the first authors to realise the importance of individual competences and capabilities.

Confusion still enclaves the difference between the sometimes interchangeably used terms 'competency' and 'competence'. To a certain extent, some even accused Boyatzis himself for this confusion (Woodruffe, 1991; Burgoyne, 1993). This stemmed out from the U.S.A. and the U.K. competency or competence definitions and approaches — U.S. writers used competency (plural: competencies) and the U.K. refers to "competence" (plural: competences). Some even accept the fact that competency is used to refer to any characteristic or abilities that enhances a job holder's performance. Competence than is used to refer to the possession of a specified set of competencies. In this case, Competence equals to competency 1 + competency 2 + competency 3 and so on (Medley *et al*, 1989).

Basically, there are three major differences in the competence development in the U.S. (Boyatzis's approach) and U.K. (NVQ approach) approaches (Tuxworth *et al*, 1989). Firstly, U.S. competence developments focus on the *people* who do a job well (superior performance), while the U.K. approach

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stress on the *job*. Secondly, the U.S. is concerned with the behaviour of superior performers, the U.K. occupational standards focus on the minimum competence levels. Finally, the U.S. approach sees competence as a characteristic that causes certain actions, while the U.K. sees it as an action, behaviour or outcome. However, all these terminologies have one thing in common — they define the knowledge and behavioural routines and non-routine which are a source of an organisation's competitive advantage and survival (Campbell and Luchs, 1997).

For the purpose of this study, the term 'competence or competency' is tentatively defined as *"any characteristic that enhance a job holder's ability to perform"* (Medley *et al,* 1989). Mansfield (1989, p. 28) suggests that competence should be described in general term as

> *being able to perform 'whole' work roles to the standards expected in employment in real working environments.*

For consistency sake, the term competence is adopted throughout the discussion. However, the term competency is used, where necessary, to differentiate the U.K. and the U.S. situation.

4.2.2.1   Competence Models

To date there are several models of competence available. However, the study will focus on the two most popular models or approaches to managerial competences. The two most widely used approaches are the Behavioural (McBer) or inputs or process approach (Finn, 1993) which is

designed to achieve occupational competitive through structured inputs. It is

accepted that this model tends to view competence (or competency in the

U.S. term) as an individual attributes.

On the other hand, the Occupational Standards approach or Outputs

approach is designed to define occupational competence in output terms.

The Output models tend to describe aspects of work tasks which are not

strictly based on individual attributes and knowledge. What follows will be a

discussion on competence models. The discussion will focus on the Output or

Occupational Model and the Behavioural Model.

4.2.2.1a   The Behavioural (McBer) Approach

Behavioural approach is based on the assumption about aptitudes,

knowledge and skills that an individual possesses. This approach specifically

focuses on the knowledge, attitudes and related concepts such as personal

effectiveness with the intention to widen the concept of competence. The

approach assumes that what a person brings to his or her job is crucial to

perform at least the minimum requirements and expectations. One of the

most cited studies dealing with the identification of managerial competences

using the behavioural approach was carried out on behalf of the American

Management Association by McBer Associates. In the late 1970's the

American Management Association (AMA) commissioned McBer Corporation

to carry out a major research to identify those characteristics of managers

which identified 'superior' performers from those 'average' performers.

This major research was reported by Richard Boyatzis (Boyatzis, 1982). The purpose of Boyatzis's study was to determine which characteristics of managers are related to effective performance in a variety of management jobs in a variety of organisations. In this work, Boyatzis borrowed Klemp's (1980) definition of Job Competences as

> *An underlying characteristics of a person which results in effective and/or superior performance in a job.*

Boyatzis looked at the person in the job and not the job itself. The behavioural approach feels that there are particular behaviours behind each competence. In other words, he looked more on the behavioural aspect of the person doing or performing the job. The technique used in this study is called the Job Competence Assessment developed by McClelland which led to the development of an integrated competence (behavioural or inputs) model (Morgan, 1988; Schroder, 1989; Klemp, 1991; Kakabadse, 1991).

The McBer approach posited that effective action or performance will only happen when three critical components pertaining to performance are consistent or 'fit' together. The critical components are the job's requirements or demands on the individual which represent the abilities of an individual to demonstrate appropriate actions, called competencies. This is achievable in the context of an organisation, encompassing internal factors such as organisational policies, procedures, mission, culture, resources etc. and external factors such as social, political and economic environment. In

behavioural approach, these three components, Individual competence, Job demand and Organisational setting, will lead to effective behaviour or action. The interaction between these three components is illustrated in Figure 4.2.1). At the same time, Boyatzis went on to describe other important features of a competency:

♦ A competency can be a motive, trait, skill, aspect of one's self-image or social role, or a body of knowledge which he or she uses.

♦ Each competency may exist within the individual at various levels, with motives and traits at the unconscious level, and skills at the behavioural level.

♦ A competency is context dependant, that is, given a different organisational environment, the competence may be evident through other specific actions.

In Boyatzis's model the competence is defined as the behavioural characteristics and attributes a person uses in their work as a manager. Another aspect of competence identified by Boyatzis's study is the threshold competence. Boyatzis defines threshold competence as

> *a person's generic knowledge, motive, trait, self-image, social role, or skill which is essential to performing a job, but not causally related to superior job performance.*

Those characteristics that differentiate superior performance from average performance and poor performance are competences (see Appendix V for

Competences Relevant to Performance and Effectiveness at First-Level

Manager). In the final analysis, the study identified 12 competences in 6

clusters, with an additional 7 threshold competences (see Table 4.2.1 for

Boyatzis's Competence model).

Figure 4.2.1: Model of Effective Job Performance

The individual
competences

The job
demands

Effective specific
actions or
behaviours

The organisational
environment
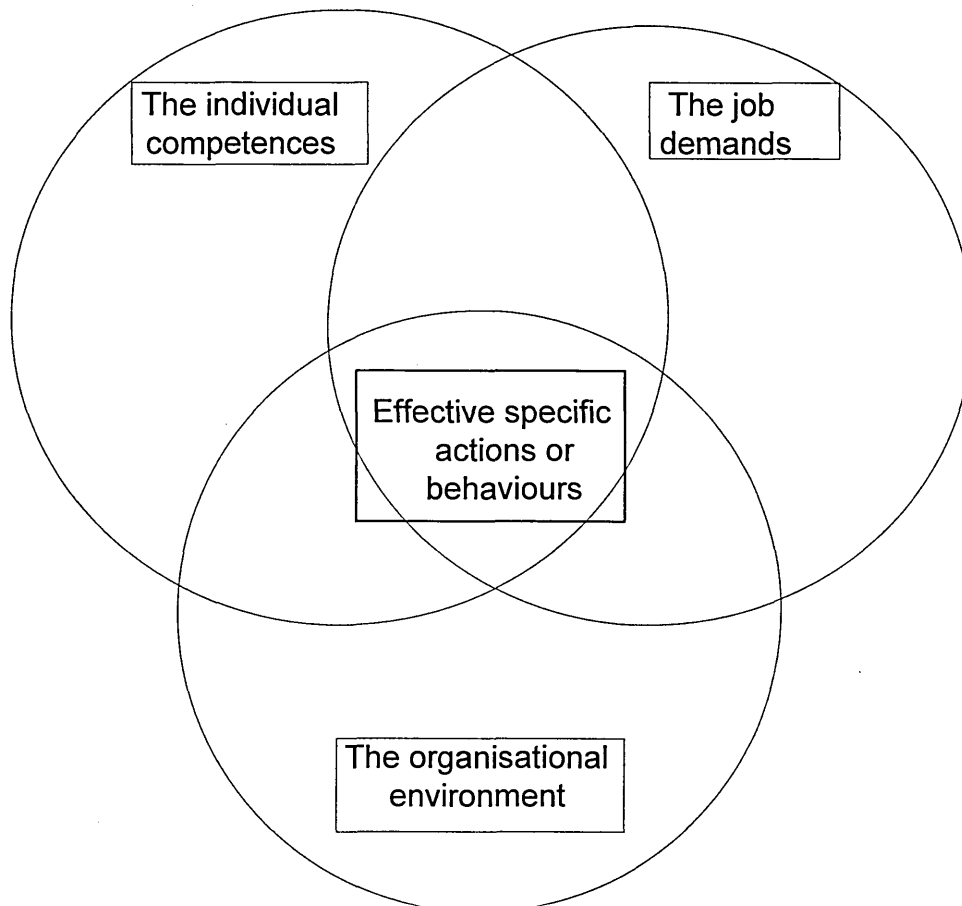
Source: Boyatzis, 1982

In relation to this, Thomas (1989) adds that before managerial competences

can be developed by educational institutions, a consensus or agreement

should reach among those concerned as to what constitutes the knowledge

component of the managerial competences. On the other hand, Finn (1993) looks at the behavioural approach as having three main areas of concern — Intellectual cognitive, Attitudinal dimensions and Performance. This was exemplified in the MCI Personal Competence Model. MCI's Personal Competence are linked to the relevant functional competences which consists of thirteen dimensions, clustered into four groups (see Appendix VI).

Table 4.2.1: Boyatzis's Competence

Cluster	Competence	Threshold Competence
Goal and Action Management	* *Concern with impact* * *Diagnostic use of concepts* * *Efficiency orientation* * *Proactivity*	
Leadership	* *Conceptualisation* * *Self-confidence* * *Use of oral presentations*	* Logical thought
Human Resource	* *Managing group process* * Use of socialised power	* Accurate self-assessment * Positive regard
Directing Subordinates		* *Developing others* * Spontaneity * Use of unilateral power
Focus on Others	* *Perceptual objectivity* * Self-control (trait) * Stamina and adaptability (trait)	
Specialised Knowledge		* Specialised knowledge

NB: 1. Italics for the most relevant to executive level of management

Source: Boyatzis, 1982

4.2.2.1b   Occupational Model

The study conducted by NEDO (1989) was a response to the growing

concern about the nature of management education and training in the U.K. in

comparison with other developed nations. It was also discovered that the

level of qualifications held in the U.K. is significantly lower than that of the

developed nations (Handy, 1987, BIM, 1987, Ashton *et al*, 1989).

The British Government has placed greater emphasis on the whole area of

education and training, in particular the development of competence-based

education and training via MCI and NVQ. Subsequently, the reform of .

education and training became linked to measuring effectiveness through the

competence system. For example, the NVQ system is responsibility of the

National Council for Vocational Qualifications which was established in 1986.

These qualifications attempt to link more closely between business and

educational needs.

Consequently, the programmes have well-focused vocational features. In the

U.K. the occupational standards approach has been adopted by the

government through the Training Enterprise and Education Department

(TEED) of the Department of Employment, to identify the standards required

for all job roles. It was mentioned that this initiative has led to the creation of

occupational sector- specific 'lead bodies' to represent the various groups

involved namely the employer, employee and educational institutions. The

lead body representing the management 'area' is the National Forum for

Management Education and Development (NFMED) with the Management Charter Initiative (Management Charter Initiative, 1990) as its operating arms. The main objective of this initiative is to identify and define generic management competences which are closely linked to the personal competence that is seen as underpinning effective managerial performance.

The MCI approach uses occupational standards to competence differs from McBer (behavioural) in that it underlines the outcomes or results that a manager or any individual in the team has to perform and achieve in order to demonstrate competent performance. Even though this approach accepts the fact that qualities, skills and knowledge are important in the standards, the primal task must be determined first before an attempt is made to provide the benchmark against performance. The process of standard development has involved in-depth discussion and workplace testing with over 4,000 managers and employers across all sectors of the economy.

The main objective of MCI's study is to identify and define generic management competences (applicable in all fields) that are appropriate to the management roles at different career stages. For the Management I (first line managers or junior managers) they are consider an individual who is responsible for the direction and control of the activities and work output of other people (Local Government Management Board, 1992). The structure of the standards is broken down into units and elements of competence. In the management competence, four key roles are identified. They are;

1. Managing Operations

2. Managing Finance

3. Managing People

4. Managing information

This standards approach also forms the basis for a national system of
accreditation through National Vocational Qualifications (NVQs) and National
Council for Vocational Qualifications (NCVQs) administered through the newly
established Qualifications and Curriculum Authority (QCA, 1997). The
foundations for NVQ's are occupational standards. These are used as
benchmarks or specifications of performance expectations. These
specifications are derived from the process called functional analysis or job
analysis. The occupational area is specified to identify the key roles which
individuals perform within the specified area. In this manner, an individual's
competence can be said as the degree which he or she has been found to
exhibit the competences which has been derived from the job analysis
(Jirasinghe and Lyons, 1996).

4.2.2.1c Competence and Related Issues

In discussing about the level of competences, Dulewicz (1989) suggests that
generic and occupational competences would account for about 70 per cent
of the competences necessary for effective performance. However,
Jirasinghe and Lyons (1996) suggest that besides the generic and
occupational competences, there is another level of competence which is

specific at an organisational level — Organisational Specific Competences —

which takes up the rest. The challenge here is that educational institution

should be concerned with the identification of the generic and occupational

competences rather than specific individual or organisational competences.

The relationship between different job competences is shown in Figure 4.2.2.

Figure 4.2.2: The relationship between different job competences

Generic Management Competences

Occupational Sector Specific Competences

Individual and/or Organisational Specific Competences
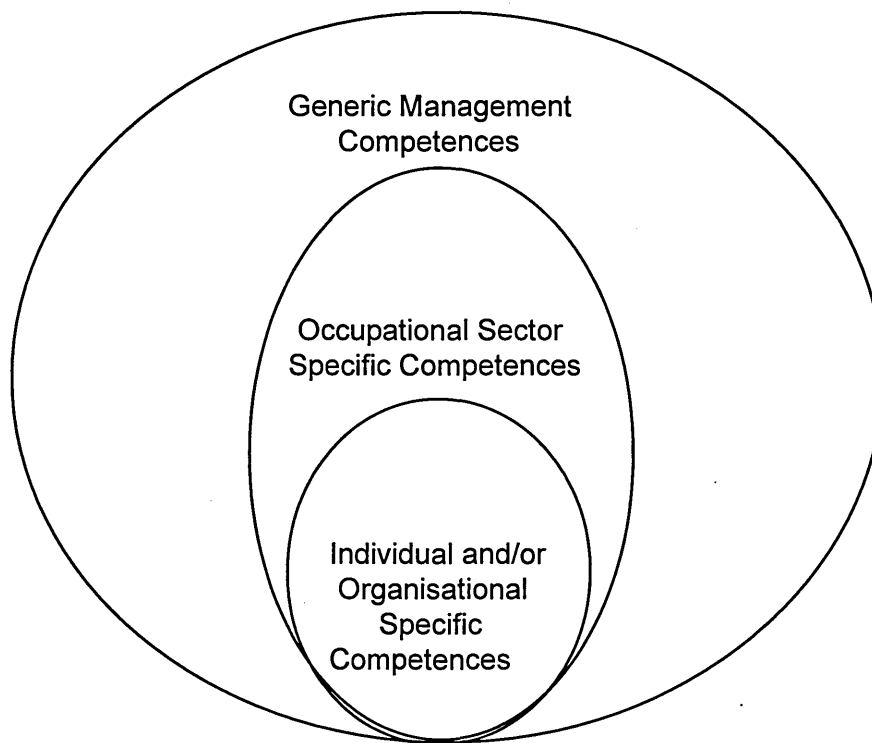
Adapted from Jirasinghe and Lyons, 1996

In the same vein, Thomas (1989) argues that most management competences

studies are bound by fact that management roles and tasks appear to vary and

change almost indefinitely. However, he stresses that

Once these knowledge and skills have been more clearly identified, they

can be translated into one of many possible programmes of learning

and experience.

The practical context of these two competence approaches (Behavioural and

Occupational) is said to be akin to an iceberg (Spencer and Spencer, 1993).

See Figure 4.2.3 for the model. The occupational approach to competences

tends to concentrate on those features above the water line. On the other

hand, the behavioural approach looks at those competences below the water

line and it is more relevant to the educational and learning process

(Mansfield, 1989).

Figure 4.2.3: The Iceberg Model
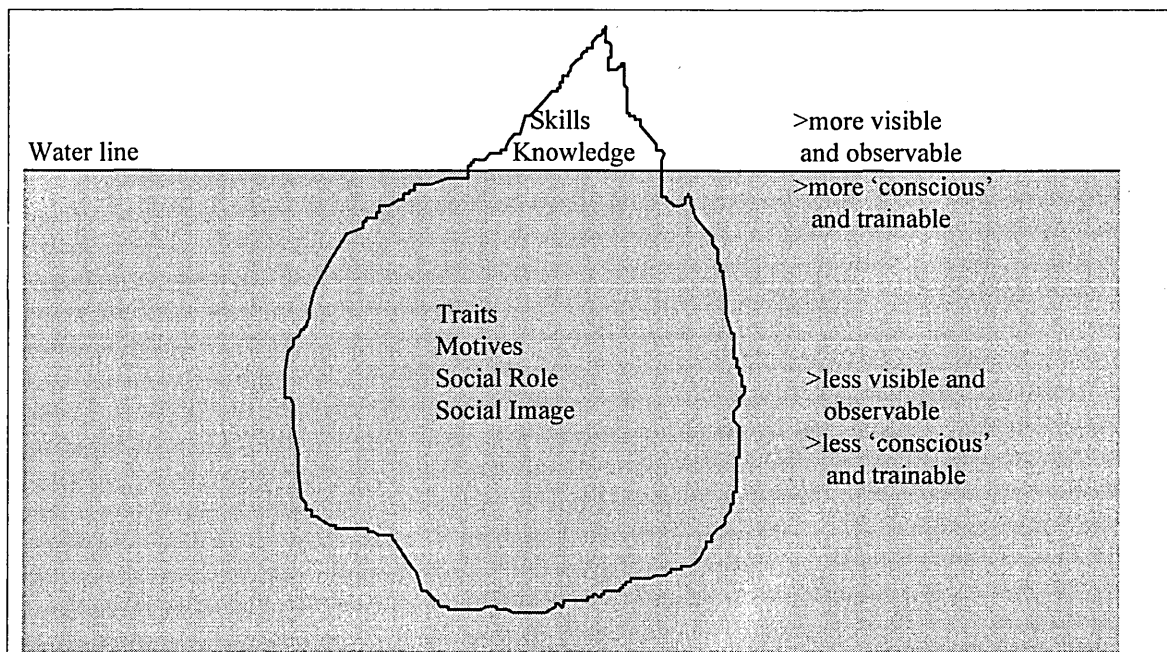
Source: Spencer and Spencer, 1993

In discussing the job competence and the influence of time, Boam and Sparrow (1992, pp. 180-182) view competences as having a life-cycle. They have categorised four types of competences with its own life cycle. The first category is the 'emerging' competences. These types of competences are considered being not particularly relevant at present but will become important and relevant in the future. In contrast, the 'maturing' competences have an important contribution in the past but currently play have less prominent impact. The 'transitional' competences are an integral part of the change process.

Boam and Sparrow (1992) say these competences may be relevant for a short period of time at the start of a project or career, and may be replaced when more critical competences are identified. The final category is the 'core' competences. They see that these set of competences lie in the centre of effective performance. These competences are continuous and remain important under any situation and environment, for example analytical or reasoning ability. Educational institutions who wish to develop their educational programmes must be aware of these competences life-cycle.

In comparison, both have their advantage and disadvantages. The behavioural approach tends to emphasise on superior performance whereas the occupational approach emphasise on the job rather than the attributes that people bring to their roles. Some argues that this approach could be seen as irrelevant to today's rapidly changing business environment where job

responsibilities and structure may change and favour the behavioural approach which focuses the attitudes and motivation that people can transfer to a new job and place (Adams. 1996). However, Iles (1993) considers the behavioural approach tends to neglect the passage of time since they were based on what has been associated with successful performance in the past rather than future needs. The lengthy procedure has also been an issue in the occupational approach.

Occupational approach seems to be that it produces a weighty burden of performance criteria and range statements as compared to the behavioural approach of having a precise list of managerial competences (Beaumont, 1996). At the same time, the behavioural approach also been criticised for being to broad without the getting to the crux of what is common motives, traits and skills (Woodruffe, 1991). Woodruffe claims that the distinction between competencies and threshold competences is unclear.

Nevertheless, both models accept the fact that competence is about performance. Differences among the various approaches to management competences are regarded as complementary rather than contradictory (Mansfield, 1993; Holmes and Joyce, 1993, Kandola, 1996). See Figure 4.2.4 below for the two models of competence.

Figure 4.2.4: Competence Models (Behavioural and Outcomes)
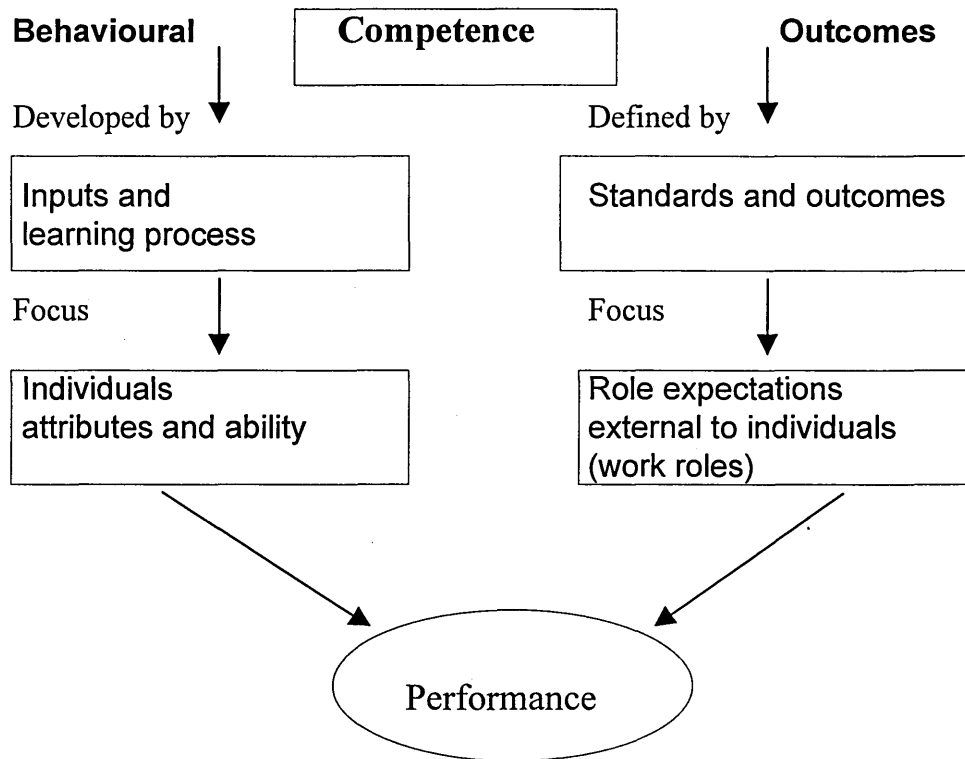
Adapted from Mansfield, 1989

4.2.2.1d   Deriving Competences

Competences framework models are commonly used for several organisational

purposes. These include selection and recruitment, appraisal, training and

development and education to name a few. There are multiple methods of

identifying or generating and interpreting data about competence and the nature

of entry-level managers. In these cases, the tasks of soliciting and formulating

competences are carried out within the organisations' values framework

expressed in mission statements of organisational values (Pearn and Kandola,

1993).

According to Pearn and Kandola (*ibid*) the objective of the competences identification, how they are to be used and other constraints (e.g. time-scale and cost) will determine which technique or method to be employed. Besides the objectives and other constraints of the research, they (p.35) added that

> *no one methodological approach or technique deserves more serious attention than others and none can or should claim to be the one and only one way of identifying competencies.*

Another important factor that determines the method(s) to be employed is the orientation of the study whether it is focused on defining the precise tasks (occupational standards) which need to be performed or the behavioural (psychological) factors that are necessary for their performance or both.

The identification of competences involves the use of one or more of the large concept of Job Analysis (JA) methods (a generic term representing a range of techniques) (Pearn and Kandola, 1993 and Jirasinghe and Lyons, 1996). One of the key aspects of Job analysis is to capture all aspects pertaining to the demands of work expected of a person (be it line worker, junior or senior position). According to Pearn and Kandola (1988) Job Analysis can be viewed not only as a process capable of producing a number of practical outcomes of benefit to practitioners, but also as an applied form of research.

Akin to Job Analysis is the Functional Analysis, which looks at the demands of work in broad terms rather than merely task-based (Pearn and Kandola, 1988). A human being is unable to handle difficult situations and comprehend

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this world of work without reducing it to some separate areas and study it separately (Checkland, 1981). This is one of the reasons why management activities are divided into various functions in the process of learning and understanding of job's expectations. Normally, functional analysis approach of deriving competences is based on workshop or brainstorming sessions of a group of or jobholder or middle or top management. They added that competences derived for management competences are much more likely to focus on 'generic attributes' rather than merely on the relationship of tasks and outcomes as in vocational or training standards. This is in line with Dulewicz's (1989) statement where he postulates that generic competences constitute for about seventy (70) percent of management competences necessary for effective performance. Once the various functional areas have been identified, the list is then checked with a wider audience through a questionnaire survey or other appropriate methods (Jirasinghe and Lyons, 1996).

In the Behavioural (McBer) approach a different form of job analysis technique was adopted to derive competences. In McBer approach, the technique is called the 'Job Competence Assessment' (JCA) method. The method uses a five-step procedure to produce a competence model for a job which is similar to the Delphi approach (Klemp, 1979). The JCA method relies at some stage upon reaching a consensus as to the most appropriate grouping or clustering of information gathered. The procedure involves interviews with job holders using a 'behavioural event interviews' which is

similar to critical incident analysis interviews. This approach attempts to determine those qualities or competence of a person that enables him to perform effectively. At the same time, this approach compares a group of clearly superior to average or poor job performers.

Even though both the occupational standards and behavioural approaches use the Job Analysis method as a starting point, the occupational standards approach has adopted the Functional Analysis as an alternative methodology to derive competences. Functional Analysis is the process of identifying those functions expected and satisfies the organisation's requirements. The process identifies the various functions and breaks them into 'units' and 'elements', until sufficient information is gathered to describe the details to be used as occupational standards (Earley, 1993).

Earley (*ibid*) adds that to determine the standards, education and training must be linked to the demands of work, including behavioural indicators, and must make it explicit. In this case, standards are not achieved by focusing on individual task which an individual has to perform but through looking at broader purpose and function of the work. Occupational standards attempt to describe those functions of the job at which the person must perform in order to become competent (no attempt is made to compare between superior to average performers). This is determined through the outcomes to be achieved. In Functional Analysis, the outcomes should also concern the

present and future requirements of a job. Even though this approach (Functional Analysis) has been criticised for its effectiveness (Argyris and Schon, 1978), the study believes that a similar approach can provide valuable facts for the study (Jirasinghe and Lyons, 1996). This will be elaborated further in the Methodology Chapter.

4.2.2.1e   Other Approaches

There are several Job Analysis methods that can be used to identify or formulate competence statements. Among them are interviews (e.g. focus group (Morgan, 1988 and Jirasinghe and Lyons, 1996) or critical incidents technique (Spencer and Spencer, 1993). Typically, the group composed of 6 to 10 people (size may range from as little as 4 to as many as 12). Focus group interviews assembled in a series of groups (single focus group is said to be risky since moderators might encounter 'cold' group (reluctant to participate openly in the discussion).

Another interview method is the Critical Incident Analysis (Spencer and Spencer, 1993 and HCIMA, 1994). Critical incident technique is one of the longest established method for identifying the worker characteristics or attributes that contribute towards effective job performance (Pearn and Kandola, 1993). In critical incident technique, the job holder or any relevant individual (depending on the objective of the study) is asked to describe an incident that did or did not meet a particular task or job objective. The job holder is expected to recall and think of all the incidents.

The critical incident concept accepts the fact that certain critical situations emerge and repeat themselves in different developmental stages. They are then asked to explain the reason why this happened. Finally, they are asked to describe what they did and whether it was successful or not. All critical incidents were checked for the frequency of their occurrence as well as the frequency with which certain specific incidents clustered together. From this interview process, further analysis is required to show whether and how the information gathered should be interpreted into a competence framework (Jarasinghe and Lyons, 1996).

On the other hand, there are also methods that used predetermined checklist (for example the Position Analysis Questionnaire (PAQ) or Work Profiling System (WPS) (Saville and Holdsworth, 1995) or various competence statements that have been produced and validated by other studies or organisations (Tas, 1988, Baum, 1992, Enz *et al*, 1993). Most hospitality (management education) related research employed the latter in identifying competence statements (Mariampolski *et al*, 1980, Tas, 1988, Baum, 1992, Enz *et al*, 1993, Hsu and Gregory, 1995). However, besides the complexity of the PAQ or WPS, there are also some disadvantages associated with the development of industry-specific competences (Kandola & Pearn, 1992).

This approach is unlikely to be effective in identifying competences that are industry-specific or unique but which may be critical to successful job performance (*ibid*). At the same time, Pearn and Kandola remind that there are

several important factors that need to be considered when choosing a method. Most importantly are the orientation or focus of the identification, and time available and cost. Job analysis/ functional technique that employs group interview methods (focus group or critical incident technique) requires approximately one year or more to produce the desired results and it is very expensive.

4.2.2.2   Competence and Management Education

In today's business environment, competent managers are needed to be able to achieve organisation's objectives both efficiently and effectively (Boyatzis, 1982). It is a fact that every organisation needs competent managers to determine the direction and survival of the organisation. At the macro-level, economic growth of a nation (be it developed or developing) also depend heavily on the availability of competent workforce. Noting the importance of having competent workforce to handle today's economy situation, Ginzberg and Vojta (1981) stress that,

> *... human capital, defined as the skill, dexterity and knowledge of the population has become the critical input that determines the rate of the growth of the economy and the well-being of the population.*

In an economy driven by technological and fierce competition, an innovative, flexible and adaptable workforce is required. In the U.K., for example, a number of white papers (Working together, HMSO, 1986; Higher Education: Meeting the Challenge, HMSO, 1987; HEFCE, 1998) have underlined some

measures to improve the link between higher education and employment.

Bailey (1990, p.71) says that

> *The high-tech world is a fast-moving, ever changing environment which needs people who have the capacity to learn and develop to move and change with the needs of the organisation: who are prepared to break the mould of the past.*

This concern is seen by some as a change in Higher Education's focus, away from pure knowledge acquisition, towards employment-related outcomes (Atkin *et al*, 1993, Barnett, 1994). This is by no means to undermine the 'subject-focus' which has been the focus of higher education (Assiter, 1995). Assiter (1995) accepts the fact that higher education can not only emphasise the acquisition of knowledge, they can also emphasise the use of knowledge (competence). This phenomenon is not something new in higher education. Quoted in Assiter (1995, p. 17) Prickett (1994) points out that

> *the trivium and the quadrivium at mediaeval Oxford were both practical. Grammar, rhetoric and logic were powerful tools for both administration and preaching, and an essential foundation for law and medicine.*

In Britain, the debate on competence issue has already caught the attention of several agencies. It is mentioned that the transition towards a competence-based model can be traced back in a number of government white papers throughout 1980's. This can be found also in White Papers in 1984 (Department of Education, 1984) and 1985 (Department of Education, 1985).

Prior to 1980's, the early emphasis was on competence approach as the outcome of training rather than education. However, it was not long before the approach was applied to education. In 1986 the *Working Together: Education and Training* (Department of Education, 1986) introduced the framework of national Vocational Qualification and in 1988 the move towards competence-based education and training was reinforced (Department of Education, 1988).

As mentioned earlier, the reports of Handy (1987) and Constable and McCormick (1987) have a great influence on the competence-based education movement in the U.K. These two reports have highlighted the U.K. experience inadequacy of management education and training as compared to other advance nations (the U.S., Germany and Japan). Winter and Maisch (1996, p. 5) have identified two major reasons for its (the term 'competence') reincarnation:

(i) the needs of the national economy for skilled workforce for survival in a competitive global market, and

(ii) the need to ensure that those provide services may held accountable to their stakeholders for quality of those services.

In addition, Constable and McCormick (1987, p. 6) say that,

> *One of the most important resources of a given nation is her managerial skills. Ideas can only be turned into wealth when combined with effective management. The ability to create more wealth is vital if the growing expectations of society are to be met.*

Those services that spark wealth must also be well managed to ensure the maximum benefit from the resources available. They (p. 6) continue by saying that

> Failure to ensure that the nation has the best possible managerial labour force is short-sighted. While much has been done to improve the education and training opportunities available for managers over the 25 years, the quickening pace of international competition demands ever greater effort from our managers. They must be appropriately developed to enable them to meet this challenge.

In another study, Handy (1987) analyses management education, training and development (MTED) in the U.K., U.S., Germany, France and Japan. He stresses that the management capabilities in these overseas nations are more superior due to a more systematic management education and training. He also suggests that if U.K. is to be at par or even better than these nations, the U.K. needs to do more in developing her future managers.

4.2.2.3 On Transferability

As the society becomes more sophisticated and complex, it is no longer adequate for the graduates to be effective individuals in the world of work judging by the acquired initial education learned (Barnett, 1994). Of particular economic significance related to this are changes in technology

and the changing of employment pattern. This trend has created the need for a more adaptable and flexible workforce.

The pace of change in the workplace has led to an increased pressure on higher education institutions to provide courses that equip students with competences that will enhance the education to employment and career development (Barnett, 1994). The forces behind the current and future economic need lead to an increase in competence initiatives and that higher education has an obligatory role in developing these competences. In this respect, it is argued that the graduates should be equipped with the knowledge and competences that can be used in anew and unfamiliar situation. The commonly term used to refer to that condition is 'transferable skills'.

Many of the learning and teaching strategies in higher education institutions have been designed to ensure that students become more aware of the demands of future employers. This is to enable graduates to display a range of transferable skills. The Enterprise in Higher Education (EHE) Initiative (launched in 1987) defines 'transferable skills' as

> the generic capabilities which allow people to succeed in a wide range of different tasks and jobs.

NCVQ (National Council for Vocational Qualification) has advocated that the teaching of transferable skills is

based on assumption that the acquisition of the core skills in some

areas of competence and contexts offers the potential of generalisation

or transfer to other areas and contexts that employ the same skill

(Jessup, 1990).

In this context many institutions of higher learning are embracing the

terminology of transferable skills. Some have argued that this is not a new

phenomenon where institutions of higher learning is concerned (Bailey,

1990). Higher education institutions have always been in the business 'of

transferability' all this while. The Higher Education Quality Council (1997)

uses the term Key Skills (previously known as core skills) to reflect graduates'

attributes (concept of 'graduateness') against the requirements of

employment. Key skills are also being promoted as a solution to the lack of

common agenda between 'academic' and 'vocational' education (Department

of Education and Employment (DfEE), 1997).

The Qualifications and Curriculum Authority (QCA, 1997) has identified six

key skills which generally refer to communication skills, numeracy (application

with number), working with others, information technology skills, problem-

solving and personal effectiveness (improving own learning and performance)

which form the integral element of competence-based curricula such as

National Vocational Qualifications (NVQs). The Qualifications and Curriculum

Authority (QCA) which was established in 1997 is responsible to promote

quality and coherence in education and training. Subsequently, QCA brings

together the work of National Council for Vocational Qualification and the

School Curriculum and Assessment Authority to review curriculum,

assessment and qualifications from pre-school to higher vocational levels.

Barnett (1994) distinguishes two forms of 'transferable skills'. These two sets

of transferability are the transferability of operations (or metaoperations) and

the transferability of cognitive (or metacognition). He stresses that these two

sets of transferability are different in the sense that they do not offer "*a*

comprehensive approach to transferable skills." However, he offers an

alternative set of transferability called 'metacritique'. 'Metacritique' means

that an effective worker must be in the form of continuing self-surveillance.

This is similar to Hawkin and Winter's (1995) 'transfer skills' which refer to an

individual's capacity to learn and adapt. To Hayward (1995, p. 134), in order

for 'transferable skills' to be transferable,

> *the transferability depends, in part, on students being aware of the core*
>
> *skills they are developing and using.*

Barnett (1994) sees the problem with transferable skills not so much on its

acceptance rather the interpretation of its meaning between the educational

circle and the industry. He says that educational institutions believe that in

most cases

> *Our transferable skills are not your transferable skills; and we are going*
>
> *to hang onto ours.*

Inasmuch as this trend is to be the cliché in the higher education institutions it is no longer the only term available in the discourse of skill initiatives. The skills movement initiatives in the last decade have come from several different bodies representing their own interpretation and interest in education. While they share the fact that they are the result of the Government's concern, it is not surprising to find several terminologies referring to the same thing.

Laterally transferable skills (sometimes the word 'personal' is added) one can also find 'enterprise skills' or 'employability skills' (which comprises five key skills of the six key skills identified by Association of Graduate Recruiters (AGR), 1995 and National Skills Taskforce (QCS), 1998) plus five other skills namely, self-management, evaluating, achieving and changing to satisfy others, leadership and using resources), 'key skills' which are associated with the transferability of those skills (Guirdham and Tyler, 1992). This 'transferable skills' might also be extended to 'personal competence' which in some cases have similar dimensions included in the model (see Appendix VI for MCI 'personal competence'). This model developed by MCI is claimed to be applicable to all levels of management and seen as *"underpinning effectiveness managerial performance"*. However, the difference between the key skills and personal skills (attributes) is unclear in the literature (Otter, 1997). See Appendix VII for a list of 'Key (transferable) skills' for comparison of the several models of key skills.

Much of the key skills identified are said to be overlapped. In certain circumstances 'transfer skills' is identified as key skills (Hawkin and Winter, 1995) which could refer to another whole issue of transferability. Some key skills are even not skills for example self-confidence and flexibility (Hawkin and Winter, 1995). Some initiatives have attempted to separate the 'personal' and 'interactive' skills (Harvey, Moon and Geall, 1997).

It was also argued that the notion that some skills are transferable can be implied that the skill is separable not only from the individual but from the context in which the skill is used. Ashworth and Saxton (1992) argue that a skill is not an isolated mental capacity but gains through its meaning from the context in which it is used. The dualism of 'transferable' had also been stressed by Wolf (1991) who described that

> *The point is not that core skills (now key skills) do not exist: or that statements about people's ability are intrinsically meaningless. It is rather that these skills are by definition inseparable from the contexts in which they are developed and displayed, and that they only make sense (or, rather, the same sense) to those who have the same recognition and understanding of those context. (P. 194)*

Oates (1992) exhorts against the acceptance of the term transferable skills. He says such acceptance would lead to an 'endemic misunderstanding' among educators. In the same notion, Allen (1991) warns that

> *There is a danger that the language of transfer will produce the impression that behaviour can be independent of the context. (p. 15).*

Barnett (1992) also sees there is another danger in making classification of transferable skills. He argues that such classification gives rise to the notion of predetermine and predefined responses. This classification will give an impression that human action, and specifically action in professional life, is a matter of responding from a limited range of prescribed behaviour to predefined situations.

Eraut (1994) adds to the debate about the impression created by this classification of skills. For example, he says that the concept of 'levels' gives the impression that once a level has been reached or satisfied, then the individual accredited with reaching that level may ignore the need for progress and future development which is against the idea of promoting 'life-long learning' in higher education institution.

The conceptual arguments of transfer has also led to another issue that they are empirically unproven, under-researched nature of transferability of skills. Atkin (1995) concludes that the assumptions of transfer, which underpin much higher education are 'not yet firmly substantiated' by research. However, the difference in interpretation and definition must not become the barrier to parties involved to discuss further the issue at stake.

4.2.2.4 Competence and the Standard of Graduates

The focus on standards encourage by the Graduate Standards Programme (GSP is used hereafter) complements the introduction of key (transferable)

skills within higher education. There are important parallels between the GSP and the Key skills movement, despite the considerable differences of purpose between them. The GSP was designed to enable higher education institutes to address the new challenges and changes (increasing demand, economic, new knowledge, employers' expectations etc.) confronting them. This could provide a guideline to map graduates' attributes against the requirements of employment (HEQC, 1997).

One of the intentions of GSP was to develop a mechanism that addresses the issue of quality assurance. The Higher Education Quality Council (HEQC is used hereafter) has undertaken a study to identify the standards of first degree in UK higher education which could be 'articulated and assured'. One of the areas which concerns standards is attributes or competences expected of a graduate. The identification of the generic attributes expected of graduates has sparked Higher Education Quality Council (HEQC) to carry out the *'graduateness'* project.

The term *'graduateness'*, which has been introduced by HEQC, hopes to stimulate educators and others to re-examine the *'nature and purpose of higher education which has long been assumed implicit'* (HEQC, 1996a, p. 2). Educators believe that the issue of *'graduateness'* should be the main concern to the design and execution of academic standards which has long overdue. The project on *'graduateness'* (HEQC, 1997, p. 5) define academic standards as

explicit levels of academic attainment that are used to describe and

measure academic requirements and achievements of individual

students and groups of students.

The work on 'graduateness' attempts to identify what are the mixture of

attributes (knowledge, understanding and skills) that are acquired through the

learning experiences of individual students. The 'graduateness' project

(HEQC, 1996b, p. 3) attempts to

...assist those who design, teach and assess students on degree

*programme to specify explicitly the expectations that the **stakeholders***

have of a graduate (emphasis added) ·

Results have indicated that there are 6 areas of generic qualities or attributes

that graduates are expected to possess (HEQC, 1996a, p. 4). The 6 qualities

include technical skills (including IT), conceptual skills, analytical, learning

capability, communication, sensitive or responsible to social and

environmental concern. However, it is worthwhile of noting that the GSP and

the NCVQ initiatives are considered complementing each other rather than

overlapping.

Despite some differences of purpose between the two, there are similarities in

certain respects. This can be demonstrated in the statement below. The GSP

and NCVQ movements involve the

encouragement of greater clarity and explicitness; both emphasis

security of outcome; and both are concerned to provide information for

employers, students and other interested parties that are clearer and

more systematic (HEQC, 1997, p. 13)

In respond to the GSP project, the Council of Hospitality Management Education (CHME) has organised a project that specifically look at hospitality management graduates. Two main issues were highlighted in the project. The issues (CHME, 1997, p. 1) include:

1. *to articulate a common set of learning outcomes and standards appropriate to a graduate of Hospitality Management, and*

2. *to develop a national framework of External Examiners in Hospitality Management to include a register of potential externals, recommendations for the recruitment and selection of externals and an outline training programme for all external examiners.*

The Graduate Standards for Hospitality Management recognises that a national curriculum for hospitality management programme is not appropriate at this particular time. This is the recommendation of the GSP project described in Recommendation 2.2 (HEQC, 1997, p. 39) which reads

The use of national curricula or national examinations for all degrees

as a means of ensuring comparability of standards has been

*considered, but is **not** recommended on the grounds that this approach*

would potentially inhibit diversity and innovation,....

Nevertheless, the panel believes that the adoption of a common set of output statements for Hospitality Management would be a good decision. The GSP project for Hospitality Management agrees that the underpinning theme for all

Hospitality Management programmes should *'produce graduates with the skills to become reflective practitioner'* (CHME, 1997, p. 4) *'who are practical and pragmatic in their work, but also capable of analytical and theoretical thought'* (Lashley, 1999).

The GSP for Hospitality Management Education agrees to adapt the Higher Education Credit Initiative Wales (HECIW) and Southern England Consortium's (SEEC) Generic Level Descriptors as indicators to demonstrate how the various skills and competences are taught, practised and assessed. These representatives have developed a list of the attributes that might be expected of students in higher education (see Appendix VIII for HECIW/SEEC Dimensions of Attributes). For the industry specific skills standards, the project has adopted the NVQ standards to represent statements of what people in the industry should be able to do to perform effectively.

The Hotel and Catering International Management Association (HCIMA) is another influential professional body in hospitality management education. To encourage the development of programmes that equip graduates with the competence, knowledge and aptitude, HCIMA has completed a research project, Corpus of Management Excellence. Besides developing the Corpus to determine membership of the association, the project aims to examine the scope and content of education, training, development and job skills requirements for the industry (HCIMA, 1998). The Corpus of Management Excellence is a body of managerial knowledge and skill that attempts to

incorporate the notions of competence, professionalism and personal expertise within the industry (see Appendix IX). However, this initiative has been criticised as being 'mainly content driven' (Harris, 1997, p. 3). In educational context, this approach was claimed to disconnect the curriculum and learners (Hargreaves, 1991).

In relation to the generic qualities and as a corollary to this notion of 'learning capability', effective learning allows for the development of competences. Organisation, including educational institution, facing uncertainties and changing environments must possess the ability to learn. It is mentioned that an organisation's rate of learning must be equal to or greater than the rate of change in its external environment in order to effective (Teare, 1998). According to Argyris (1996), these organisations should be able to detect and correct error. However, learning organisations exist only when there are individual learners. The learning organisation depends heavily on the commitment of individuals of their own learning.

According to May and Kruger (1988), for any individuals to become effective and successful, the process of learning how to learn must be present. This process typically progresses through four stages of competence namely Unconscious Incompetence, Conscious Competence, Conscious Incompetence and Unconscious Competence. May and Kruger (*ibid*) add that the key to learning process is conscious incompetence. This will motivate individuals to search for information or knowledge that they do not know.

Personal consciousness of the environment will dictate the level of awareness of an individual competence stage.

Thompson (1996), in the process of understanding the organisation competitive advantage, has adapted May and Kruger (1988) learning process to organisation. According to Thompson (*ibid.*) there are two levels of organisation competence awareness with four quadrant box. Thompson develops the four quadrant box (see Figure 4.2.5) based on May and Kruger's (1988) personal competence to organisation effectiveness.

The first level is the 'Unconscious Incompetence' and the second is 'Conscious Incompetence'. Unconscious incompetent organisations or individuals do not appreciate the critical factors for competitive and success. Consequently, these types of organisations and individuals are said to be inefficient and ineffective. The objective is to produce competences in our society and at the same time assuring society that personal significance can still be possible.

According to May and Kruger (1988) this type of individual or organisation seems to be satisfied with the status quo and operates within the system of opinion and mediocrity belief. In other word, they have a 'myopic' view about their incompetence and the environment. They have to progress to the next stage of the learning process if they are to be effective and efficient.

Figure 4.2.5 Conscious and Unconscious Competence
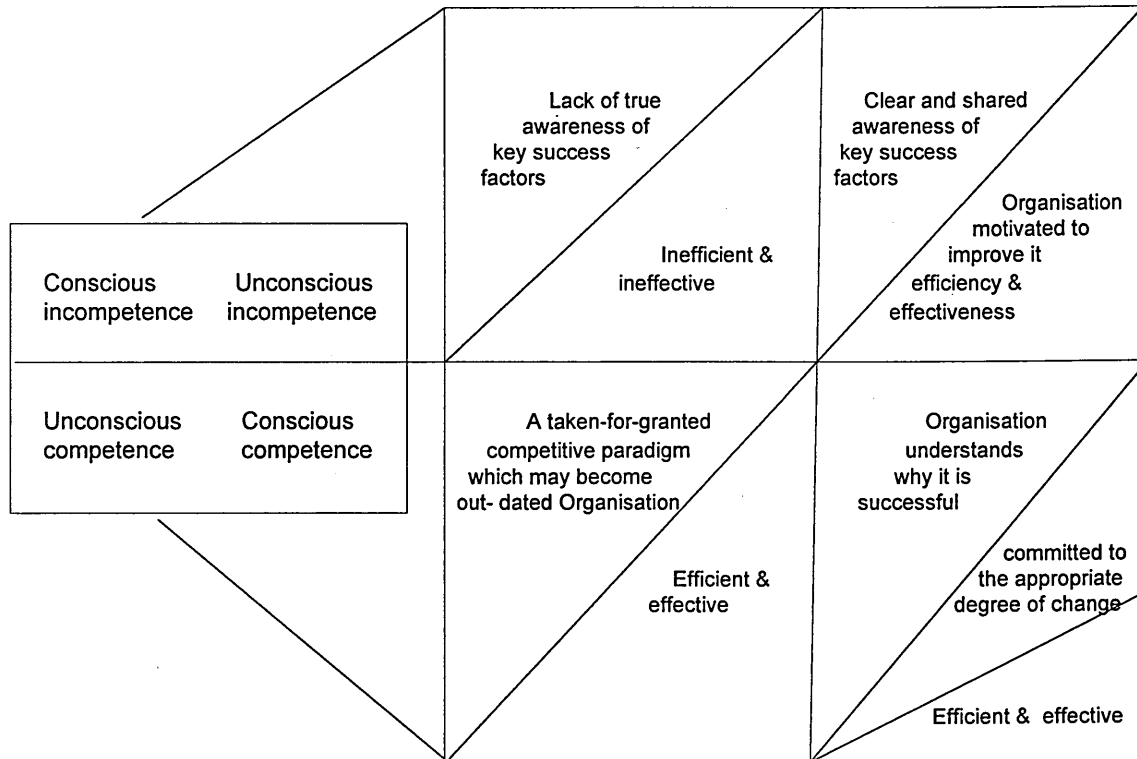
Source: Thompson, 1996

Individual or organisation with conscious incompetence behaviour or attitude, on the other hand, does have the awareness of key success factors and recognises the issues and competences that are essential for success. They are able to respond by satisfying the needs and expectations of their stakeholders and motivate to manage both continuous and discontinuous changes in the environment. The bottom two quadrant boxes indicate how the unconscious and conscious competence which lead to organisation or individual effectiveness and efficiency. Conscious competence organisations or individuals aware and understand what it takes to become successful.

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4.2.2.5   Competence and Educational Objective

Educational objectives are also influenced by key stakeholders (Bennet, 1997). A clearly defined educational objective will reflect the concerns of these key stakeholders. Having said this, educational institutions will have a much easier task in charting out their curricula planning and development process.

Some decades ago, Tyler (1949) had identified three key sources of education that will help in the development of the educational objectives and determine the boundaries of educational initiatives. The sources are:

1.   Studies of the learners themselves.

2.   Studies of the contemporary life outside the schools.

3.   Suggestions about objectives from subject specialists.

Tyler (*ibid*), however, stressed that the school must employ some system for analysing and selecting from contemporary life learning objectives appropriate to the school clientele (referring to the stakeholders mentioned in the previous section). However, Tanner and Tanner (1975) claim that in Tyler's work he had neglected to treat these groups as the sources as well as the influences on the educational institutions' objectives and curricula. Parallel to this, Kelly (1986) believes that any educational objective must reflect the society's expectations.

At the same time 'values' are also central to the subject of educational objective. Different kinds of objectives have different values at different levels of the organisation (Hayes, 1985). Hayes argues that objectives with little meaning for large segments of an organisation can not be shared and this will lead to different level of commitment in terms of moving towards a common agenda. Kelly (1986, p. xiii) states that

> *If knowledge is central to education so do values since, in most definitions, education must involve the exposure of pupils to what is believed to be worthwhile, or what someone decides, for whatever reasons, they ought to be exposed to…. even though there are many facets to discussions of education and of curriculum, those that centre on the issue of knowledge and the problems of values must be the focus.*

In this sense, what higher education understands as knowledge and competences should run parallel with the knowledge and competences valued in society. The higher education pick ups the signals from society about the knowledge and competences its values and in return the society takes in the graduates to be part of the competent working society. In this manner, all forms of knowledge and competences that will improve the situation are favoured by the society.

A few decades ago, Tyler (1949) discussed the problem of education system's direction. According to Tyler, the changing societal priorities and expectations

have a legitimate influence in the direction of the educational system that led to the specification of objectives. Cited in Allan (1996), Tyler (1949, p. 3) says that:

> *if an educational programme is to be planned and if efforts for continued improvement are to be made, it is very necessary to have some conception of goals that are being aimed at. These educational objectives become the criteria by which materials are selected, content is outlined, instructional procedures are developed and tests and examinations are prepared.*

4.2.3 Practical Implications

Scott and Watson (1994, p. 43) say that the environment in which higher education exist and must operate has had

> *a fundamental impact on the ethos of higher education and the nature of the curriculum.*

Scott and Watson assert that in this complex environment higher education curriculum must be managed more explicitly and actively rather than customary as it was before. Thus, higher educational institutions need to give constant attention to their relationships with the environments. Bocock (1994, p. 121) believes that

> *Learning outcomes must increasingly be specified and skills and competencies identified.*

This does not mean that the shift tend to redefine the role of higher education or a reaction against the perceived bias in the current education system

towards preparing individuals who "*know*" or cannot "*do*". We need knowledge, understanding and competences to perform competently in the work environment (Mansfield, 1991). As such, the hotel management education provider needs to understand what are the competences required to be a competent worker in the world of work, so that a relevant and responsive educational curriculum can be developed.

This study believes that the competence approach will assist in the process of identifying the generic managerial competences that can be used as a starting point, or rather a reference point, in the process of developing an effective and responsive hotel management education. Consequently, the *'useful'* knowledge acquired by *'listening'* to the key stakeholders in itself will benefit the hotel management schools to development effective hotel management curriculum (Mohrman *et al*, 1983). These are the individuals and groups who have the influence over and interest of the educational system. Ibrahim (1992/1993) (cited in Zainol, 1994) stresses that

> *The acquisition of information and skills is of course an essential part of education, but it cannot be separated ... and the sense of commitment to shared societal ideals and vision.*

This study involves in the identification of the competences expected of hotel management graduates. These competences will then be used as a guideline for educational planning, particularly curriculum planning. Since its main use is to assist hotel schools to develop an effective programme, both behavioural

and occupational competence models are considered in the identification process. Managerial competences at entry-level management position is the target of this identification exercise since all criticisms mentioned earlier were focused on graduates' (fresh graduates) competences.

As stated earlier, knowledge and understanding are important components that link to competence. In this connection, knowledge and understanding are evident in performance and, in practice; it is sometimes very difficult to consider these components separately in the concept of competence (Eraut, 1990). This research project adopts a similar view on the issue of knowledge and understanding and competence. This strongly related to Mansfield's (1990, p. 21) concept of knowledge in competence where he said that even though the element of *'knowledge is not stated explicitly in standards* (or competence statement) *does not mean that knowledge does not still underpin performance.'* (emphasis added). According to Barnett (1992, p. 32),

> *Higher education is also the home for the language of doing, the*
> *terminology of which includes: action, skill, performance, practice,*
> *competence or capability.*

4.2.4 Summary

Part II of the Literature Review Chapter begins by reviewing the importance of knowledge and understanding in relation to competent performance. It is an accepted notion that the main factor that will determine changes for any given society does not solely depend on the strength of politics or economics but also the level of education achievement, strength of knowledge available and competent workforce. In the spirit, to perform accordingly certain characteristics or abilities of a person is required. These characteristics or abilities in this context are called competences. The chapter reviewed two major approaches or models to competence.

First, the behavioural (McBer) approach which accepts the definition of management competences as *"an underlying characteristics of a person which results in effective and/or superior performance in a job"*. The main thrust of this approach looks at the 'underlying characteristics' which is considered to be generic characteristics. This generic characteristics may be apparent in many forms of behaviour, or a wide variety of different actions (Boyatzis, 1982).

The second approach reviewed in this section was the Occupational Standards approach initiated by the Management Charter Initiative (MCI) and the National Council for Vocational Qualification (NCVQ). This approach differs from the McBer approach in that it looks at the outcomes or results that an individual has to perform and attain the standards required. Behavioural

(McBer) model looks at the person for competent performance and Outcomes (MCI) model looks at the standards required in performing a task.

There is one common element found in both approaches in identifying competences, despite their differences, that is, competence or competency approach attempts to improve organisation performance through its competent workers in the competitive environment.

The diverse approaches to competence definition, interpretation, identification and implication have an important role in the development of management education. In the same vein, the editor of the *Competence*, Neil Rankin, says

> *...each organisation has to find its own solution to the business challenges it faces; therefore, no one definition or doctrine of competence can suffice.*

To Kandola (1996) *"It is only the matter of restoring a sense of perspective "*. Clearly, the method of competence analysis depends greatly on the objectives of the research and the constraints such as time-scales and budgets. No one methodological technique is better than the other (Kandola and Pearn, 1992).

These are among the various studies which have been carried out to address the problem of defining what it takes to be a competent worker. The benefits

of competence approach have been described. As Kandola (1996) believes that

> with competences everyone wins: individuals, organisations, even
> society.

A particular benefit is the improvement of designing management education programmes.

Institutions of higher education are aware of the key role they perform vis-à-vis the boundary of the institutions. Recent trends in education have stressed the need for education providers to expand the knowledge base and be more relevant to those who are perceived to have a 'legitimate' interest in the development of hospitality education. Its importance should be reflected in institutional educational objectives as a method for aligning course design, delivery and assessment. The emphasis on relevance privileges those stakeholders who are users of the products of higher education.

The competence approach has now becoming a focus for developmental strategy (Mansfield, 1993). This approach is able to provide a holistic description of an effective hotel management education in Malaysia. Before any further initiative is taken, inevitably hotel schools in Malaysia have to address the main issues of 'who' are the main players and 'what' are their expectations.

With the present economic environment, hotel schools in Malaysia are forced to respond to the unprecedented demands — producing competent and capable managers for the industry to handle business uncertainties and turbulence and to accommodate the increasing number of students. As stated in the previous section, hotel schools must be sensitive and responsive to their environment by listening to their stakeholders what constitute an effective hotel management education. Thus, the only meaningful definition of educational effectiveness is the stakeholders' expectations and perceptions of effectiveness.

CHAPTER 5

HOSPITALITY MANAGEMENT EDUCATION AND EDUCATIONAL

INQUIRY

5.1 Introduction

During the past decades hospitality educators have begun to evaluate the

content and mode of teaching hospitality courses or subjects in respond to the

changes taking place in the industry and society. It was argued that if

hospitality education to continue to serve the industry, economy and society, it

has to come to terms with the forces of change: turbulent business

environment, globalisation, information technology and so forth. Adapting to

these 'new rules' of marketplace requires managers to develop new strategies

for success and competitiveness. According to Hamel and Prahalad (1994),

new competitive have overthrown much of standard management practice and

rendered conventional models of growth obsolete. As such, hospitality

business organisations have begun to place greater emphasis on determining

competences of their managers and potential employees to remain competitive

(Roberts and Shea, 1996). Given the expansion in Malaysian tourism industry

in recent years the hotel sector is now more important than ever before, at

least in terms of employment creation.

In recent years higher education has increasingly found itself under pressure to

address the needs and requirements of industry and students. Industry leaders

and educators are very much aware of the importance of matching graduates to the competences needed for entry-level managers. As bachelor's-level hotel management programmes continue to grow in size and number, concerns still remain over the acceptability and relevancy of such programmes by the industry. However, very little effort has been given to studying the relevancy of hospitality management education curriculum in developing countries particularly in Malaysia. However, majority of educational effectiveness research is done in the developed nations leaving very little research conducted in developing nations such as Malaysia. Indeed, studies conducted in developed nations were limited within their own cultural and economic domain.

This chapter attempts to highlight some of the studies carried out in the developed nations, particularly in the U.K. and U.S.A., to reflect the expectations and challenges in the business environment. It is a fact that business organisations are in a state of permanent change and turbulence. With the rapidly changing business environment, hospitality schools have to keep abreast with the latest developments in the industry. In order to understand these changes, many individuals and hospitality schools have initiated empirical investigations to identify the needs and requirements of the industry. This chapter reviews several approaches and methodologies developed by hotel education providers to identify those expectations and their implication for curriculum planning. These studies have an important bearing on the research project.

The study believes that in order to have an effective and dynamic hotel management programme, hotel management education providers must establish what is expected of hotel management education and what should be taught in the first place. A curriculum which requires students to learn an obsolete syllabus or content, no matter how effective the teaching and learning process has taken place, is a poor indicator of students' learning experience of the present and future needs and requirements of the business.

To make it more complicated the rate of change is even faster than it was before (Olsen, 1995). As change is rapid and continuous, organisations must have the essential management characteristics that will provide for its customers' expectations and, of course, this must be done effectively and efficiently (Crosby, 1992). Professionals in the service industry consider a competent worker as the key factor in productivity and service quality (Coyle and Dale, 1993).

Traditionally, hospitality education has a very strong vocational orientation. However, it has been argued that this approach failed to meet the new managerial challenges of today's changing business environment. This phenomenon is well explained in Airey and Tribe's (2000) 'curriculum space' of the hospitality or hotel management curriculum. Airey and Tribe posit that the hospitality or hotel management curriculum represents a contested space over which key stakeholders seek to exercise their influences. However, in most instances the educators' or the industry's influences are prominent. To understand the notion

of curriculum space and influences, Airey and Tribe (*ibid*) have divided the curriculum space into two axes: the vocational-liberal axis and the reflection-action axis. The vocational-liberal axis represents the different end-states of the curriculum. The reflection-action axis, on the other hand, is the mode of study (teaching and learning) which the curriculum employs to achieve the end-states (see Figure 5.1). Typically, the hospitality or hotel management curriculum focuses on (vocational-action quadrant) enabling students to do rather than a reflection of what has been learned.

Figure 5:1: A curriculum space

Space Ends	Reflective	Action
Liberal	Reflective-liberal	Liberal-action
Vocational	Reflective-vocational	Vocational-action

Source: Airey and Tribe, 2000

With the unprecedented rate of development and change in the hospitality business, hospitality management education has no other alternative than to re-examine its curriculum and direction. The conventional approach to managing and developing curriculum has to go beyond traditional boundaries. The dissatisfaction aired by the industry about today's graduates is part of the reason for this re-examination of curriculum. Umbreit (1992) stressed that

Hospitality educators must understand that these changes in the industry are permanent and that graduates from their schools will need a different set of skills to succeed in a restructuring business environment.

Studies in hospitality management education issues come in various forms and perspectives addressing their own specific concerns and needs. Typically, the issue under investigation was in the area of identifying the various perceptions and expectations of industry or other groups who are interested in the development of hospitality/hotel management education and its curriculum (Johnson, 1977, Pavesic, 1984, Tas, 1988, Baum, 1992, Enz *et al*, 1992, HCIMA, 1994). These investigations generally adopted either the knowledge and competence approach (Johnson, 1977, HCIMA, 1997, Tas, 1988, Baum, 1992) or the subject-based approach (Pavesic, 1988) or job demand (Hogan, 1989).

The findings from these studies have to be evaluated further if these findings were to be considered. However, this does not mean to imply that there are no common elements, which can be absorbed and learned from other cultures. In the same vein, Drucker (1992) posits that there are important similarities, in different cultural setting, in what managers do.

5.2   Educational Inquiry in Hospitality Management Education

In the U.K., one of the earliest studies addressing this issue of curriculum relevancy was carried out by Johnson (1977). The main aim of this study was to develop a framework that outlines the knowledge and skill that a competent

managers should have and form the basis of its education programmes and other policies involving the Hotel and Catering International Management Association's (HCIMA) memberships. The major criterion for inclusion of areas of knowledge and skills in the framework was vocational relevance. This was based on the frequency of use in current jobs. Eight sectors of the hotel and catering industry (including the education sector) were involved. These include: Hotel and Restaurant, Contractors and Employee Feeding, School Meals, Further and Higher Education and Hospital Catering. Questionnaire and semi-structure interview were employed to collect the data.

Since the study addressed several themes, the investigation was divided into five different surveys each with a different set of objectives. First, the Survey of Management Occupation; the main aim of this survey is to identify and locate managerial occupations for the industry and to develop a classification from which to identify the range appropriate for the initial requirements of HCIMA Corporate Membership. The classification of management activities adopted in this survey was developed from previous studies (Horne & Lupton, 1965) on management activity. Respondents (HCIMA members) were asked about their activities in the current jobs and established an importance rating (on a five Likert scales) of seven areas of activities (see Table 5.1). A detailed job analysis technique was rejected for reasons of the time and resources and the objective of this survey.

Secondly, the Survey of Recent Entrants to HCIMA; the objective of this survey was to gather the employment history of the respondents which includes a description and analysis of the present job and a detailed commentary on areas of knowledge and skills acquired from educational experience and those used at work. The findings of this study have provided the major source of information relating to the frequency of use of knowledge and skills.

Table 5.1: Classification of Management Activity: the rating of seven functional areas

Area	Scope
1. Technical	Food, beverage and accommodation
2. Financial	Accounts, budgets, costs and revenue
3. Purchase and Supply	Raw materials, equipment, contact with suppliers
4. Customer Contact	Personal contact with clients, guests, customers
5. Personnel	Recruitment, selection, employee relations and training
6. Sales & Marketing	Advertising, sales and promotion, sales agreements and contracts and public relations
7. Property	Maintenance of property, equipment and other fixed assets

Source: Johnson, 1977

The knowledge areas were grouped under twelve headings (knowledge areas). See Table 5.2 for the twelve headings. The compilation of these knowledge areas was derived from the syllabi of HCIMA qualifications. Respondents were asked to indicate how often they used their knowledge of each knowledge area and evaluate their knowledge of each topic in relation to their current needs. The

questionnaire was piloted using a panel of experts to comment. The survey

questionnaire was sent to a sample of 436 members.

Table 5.2: Twelve knowledge areas

1. Preparation provision of service of food	7. Bookkeeping
2. Food Control	8. Accounting
3. Liquor	9. Economics
4. Food Hygiene	10. Law
5. Nutrition	11. Management
6. Planning for accommodation service	12. Management techniques

Source: Johnson, 1977

Thirdly, the Survey of Changes and Development in Hotel, Catering and

Institutional Services; the survey dealt with the changes and development

facing the industry which has major implications for managerial roles in the

major sector of the industry. The theme here was to identify the functional

areas, which were important in their job. Content analysis was carried out to

identify and classify trends and development in the industry. Various papers

and articles on innovations, changes and developments having implications for

managerial roles were reviewed and analysed. After careful examination of the

various studies on changes and trends in the industry, ten separate competent

(functional) areas were included. See Table 5.3 for the ten areas.

For each area, changes and developments were summarised using three or

four appropriate headings followed by a brief statement of changes and

development. For example, under the Technical (Food & Beverage) heading,

several issues were highlighted which include; Production technology (in terms of new method of food preparation and production, equipment), Planning and service delivery systems. The results of this survey became the scope and content of individual units of study in response to the changing trends and developments in the industry.

Table 5.3: Changes and Development in the Industry

Area	Issues
1. Structure and Organisation of the Industry	The influence of structure & organisation of the industry. Size of firm, management employment, careers and roles.
2. Technical (Food and Beverages)	New cooking methods, equipment, production systems, service and delivery systems.
3. Technical (Accommodation)	The size and structure of business organisations which influence the organisation of accommodation services
4. Financial	Accounting systems, economic environment and computer applications.
5. Purchase and Supply	Buying, receiving and storage systems, suppliers' behaviour.
6. Sales and Marketing	Advertising, market research and changing customers behaviour and preferences.
7. Customer Contact	Customers expectations and customers relations
8. Personnel	Trades unions, industrial relations, quality of workforce.
9. Property	Maintenance of property.
10. Legal	New legislation relating to employment, customers' safety, food standards and regulations, environmental health inspectorate

Source: Johnson, 1977

Fourthly, Employer Validation Survey; the aim of this survey was to gain some reaction from employers to the findings from the previous surveys. The objective was to identify any conflicts and estimate the level of consensus. Respondents were predominantly holding management position in large and small companies and large public sector. Lastly, the Documentation Survey; the aims of this survey were to discover the suitability of all published materials in the hotel and catering subjects and to establish a list of recommended materials and texts for hotel, catering and institutional management education. Publishers were contacted to provide the list of publications available from each publishing company. Subject specialists and lecturers in colleges offering HCIMA courses were interviewed in relation to their views about the requirements and limitations in documentation for student's learning purposes.

In Johnson's study, the industry (besides HCIMA's members) was the only group involved. At the same time, to identify knowledge and managerial competences based on the frequency of use was not the best approach (Carman, 1990). In this case the formation of expectation is therefore less obvious. However, any research project must not be seen as a panacea. It should be seen as an initiative that *"removes the need for any subjectivity in designing courses"* (Johnson, 1977).

In the USA, a pioneering effort was initiated by Tas (1988). One of the objectives of this study was to discover the managerial competency expectations held by industry professionals for hotel-manager trainees. In this

study, managerial competency is defined as *'those activities and skills judged essential to perform the duties of a specific position'*. From a literature review he randomly compiled a list of 70 competences that he thought might be needed by hotel-manager trainees. As far as Tas's study is concerned, he believes that it is important that the graduates in hotel management programme should attain 'competency' in the specific areas based on *'one's ability to accomplish specific job-related tasks (occupational and personal) and assume the role connected to the position'*. (see Table 5.4)

Two separate panels were planned to examine the clarity and validity of the content. After these two reviews thirty-six items remained. The items were listed randomly on the questionnaire as Tas claimed that the review panels could not agree on the classification of the competence statements. Professionals in the industry were the only group involved in the investigation. The data was collected using a questionnaire to survey industry professionals' expectations. Questionnaires were sent to hotels having four hundreds rooms or more listed in the *Hotel and Motel Red Book*. The respondents (hotel managers) were asked to rank the thirty-six competence statements in order of importance (1=least important and 5=most important). The respondents' rating of each competence were summated to obtain a mean level of importance. The mean values were then categorised according to the following scale:

1. Essential: Over 4.50

2. Considerably important: 3.50-4.49

3. Moderately important: 2.50-3.49

Table 5.4: Thirty-six competences (U.S. Competencies) statements

1. Manages guests problems with understanding and sensitivity
2. Maintains professional and ethical standards in work environment
3. Demonstrates professional appearance and poise
4. Communicates effectively (writing & orally)
5. Develops positive customer relations
6. Strives to achieve positive working relationship with employees based on perceptions of work
7. Possess needed leadership qualities
8. Motivates employees to achieve desired performance
9. Follows established personnel-management procedures in supervision of employees
10. Knows personnel policies and procedures
11. Effectively manages life-threatening situations
12. Identifies operational problems
13. compliance Follows federal, state, and local sanitation and safety regulations to ensure by the organisation
14. Meets legal responsibilities associated with hotel operations
15. Manages employee grievances effectively
16. Delegates responsibility and authority to personnel according to departmental objectives
17. Inspects cleaned hotel rooms according to standards
18. Uses past and current information to predict future departmental revenues and expenses
19. Assists in the development and control of departmental employee productivity
20. Analyse factors that influence the controllability of profits
21. Assists in establishing organisational objectives and their priorities
22. Appraises employee performance
23. Uses past and current information to predict future hotel reservations
24. Develops work-flow patterns to meet specific operational requirements
25. Analyses weekly, monthly, and financial and statistical reports
26. Conducts an informative and valid interview with prospective employees
27. Promotes a co-operative union-management relationship
28. Analyses past and present business information to predict effective future marketing strategies
29. Uses front-office equipment effectively
30. Assists in planning operational strategies
31. Assists in developing and maintaining budgets for each important element of the organisation
32. Assists in developing program of preventative security
33. Develops reliable revenue and expense tracking systems
34. Processes hotel arrivals and departures
35. Assists in developing an effective energy management program
36. Prepares weekly, monthly, and annual financial statistical reports

Source: Tas, 1988

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In his study, none of the thirty-six items presented had a mean of less than 2.5, meaning that all the competence items were considered at least moderately important for the hotel manager trainees to acquire. He mentioned that these thirty-six competences identified could form the basis for decision making in curriculum development for hotel schools.

The identification process was not an end to itself to determine the effectiveness of the educational programme. Tas (*ibid*) stresses that in order for the curriculum to be effective, a strong relationship between the *competences being acquired*, the *course material*, and the *instructional method used* should be given equal priority.

In another effort, Baum (1992) replicated Tas's survey instrument to compare the U.S. and U.K. expectations of management trainees. The survey was in the form of a mailed checklist which was sent to the general manager of 223 hotels in the U.K. with 150 or more rooms. As this was a replication of Tas's work, the same 36 items were used. In order to suit the local context, some minor wording modifications were done. The purpose of Baum's work was to replicate a direct comparison of competences expectations between the U.S. and the U.K. In terms of academic qualification approximately seventy-five (75) per cent of the U.S. respondents held a bachelor's degree in hotel management as compared to only 16 percent among the U.K. counterparts. Interestingly enough, 43 percent of the U.K. respondents held non-hotel degrees. Ten (10) per cent of the U.K. respondents had no higher education qualifications.

In this study, Baum realised that the structure of the hotel industry in the U.K. is different from that in the U.S. In the U.K. hotel industry, small and medium-size properties predominate the industry. However, the different hotel structures had something in common. Both sets of respondents gave high rating to those competences related to human relations (guest care, employee relations, professionalism and communication).

The cultural variations between these two countries have been unveiled in three areas. On a common ground, both studies discovered that the 'soft' or human relations *'Manages guest problems with understanding'* as the most important competence. However, due to the differences in the business structure and requirements, two competences related to legal implications requirements *'Follows hygiene and safety regulations to ensure compliance by organisation'* and *'Follows the legal responsibilities associated with hotel operations'* differed in their degree of importance between these two countries. Baum stressed that the comparison is by no means indicating the correct approach. He added that *"to compare Tas studies to other hotel industries in other countries would be inappropriate."* Nevertheless, he said that despite the limitations such a study will somehow *"lead to a better understanding of the educational needs of the industry".* He added that the study may assist in

> *the distillation of competences and the allocation of responsibility for their development to education and industry.*

In another development, the importance of the industry's needs was also stressed by Hogan (1989). His study identified the industry's needs when Tennessee State University wanted to introduce their hospitality management programme. However, the approach taken by Hogan was quite different from the previous studies. In this study Hogan did not identify the competences requirements but the preferred programme emphasis or job demand. Hogan attempted to find out what kinds of graduates the industry would like to hire, the departments that were in needs of graduates and to determine what factors should be considered in starting a hospitality management programme. The result of this study had shown that the U.S. hotel industry was more interested in hiring graduates in three employment areas. These were marketing and sales, food and beverage and housekeeping management.

Pavesic (1984), on the other hand, selected educators and industry practitioners to compile a rank order of importance of subject areas. The purpose of this study was to determine the importance of subject areas in most hospitality programme curricula. A secondary purpose was also established to determine the perceptions of industry practitioners on the same subject areas. A list consisting of thirty-one selected subject areas was sent to selected educators and industry practitioners to develop an overall rank order of subject areas based on their perceptions (see Table 5.5). The perceptions of how important the subject areas depend greatly on the respondents' own interpretation of the subject areas. He posited that if these perceptions do not match then the value of hospitality management education could be questioned.

Table 5.5: Overall rank order of importance of subject areas

1. Managerial accounting	18. Public relations
2. F&B and Labour cost control	19. Sanitation and safety
3. Supervision and human relations	20. Facility maintenance
4. Internship	21. Advertising
5. Computer applications and Personnel management	22. Energy conservation
	23. Equipment layout and design
7. Hospitality accounting	24. Front office operation
8. Organizational behaviour	25. Housekeeping
9. Principles of food preparation	26. Industry overview
10.Practicum in food preparation and service	27. Club management and Nutrition
	29. Institutional feeding
11.Purchasing	30. Travel and tourism
12.Human resource management	31. Contract feeding
13.Market research	32. Resort management
14.Strategic management	33. Theme park management
15.Hotel sales	
16 Hospitality law	
17. Hotel operation	

Source: Pavesic, 1984

When the department of hospitality management of Central Florida University was absorbed by the College of Business Administration in 1991, the reorganisation gave the department an opportunity to identify and respond to the hospitality industry's requirements (Ashley *et al*, 1995). The goal of the programme was to provide a quality work force for the hospitality industry. Hence, the industry was considered their major customers. The study invited 25 leading executives in the hospitality and tourism industry to be on the advisory committee. The executives participated in brainstorming sessions to assist the department to identify those future knowledge and competence categories that were expected of degree-level hospitality management graduates.

The executives' ideas were collected and organised through the use of the college's TEAM-Net (Technological Efficiency Applied to Meetings Network). However, the detail process of collecting and organising the data was not described. This computerised group-decision making system (developed jointly by the University of Arizona and IBM) allowed individuals to collaborate in efficient and simultaneous brainstorming sessions.

One of the advantages of this system was that it eliminates many of the problems associated with traditional brainstorming (e.g. peer pressure and the wish to be 'right'). At the end of this exercise, the executives group top-ten categories (in descending order) which involved general management requirements rather than specific technical skill (see Table 5.6 below).

To test the validity of the result, the study organised a second stage TEAM-Net session among the department's faculty. The same approach was used and their responses led to the same conclusion as the executives responses. The final stage was held using the department's students. The same questions were asked and again led to the same categories.

However, the result still requires further discussions and argument as to what these areas of competences should comprise of. Apart from this, there are advantages and disadvantages of using computer software in the survey process. As mentioned earlier one of the advantages of this approach is that it eliminates the problem of traditional brain-storming sessions. However, one

should remember that the application of this approach depends greatly on computer literacy (familiarity) of the respondents and the respondents must have access to the facility.

Table 5.6: The various management categories ranking

Category	Rank
People Skills	1
Creative thinking ability	2
Financial skills	3
Communication skills (written and oral presentations)	4
Developing a service orientation	5
Total quality management	6
Problem-identification and problem-solving skills	7
Listening skills	8
Customer-feedback	9
Individual and system-wide computer skills	10

Source: Ashley, 1995

The School of Hotel Administration at Cornell University undertook a survey to help them evaluate the curriculum and pedagogy of the school's Master of Professional Studies (MPS) programme (Enz *et al*, 1993). Even though this study was carried out to improve their graduate-level programme, the present

study believes that the approach could shed some insight into curriculum inquiry efforts. In this study, stakeholders in the programme were surveyed. They defined the stakeholders as those people who have an interest in graduate-level education and, indirectly, in the success of graduates. The stakeholders identified are the hospitality senior-level professionals, Master of Professional Studies (MPS) alumni, the school's graduate-faculty members and students (in this case students entering the programme for the 1992 session).

The survey utilised a card-sort methodology which was adapted from a study conducted for the Master of Business Administration (MBA) programme at the Weatherhead School of Management at Case Western Reserve University, U.S.A. Additional hospitality competency statements were solicited from members of the graduate faculty. Respondents were asked to group and rank a list of competence statements (1=least important and 5=most important). The questionnaire comprised a list of fifty-four skills and competence statements. See Table 5.7 for the most important competence statements.

The responses from the stakeholders were analysed to obtain the mean scores for each of the fifty-four variables within each stakeholder group. The study used a mean value of 4.00 as an arbitrary cut-off point to identify the different quartiles. To reduce the large skills set and understand any underlying dimensions that run through the skills; a factor analysis was performed. As a result, four dimensions emerged: Strategic orientation, communication, managerial styles and leadership.

Further analyses were conducted to determine the differences and similarities between the groups. In this survey the authors believed that no survey could tell researchers how to design or change a curriculum be it in Cornell or elsewhere. Faculty has a vital position in determining what to include in the curriculum.

Table 5.7: The most important competence statements

1. Acting in an ethical manner

2. Leadership

3. Communication with customers and clients

4. Working as a member of a team

5. Identifying and defining problems

6. Inspiring and motivating others

7. Seeing how things fit in the big picture

8. Making decisions under pressure and limited resources

9. Adapting to changing circumstances

10. Being objective

11. Persuading others

Source: Enz *et al*, 1993

From this survey Cornell's hotel school accepted the fact that the challenge in improving the Master of Professional (M.P.S.) programme was to blend the vision of faculty, students and industry. From this study, Cornell hotel school

was able to develop an educational model that matched the needs of the stakeholders.

The result of this survey had helped the school in developing an educational model that is responsive and meets the needs of the stakeholders. Even though the study was meant to evaluate the Cornell's M.P.S programme, which was a graduate-level programme, it certainly has some implications for the present study in terms of the application of the concept of stakeholder in identifying the relevant managerial competences.

5.3   Hospitality Management Education Research: a comparison

Several research studies, which dealt specifically with hospitality management curricula, were identified. The results of these investigations have helped hotel schools either to improve or introduce some innovative efforts in their curriculum. The rationale for choosing the studies described above was based on the fact that these studies have adopted different approaches in attempting to develop an effective hospitality management education (see Table 5.8). These studies focused on the needs and expectations of specific target group (s).

However, there are benefits for using either approach of inquiry, but there are also problems inherent in each approach. It is difficult to compare results from different cultures and each study has its own focus and limitations. Caution must be used not to apply it in an unchecked manner. Clearly, the choice of data-gathering methods will depend on the interpretation of the issue,

objectives of the research or user and other constraints such as time-scales and budget. No single methodological approach can claim to be the one and only way of identifying the underlying factors of an effective hotel management education.

Table 5.8: A comparison of hospitality management education research methodology

Project	Methodology	Data	Sample
Johnson, 1977	*Questionnaire survey *semi-structure interview	Knowledge/ Competence	Industry
Pavesic, 1984	*Questionnaire survey	Subject-area	Industry
Hogan, 1989	*Questionnaire survey	Programme-emphasis	Industry
Baum, 1991	*Questionnaire	Competences (replicated Tas's competences statements	Industry
Enz et al, 1992	*Questionnaire survey	Competences	Stakeholders (industry, educators, students)
Ashley et al, 1995		Competences	Industry, Educators students

Fuller (1983) described that when the wraps of Johnson's study were taken off in 1977 it was greeted with considerable *euphoria*. In addition, it was

considered as if an alchemist's stone or a device invented similar to an automatic pilot for syllabus planning had been discovered. However, it was stressed that any educational model which was firmly attached to content-based or subject-based tradition appeared to disconnect the curriculum and learners (Hargreaves, 1991). As mentioned in the last section, the ownership of knowledge alone does not guarantee effective performance (Debling, 1989). Similarly, content-laden curriculum tends to be concerned in terms of the topics to be covered, but not in terms of the learning objectives of the course (Tyler, 1949). This approach also tends to ignore learners' needs and the society's needs (Butterfield, 1995).

In Pavesic's (1989) study, it should be recognised that even with the identification of the subject areas it did not reveal what this body of subjects or subject contents were. Several studies may be talking about the same subject areas but failed to recognise the depths of contents and applications. This adoption (subject areas) failed to provide considerable assistance to those designing a curriculum or learning and teaching materials for hotel management programmes. The flaw of comparing other programmes and inferring that the most frequently counted courses or subjects should be made requirements was that those programmes probably adopted the same approach in developing their programmes. According to Morgan (1988), even though the identification of subject areas is important, to be fully effective their contents and the broad appreciation of the context are more crucial in

determining the impact of the subject areas. This was the main argument put forward by Tanner and Tanner (1975) in defining the concept of curriculum. A closer look at this rank order list (Table 5.5) reveals that the list did not represent the present nature of the industry. Over the past decade, there has been a rapid growth in the service sector of the economies of the developed and developing nations. The service sector has realised that there must be a new thinking about the business. Consequently, phrases such as 'service management' or 'service quality' have become buzzwords in the service related business.

In most cases, except two (Enz et al, 1992 and Ashley et al, 1995), graduates are considered the 'product' of educational institutions and the industry as their 'customer'. As educators, we must satisfy the industry needs (Pizam, 1995). Pizam posits that the customers that we must satisfy are the industry and society. As such the real customer is the industry who employs them and their needs become dominant over the other. As Pizam *(ibid, p.* 216) stresses that

> *'undergraduate students are not equipped with the proper conceptual and technical skills ... They neither evaluate the relevancy of the educational of the educational material, nor the importance of the subject matter to the real world of work.'*

Inevitably, the industry professionals are the best group to comment or advice the academics about what hotel/hospitality management education should be. In educational circles, the stakeholder approach is still not a well accepted concept.

At the same time, it could also be argued that educational institutions do not exist solely to serve the industry. Educational institutions have to serve multiple ends. This includes a wider set of responsibilities and accountability of relationships with other relevant groups or individuals (stakeholders) which higher educational institutions need to consider and not give too much weight to the needs of a single group. Some of these groups are said to have the power to alter or influence the way they (educational institutions) respond to the environment, including the industry (Hussey and Langham, 1979). The exclusion of other important groups who have a legitimate interest in educational development will also encourage insularity (Hakim, 1987). At the same time, this concept of industry as the 'customer' tends to underestimate the views of other individuals or groups who have the power and the ability to influence the organisation's objective and decision making process.

Another important aspect that needs to be considered is the variables of the studies. The studies highlighted above revealed that the term 'competence ' or competency is loosely defined or used. A thorough examination of the various definitions and conception was ignored.

The decision to choose job demand or preferred programme emphasis (Hogan, 1989) as the variable could also be misleading. The results from this study might provide a valuable piece of information for Tennessee State University. However, the result could also provide a myopic view of the

industry's requirements and needs since job demand or shortage might be just a temporary phenomenon.

Another important aspect is that the studies described above were carried out in developed nations (the U.S. and the U.K.). Where geographical location is concerned the findings of the studies have to be treated with great caution (Baum, 1992). Different locations and nations have different cultural settings, structures and economic systems in which inference is difficult to make between them (Srivinas, 1995).

It is the intent of this study to offer an alternative approach to address some of the gaps identified earlier. The adoption of the competence approach could provide some of the missing elements found in the various studies highlighted (subject-based or content-based approach and single group sample). Today's entry-level managers in the 'new economy world order' need a diversity of competences in order to meet the demands of the industry (Buergermeister, 1983; Cockerill, 1989, New Strait Times, 1996b). Hence, the competence approach could close th Åx }   uld describe
what is expected of education and its graduates (Adam, 1996).

These competences can be identified from relevant stakeholders based in industry and wider areas of society. It is an accepted fact that different individuals or groups may place different emphasis or expectations on their on the various competence statements. Each of these groups and individuals has

its own expectations and priorities of what constitute an effective programme of studies. However, the differences between groups' (stakeholders) expectations could provide valuable information for future planning. By ascertaining what the stakeholders expect, it will enable hotel schools to develop a curriculum and their competences in a dynamic environment.

The succeeding chapter describes the methodology employed to elicit empirical data which can be used to arrive at some conclusions to a way forward for developing a relevant hotel management education.

5.4　Summary

This chapter discusses the various efforts taken by hospitality schools to reassess their educational programmes. Each study mentioned earlier had its own specific purpose and focus. While the chapter has been essentially descriptive, it has provided useful information on the various methodologies employed to address the issue of relevancy and effectiveness of hotel management education. These studies, however, have one common purpose, that is, to prepare an individual who understands the industry and is competent enough to face the challenge and perform in the world of work. They merit special mention for the efforts in trying to establish the underlying dimension of an effective hotel or hospitality management education.

Like in other industries, the hospitality industry has experienced permanent change in the past. If management competences and concepts have some kind of universal validity, their practical applications have to be sensitive to the environment and cultural setting of the society in question.

The research project believes that in order to study and understand those management competences in the Malaysian context, an empirical investigation needs to be carried out. The findings will definitely provide a platform or a point of reference for further discussion, comparison and initiative. The situations and expectations (managerial competences) of Malaysian stakeholders' in hotel management education can provide the information required to kindle

serious thought on the issues and challenges engulfing Malaysian hotel management education.

In the same context, hotel education providers must continue to re-examine or re-evaluate the programme of studies in order to make certain that it continues to produce effective individuals to handle the future shocks and challenges of the business. At the same time, the initiative must also take into account the forces that are affecting the decision making process.

CHAPTER 6

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

6.1   Introduction

In Chapter 2 it was explained how the tourism and hotel industries in Malaysia are expanding at a very rapid pace, and because of this there has been a growing demand of competent hotel staff at all levels. On the same note, the relevancy of Malaysian hotel management education becomes a question of great concern which merits the attention of hotel management education providers and the hotel industry at large. The link between education and economic requirements is the main concern. As a consequence there has to be a rethink about the relevancy and effectiveness of hotel management education.

Majority of programme's relevancy and effectiveness research are done in developed nations, leaving very little research conducted in developing nations. In most developing countries, the decision to transfer directly and implement well established programmes from the developed nations without giving further consideration of the nations' economic and local business context would lead to ineffectiveness (Howell and Uysal, 1987, Baum, 1995). Given significant structural and cultural differences between the hotel industries of various countries, as well as major variations between respective educational systems, the direct transfer of well-established hotel management

programmes from the developed nations to the developing countries, would be open to criticism (Baum, 1990).

At the same time, one should remember that majority of hotel management programmes have been established in economically developed countries. Naturally, the focus of these programmes has been designed to equip graduates for employment in societies where tourism is part of a highly sophisticated economic environment. To ensure that the hotel management education in Malaysia is of relevance to the local requirements and needs, one must understand what it is that stakeholders specifically expect of graduates. However, before any action or decision is taken it is important to know 'What are the expectations of key stakeholders of hotel management graduates? This has to be strongly related to 'What are the managerial competences expected of graduates? By arriving at some answers, particularly the underlying competences, one is able to take the first step in planning what should be taught to produce competent future managers for the Malaysian hotel industry. The curriculum planning of hotel management education in Malaysia should be carried out within the Malaysian economic and local business environment.

Hence, the purpose of this chapter is to describe the methodology and methods employed in the research project. As such, the investigations have been designed to have three separate surveys, each of which will have a contributory factor towards the next. Qualitative and quantitative (or a

combination of both) may be relevant at different stages of the research process (Gross, Giacquinta and Bernstein, 1971). According to Bryman (1995), the combination of quantitative and qualitative research design can produce a general picture of the subject under study. Since almost all data collection techniques have some level of biases associated with them, data collection using multimethods and multiple sources lends rigor to research. For example, if responses collected through interviews and questionnaires are correlated with one another, then the research will have more confidence about the goodness of the collected data (Easterby-Smith et al, 1991). The three surveys were Experts survey, Stakeholders survey and Experts validation survey. Each survey (stage) has its own specific objective. This will be discussed later in the chapter.

In the following sections, detailed description of the research methodologies are presented. This is followed by a discussion on the Pre-test and Pilot surveys. It continues with an explanation of the methods, procedures of data gathering and data analysis of each survey. For reader's convenience, this chapter begins with a restatement of the aims and objectives of the study.

6.2   Restatement of Aims and Objectives

In an effort to expand its contribution and demonstrate its commitment toward the industry and the nation, *Institut Teknologi MARA* (ITM) introduced its Degree programme in Hotel and Tourism Management in June 1995. Currently there are no specific guidelines or references (from a local

perspective) for public or private colleges and universities that wish to develop and offer a bachelor's degree in hotel or hospitality management.

As mentioned in Chapter 3, foreign hotel education model might not fit in well with local scenarios and requirements. Hotel management education in Malaysia needs to take a new direction and dimension if it is to fulfil the local demands and maintain its relevancy (Baum, 1995). Before any conclusion can be made, this study proposes that actual needs (based on Malaysia context) should be investigated and referred to in curriculum planning.

The primary aim of this study is:

to critically evaluate key stakeholders' expectations of bachelor's degree level hotel management education in Malaysia.

Objectives

The objectives of this study are:

1. To analyse the key stakeholders expectations of the Malaysian hotel management education;

2. To identify the degree of importance of the various functional areas that is considered important in hotel management education (degree level);

3. To identify desirable competences to be achieved by Malaysian hotel management graduates and evaluate their importance; and

4.   To develop a conceptual curriculum planning model of hotel

management education, which takes account of the key

stakeholders' expectations (in lights of objectives 2 and 3) and the

Malaysian cultural context.

6.3   Research Methodology

Once the research objectives have been determined, the researcher faces the

problem of constructing a research design. Accordingly, the type of research

methodology to be employed for a particular problem must always recognise

the scope, domain and nature of the data that will be collected. At the same

time it is also important to recognise the fact that data and methods of

capturing data are inextricably interdependent (Leedy 1980, p. 75).

The arguments concerning the best approach to research were often aligned

with differing paradigm. The two major paradigms or traditions (McCall and

Bobko, 1990) in social science research are known as positivism (quantitative)

and phenomenalism (qualitative). However, there many different variants

associated with positivism and phenomenology. For instance, the positivist

paradigm is also referred to as *scientific experimental, empiricist, quantitative*.

Advocates of this paradigm accept the fact that only those phenomena that

are observable (with an aid of instruments) can validly be warranted as

knowledge and attempt to translate natural science approaches into the social

sciences. On the other hand, phenomenology is also known as *naturalistic*

inquiry, critical interpretive, qualitative, naturalistic inquiry or social constructionism (Bryman, 1995).

Phenomenologists argue that the world is socially constructed and subjective. They claim that quantitative approach tends to ignore or give little attention to the context. Quantitative research (positivism) entails a belief that the methods and procedures of natural sciences are appropriate to social sciences. However, proponents of phenomenology (qualitative) research argued that this was an inappropriate approach for studying people. Phenomenologists claimed that positivism seemed to present a mechanistic and reductionist view of human (Hampden-Turner,1970, Shipman, 1972).

On the other hand, qualitative research tends to be on individual's interpretations of their environments and of their own and others' behaviour (Bryman, *ibid*). In most educational inquiries, both, qualitative and quantitative, methodological processes are used to explain educational problems (Cohen and Manion, 1996). Looking at the nature of the present research inquiry, it was decided that the process of eliciting the relevant information for this research project requires the use of both qualitative and quantitative methods (Bryman, 1989, Cohen and Manion, 1996). Thus, the position that was adopted for this research project was that no single methodology is inherently inferior or superior to others. The two approaches complement one another. As Bryman (1989, p. 254) says

It would be ironic if fretting about paradigms (quantitative and qualitative research)... were to act as barrier to the fusion of methods (where appropriate), since the argument about the connection between epistemology and research method which undergirds the notion of a paradigm constitute a poor statement about how research both is and should be conducted.

Accordingly, it was felt that the adoption of both methodologies of data gathering, qualitative and quantitative, would help to gain a better understanding of the issues being investigated. This would give a more realistic view of the industry and the need of an effective hotel management education (Merton and Kendall, 1946, Cohen and Manion, 1996).

At this stage, cultural issues are not usually regarded as an important factor to consider when planning the research design, however, they do have an influence on the implementation stage (research method) (Hakim, 1987). This will be elaborated later in the next section. Nevertheless, similar research methods (adopted in other culture) may be appropriate if results of a country are used solely within that country and equivalence is not an issue (Vavra, 1997).

To this end, it was decided that to gather empirical data regarding stakeholders' expectations, interview sessions and questionnaires would be used. Both methods of collecting data were employed in the Experts' survey.

Questionnaire was used to identify, verify and assess the importance of the

managerial competences and key stakeholders. The interview session aims

at gaining expert's opinion and interpretation of the research issues. Besides

to reassure the content of the questionnaire, the semi-structured interview

was selected over unstructured interview because the study hopes the

session to be more focused (Cohen and Manion, 1996).

These approaches of gathering information enabled the research project to

extract data that provides real picture of the situation. However, to extract

data from a larger sample, questionnaire was used in the second survey

(Stakeholder survey). If in the Experts' survey the concern was to verify the

key stakeholders and Stakeholders survey questionnaire, the objectives of the

Validation survey then were to verify and to gain further reaction on the

preliminary results from the Stakeholders survey and the suggestions made

based on the findings from the Stakeholders survey. A semi-structured

interview survey method was employed in this Validation survey. With this

information the study can then formulate a curriculum planning model which is

of benefit to the hotel industry and Malaysian economy. Table 6.1 below

displays the methodologies (data collection) used to address the objectives of

the research project.

6.4   Issues of Data Collection

As stated earlier, the aims of this study are to critically evaluate and to make

recommendations concerning future development of degree-level hotel

management education in Malaysia. It is, therefore, decided that the investigations should have three separate surveys, each of which will have a contributory factor towards the next. The three surveys were Experts survey, Stakeholders survey and Experts validation survey.

Table 6.1: **The methodologies (data collection) used to address the objectives of the research project**

Methods / Objectives	Questionnaire	Interview
1. To analyse the key stakeholders expectations of the Malaysian hotel management education;	X	X
2. To identify the degree of importance of the various functional areas that are considered important in hotel management education (degree level);	X	X
3. To identify desirable competences to be achieved by Malaysian hotel management graduates and evaluate their importance; and	X	X
4. To develop a conceptual curriculum planning model of hotel management education, which takes account of the key stakeholders' expectations (in lights of objectives 2 and 3) and the Malaysian cultural context.		X

Since this study is the first of its kind to be carried out in Malaysia, it was decided that to develop and verify data regarding what managerial competences are important for hotel management graduates to have, a panel of experts was identified. The experts were contacted and visited them at their

workplace. These experts were considered to have well-formed and realistic expectations of hotel management graduates. The interpretation of the term 'expectations' was based on the overall context of the degree of importance of each managerial competence statement which hotel management graduates (responsibilities) should possess or 'should be able to perform' (or predictive expectations in Miller's (1977) words) to be effective in their initial positions.

As mentioned in Chapter 4, Job Analysis and Functional Analysis are considered to provide alternative methodologies to derive managerial competences. However, Job Analysis has some disadvantages. Job Analysis is claimed to artificially distort the job under study where there is a tendency to portray the job at its best (Jirasinghe and Lyons, 1996) and does not provide the right picture of what is expected of a performer (Saville and Holdsworth, 1995). This is why behavioural event interview (interview with the job holders themselves using Focus Group and Critical Incident technique) often find gaps in the competences identified (Adams, 1996). These techniques seem to be inappropriate in this research project because information gathered might stem from the defensive process within the individual respondent or 'ego defensive' in Wall's (1973) terminology and suffer form 'built -in biases and logical deficiencies in the incident classification system' (Schneider and Locke, 1971). In other words, in these approaches participants attempt to exaggerate the situation in order to make them feel important or known as the 'placebo effects' (Oppenheim, 1992).

Functional Analysis, on the other hand, has also been criticized on the ground that they do not canvass the views of a sufficiently large sample to of the job incumbent to guarantee 'representativeness'. Argyris and Schon (1978) claimed that Functional Analysis usually produce an 'espoused theory of action' rather than a 'theory in use'. Both approaches, Job Analysis and Functional Analysis, rely at some stage upon reaching a consensus as to the most appropriate 'grouping' or 'clustering' of information collected (Tas, 1988 and Enz at el, 1994). This will result in an infinite number of combinations of skills to form a cluster of associated competence. In collectivism society the impact of one's behaviour (the attainment of collective interests and harmony) on other people is a major concern. Consensus in this context could be fallacious.

Functional Analysis is a process of identifying job functions through brainstorming sessions with members of an occupational group. The process is also likely to be influenced by the context factors and cultural issues (which has been stated earlier) relating to the job under study (Jirasinghe and Lyons, 1995). In any brainstorming session, open discussion and argument are important in order to have an effective session. This requires participants to solve problems by proposing alternatives even if they seem unrealistic and baseless. In a culture which stresses on the importance of maintaining a person's dignity and social harmony, this approach would seem to be inappropriate. This strongly related to the concept of 'Face'.

'Face' is an on-going sensitivity which is part of inner feelings of the Malaysians. Malaysians are brought up in an environment where good manners are important; it is part of the Malaysian polite system. In this system, it is important not to embarrass anyone because interpersonal relationships and social harmony are based on 'saving face'. To cause another person to 'lose face' brings almost as much shame on that individual as it does the one who has 'lost face'. This will create a sense of guilt and shame, which would make it impossible for that individual to function properly within a group.

Looking at the constraints engulfing the research project (time and budget) and the disadvantages of job analysis and functional analysis, the study has adopt a simplified version of Functional Analysis technique in identifying the competence statements (Johnson, 1977). The methods chosen in the experts survey were that of questionnaire and formal semi-structured interview. More importantly, from the researcher's experience it was quite impossible to get these individuals to convene. Rather than having those individuals to meet and brainstorm, the researcher took the initiative to contact and provide a list (which has been acknowledged in the pilot study) of possible job functions and competence statements (through mailed questionnaire) and asked the experts to rate them using a five-point Likert scales (Getty & Thompson, 1994). The main idea behind this approach was to identify the relevant competences for educational purposes.

Before the interview session, a set of questionnaire was sent to the experts which include a list of stakeholders and managerial competences. Face to face interview session was employed to gain a personal interpretation of the issues. Apart from this, in a well-defined status and authority structures (high power-distance culture) society, the interviewing style adopted in the West is inappropriate (Sekaran and Martin, 1982). In high power distance society (such as Malaysia), inequality in power is accepted and considered normal. To a certain extent, those at the top of the social hierarchy believe that they are entitled to more privileges. To maintain this power hierarchy, therefore, the interview session was conducted in the expert's office as to retain the experts' status.

6.5   Research Methods

Most educational research methods are descriptive in nature (Cohen and Manion, 1996). Typically descriptive studies are designed to describe and interpret the situation.   Oppenheim (1992, p. 12) states that

> *descriptive study chiefly tells us what proportion of the population have a certain opinion ... they are not design to 'explain' and show causal relationships between one variable and another.*

A descriptive survey method was employed to determine the degree of importance key stakeholders placed on the various competence statements (initially clustered in 10 different functional areas) expected of hotel management graduates in Malaysia. Figure 6.1 depicts the research model

for this study.   Before embarking on the Experts survey and the main survey

(stakeholders survey), a pre-test and a pilot test were carried out.

6.5.1 Pre-test and Pilot surveys

As this study is the first of its kind to be carried out in Malaysia, a thorough

knowledge of the subject matter and figuring out the way respondents react

to the questions are vital. Pre-test and pilot surveys were carried out to

further investigate and prepare for the main investigation.

6.5.1.1   Pre-test

A small pre-test survey was carried out with a few relevant individuals to

identify and plan the enquiry. As Moser and Kalton (1985) point out that a

pre-test is necessary in order to try out systematically on all the various

features of the main enquiry. In this pre-test survey five (5) individuals (two

from the educators and three from the industry) were solicited. There were

two criteria for members selection: (a) members must be knowledgeable in

the area of hospitality education (educators); and (b) hospitality business

(industry professionals).Three (3) of the members were senior lecturers in

hospitality management programme. These three (3) members were from

Kolej Damansara Utama, Institut Teknologi Tun Abdul Razak and Institut

Teknologi MARA. The fourth and fifth members were from the industry. The

fourth member is a Human Resource Manager at Eastin Hotel, Kuala

Lumpur and the fifth member is an Operation Manager at Golden Sands

Hotel, Penang.

Figure 6.1: Research Model
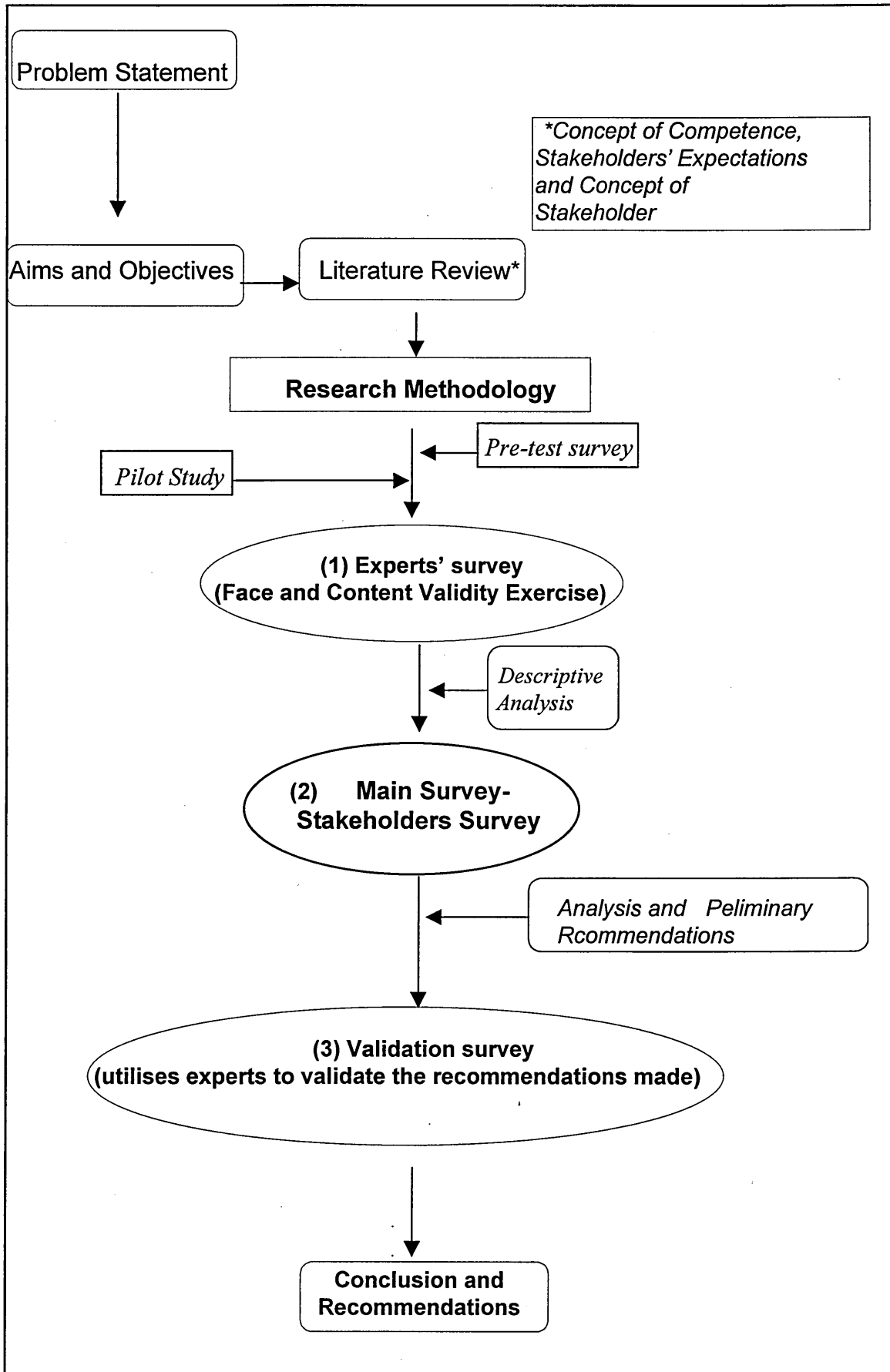
Panel members of the pre-test survey were asked to comment and rate the importance of various stakeholders (research sample), functional areas and competence statements. The functional areas and competence statements were adapted from various studies, which have been collated before presenting to the members. At the same time, they were also asked to delete or add as appropriate.

In the pre-test survey, the questionnaire was divided into three categories: Stakeholder identification, functional areas and competence statements. Firstly, members were asked to comment and rate the various stakeholder groups. It have been said that a research carried out with reference to a single stakeholder group could be regarded as partial and biased (Hakim, 1987). The survey aimed to cover as many as possible of the key stakeholders in hotel management education.

The initial list of stakeholders was framed from several studies. Among the several stakeholders identified, the most mentioned key stakeholders were the employers (industry professionals), teaching staff in higher education (educators) and students (Tas, 1988, Casado, 1989, Baum, 1992, Enz *et al* 1993) and government (Sandison, 1990, Harvey, Burrows and Green, 1992). As such, the initial list of key stakeholders in the pre-test comprised of Educators, Students, Industry professionals, Accreditation board and Funding council (representing government agencies) and Top management of educational institution.

Secondly, to set up the parameter of the identification of competence statements, it was logical to identify the functional areas of an entry-level manager (Local Government Management Board, 1992). This was due to the fact that management is often viewed as a series of functions to be performed (Robert and Shea, 1996). Apart from this, Drucker (1985, p. 34) has highlighted that there are similarities in what managers do in both developed and developing countries.

Not wanting to reinvent the wheel, the initial list of management functions was based on Johnson's (1977) work. In Johnson's study, seven functional (management activity) areas were identified. These are Technical, Financial, Purchase and supply, Sales and marketing, Customer contact, Personnel and Property. All six areas except Property were retained. The reason behind the decision not to include Property as one of the functional areas was based on the study conducted by Tas, LaBrecque and Clayton (1996). They found out that senior managers do not expect entry-level managers to bring property management competences to their new position and expected to refer these competences to technical specialists (for example, engineers or technicians). However, property management is considered as an important factor in guest satisfaction.

Consequently, competence statements associated with property management were incorporated under various functional areas (for example, *layout and design, interior design, energy conservation* are placed under

'Managing operation', *health and security practises* under 'Managing

people', customers' *safety* under 'Managing customer', *legal aspects*

(hygiene and safety) under 'Managing business environment'). However,

competence statements that did not fit conveniently into the functional

framework, but, were required to exercise other competences effectively

were clustered under different areas. This lead to the development of four

other areas namely 'Managing self', 'Managing business environment',

'Managing human' and 'Managing communication'. The functional areas

developed at the outset of the research became the framework for

organising and incorporating managerial competence statements.

Thirdly, following this classification, the various competence statements

derived from the previous studies were categorised appropriately under each

functional area. The initial number of competence statements was one

hundred and sixteen (116) and members are allowed to add or delete any

competence statements that they felt appropriate. However, the

classification of the various competence statements was not conclusive

rather it should be viewed as an initial step toward developing a more

comprehensive representation of management discipline. See Appendix X

for the competence matrix.

The competence statements in each category (functional areas) were initially

adapted and framed from several studies, which have been described earlier

(Johnson, 1977; Morgan, 1988; Tas, 1989, Enz *et al*, 1992, HCIMA, 1994,

NVQ, 1994). In order to avoid duplication of competence areas under different names, the list of competences found from the previous studies was collated before presenting to the panel (wordings of the statement might be modified to suit local context). Using the Likert scales measurement, members were asked to rate the various questions in terms of their degree of importance.

For consistency sake, all five members in the pre-test agreed that the competence statements should be in general forms (competence statements). All statements affected were identified. From this comment, any statements that are found to be skill- specific (for example *'able to check-in and check-out guests', 'use front office automation system effectively' (component of Manage front-office operations), 'identify and use service gears', operate equipment properly and safely', 'identify food items (items on the menu)' , 'maintain cleaning programmes and crockeries, silverware, etc.' (component of Manage restaurant operations and services), 'identify cooking equipment', 'identify cooking ingredients' (components of Manage food production operations) and 'maintain furnishing and decorative items' (components of Manage housekeeping operation)* were removed from the list which left the competence statements to 104 from the initial 116. Panel members were more concerned on organisational focus rather than departmental focus. Other than these, all members agreed on the format. After this session was completed and the plan of the enquiry was established, a pilot survey was carried out.

Letters of intent were sent to respective individuals. All five agreed to participate in the pre-test survey. A set of preliminary questionnaire was given to each individual. In the pre-test survey, the participants were requested to comment on the set of questions, which were intended for the survey. Interview session was also planned in this pre-test survey. Approximately 10-14 days after the letters were mailed, the pre-test study panel members were contacted to make arrangement for an interview. An exploratory interview session was arranged to gather further information on the relevancy of the questionnaire.

6.5.1.2   The Pilot Study

Before presenting to the experts, pilot study was conducted. As this was the first attempt to investigate key stakeholders' expectations, a pilot study is a very crucial part in the process. This would familiarise the researcher with the situation and to identify any difficulties and the inappropriateness with the questionnaire. At the same time, the pilot study acted as the last safeguard against the possibility that the main survey was ineffective. According to Moser and Kalton (1985) pilot survey will certainly help to clarify many problems left unsolved or unidentified in the pre-test survey. They added that (1985, p.48), pilot survey provides guidance on:

1. *The adequacy of the sampling frame.*

2. *The variability, with regard to the subject under investigation, within the population to be surveyed.*

3. *The non-response rate to be expected.*

4. *The suitability of the method of collecting the data.*

5. *The adequacy of the questionnaire.*

6. *The efficiency of the instructions and the briefing of the interviewers.*

7. *The probable cost and duration of the main surveys and of its various stages.*

In this study, the pilot survey consisted of a set of self-completion questionnaire and an interview session. To secure participation in the pilot survey, pilot panel members were contacted by telephone or other appropriate means. If they agreed, an introduction letter, the survey instrument and comment page were sent to the respective panel members. The pilot survey was to check that:

1. Questions are easy to understand (clarity),

2. Any anomalies in the questionnaire are identified.

3. Research questions are suitable, and

4. The questionnaire can be completed within reasonable time.

Twenty-two invitations (22) were sought from various individuals namely from educators (hospitality management education), government officials (training and development) in the Ministries of Human Resources and Arts, Culture and Tourism and industry professionals (department heads). The criteria used to identify the pilot members were based on their designation (holding a managerial position) and specialisation (Operation or functional). For example, educators were selected based on their expertise and subject

concentration (Food and Beverage, Room division, Sales and Marketing, Accounting and Finance, Human Resource, etc.) The same procedure was used to select industry professionals. Using their experience and knowledge of their respective areas, the pilot members were asked to respond to the questionnaire. The results revealed that pilot members agreed on the format and content of the questionnaire. Most importantly, pilot members indicated their positive attitude towards the initiative. The results of the pilot survey provided valid information on the questionnaire design, wording and measurement scales. The data collected from the pilot study panel members were analysed using the descriptive analysis and frequency distribution method to determine the distribution pattern of the data for each variable. Using a classification scale developed by Tas (1988), any item that has a mean score of below 2.5 (2.5 = moderately important) was removed from the main list. From this preliminary analysis none of the item scored a mean of below 3. In other words, all the initial items were retained. The results from the pilot test eventually became the point of reference for the development of the research instrument and the succeeding surveys.

Letters of invitation were sent to Director of Training and Development in both Ministries (Ministry of Human Resources and Ministry of Arts, Culture and Tourism), industry professionals, Head of Department of Hotel Schools within the Klang Valley vicinity (convenient location) and Professors, Associate Professor or lecturer of Hotel Schools. Again, their experience

and knowledge of the industry and management education is important in verifying the competence statements.

Of the twenty-two contacted only seven agreed to participate in the study. Those agreed to participate were four (4) from educational institution (ITM's School of Hotel and Tourism Management), two (2) from the industry (both were training managers) and one (1) from the Ministry of Culture, Arts and Tourism (Department of Training and Research). See Table 6.2.

These individuals were required to review the content and comment the questionnaire. There was no response from both Ministry of Human resources. Several attempts were made to have a representative from the Ministry but failed. This includes making arrangements to personally meet the Director.

Appointments have been arranged but when the time arrived the meeting has to be called off or there is another urgent agenda that the Director has to attend. Efforts were also taken to have a substitute but those in the Ministry believe that the Director is still the best person to refer to. It was assumed that the Director was unavailable or not interested to participate in the research project.

Table 6.2: Pilot Members

Name	Designation/Concentration
1. Flora Abdullah	Senior lecturer Accounting and Finance ITM, Shah Alam
2. Prof. Madya Maimunah Sulaiman	Prof. Madya Hospitality Marketing/Human Resource ITM, Shah Alam
3. Zafrul Hj. Isa	Senior Lecturer Food & Beverage Operation Management
4. Lee Mooi Hwa	Senior lecturer Room Division Management
5. Zaini Abdul Latif	Consultant (Hotel Division/Training & Development) National Productivity Corporation Petaling Jaya
6. Saufi Mohamad	General Manager Perdana Resort Pantai Cahaya Bulan, Kelantan
7. Aini Salleh	Manager (Training& Development) Ministry of Culture, Arts & Tourism

Apart from the questionnaire, interview session was also included in the pilot study. The open-ended were used in the interview session. Most importantly, the questions were intended as a guide rather than lead the interviewee. Approximately 10-14 days after the letters were mailed, the pilot study panel members were contacted to make arrangement for the interview. Besides to confirm the appropriateness of the research questions, the interview session would also become a rehearsal session for the researcher.

6.5.2 Experts' Survey

Since this is the first study ever to be conducted in Malaysia, a panel of experts was employed to further validate the questionnaire. The main

objectives of the Experts survey were to identify the key stakeholders and to validate the format and content of the research instrument for Stakeholders survey.

The study decided that the panel of experts should consist of those individuals who are experts in the business and those in the education sector. Gale and Pol (1975) suggest that the first step in planning or evaluating educational programmes is the description of competences required for effective functioning in a position. Gale and Pol (*ibid*) and Porter and McKibbin (1988) propose that the description of competences could be developed from a survey of experts in the discipline.

6.5.2.1   Experts Identification

Before embarking on the Experts survey, it was logical to identify the experts. Since the composition of the experts is critical in determining the effectiveness of this study, basic criteria should be considered in choosing or selecting the experts. Consequently, the study adopted the criteria used in the Delphi technique (Dalkey, 1972). Delphi technique is a tool for organising group communication, without direct discussion, in order to refine group opinion or expectations and arrive at a consensus (Dalkey, 1969). The panel participates in group communication through a series of controlled questionnaires referred to as rounds. Their views are then collated and circulated to panel members for further comments, a process that might be repeated a number of times (normally three or four rounds) (Bardecki, 1984).

The Delphi technique is particularly suited to forecast or identifying trends. Today there is a variety of other application areas such as urban and regional planning, curriculum development, developing causal relationship in complex economic or social phenomena and so forth, but there are some weaknesses (Taylor and Judd, 1989). Firstly, the successful outcome of the Delphi technique depends on the selection of an appropriate panel of experts (*ibid*). Secondly, the time required between each round of questionnaire to analyse the data and prepare the next round (Gow,1979). As such, the interest of the participants may decline if there is a long delay between rounds (Tersine and Riggs, 1976). Finally, it cannot be denied that the most successful forecasts made with Delphi technique have been those concerned with technological developments. Nevertheless, applications of Delphi to problems involving social and human problems have been sporadic and less successful (Smith, 1989). Looking at these weaknesses, Delphi technique is not appropriate for this study. Nevertheless, to identify the panel of experts, the present study adopted the criteria used in the Delphi technique of selecting panel members (Tersine and Riggs, 1976). The five criteria used were as follow:

1.   They must have a basic knowledge of the problem area and be able

to   apply that knowledge,

2.   They must have a good performance record in their (knowledge and reputation) particular area,

3.   They must possess a high degree of objectivity and rationality,

4.   They must have the time available to participate, and

5.   They must be willing to give the amount of time and effort to do a through job of participation.

In view of these criteria the panel of experts for this study was proposed to comprise of both an 'internal' (educators) panel and 'external' (industry professionals) panel (see Appendix XI for the list of experts invited). In the Experts survey a self-completion mailed questionnaire and interview methods (face-to-face) were employed. To this end, it was decided that these experts should come from these two major groups. They are:

1.   Industry Professionals

Representatives from the hotel industry were selected from leading multinational hotel chains that operate in Malaysia and also leading local hotel chains. They are expected to be corporate executives responsible in overall management of the hotel or in the training and development division. Industry professionals would be one of the best groups to know and understand what are the competences required to be effective in the business. These members are considered to have well formed and realistic expectations of hotel management graduates. Their views and expectations are vital in this study.

2.   Educators

Top executives from institutions of higher learning and educators (professors, associate professors) from hotel management programme represented this group. Since the members are knowledgeable or experts in their given areas

(academic environment and hotel management), they are the best persons and in the position to identify or provide the relevant information required for the study. They are familiar with the issues and problems facing hotel or hospitality management education in Malaysia. At the micro-level this group has strong influence in the decision-making process. As Enz *et al* (1993, p. 95) described that

> *a survey cannot tell researchers how to design or change a curriculum, at Cornell or elsewhere, only the faculty can make those decisions.*

6.5.2.2   Panel Size

The size of the panel was another important issue that the study needs to consider. According to Tersine and Riggs (1976) there are no specific guidelines for determining the optimum number of panel members. However, as a guide, if the group were heterogeneous (educators and industry professionals) a group of 20 or 30 individuals would be appropriate to produce a justifiable result (Tersine and Riggs, 1976, Witt and Moutinho, 1989, Masser and Foley, 1987). In this study, more than forty individuals were invited to participate in order to minimise the problem of non-response, particularly from the industry professionals. Since the study needs between twenty (20) to thirty (30) panel members if certain degree of validity is to be achieved (Taylor and Judd, 1989), forty-five (45) individuals were contacted (32 industry professionals and 13 educators).

In the Experts survey 45 letters were sent to request for participation. In the Experts survey there proved something of a disappointment because only seventeen (17) experts agreed to participate which represents approximately thirty-eight (38) per cent. Of the forty-five (45) invitations, 17 agreed to participate (10 from the industry and 7 from higher educational institutions). Thirteen (13) declined the invitation and fifteen (15) did not respond to the invitation even with several attempts made. See Table 6.3 for experts response rate. Of the seventeen (17) experts who agreed (see Table 6.4), thirteen (13) experts were available to be interviewed. Four (4) experts (industry professionals) declined or unavailable to be interviewed and one (industry professional) did not returned the questionnaire even with several steps have been taken to get his response. One did not return the questionnaire.

Table 6.3: Respondents and Percentage (Experts survey)

Respondent	Invitation	Accepted	Return (questionnaire)	Interview
1. Industry professionals	32	10	9	6
2. Educators	13	7	7	7
Total	45	17	16*	13**

*   one did not return the questionnaire and ** four declined or unavailable to be interviewed.

6.5.2.3   Measurement

A five-point Likert scale attitude measurement was used in the identification process and subsequently in the Experts' survey and key stakeholders' survey. Oppenheim (1992, pp. 199-200) states that

> *the Likert scales tend to perform very well (reliability) and yield high coefficients when ranking or ordering items or people with regard to a particular attitude.*

In addition, Oppenheim (1992, p. 195) adds that

> *Likert's scales primary concern was with uni-dimensional — making sure that all the items would measure the same thing.*

He continues (p. 200) that

> *...besides their relative ease of construction, the scales provide more precise information about the respondent's degree of agreement or disagreement, and respondents usually prefer this to a simple agree/disagree response.*

In the same vein, Robson (1993, p. 256) adds that the advantage of using the Likert scale approach

> *Likert scale can look interesting to respondents, and people often enjoy completing a scale of this kind.*

In terms of the number of scale to be used, Babakus and Mangold (1992) stress that the use of five-point scale reduces the *"frustration level"* of patient respondents, increases response rate and the response quality.

Table 6.4: Experts who accepted the invitation

	Name	Designation
Industry		
1.	Tuan Haji Nordin Mohamad**	General Manager Perdana Hotel Resort Jalan Mahmud,Kota Bahru, Kelantan
2.	Encik Zain Putih**	Executive Assistant Manager Kuala Lumpur Hilton, Jalan Sultan Ismail Kuala Lumpur
3.	John Roozemond	Vice President Hicom Leisure Berhad, Shah Alam, Selangor
4.	Encik Shahidul Azmir Said*,**	Director of Training Sheraton Langkawi Beach Resort, Kedah
5.	Ahmad Bukhari Hamzah	Assisstant Executive Manager Penang Sheraton, Penang
6.	Gerard Christopher**	Training Manager, Golden Sands Hotel, Batu Ferringh
7.	Sulaiman Sheridan Abdullah	F&B Director The Pan Pacific Glenmarie resort, Selangor
8.	Norshah Ahmad	Corporate Human Resource Director Shangri-la Penang, Penang
9.	Tuan Syed Ibrahim	Group General Manager Seri Malaysia,50450 Kuala Lumpur
10.	Zainal Ashikin Rejab	Group Human Resource Director Rangkaian Resort World Berhad Genting Highlands
Educators		
11.	Prof. Dr. Nor Khomar Ishak	School of Hotel and Tourism Management Institut Teknologi MARA
12.	Jamal Othman**	National Development Corporation Hotel Management Institute Selangor
13.	Cek Zaini Hassan	Dean School of Hotel and Tourism Management Institut Teknologi MARA
14.	Maimunah Sulaiman	Prof. Madya School of Hotel and Tourism Management Institut Teknologi MARA
15.	Prof. Dr. Adnan Alias	Asst. Director Centre for Total Quality in Education Institut Teknologi MARA
16.	Reginald Pareira	Head School of Hotel and Catering Management Stamford College Head, PERNAS Hotel School, Kuala Lumpur
17.	Yong San Siong	Degree Programme Coordinator Institut Teknologi MARA

*   *did not return the questionnaire*
** *declined or unavailable to be interviewed.*

Another important point was that the five-point Likert scale can be labelled precisely as compared to the seven-point or more scale which lacks verbal labelling for points two to six or the scales between the two extremes (Shaw and Wright, 1967; Lewis, 1993).

Although there are several measurement methods and scales have been used to measure expectation, most researchers believe that a 5 or 7 point scales is appropriate for measuring expectation (Oliver, 1996, Oh and Parks, 1997). Nevertheless, the objective of the measurement will dictate the number of points in a scale (Oliver, 1996). In this present study, each scale has a minimum of 1 and a maximum value of 5. The positions 1 and 5 represent "extremes" (not important or very important), the 2 and 4 positions represent "Less important or "Important", and the position 3 represents "neither not important nor very important". A score close to 5 would mean a very strong attitude in favour of the statement, while a score close to 1 would mean a very strong attitude against the statement. The position on the scale measures the intensity (importance) of expectations. In cross-cultural studies, scaling or measuring instrument should be tailored to the different cultures. Since this study is not a cross-cultural research, the issue of comparable scaling or measuring instrument does not arise.

For classification purposes, the study has categorised the competence statements into four (4) categories. This classification was adopted from

Tas's classification (Tas, 1988). This classification was retained throughout the analysis. The classification is as follows:

Essential/ very important	—	**4.50 and above**
Important	—	**3.50-4.49**
Moderately Important	—	**2.50-3.49**
Not Important	—	**2.49 and below**

6.5.2.4 Data Collection

The Experts survey adopts the combined-method approach, that is, the mailed questionnaire and interview method (Porter and McKibbin, 1988, Moser and Kalton, 1985, Cohen and Manion, 1996). As a simple rule of thumb, Robson (1993) suggests that to find out what people think, feel and believe it is advisable to use the interview, questionnaire or attitude scale approach. There are, however, two extreme approaches in the use of interviews and questionnaires: the self-completion questionnaire and the 'free-range' interview.

Robson (ibid) continues saying that combining it with an interview can solve some of the disadvantages of the mailed questionnaire. One of the advantages of having an interview is the flexibility of the approach (Sekaran, 1992). Robson (1993, p. 371) states that qualitative data

> ...*may be useful in supplementing and illustrating the quantitative data and if this is the case, detailed analysis of the data is not necessary.*

According to Sekaran (*ibid*) interviewing has the advantage of flexibility in terms of adopting, adapting and changing the questions as the research proceeds. The interview session employed in the study is the face-to-face approach. Sekaran (1992) stresses that the face-to-face interview has the advantage of adapting the question as necessary and clarify doubts. At the same time, the researcher also has the opportunity to pick up non-verbal cues and other body language, which indicate the respondents response and experience.

Under such circumstances, both a self-completion mailed questionnaire and interview (semi-structured) methods were employed to collect data from experts. The interview sessions employed in this study were informal interviews to help incorporate the respondents' (experts) perspective(s) and gather any additional information. With this combined-method, the cost is more compared to other methods, particularly when samples are geographically scattered; however, the advantage is outweighed by the completeness and response rate (Robson, 1993).

6.5.2.5   Procedure

Letters of invitation to participate in the panel were sent to the selected representatives namely General Managers or Executive Assistant/Assistant General Manager together with the necessary materials. It was interesting to note that only one Vice President, one Group General Managers, and two Executive Assistant Managers (one was not available for the interview

session) from the industry professionals were interested to participate in the study. The others felt that this was more of human resource issue and the letters were passed to their respective human resource managers.

Institut Teknologi Mara (ITM) letterhead was used in all correspondence and signed by the School's Dean as to put weight on the seriousness of the study. The package included an introductory letter (explaining the structure of the survey and inform of the Validation survey) and a set of questionnaire. To get the respondent personal attention, the package was sent using the courier service rather than the ordinary mail service (see Appendix XII).

This introductory letter explained the objective of the study and the role of the panel of experts (in the Experts survey). This would allow the representatives to be at ease when attending the questionnaire. At the same time, the letter also stated the intended interview session. The idea to include this information was to inform the research planning and assistance required from them. Before the interview session was conducted, the representatives were contacted via telephone to confirm the interview appointment. One day prior the appointment the experts were telephoned again to re-reconfirm the arrangement. The semi-structured interview sessions were conducted in an informal manner and tape recorded (where permission is granted).

6.5.2.6   Interview Session

As a supplement to the questionnaire, the second part of the experts' survey was the interview session with the experts. Moser and Kalton (1983), Robson (1993) and Oppenheim (1992) mention that the disadvantages of mailed questionnaire could be overcome by combining it with interviewing. The objectives of the interview session were to gather any additional information that was not covered in the questionnaire, and at the same time to collect the completed questionnaire and addressed any difficulties or weaknesses encountered by the experts. From this exercise, the questionnaire for the main research (Key Stakeholders Survey) was developed based on the responses from the panel of experts.

As mentioned earlier, the survey adopted the combined-method approach where mailed questionnaire and semi-structure interview methods were employed. In this survey, the face-to-face interview approach was employed. The semi-structured interview technique consisted of a set of interview questions, which was meant as a guide in the interview process. However, during the interview sessions, the experts were allowed to discuss any additional issues pertaining to the research problem. The main idea of allowing the experts to discuss or explore any additional issues was to capture any relevant information, which had been left out in the questionnaire. A transcript of the interview was prepared for approval before further examination.

In the interview session of the experts survey, 13 experts had agreed to be interviewed. Four (4) industry professionals were forced to cancel their prior appointments due to their busy schedule or decline to take part in the interview session. All experts (7) from educational institutions were available to be interviewed. The transcripts from the interview sessions were reviewed to clarify key issues related to the study. The purpose here was to elicit any information, which could improve the questionnaire. The interview questions were concerned about the appropriateness of the study in relation to hotel management education in Malaysia (see Appendixes XIII and XIV for the questionnaire and the interview questions).

The interview made no attempts to collect the experts' profile. The study believes that since the industry (or organisation) had accepted and recognised their achievement in the industry having the profile data would be quite irrelevant. However, the experts were carefully identified and selected using the Delphi technique of experts' identification, which was described earlier. The interview session, on average, lasted for about fifteen (15) to twenty (20) minutes. During the interview, majority of the experts preferred that the sessions were not tape-recorded.

6.5.2.7 Data analysis

Since the findings of the experts survey would determine the instrument framework for the main (stakeholders) survey, no inferential statistical analysis was carried out on the data. However, descriptive statistical analysis

procedures were applied on the data. See Appendix XV for the list of competence statements rated by the experts.

6.5.3 Main Survey: Survey of the Key Stakeholders

The main objective of this survey was to discover the key stakeholders' views regarding managerial competences expected of a hotel management graduate. Elicitation of views was based on the findings of the experts' survey. The responses had provided an important source in the development of the recommendations and suggestions of the research project.

6.5.3.1   Sample Size

The sample frame/or population and the size were largely dependant on the result of the experts survey. On deciding the sample size, Hoinville and Jowell (1978) stress that this was more related to judgement rather than calculation. However, if there are several subgroups in the total sample, Hoinville and Jowell (*ibid*) suggest that the smallest subgroup should have between 50-100 members. The result of from the Experts survey indicated that six (6) key stakeholders were identified. They were stratified as follow:

1. Students (degree level hotel management students),

2. Educators (hotel schools),

3. Industry professionals,

4. Top management in educational institutions (higher education),

5. Funding councils and

6. Accreditation board.

The sampling frames were derived from several sources. To identify the industry professionals, major sources were derived from the Malaysian Association of Hotels and the Ministry of Culture, Arts & Tourism star-rating list (1997). Hotels rated 3-star and above were included in the survey. There were two reasons for this decision. Firstly, ITM has made a policy that all hotels participating in the students' industrial attachments must be rated at least 3 star and above (School of Hotel and Tourism management, 1997). Secondly, these hotels were included in this study because they are the main recruiters of hotel management graduates (Abdul Talib, 1997). Considering the factors above, these hotels can make a 'comparative referent' as to what they expect from hotel management graduates (Oliver, 1996). Their views thus represent "What it should be". There are 176 hotels that were rated 3 star and above (Ministry of Culture, Arts and Tourism, 1997). All 176 hotels were invited to participate in the study. The experience gained in the experts survey (majority of the hotels' General Managers feel that their Human Resource Directors or Managers were more suitable and knowledgeable with the issue under study) has forced the study to contact the hotel Human Resource Directors or Managers directly.

The student's list was derived from ITM's School of Hotel and Tourism Management (industry placement) hotel database and the school's student registration list. All students from the School of Hotel and Tourism Management studying Bachelor's of Science in hotel management programme (85 students) were invited to participate in the research

programme. It is important to mention that these 85 students represent the population of degree students in Malaysia, as ITM is the only institute of higher education granting the B.Sc in hotel management. These students are considered to have well formed expectations about the programme.

Questionnaires were sent to all faculty members of ITM's Department of Hotel Management (except those who already participated in the pilot and experts surveys (45)) and some representatives from three other major private hotel schools namely Kolej Damansara Utama , Stamford Kolej and the National Productivity Corporation's hotel school. Even though these three colleges do not offer their own degree level hotel management programme, the study believes that the study could provide some directions in their future endeavour. A total of 21 individuals from these three hotel schools were invited to participate in the research project. This was based on the number of lecturers holding senior position. This includes top management (Senior management) staff namely Directors of Academic Affairs (or other equivalent designations) and Directors or Deans of Hotel School in the aforementioned institute and colleges were contacted to represent their institute and colleges respectively. Based on the number of departments in each agencies, sixteen (16) questionnaires were also sent to the Directors and Committees of the Accreditation Board and Funding Council. However, none from these groups responded even with several attempts and reminders made to get their responses.

6.5.3.2   Instrument and Data Collection

The survey was carried out to identify the key stakeholders' (as identified in the preceding survey) expectations of hotel management education at degree- level. The identified key stakeholders were presented with a list of items (based on competence statements which had been verified by the experts) and asked to respond to the items in order of importance (this time, of course, without the section on stakeholder identification). The same scale used in the experts survey was retained. Since the stakeholder survey involves a larger sample, a self-completion mailed questionnaire approach was used in collecting the data.

6.5.3.3   Procedure

Letters, together with the necessary materials, including a self-addressed stamp envelops, were sent to the respondents explaining the purpose of the study and thanking them, in advance, for their acceptance to be a part of the study (see Appendix XVI). At the same time, the letter mentioned about the confidentiality of information gathered from the study. Two weeks after the letters were mailed; follow-up calls (where appropriate and necessary) were made to remind them of the due date. If this failed, a reminder letter and a new set of questionnaire were sent to the respondents who have not yet responded (see Appendix XVII). This initiative had improved the respond rate by 2 per cent.

6.5.3.4   Survey Response

In the stakeholder survey 352 questionnaires were mailed to the identified key stakeholders. Of the 352 mailed, 209 were returned. This represents a 59.37 percent respond rate (See Table 6.5).

Table 6.5:   Rate of Return (Stakeholders survey)

Stakeholder	Count	Respond	%	Total
i. Educator	66	42	63.6	20.10
ii. Industry	176	93	52.8	44.50
iii. Student	85	69	81	33.00
iv. Funding/Accreditation Board*	16	No Response	0	0
v. Top Management**	10	5	50	2.40
Total	**352**	**209**		**100**

* No Response
**Sample too small for statistical analysis. Responses were combined under the educator category

For statistical analysis purposes, top management category was incorporated into the educators category. The responses were too small for any statistical analysis and the effect is insignificant (represents about 2% of the total sample size). In this case, the responses from top management category (five (5) participated in the study) were incorporated into educator category due to the fact that they are familiar and knowledgeable about the academic environment of colleges and universities. With this adjustment,

the number of educator category increased to forty-seven (47) and the total

number of key stakeholders was three (3).

6.5.3.5 Data Analysis

To reduce the large competence statements list and to understand the

patterns that run through the competences, factor analysis technique was

employed. Factor analysis is said to be able to identify any underlying

relationships, which may be present (Crawford and Lomas (1980). Factor

analysis was performed on the 104 competence statements. As stated earlier,

the main objective of this analysis was to reduce the huge number of

competences to a smaller number and identify the common factors.

Nevertheless, Crawford and Lomas (1980) argue that interpretation of factors

is highly subjective. However, some of the variables do not form a linear

composite, which lend themselves to easy description. Nevertheless, the

study believes that the description of the factors will definitely provide another

alternative to view the various competence statements.

In this analysis, the Principal Components Analysis technique (using 1 as

prior communality estimates) was sought to demonstrate how the large

number of variables (competence statements) might be reduced to a relatively

smaller factors. In interpreting the rotated factor patterns (varimax), an item

factor loading of .40 or greater was considered for a particular factor or

component meaningful (Ford *at el*, 1986, Clinton and Calantone, 1997). The

result from the factor analysis can be used to see how they corresponded with the 10 functional areas identified earlier.

The results from the factor analysis were further treated using the parametric one-way ANOVA test so as to ascertain overall differences among the groups. Parametric test is considered of having power-efficiency and robust in violating some of the assumptions (if the assumptions are not greatly violated) (Gay, 1992; Norussis, 1993 and McCall, 1994). McCall (1994, p. 360) states that

> moderate violations of the assumptions of normality and homogeneity
> of variance are often not a valid reason for choosing a non-parametric
> test over a parametric test....

The statistical method was employed to determine and evaluate if differences in expectations towards the functional areas and competence statements existed among the key stakeholders of hotel management education in Malaysia. Where differences in expectations towards those areas considered were detected to be statistically significant, post-hoc tests were conducted using the Scheffe multiple comparison test. "F" ratios were tested for significance at α = .05, .01 and .001 probability level respectively. According to Gay (1992) when applying Scheffe multiple comparison test, the probability of committing a Type I error is minimal. She adds (p. 439) that the Scheffe

test Type I error '...*is never greater than the α level selected for the original analysis of variance.*'

6.5.3.6   Validity of the Research Instrument

Validity deals with the appropriateness of the instrument to measure what it needs to be measured. The credibility of the evaluation will be deeply affected by the perceived validity of the measures. The instrument for research was identified after an extensive review of relevant literature. For the Construct and Content validity procedure, the experts act as judges. They were given the list and asked to read, and respond by indicating the degree of importance on the questionnaire dimensions and categories (functional areas and competence statements) particularly as to whether the questionnaire was adequate in terms of specificity and coverage (Stinchfield and Burlingame, 1991). In the experts survey, they were asked to examine the content that specifies the motive of the study. All experts concurred with the dimensions, specificity and categories of the questionnaire.

6.5.3.7   Reliability Coefficient

Reliability was a concept, which brings the meaning of consistency (Huck *et al*, 1996). Huck *et al* added that this concept focus on the degree to which the same characteristic being measured. The concern over reliability was expressed in the form of "*How much consistency presents among the ratings made by the stakeholders*". In the stakeholder survey the reliability

coefficient was (α = .955). In is mentioned that the higher the correlation, the smaller the influence of error.

According to Chandon *et al* (1997), in attitude measurement an alpha of .50 and above is usually considered respectable. The value 0.955 indicates that the scale is reliable (Nunnally, 1978). Since the items measured have fairly comparable variances (*Standardised item alpha = .9559*), there is only little difference between the two α's.

Reliability Coefficients   104 items

Alpha =   .9547   Standardised item alpha =   .9559

The high reading was attributed to the fact that the questions in the questionnaire had already been used and tested by the aforementioned studies. Some adjustments in the wording of the items to suit the local requirements were deemed sufficient to prepare for the development and implementation of the survey instrument.

6.5.3.8   Missing Data

In Behavioural research, the problem of missing data is unavoidable. The problem occurred when respondents failed to answer a question. This could happen either intentionally or unintentionally. The problem of missing can be addressed from several different approaches. Conventionally, the missing data is ignored. However, it is claimed that this approach could lead to

biased estimates (Sande, 1982). Sande suggested that another better alternative is to substitute the mean value of the sample responses in the place of the missing data value. This approach is quite effective when the correlations of the explanatory variables are relatively weak. In this relation, the study adopted the approach suggested by Sande (*ibid*) where mean is used to substitute any missing data.

6.5.4 Experts Validation Survey

The objective of this survey is to gain some reaction from the experts to the suggestions and recommendations made based on the findings from the Stakeholders survey. Experts were given the opportunity to disagree or agree with the recommendations made. The preliminary results from the Stakeholders survey were presented to the experts in the final survey (Validation survey) for their comments. A semi-structured interview survey method was again employed in this survey. Questions were developed based on the preliminary findings of the stakeholders' survey. Any differences encountered (if any) were carefully considered before developing the conclusions of the study.

6.5.4.1 Instrument and Data Collection

The Validation survey utilised the same experts identified in the initial exercise (Expert survey). A semi-structured interview survey method was employed in this survey. Questions were developed based on the preliminary findings of the stakeholders survey (see Appendix XVIII for

interview questions). The experts were contacted by telephone to remind them of the research project. However, of the seventeen (17) only fourteen (14) were available for the validation survey. As in the experts' survey, the interview session was tape-recorded (if permission was granted). On the average, each interview session lasted for thirty to forty (30-40) minutes. Only seven (7) experts allowed the interview sessions to be tape-recorded. A transcript of the interview was prepared for further evaluation.

The interview questions were designed to provide the experts with the opportunity to attest their level of agreement or disagreement with the suggestion made, and to indicate their criticisms of the current management education. The questions relating to the appropriate mix of hotel management education and competences expected of graduates for entry-level position (potential candidates) were based on the overall findings of the stakeholders survey. Since the interview session was a supplementary effort to incorporate further views on the recommendations, no statistical analysis was conducted on the data. The results from the Validation survey will be incorporated and discussed further in the Analysis Chapter.

6.5.4.2   Survey Response

In the Validation survey fourteen (14) experts agreed to participate (see Table 6.6 for the response rate). Three experts were forced to cancel the appointments due to unforeseen circumstances or unavailable to be interviewed. Attempts had been made to arrange for new dates but failed.

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Table 6.6: Respond rate — Validation Survey

Respondent	Invitation	Interviewed	%	Total (%)
1. Industry professionals	10	7	70	50
2. Educators	7	7	100	50
Total	**17**	**14**		**100**

6.6 Summary

This research project utilises experts in hospitality management education to validate the research questions that are intended for the main survey (stakeholders survey). This was based on how important and relevant the experts considered for a degree-level hospitality management graduates to acquire while attending hotel management school(s). In order to facilitate the identification process and validate the list generated, the survey employed a panel of experts— the experts survey.

The combined-method survey approach employed in the experts survey at gathering all the necessary information required forming the basis for further investigation. After the experts had validated the content, the research proceeded to conduct the main survey (key Stakeholders survey). To test the validity of the preliminary suggestions and further insight on the issues involved, the experts validation survey was carried out.

The results and suggestions, which have been reviewed by the experts in the validation survey, could provide valuable information in developing a comprehensive curriculum planning model and the development of hotel management in Malaysia.

CHAPTER 7

DATA ANALYSIS AND DATA PRESENTATION

7.1 Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to present the results of the three surveys

(Experts survey, Stakeholders survey and Validation survey). As mentioned

in the previous chapter, the aims of this research were to identify and analyse

key stakeholders' expectations of hotel management graduates. To achieve

this, the empirical data gathered for analysis involved two areas. Firstly, it was

decided to ascertain which functional areas key stakeholders consider

important in hotel management education. Secondly, the competence

statements (categorised under the various functional areas) that are

considered important in hotel management education.

The identification of these areas and competences is considered a vital piece

of information for hotel management education curriculum planners to initiate

any curriculum inquiry initiatives. The study believes that in order to have

effective educational programmes, educational institutions must know exactly

who are their key stakeholders and what are their expectations. The chapter

ends with a discussion on the stakeholders' expectations.

7.2 Data Analysis (Experts Survey)

Before identifying the stakeholders' expectations, the first assignment is to identify who are these stakeholders. The objective of the Experts survey was to get the assistance from the experts to identify the research questions framework and the sampling frame. The experts survey was designed to answer two main issues. First, the identification of the key stakeholders. The design hopes to cover as many as possible of the key interest groups (stakeholders) in hotel management education, at the undergraduate level. It has been said that a research carried out with reference to a single stakeholder group can be regarded as partial and biased (Hakim, 1987). Second, the identification and validation of the various competence statements, which have been initially, categorised in ten functional areas. The development of the stakeholders survey will greatly depend on the results of this survey. The same panel of experts was also involved in validating the results of the stakeholders survey.

7.2.1 Stakeholders identification (Sample/population)

As mentioned earlier in the previous chapter, the study has adopted a modified stakeholder analysis approach in an attempt to identify the key stakeholders of the Malaysian hotel management education (Aspinwall *et al*, 1992, pp. 87-89). In this study, a panel of experts was established to identify and validate who are the key stakeholders. According to Aspinwall *et al* (*ibid*, p. 85) stakeholder analysis is a method of

thinking critically about one's situation as it focuses upon the people who are, or might be, involved.

However, they stressed that the degree of importance attributed to a particular set of stakeholders will reflect the local priorities and issues at stake (educational inquiry). In order to facilitate the identification process, an initial list of stakeholders, which has been identified in the pilot study, was presented to the experts. In view of the issue involved, the study initially listed six key stakeholders. They were:

1. Industry professionals

> The curriculum for any educational programme should be relevant to the profession for which it is being aimed. To certain extent, the industry is considered the major customer to any educational institution.

2. Educators of institutes of higher education (offering degree-level hotel management education)

> The educators are responsible to prepare graduates with the competences that are valuable throughout a career. They are responsible to design and plan curriculum.

3. Students of hotel management programme (degree-level)

> Students want and need the knowledge and skills that will enable them to progress in the career. They have to acquire both the

necessary knowledge to understand simple and complex situation and the skills to perform effectively in their career.

4. Accreditation Board (from the Ministry of education) and

5. Funding council (Ministry of Finance)

These agencies represent the Government. They established policies and rules, which work together or against the programme objectives.

6. Top management of institutes of higher education offering hotel management education at degree-level.

Top management is included in the list because they can influence the direction of Malaysian hotel management education. They established and control internal policies and rules.

About seventy per cent of the experts have rated the industry as a *'very important'* and thirty per cent of the experts have rated the industry as *'important'* (5) key stakeholder. Educators and students were perceived by the experts to be equally important where 9 experts rated the students and educators to be *'very important'* and 7 experts rated students and educators as *'important'*. Six (6) experts rated Top management as *'very important'*, seven (7) rated *'important'* and 3 rated *'moderately important'*. For Funding Council, six (6) experts rated the council as *'very important'*, seven (7) rated *'important*, two (2) *'moderately 'important'* and one rated the council as *'not important'*.

For Accreditation board, four (4) experts rated the body as 'very important'; eleven (11) rated *'important'* and one (1) *'moderately important'*. Based on the rating made by the experts it could be said that the Funding Council (mean score = 4.13, std. Dev. = .89) was the least important key stakeholder when managerial competences expectations are concerned. Nevertheless, the six (6) key stakeholders who were identified were included as a sampling frame for the stakeholder survey. In the stakeholder identification, the panel of experts agreed on the six initial groups. The experts have suggested no additional group. See Table 7.1 for the result.

Table 7.1: The Key Stakeholder Identified

	STAKEHOLDER (n=17)	RANK	MEAN	Std. Dev.
1.	Industry Professionals	1	4.69	.48
2.	Educators (hotel management schools)	2.5	4.56	.51
3.	Students	2.5	4.56	.51
4.	Accreditation Board	4.5	4.19	.54
5.	Top Management	4.5	4.19	.75
6.	Funding Council	6	4.13	.89

7.2.2 Functional Areas and Competence Identification

The study has adopted the modified functional analysis approach. From the researcher's experience, it was quite impossible to get these experts to convene and the local environment have forced the study to adopt a

modified version of functional analysis. At the same time, other constraints (described earlier) such as the disadvantage of job analysis, time and money have also forced the study to adopt the modified version of functional analysis.

Rather than having those individuals to meet and brainstorm, the researcher took the initiative to contact and provide a list (which has been acknowledged in the pilot study) of possible job functions (through mailed questionnaire) and asked the experts to rate the functional areas and competence statements. The experts were given the opportunity to add any additional functions or competence statements, which were expected of hotel management graduates but were not included in the initial list.

7.2.2.1 Functional Areas Identification

The experts were provided with a list of functional areas (identified in pilot study) and they were allowed to add any additional areas (and comments) that are considered important in management or other related jobs. The panel was provided with a brief description of the various functional areas. The experts were then asked to identify and establish the various functional areas they felt are important in the hotel industry (See Table 7.2 below for the result). The experts were expected to verify the functional areas by rating each functional area in terms of their degree of importance using a 5-point Likert scale. The main idea of this approach was to identify the dimensions necessary for educational purposes.

Again there was no additional area identified except one expert suggested the area of 'Research'. The study decided not to include 'Research' as one of the functional area. There were two reasons behind this exclusion. Firstly, in most studies, 'research skills' were considered the least important skills in hospitality management (Dienhart, 1996, Breitner and Clements, 1996). The word 'Research' has always been 'unpopular' among industry professionals. Most industry professionals considered 'Research' (Dienhart, 1996) as

> a very scientific, complex, deep-seeded process performed by bearded
>
> individuals in the sub-subbasement of an ivory tower at a prestigious.
>
> University.

Table 7.2: Result of the expectations of the experts (n=17) on the various functional areas

	Functional Areas	Rank	Mean	Std. Dev.
1.	Managing People	1	4.81	.40
2.	Managing Customer	2	4.69	.48
3.	Managing Self	3	4.63	.50
4.	Managing Communication	4	4.62	.50
5.	Managing Information	5	4.50	.52
6.	Managing Finance & Accounting	6.5	4.31	.48
7.	Managing Sales & Marketing	6.5	4.31	.60
8.	Managing Operation	8	4.25	.58
9.	Managing Purchase	9	4.00	.73
10.	Managing Business Environment	10	3.94	.68

Similarly, in other disciplines, industry professionals do not turn to academic research findings in solving industry's problems or in developing management strategies and practices (Porter and Mckibbin, 1988, Abrahamson, 1996, Mowday, 1997). Apparently, there is a gap between research and managerial practice (Aldag, 1997).

However, the term 'research' must not be viewed as a mere 'complex and scientific' academic exercise rather it must be viewed as a mean to facilitate good decision-making process. Secondly, to avoid what has been discovered in Breitner and Clements' (1996) study, the study tries to minimise the use of the word 'Research' where possible (for example, *Conduct Market Research*). Nevertheless, research competences (in the form of competence statements) have been included under the various functional areas implicitly (for example, *'Recognise the importance of consumer behaviour in business strategy'*, *Ability to scan the business environment of the organisation and industry, Identify the organisation's competitors*, *'Carry out evaluative and investigative study for organisation's business development'*). This identification process addresses the second objective of this research project.

Based on the preliminary analysis, we can confidently assume that all the functional areas were considered important or very important and support the initial categorisation of the competence statements. None of the functional areas had a mean score of below 3. However, it should be remembered that

the ranking of the functional areas identified has no bearing to the competence statements degree of importance.

7.2.2.2   Competence Identification

To identify the competences graduates needed to perform effectively in management positions, a list of different competence statements (which have been broken down according to the various functional areas and identified earlier) was included. At this stage the experts were required to rate the 104 competence statements expected of hotel management graduates in the order of the degree of importance of each statement on a scale from "1 = not important" to "5 = essential" or "very important".

After this exercise was completed, items that were found to be "not important or below 2.5" (using from Tas's (1988) classification) were eliminated from the list. Again, none of the item scores a mean of below 2.5. The result has led the study to retain all the items for the main survey (Stakeholders survey).

The results from the interview sessions revealed that all the experts had their own reasons for agreeing to the format and coverage of the research questionnaire. Consensus was achieved among the experts on the content of the questionnaire. They believed that the questionnaire has covered the essential areas of management competences. Most experts agreed *"the questionnaire has covered the issues extensively"*. Two experts described that the study has *'successfully covered the essentials'.*

Experts agreed that the changing environment has major implications for the business. They also agreed that technological advances have tremendous effect to the business. All experts have accepted the fact that *'technology has great impact on the industry's direction'*. They also agreed that the industry requires managers to possess all the necessary competences to handle the uncertainties and turbulence in the business. The panel believed that the constantly changing business environment has forced managers at all levels to be able to understand the forces that has short-term and long-term effects. The experts accepted the fact that *'hotel industry today needs managers with a different set of competences and mindset'*. In relation to this, some experts believed that the new competences and skills do not mean *'additional competences and skills'* but *'new old competences and skills'*. An example of this would be *'we need to put the influence competence back in the backbone of management tasks'* .

One of the questions asked in the interview session involved the issue of culture. There was common agreement on the issue that cultural differences have some implications on how things are done. They believed that the question of management functions does not arise since managers everywhere in the world have to plan, organise, lead, control, decision-making and so forth. They just differ in the way they carry out or implement these functions. This is in line with Drucker's (1980) argument when he said that management is a generic function which faces that same tasks in every country and in every society. However, the experts believed that

any management concepts, values or ideas, which came from, a

different cultural setting, have to be used with extra conscious.

They also agreed that any management concepts and values, which have been accepted or adopted, must be relevant to the cultural context. It was also clear that the experts did not question the origin of any management concepts or values as long as it is relevant and able to *'fit'* in the local culture.

No expert had mentioned about the length of the questionnaire and it was assumed that the length is reasonable. They also agreed that the approach (identifying management competence) would, at the very least, provide a consensus on the complexity of management discipline. In certain instances, some experts believed that its quite irrelevant *to* produce a 'laundry list' of management tasks, however, there are some routine and non-routine tasks which can be identified and conceptualised. Overall, the common agreement was that this type of study should be able to contribute to the future development of hotel management education in Malaysia. On the basis of the experts' survey results, the research project proceeded to the main survey (Stakeholders survey).

7.3   Data Analysis (Stakeholders Survey)

As stated in the previous chapter, data were initially treated by Factor Analysis. The objective of this treatment was to reduce the numerous competence statements to a manageable and parsimonious set of variables and the underlying competences that can be easily observed and

understood. Initial factor analysis was conducted using varimax rotation (converged in 97 iterations). All competence statements were analysed subjected to principal component analysis. In interpreting the rotated factor patterns, an item factor loading of .40 or greater was considered for a particular factor or component. It was mentioned that a .40 criterion level appears most commonly used in judging factor loading as meaningful (Ford *at el*, 1986, Hair *at el*, 1995, Clinton & Calantone, 1997). An another important criterion used was the communality statistics. Items with high communalities (60 per cent and above) were retained (Getty and Thompson, 1995). Missing data were substituted with the mean value of the items. The inclusion of those items did not affect the results on those items (Robert and Shea, 1996).

Further analysis (One way ANOVA) was carried out to evaluate the competence statements loaded in each factor. The mean scores of the items loaded in each factor were further examined using one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) to determine if significant difference exists toward these areas. When significant differences among groups were detected, post-hoc Scheffe (multiple comparison technique) tests were employed to identify where these differences existed.

As mentioned in the preceding chapter, to determine and classify the degree of importance of the mean scores, a classification scale (adopted from Tas's classification) was employed. The classification is as follows:

Essential/ very important	—	4.50 and above
Important	—	3.50-4.49
Moderately Important	—	2.50-3.49
Not Important	—	2.49 and below

In the analysis, the significant level was established at p< .05, .01 and 00.1 respectively. Mean scores were computed from the Likert scale for each item. Each had a minimum value of 1 and a maximum value of 5. A value score close to 1 would mean a very strong expectation not in favour of the item, while the score or value 5 would mean a very strong feeling in favour of the item.

The values on the scale measure strength of perception (very important or not important) on the various functional areas and competence statements. The value 1 and 5 represent the extremes "5 = very important and 1 = not important", the 2 and 4 values indicate " 2 = less important and 4 = important", the value 3 represents "neither very important nor not important".

7.3.1   Stakeholders' expectations of the various functional areas

Initially, the competence statements were divided into ten functional areas. One of the reasons for this division was to assist the experts and the stakeholders to have a clear focus of what they are doing. The ten functional areas are:

i.   Managing People

ii.   Managing Customer

iii.   Managing Self

iv.   Managing Operation

v.   Managing Communication

vi.   Managing Information

vii.   Managing Sales and Marketing

viii.   Managing Finance and Accounting

ix.   Managing Business Environment

x.   Managing Purchase and Supply

In order to see how the stakeholders view each of these areas in term of its degree of importance and to test for significant differences between the three key stakeholders on each of the functional areas, a series of analysis of variance with post-hoc multiple comparison tests (Scheffe) was conducted. Table 7.3 shows the mean scores and significant level of the stakeholders responses on the ten (10) functional areas and the corresponding Scheffe test results. The various functional areas are listed in descending order based on the summated stakeholders mean scores. From Table 7.3, it can be said that the key stakeholders attached greater importance to 3 functional areas 'Managing People', 'Managing Customer' and 'Managing Self' than they did to the other 7 functional areas. Stakeholders ranked 'Managing People' first followed by 'Managing Customer' and 'Managing Self'. According to the classification scale, six areas are considered **very important**. The six areas

Table 7.3: Comparison of Key Stakeholders' Expectations of the Various Functional Areas

Functional Areas	Educators (n=47)	Industry (n=93)	Students (n=69)	F Ratio	Scheffe Test
	Mean (Std.Dev.)	Mean	Mean		
Managing People	4.70 (0.52)	4.89 (0.36)	4.64 (0.57)	5.816**	I>S
Managing Customer	4.72 (0.50)	4.88 (0.37)	4.54 (0.65)	9.701***	I>S
Managing Self	4.62 (0.57)	4.85 (0.39)	4.43 (0.72)	11.152***	I>S
Managing Operation	4.70 (0.62)	4.73 (0.51)	4.51 (0.66)	3.098	N.S.
Managing Communication	4.55 (0.58)	4.76 (0.48)	4.49 (0.68)	4.918*	I>S
Managing Information	4.50 (0.62)	4.70 (0.55)	4.38 (0.67)	5.735**	I>S
Managing Sales & Marketing.	4.45 (0.58)	4.41 (0.61)	4.35 (0.59)	.413	N.S.
Managing Finance & Accounting.	4.34 (0.67)	3.96 (0.72)	4.38 (0.62)	9.263***	E>I, S>I
Managing Business Environment	4.30 (0.66)	4.05 (0.73)	3.90 (0.79)	2.526	N.S.
Managing Purchase & Supply	3.70 (0.66)	3.45 (0.60)	3.70 (0.81)	3.319	N.S.

*P < .05
**P < .01
***P<.001

include 'Managing People', 'Managing Customer', 'Managing Self', 'Managing Operation', 'Managing Communication', and 'Managing Information'.

An analysis (one-way ANOVA) of the three groups shows statistically significant differences in six of the ten functional areas, 'Managing People', Managing Customer', 'Managing Self', 'Managing Communication', Managing Information' and 'Managing Finance and Accounting'. Significant difference was detected between industry and students in 'Managing communication' at $p< .05$. The corresponding Scheffe test shows that industry is more concern in this area than do students. This was well documented in most critics which highlighted that it is no longer a question of graduates lacking the required knowledge. Rather many today's graduates seem unable to communicate effectively.

Significant difference was detected between industry and students at $p< .01$ which indicated that industry professionals placed greater importance in 'Managing people' than did students. The same applies to 'Managing Information'. Significant differences were also detected in three other areas namely 'Managing Customer', 'Managing Self' and 'Managing Finance and Accounting'.

All these areas were statistically significant at $p< .001$. Again, Industry (mean=4.88, 4.85) had different expectations than did students (mean= 4.54, 4.43) in these two areas 'Managing Customer' and 'Managing Self'. Overall,

students attached a lesser degree of importance than did the industry professionals and educators in these five areas.

However, educators (mean=4.34) and students (mean= 4.38) placed a greater degree of importance in 'Managing Finance and Accounting' than do the industry professionals (mean= 3.96). Significant differences were detected between industry and educators, and industry and students in 'Managing Finance and Accounting'. Industry professionals (mean = 3.96) attached a lesser degree of importance in this area than do educators and students. It could be that 'Managing finance and accounting' is considered to be senior managers' responsibility. The result seems not to support the results obtained in most similar studies where educators, students and industry professionals placed greater importance in finance and accounting (Johnson, 1977, Pavesic, 1984).

There were no significant differences detected in four other areas namely 'Managing Operation', 'Managing sales and marketing', 'Managing Business environment' and 'Managing purchase and supply'. All three groups viewed that these areas are at least moderately important for graduates to acquire. In this case no further analysis is required.

In conclusion, of the ten functional areas, the stakeholders considered six areas as **very important** which include 'Managing People', 'Managing Customer', 'Managing Self', 'Managing Operation', 'Managing

Communication' and' Managing Information'. Of the six, significant

differences were detected in five areas (no significant difference was

detected in 'Managing Operation'). However, the overall result indicates that

significant differences between the stakeholders occur on six of the

functional areas. Most of the differences occur between students and

educators and industry professionals. The post-hoc tests revealed that

students placed a lesser degree of importance on five functional areas

(Managing People, Managing Customer, Managing Self, Managing

Communication and Managing Information).

Of the ten functional areas students only rated three areas (Managing

People, Managing Customer and Managing Operation) as *very important*.

This could be easily interpretable in view of their expectations and the nature

of the industry.

7.3.2 Competence Statements - Factor Analysis

The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy was performed to

determine the appropriateness of factor analysis. The result indicated the

measurement of sampling adequacy was .81 which Hair *at el* (1995)

considered this as 'meritorious'.

Factor analysis was performed on the 104 competence statements in order to

reduce the large competence statements and to understand the dimensions

that run through the competences. Nevertheless, Crawford and Lomas (1980)

argue that interpretation of factors is highly subjective and it is not a simple matter. These labels are intuitively developed based on its appropriateness for representing the underlying competences of a particular factor. In such a case, undefinable or less meaningless ones can be disregarded for further interpretation (Hair *at el*, 1995).

The Principal Components Analysis technique was sought to demonstrate how the large number of variables (competence statements) might be reduced to a relatively smaller factors or dimensions. Principal components analysis with varimax rotation was used to ascertain conceptual linkages among the variables of each of the construct (Hair *at el*, 1995). Factor selection was dependent upon an eigenvalue greater than or equal to 1. Each of these factors is expected to represent an important dimension within the context of this research project. Factor analysis provides another way of looking at these competence statements. At the same time, the result could be used to compare how the underlying competences correspond to the identified functional areas.

In interpreting the rotated factor patterns (varimax), an item that has a loading factor of greater than .40 criteria is employed (Kim and Mueller, 1978, Hair *at el*, 1995 Emenheiser *et al,* 1998). It was said that the higher the absolute value of the loading, the more the factor contributes to the variables. All the scales (except those with single loading factor) had satisfactory levels

(ranging from α=.59 to α =.90) of internal consistency assessed by Cronbach's alpha for construct validation (Nunnally, 1978, Nunnally and Bernstein, 1994, Hair *et al*, 1995). Table 7.4 displays the factor analysis using principal component analysis and varimax rotation. These twelve factors were clearly defined except thirteen factors (factor 13 to factor 25) which had a single loading of 0.6 - 0.77, and are presumably error factors. Nevertheless, since these error factors have some major implications for the study they were included for further consideration. The combined 25 factors accounted for 73.2 % of the total variance.

The factor analysis result has produced 25 underlying competences representing the 104 statements, which have been listed under 10 functional areas. These factors were critical, as demonstrated by their relatively high compound mean scores ranging from 4.57 to 3.50. Categorically speaking all are important and very important dimensions.

The first factor (dimension) was labelled 'Managing self and communication'. This factor links 14 items relating to performance management, communication (one-third of the construct), professionalism and guest relation. This factor received the highest summated mean score (4.57). The same applies to second and third factors 'Managing business performance' and 'Managing operation'. The former conceptually links 10 items relating to business performance, operational performance, analyse budget variances,

Table 7.4: Rotated Factor pattern (Varimax) and Final Communality Estimates from Principal Component Analysis of the various Competence Statements

Factor 1 Managing Self and Communication No.Question	*Factor loading of .40 or higher*	*Communality estimates*
86. Develop teamwork and individuals to enhance performance.	.7842	.8078
75. Possess effective writing and verbal skills.	.7768	.7733
55. Manage guest problem with under standing and sensitivity.	.7535	
74. Good listener, as well as, speaker.	.7456	.7776
84. Demonstrate professional appearance and poise.	.6254	.7122
85. Develop and use networks to achieve the desired organisation's goals and objectives.	.6362	.6986
70. Ability to make clear oral presentation of facts or ideas both to small groups or large audience.	.5427	.7442
78. Ability to perform under pressure.	.6422	.7433
54. Examine customers' complaint record for future inquiry and improvement.	.6236	.7862
90. Possess a proactive mindset.	.6086	.7257
92. Present oneself in an assured and confident manner when faced with a challenge.	.6990	.7087
71. Communicate difficult and complex ideas and problems in a simple manner that aids understanding.	.5910	.6945
91. Possess high spiritual values.	.5016	.6834
88. Manage many things at once.	.4517	.7426
Eigen-value	*20.476*	
Variance	*19.8*	
Managing Self and interpersonal alpha -	*.90*	
Mean	*4.57*	
Standard deviation	*.452*	

Factor 2   Business Performance

46. Evaluate budget variances in operations performance.	.7627	.7469
45. Assist in developing selling prices based on operation cost, expected profit and competitors.	.6928	.7541
44. Analyse weekly, monthly and annual financial and statistical reports.	.6678	.7895
47. Implement standard food, beverage and labour cost control procedures.	.6516	.6581
49. Prepare department income and expense and budget statements.	.6025	.8004
50. Record, monitor and carry out cost control system and procedures.	.5706	.6479
43. Analyse financial statements to evaluate operational performance.	.5677	.7257
57. Analyse past and present business information effectively for future marketing strategic plan.	.5857	.7637
60. Conduct market research.	.4839	.6824
58. Analyse quantitatively and qualitatively marketing information.	.4465	.7462

Eigenvalue-   *10.979*
Variance   *10.5*
Managing Customer alpha -   *.88*
Mean   *3.99*
Standard deviation   *.488*

Factor 3   Managing Operation

10. Manage housekeeping operations.	.8575	.8531
11. Manage laundry operations.	.8195	.8318
9. Manage front-office operations.	.8179	.8376
12. Manage restaurant operations and services.	.7913	.8547
13. Manage the portering or concierge services.	.6795	.7893
8. Manage food production operations.	.5735	.7933
15. Plan and manage the running of an event.	.5579	.7683
5. Conceptualise the total operation of the business.	.4290	.7520

Eigenvalue   *10.979*
Variance   *5.5*
Managing Operation alpha -   *.89*
Mean   *4.11*
Standard deviation   *.600*

Factor 4 Managing Purchase and Supply

101. Contribute in the implementation of inventory control system.	.7999	.7784
100. Carry out the department purchase procedures (e.g. bids, call for tender, etc.)	.7643	.7519
103. Justify equipment purchase and cost/benefit and payback.	.7049	.7872
104. Manage control and evaluate stock within area of responsibility.	.7046	.7226
102. Identify equipment and supply requirements.	.6953	.7344
99. Assist in developing purchasing specification for food and non-food supplies that attain appropriate quality, quantity, source and price.	.6721	.7149
105. Possess technical skills in receiving, storing and issuing of food and beverage items.	.6655	.6993

Eigenvalue	*4.407*
Variance	*4.2*
Managing Purchase -alpha and Supply	*.87*
Mean	*3.75*
Standard deviation	*.51*

Factor 5   Managing Information

38. Identify the most important or crucial issues in a complex situation or facing with a problem.	.6880	.6992
39. Maintain accurate and appropriate record for reporting purposes.	.6517	.7436
41. Seek, evaluate or organise information for action.	.6398	.6970
40. Possess information management mindset.	.6057	.7784
35. Focus on facts and feelings when handling an emotional situation.	.5797	.7530
37. Identify new modes, interprets events in new perspectives.	.5694	.7411
36. Identify implications or casual relationship for action.	.4501	.7071
42. Use several ideas to explain the actions, needs or motives of others.	.4371	.6422

Eigenvalue	*3.089*
Variance	*3.08*
Managing Information alpha -	*.86*
Mean	*4.18*
Standard deviation	*.49*

con't...

Factor 6　　　*People Skills*

26. Identify training needs	.7427	.7323
21. Appraise employee performance.	.5689	.6619
28. Manage employee grievances effectively.	.5379	.6949
29. Motivate personnel for effective performance.	.4622	.6895

Eigenvalue	*2.639*
Variance	*2.60*
People Skills alpha -	*.75*
Mean	*4.22*
Standard deviation	*.60*

Factor 7　　　*Business Environment*

66. Keep abreast with technological advancement in the business.	.6875	.7094
67. Keep abreast with the social trends (e.g. social cultural, socio-economic, etc.).	.6842	.7592
68. Knowledgeable in the legal aspects of the business (e.g. state and federal labour law, licensing, trade union, hygiene and safety, etc.).	.6390	.7094
69. Possess 'hands-on' experience with computer system and software.	.6124	.7328

Eigenvalue	*2.34*
Variance	*2.30*
Business Environment alpha-	*.76*
Mean	*4.19*
Standard deviation	*.48*

Factor 8　　　*Strategic Alliance*

80. Build bridges and business alliance.	.6710	.7665
79. Act with good understanding of how the different needs or department of the organisation and its environment fit together.	.6610	.7387
81. Clearly relate goals and actions to strategic planning of organisation.	.5061	.7126

Eigenvalue	*2.233*
Variance	*2.2*
Strategic Alliance alpha-	*.71*
Mean	*4.17*
Standard deviation	*.50*

Factor 9   Planning

1. Analyse menu as to nutritional content. and quantity control.	.7063	.7492
4. Assist in planning and designing of facilities.	.6744	.7471
19. Recognise the importance of interior decoration aspects in restaurant design.	.6487	.7321
2. Assist in menu planning and recipes development.	.5015	.8278

Eigenvalue 2.089
Variance 2.0
Planning alpha- .78
Mean 3.50
Standard deviation .64

Factor 10   Meet Standards

18. Standardised recipes, to provide a consistent basis for quality control.	.6569	.8012
17. Sensitive in the area of energy conservation, environmental issues.	.5448	.7420
16. Plan sanitation schedules and procedures.	.4498	.6426

Eigenvalue 1.990
Variance 1.99
Meet Standards alpha - .63
Mean 3.66
Standard deviation .56

Factor 11   Change Agent

24. Develop abilities to relish change.	.6689	.6936
31. Strike a balance between Chaos and control.	.6011	.7669

Eigenvalue 1.79
Variance 1.79
Change Agent alpha - .59
Mean 3.98
Standard deviation .51

con't...

Factor 12   Sales and Marketing skills

62. Use marketing strategies to promote sales.	.7455	.7551
59. Carry out sales activities	.6923	.8139
61. Contribute to the planning and implementing of marketing and sales. development activities.	5643	.7890

Eigenvalue   *1.685*
Variance   *1.60*
Sales and Marketing skills alpha -   *.65*
Mean   *4.13*
Standard deviation   *.46*

Factor 13   Sensitive

93. Recognise and respond to needs and feelings of others.	.7264	.7093

Eigenvalue   *1.650*
Variance   *1.60*
Mean   *4.13*
Standard deviation   *.52*

Factor 14   Perseverance

53. Effectively manage life-threatening situation.	.7037	.7173

Eigenvalue   *1.637*
Variance   *1.60*
Mean   *3.50*
Standard deviation   *.76*

Factor 15   Proactive

20. Able to develop proactive mindset.	.8000	.7377

Eigenvalue   *1.484*
Variance   *1.40*
Mean   *4.14*
Standard deviation   *.75*

Factor 16   Attentive

87. Focus attention on specific details
    that are critical to success of
    key events.   .7048   .7084

Eigenvalue   *1.36*
Variance   *1.30*
Mean   *4.12*
Standard deviation   *.55*

Factor 17   Cultural awareness

96. Sensitive to the organisation's
    business culture and act as expected.   .4072   .7747

Eigenvalue   *1.30*
Variance   *1.30*
Mean   *4.34*
Standard deviation   *.62*

Factor 18   Decision making

3. Assist in operational planning and
   decision making.   .6506   .7278

Eigenvalue   *1.28*
Variance   *1.20*
Mean   *3.94*
Standard deviation   *.71*

Factor 19   Intuitive

32. Uses instinct and intuition to
    assess or explain situation or   .7815   .7790
    people.

Eigenvalue   *1.24*
Variance   *1.20*
Mean   *3.95*
Standard deviation   *.66*

con't...

Factor 20 **Process**

22. Contribute to recruitment and selection of personnel.	.8112	.7377
Eigenvalue	*1.20*	
Variance	*1.20*	
Mean	*3.84*	
Standard deviation	*.64*	

Factor 21 **Responsive**

52. Develop corrective action for substandard services.	.5989	7410
Eigenvalue	*1.16*	
Variance	*1.1*	
Mean	*4.47*	
Standard deviation	*.65*	

Factor 22 **Sympathetic**

77. Ability to perceive the needs, concerns and personal problems of others.	.6377	.6748
Eigenvalue	*1.08*	
Variance	*1.00*	
Mean	*4.22*	
Standard deviation	*.60*	

Factor 23 **Collectiveness**

34. Check validity of own thinking with others.	.6092	.7252
Eigenvalue	*1.05*	
Variance	*1.00*	
Mean	*4.00*	
Standard deviation	*.63*	

Factor 24   *Creativity*

82. Create new and imaginative
    approach to work related
    issues.   .4089   .7059

Eigenvalue   *1.04*
Variance   *1.00*
Mean   *4.14*
Standard deviation   *.67*

Factor 25   *Broad picture*

63. Scan business environment
    and industry.   .6822   .7094

Eigenvalue   *1.00*
Variance   *1.00*
Mean   *4.13*
Standard deviation   *.67*

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analyse marketing information etc. The latter brings together 8 items referring to managing operation such as conceptual view of the operation, front-office, laundry, restaurant operation, food production and housekeeping. The latter summated mean score is 4.11 and the former is 3.99.

Two other Factors (clearly loaded factors) and one (single loaded) factor also have some items from the 'Managing Operation' identified earlier'. These are 'Planning', 'Meet Standards' and 'Decision -making'. Four items from 'Managing operation' were used to describe 'Planning' (Assist in planning and designing of facilities, interior design, analyse and plan menu and three items for 'Meet standards' Recognise the tools of quality control, meet sanitation and environmental standards. All items that were initially categorised in

'Managing purchase and supply' and 'Managing information' functional areas were retained in the same dimensions.

Four items were identified to represent the dimension 'People skills' which include 'appraise employee performance, training needs, handle grievances and motivate personnel'. Four of the seven items that were originally categorised under 'Managing business environment' were identified to describe the dimension 'Business environment' (Keep abreast with technological advancement in the business, Keep abreast with the social trends (e.g. social cultural, socio-economic, etc.), Knowledgeable in the legal aspects of the business (e.g. state and federal labour law, licensing, trade union, hygiene and safety, etc.) and Possess 'hands-on' experience with computer system and software).

The underlying competence of the 'Strategic alliance' construct was represented by 'Build bridges and business alliance' and 'Relate goals and actions to strategic planning of organisation'. Two items that clearly loaded on and reflect the dimension 'Change agent' - 'Develop abilities to relish change' and 'Balance chaos and control'. Three of the six items originally on 'Managing sales and marketing' were loaded on the factor 'Sales and Marketing skills'. These refer to 'Use marketing strategies to promote sales', 'Carry out sales activities' and 'Contribute to the planning and implementing of marketing and sales development activities'. See Figure 7.1.

Figure 7.1: Underlying Competences

13 Single Loading Dimensions | ***12 Dimensions loaded with more than two statements***

Decision Making ─── Managing Operation (MO) ───┬─── ***Operation**
(8 items from MO)

├─── ***Planning**
(4 items from MO)

└─── *** Meet Standards**
(3 items from MO)

Collectivism ─── Managing Information (MI) ─── ***Information**
(8 of the original items in MI)

Purchase & Supply (P&S) ─── ***Purchase & Supply**
(all (7) items in P&S)

Managing Finance & Accounting (MF&A) ─── ***Business Performance**
(all (7) items in MF&A and 3 items in MS&M)

Managing Sales & Marketing (MS&M) ─── ***Sales and Marketing Skills**
(3 items from MS&M)

Proactive
Process
Intuitive
─── Managing People (MP) ───┬─── ***People Skills**
(4 items from MP)

└─── ***Change Agent**
(2 items from MP)

Managing Communication (MCom)

Perseverance
Responsiveness
─── Managing Customer (MC) ─── ***Self & Communication**
(2 items from MC)
(8 items from MS)
(4 items from MCom)

Sensitivity
Attentive
Creativity
Cultural Awareness
Sympathetic
─── Managing Self (MS) ─── ***Strategic Alliance**
(3 items from MS)

Broad picture ─── Managing Business Environment (MBE) ─── ***Business Environment**
(4 items from MBE)

7.3.3 Stakeholders' expectations on the various competence statements

The results from the factor analysis (25 factors were identified) were further treated using the parametric one-way ANOVA test so as to ascertain overall differences among the groups. As mentioned earlier, Parametric test is considered of having power-efficiency and robust in violating some of the assumptions (if the assumptions are not greatly violated). Post-hoc analysis (Scheffe test) was further employed to determine if there were statistical differences between the stakeholders on the competence statements loaded on these factors. As stated earlier, significant levels were tested at P< .05, .01 and .001 respectively. As presented in Tables 7.3.1-7.3.12 an "F" ratio of 3.05 is required for significance at $p< .05$ level for 2 and 209 degrees of freedom.

1.   Managing Self and Communication

According to the score classification, 'Managing self and communication' is considered as very important underlying competence (mean score = 4.57). The mean scores of educators, industry professionals and students on the 14 competence statements loaded on 'Managing self and communication' were also analysed. Further analysis of the data showed significant differences were detected among the mean scores of all 14 competence statements. Significant levels were detected at p< .001 in 12 statements. Most of the differences occur between educators and industry and students. As presented in Table 7.4.1, 'F' ratios indicated by asterisks are significant at the p< .05, or .01 levels. An 'F' ratio of 3.07 is required for significance at the .05 level.

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Table 7.4.1: Degree of importance placed by key stakeholders on the various competence statements represented by 'Managing self and communication'

Q.Competences	Edu. (n=47) mean (Std. Dev.)	Ind. (n=69) mean	Stu. (n=93) mean	F Ratio	Scheffe test
84. Demonstrate professional appearance and poise.	4.85 (.36)	4.86 (.41)	4.38 (.73)	18.34***	E > S, I > S
78. Ability to perform under pressure.	4.79 (46)	4.62 (.53)	4.30 (.70)	10.74***	E > S, I > S '
70. Ability to make clear oral presentation of facts or ideas both to small groups or large audience.	4.74 (.53)	4.87 (.42)	4.29 (.77)	20.59***	E > S, I > S
91. Possess high spiritual values.	4.72 (.58)	4.45 (.73)	4.10 (.86)	10.15***	E, I > S
74. Good listener, as well as, speaker.	4.72 (.50)	4.86 (.43)	4.43 (.74)	11.73***	E > S^2, I > S
86. Develop teamwork and individuals to enhance performance.	4.72 (.54)	4.88 (.36)	4.30 (.86)	18.34***	E, I > S
71. Communicate difficult and complex ideas and problems in a simple manner that aids understanding.	4.70 (.55)	4.76 (.48)	4.26 (.74)	15.54***	E, I > S
92. Present oneself in an assured and confident manner when faced with a challenge.	4.70 (.51)	4.68 (.46)	4.22 (.76)	18.16***	E, I > S
75. Possess effective writing and verbal skills.	4.70 (.51)	4.81 (.52)	4.25 (.81)	16.60***	E, I > S
85. Develop and use networks to achieve the desired organisation's goals and objectives.	4.68 (.52)	4.65 (.52)	4.32 (.70)	7.78**	E, I > S
90. Possess a proactive mindset.	4.64 (.61)	4.68 (.51)	4.22 (.70)	12.75***	E, I > S

Con't...

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55. Manage guest problem with under standing and sensitivity.	4.57 (.65)	4.86 (.43)	4.35 (.85)	12.60***	I > E², I > S
54. Examine customers' complaint record for future inquiry and improvement.	4.55 (.65)	4.84 (.45)	4.38 (.67)	13.16***	I > E², I > S
88. Manage many things at once.	4.51 (.75)	4.20 (.73)	3.94 (1.04)	6.30**	E > S

Note:
¹ p<.01
² p<.05
Mean scores and (standard deviations) based on a five-point scale, 1= not important to 5= very important

* p<.05, ** p<.01, *** p<.001

Table 7.4.1 shows that students' mean score is 4.38 which represents an important competence (industry professionals' mean score is 4.86 and educators' 4.85), indicating that industry professionals and educators view this competence as very important area for entry-level managers to possess.

The corresponding Scheffe test reveals that significant difference exists (p< .001) between students and industry professionals and educators. Industry professionals and educators acknowledge that graduates should be able to project themselves professionally. This is an important requirement, especially if they are seeking employment in an organisation which has international dealings. Educational institutions should conduct career guidance more frequently rather than on ad-hoc basis to inform students about what is expected.

Again, the perceptions of students towards 'Ability to perform under pressure' and 'Manage many things at once' were significantly different from those of educators and industry professionals. Students attached a relative lesser degree of importance to these competences than did industry professionals and educators. Table 7.4.1 shows that students' mean score is 4.30 which represents an **important** competence (educators' mean score is 4.79 and industry professionals' 4.62 which indicate that industry professionals and educators viewed this competence as **a very important** area for entry-level managers to possess).

The corresponding Scheffe tests revealed that significant differences exist between students and industry professionals and educators. Significant difference exists ($p < .001$) between students and educators whereas significant level at $p < .01$ level was detected between industry professionals and students. However, significant difference was detected at $p < .01$ of 'Manage many things at once'. Students attached a lesser degree of importance (students' mean is 3.94) than did educators and industry professionals. The underlying issue of these statements is persistence.

The mean scores of 'Ability to make clear oral presentation of facts or ideas both to small groups or large audience', Good listener, as well as, speaker', 'Communicate difficult and complex ideas and problems in a simple manner that aids understanding', and 'Possess effective writing skills' were analysed. These statements received one of the highest summated mean scores (mean

score is 4.61). The competence 'Good listener, as well as, speaker' was rated highly (mean score 4.68) by the stakeholders followed by 'Ability to make clear oral presentation of facts or ideas both to small groups or large audience' (mean score 4.65) and 'Possess effective writing and verbal skills' (mean score 4.60). However, the students attached these statements a relatively lesser degree of importance than did the industry professionals and educators.

The perceptions of industry professionals towards 'Good listener' as well as, speaker' were significantly different from those of educators and students. Evidently, industry professionals attached more importance to this competence than did educators and students. Significant differences were detected at p< .01 and .001 levels. Educators and industry professionals viewed these statements as very important compared to students. The corresponding Scheffe tests reveal that significant differences exist (p< .001) between students and educators and industry professionals. Students attached a lesser degree of importance on these statements. However, significant difference was detected as p< .01 between students and educators on statement 'Good listener, as well as, speaker'.

The students' perceptions toward 'Develop teamwork and individuals to enhance performance' and 'Develop and use networks to achieve the desired organisation's goals and objectives' were significantly different from those of industry professionals and educators. Students (mean scores for both

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statements are 4.30 and 4.32) attached a lesser degree of importance to this competence than did Industry professional (mean scores are 4.88 and 4.65) and educators (mean scores are 4.72 and 4.68). The corresponding Scheffe test reveals that significant differences (p< .001 and .01) exist between students and educators and industry professionals. Educators and industry attached a greater degree of importance than did students on 'Develop teamwork and individuals to enhance performance' (p< .001) and 'Develop and use networks to achieve....' (p< .01).

The perceptions of students towards 'Present oneself in an assured and confident manner when faced with a challenge' were significantly different from those of industry professionals and educators. Students attached a lesser degree of importance to this competence than did industry professional and educators. The corresponding Scheffe test reveals that significant difference exists (p< .001) between students and educators and industry professionals. Table 7.4.1 also shows that students' mean score is 4.21 which represents an **important** competence (educators' mean score is 4.70 and industry professionals' 4.75), indicating that industry professionals and educators view this competence as a **very important** area for entry-level managers to possess.

The perceptions of educators and industry toward 'Possess a proactive mindset' were significantly different from those of students. Students attached a lesser degree of importance to this competence than did educators and

industry professional. In the same Table 7.4.1, educators and industry mean scores is 4.64 and 4.68 which represent a **very important** competence (students' 4.20). The corresponding Scheffe test revealed that significant differences exist between educators and industry professionals and students at $p < .001$ level.

The perceptions of students towards 'Possess high spiritual values' were significantly different from those of educators and industry professionals. Students attached a lesser degree of importance to this competence than did industry professionals and educators. Table 7.4.1 also indicates that students mean score is 4.10 which represents an important competence (industry professionals' mean score is 4.45 and educators' 4.72), indicating that educators view this competence as a **very important** area for entry-level managers to possess. The corresponding Scheffe test reveals that significant difference exists between educators and students and industry professionals at $p < .001$. It can be said that in developing a holistic individual, educators, as well as the industry professionals, believe that religion and value play an important element in the process.

In the East, religion provides a range of answers to the deep question of identity and self. Having some understanding of ourselves can help us to feel self-confidence and self-worth that can influence and have major effects on our lives. It can be said that in developing a holistic individual, educators, as

well as the industry professionals, believe that religion and value play an important part in the process.

2.   Managing Business Performance

Managers are responsible to set specific goals and objectives and to develop measurements of performance and results in term of their definition of what the business was and should be. How successfully an organisation achieves its objectives depends, to a large extent, on its managers. Business performance and survival rely heavily on management performance. Financial performance, besides other factors, has become increasingly important for a company's survival and long-term success. Customer satisfaction also contributes significantly to business performance. Typically, measuring performance focuses on internal actions that management needs to take to implement and ensure quality product and service to customer.

The underlying competence of Business performance has been dominated by competence statements initially categorised in the 'Managing finance and accounting' and 'Managing sales and marketing'. See Table 7.4.2 for comparison. The perceptions of the stakeholders on the ten statements representing 'Business Performance' were analysed. It was interesting to note that all statements except one were not significant in terms of the degree of important attached to these statements. 'Assist in developing selling prices based on operation cost, expected profit and competitors' was significantly

Table 7.4.2: Degree of importance placed by key stakeholders on the various competence statements represented by 'Managing Business performance'

Business Performance Q.Competences	Edu. (n=47) mean (Std. Dev.)	Ind. (n=69) mean	Stu. (n=93) mean	F Ratio	Scheffe test
46. Evaluate budget variances in operations performance.	3.94 (.67)	3.91 (.56)	3.93 (.75)	.020	N/A
45. Assist in developing selling prices based on operation cost, expected profit and competitors.	3.87 (.65)	3.57 (.67)	3.93 (.75)	6.15**	S > I
44. Analyse weekly, monthly and annual financial and statistical reports.	4.04 (.72)	4.01 (.63)	4.16 (.85)	.853	N/A
47. Implement standard food, beverage and labour cost control procedures.	3.91 (.69)	3.90 (.61)	3.94 (.73)	.068	N/A
49. Prepare department income and expense and budget statements.	3.87 (.77)	3.59 (.65)	3.80 (.83)	2.77	N/A
50. Record, monitor and carry out cost control system and procedures.	4.06 (.64)	3.94 (.57)	4.13 (.75)	1.88	N/A
43. Analyse financial statements to evaluate operational performance.	4.36 (.85)	4.22 (.79)	4.14 (.83)	.999	N/A
57. Analyse past and present business information effectively for future marketing strategic plan.	4.36 (.79)	4.44 (.58)	4.26 (.74)	1.36	N/A
60. Conduct market research.	3.94 (.70)	3.63 (.73)	3.83 (.79)	2.90	N/A
58. Analyse quantitatively and qualitatively marketing information.	4.23 (.67)	4.17 (.62)	4.09 (.76)	.691	N/A

Note:
Mean scores and (standard deviations) based on a five-point scale, 1= not important to 5= very important
*$p<.05$, **$p<.01$, ***$p<.001$

different from those of students and industry professionals p< .01. This could be that the industry professionals accept the fact that accountants and those policy makers are the ones responsible in determining the pricing policies.

3.   Managing Operation

Table 7.4.3 displays the mean scores of the various competence statements in the 'Managing operation' based on the responses from the stakeholders. The mean scores of the stakeholders on the eight (8) competence statements were analysed using the one-way analysis of variance (one-way ANOVA). The corresponding Scheffe tests reveal that significant differences exist among the 3 groups. Significant differences were mostly detected between educators and industry professionals and students. It implies that educators still feel strongly about the importance of managing hotel operation at degree-level education. Significant differences were also detected in 'Plan and manage the running of an event', Conceptualise the total operation of the business', 'Manage laundry operations', 'Manage the portering or concierge services' and 'Manage front-office operations'.

Educators attached a greater degree of importance on all these statements as compared to industry professionals and students. In the corresponding Scheffe tests, significant differences were detected between educators and industry and students. For example, students (mean= 4.13) attached a lesser degree of importance towards the competence 'Conceptualise the total operation of the

business' as compared to the other two groups (educators' mean = 4.37) and

industry (mean = 4.50).

Table 7.4.3: Degree of importance placed by key stakeholders on the various competence statements represented by 'Managing Operation'

Managing Operation Competences	Edu. (n=47) mean (Std. Dev.)	Ind. (n=69) mean	Stu. (n=93) mean	F Ratio	Scheffe test
15. Plan and manage the running of an event.	4.50 (.66)	4.38 (.73)	4.13 (.89)	3.55*	E > S
5. Conceptualise the total operation of the business.	4.53 (.75)	4.51 (.73)	3.91 (.89)	13.51***	E, I > S
12. Manage restaurant operations and services.	4.43 (.65)	4.31 (.72)	4.12 (.90)	7.21	N/A
10 Manage housekeeping operations.	4.43 (.65)	4.27 (.75)	4.07 (.85)	3.05	N/A
9. Manage front-office operations.	4.45 (.58)	4.30 (.72)	4.00 (.89)	5.56**	E > I, I > S
11. Manage laundry operations.	4.26 (.74)	3.92 (.82)	3.67 (.87)	7.21***	E > S
8. Manage food production operations.	3.96 (.75)	3.70 (.75)	3.91 (.79)	2.42	N/A
13. Manage the portering or concierge services.	4.02 (.71)	3.59 (.78)	3.62 (.88)	4.97*	E >I, E > S

Notes :

Mean scores and (standard deviations) based on a five-point scale, 1= not important to 5= very important

*p<.05, **p<.01, ***p<.001

The same instance applies to 'Manage laundry operations'. The corresponding Scheffe test reveals that significant different occur at p< .001. Students (mean =3.66) perceived 'Manage laundry operations' as less important than did educators (4.25) and industry professionals (3.92). All three groups perceived 'Manage front-office operations' to be important in hotel management education. However, the corresponding post-hoc tests reveal that significant differences at p< .01 level were detected between educators (mean = 4.45) and industry and between industry (mean = 4.30) and students (mean = 4.00).

Surprisingly, the competence 'Manage the portering or concierge services' received a higher rating from the educators (mean = 4.02) than did industry professionals (mean =3.59) and students (mean = 3.62). The corresponding Scheffe test reveals that significant difference was detected between educators and students and industry professionals.

There was no significant difference detected in the remaining three competence statements. This includes 'Manage housekeeping operations', 'Manage restaurant operations and services', and 'Manage food production operations'. In this instance, post-hoc test is unnecessary.

4. Managing Purchase and Supply

Business organisations recognise that trusting, long-term relationships with suppliers can contribute to improving the quality of their products and

services. They also realise that the involvement of suppliers is critical to improve and to meet customers expectations and requirements. These efforts are thwarted if components or materials from their suppliers are defected and late. In the same notion, maximising customers added value is in jeopardy. On the other hand, staff and managers must realise the importance of this relationships and the role of the purchasing and supply department(see Table 7.4.4).

The factor analysis identified 'managing purchase and supply' as the underlying competences representing all competence statements initially categorised under 'Managing purchase and supply'. These seven statements were analysed using the one-way ANOVA. All groups accepted the fact this underlying competence is important in determining the smooth running of the business. Interestingly, the analysis revealed no significant difference between the three groups. In this case no post-hoc test is necessary.

5.   Planning

Planning is another management task. Planning involves translating organisational or management strategies, which could be either short-term and long-term. Planning, therefore, is a process of obtaining or allocating the right resources (materials or human) to fulfil organisational needs.

Table 7.4.4: Degree of importance placed by key stakeholders on the various competence statements represented by 'Manage Purchase and Supply'

Q. Competences	Edu. (n=47) mean (Std. Dev.)	Ind. (n=69) mean	Stu. (n=93) mean	F Ratio	Scheffe Test
101. Contribute in the implementation of inventory control system.	3.85 (.59)	3.67 (.73)	3.86 (.84)	1.64	N/A
100. Carry out the department purchase procedures (e.g. bids, call for tender, etc.)	3.74 (.53)	3.54 (.65)	3.78 (.74)	3.17	N/A
103. Justify equipment purchase and cost/benefit and payback.	3.83 (.52)	3.66 (.68)	3.75 (.74)	1.13	N/A
104. Manage control and evaluate stock within area of responsibility.	3.79 (.55)	3.76 (.68)	3.83 (.66)	.185	N/A
102. Identify equipment and supply requirements.	3.81 (.58)	3.61 (.55)	3.83 (.66)	3.10	N/A
99. Assist in developing purchasing specification for food and non-food supplies that attain appropriate quality, quantity, source and price.	3.98 (.39)	3.70 (.67)	3.85 (.78)	3.00	N/A
105. Possess technical skills in receiving, storing and issuing of food and beverage items.	3.91 (.54)	3.67 (.66)	3.90 (.71)	3.42	N/A

Notes :

Mean scores and (standard deviations) based on a five-point scale, 1= not important to 5= very important

*p<.05, **p<.01, ***p<.001

The perceptions of stakeholders towards competence statements under the underlying competence of 'Planning' were analysed. 'Analyse menu as to nutritional content and quality control' were significantly difference between the 3 groups. Educators and students (mean score of 3.78 and 3.79 respectively) placed a greater degree of importance to this competence than did the industry professionals (mean score of 3.35). The analysis (see Table 7.4.5) revealed that industry professionals placed lesser degree of importance on the competence 'Analyse menu as to nutritional content and quality control' than did educators and students. The corresponding Scheffe test reveals that significant differences were detected between educators and industry professionals and students at $p < .01$ and $.001$ respectively. Educators perceived 'Plan and analyse menu as to nutritional content and quality control' as more important than did the industry professionals. The Scheffe test reveals that differences between educators and industry professionals occur at $p < .01$ level and students and industry professionals at $p < .001$ level.

The perceptions of the industry professionals were also significantly different on 'Assist in planning and designing of facilities' (see Table 7.4.5). The industry professionals perceived this competence as less important than did the other two groups. The corresponding Scheffe test reveals that significant difference was detected between educators and industry professionals and students at $p < .001$ level. 'Assist in menu planning and recipes development' is considered as **moderately important.**

Table 7.4.5: Degree of importance placed by key stakeholders on the various competence statements represented by 'Planning'

Factor 5 Planning					
Competences	**Edu.** (n=47)	**Ind.** (n=69)	**Stu.** (n=93)	**F Ratio**	**Scheffe Test**
	mean (**Std. Dev.**)	**mean**	**mean**		
1.Analyse menu as to nutritional content and quality control.	3.74 (.71)	3.35 (.64)	3.80 (.81)	9.017***	$E > I^a, S > I$
4.Assist in planning and designing of facilities	3.72 (.83)	3.23 (.55)	3.77 (.83)	13.84***	$E > I, S > I$
19.Recognise the importance of interior decoration aspects in restaurant design.	3.74 (.71)	3.48 (.67)	3.87 (.84)	5.732**	$S > I$
20. Assist in menu planning and recipes development	3.40 (1.04)	2.80 (.80)	3.62 (.94)	18.02***	$S > I, E > I^a,$

Notes :

[a] *$p < .01$*

Mean scores and (standard deviations) based on a five-point scale, 1= not important to 5= very important

$*p < .05, **p < .01, ***p < .001$

The corresponding Scheffe test also reveals that significant differences were detected between students and industry at $p < .001$ and educators and industry at $p < .01$ levels. The reason could be that the chef is more likely to be considered as the best individual to handle such task as 'Recognise the importance of interior decoration aspects in restaurant design'. The

corresponding Scheffe test reveals that significant difference was detected between students and industry at p<.01 level.

6.   Managing Information

Managing information is essential to the success of an organisation. In today's environment, organisation must understand both its internal workings environment and the nature of the external environment to which it has to adapt and respond. All competences statements in this dimension have mean scores of 3.91 and above indicating that these competences are important or very important. The items of Managing information factor were analysed by one-way ANOVA so as to ascertain overall differences among the stakeholders. Table 7.4.6 reveals that two items loaded on this factor were significantly different.

The corresponding Scheffe tests on these two items reveal that significant differences were detected between industry professionals and educators and students. Significant differences were detected on these two (2) competence statements 'Possess information mindset' and 'Use several ideas to explain the actions, needs or motives of others' at p< .05 level. Industry professionals (mean = 4.59) attached a greater degree of importance than did educators (mean = 4.26)and students (mean = 4.12) on 'Possess information mindset'. Industry professionals accept the fact that today's managers must possess that mindset in order to keep pace with the

development of the industry. According to the classification scale, industry professionals rated this competence as **very important** (mean score 4.59).

Table 7.4.6: Degree of importance placed by key stakeholders on the various competence statements represented by 'Managing Information'

Factor 6	*Managing Information*				
Competences	Edu. (n=47)	Ind. (n=69)	Stu. (n=93)	F Ratio	Scheffe test
	mean (Std. Dev.)	mean	mean		
38. Identify the most important or crucial issues in a complex situation or facing with a problem.	4.26 (.82)	4.18 (.62)	4.17 (.64)	.234	N/A
39. Maintain accurate and appropriate record for reporting purposes.	4.49 (.75)	4.54 (.64)	4.39 (.69)	.924	N/A
41. Seek, evaluate or organise information for action.	4.28 (.77)	4.39 (.61)	4.19 (.77)	1.60	N/A
40. Possess information management mindset.	4.26 (.77)	4.59 (.66)	4.12 (.81)	8.79*	I >S, I >E
35. Focus on facts and feelings when handling an emotional situation.	4.00 (.72)	4.06 (.46)	3.97 (.75)	.465	N/A
37. Identify new modes, interprets events in new perspectives.	3.83 (.70)	3.95 (.56)	3.91 (.61)	.570	N/A
36. Identify implications or casual relationship for action.	4.09 (.69)	4.03 (.64)	3.93 (.71)	.860	N/A
42. Use several ideas to explain the actions, needs or motives of others.	4.40 (.74)	4.26 (.72)	4.00 (.75)	4.66*	E >S

Notes :

Mean scores and (standard deviations) based on a five-point scale, 1= not important to5= very important
$*p<.05$, $**p<.01$, $***p<.001$

Educators and students rated it as **important.** The corresponding Scheffe tests reveal that industry professionals placed greater emphasis on the competence and believed that to handle today's business environment managers (be it junior or senior) have to possess an information management mindset. Educators, on the other hand, attached a greater degree of importance on 'Use several ideas to explain the actions, needs or motives of others' than did students. Significant different at $p < .05$ was detected between these two groups. No significant differences were detected on the remaining six statements 'Focus on facts and feelings' ($F= .465$), 'Identify implications or causal relationship for action' ($F=.860$), 'Identify new modes, interprets events in new perspectives' ($F= .5696$), 'Identify the most important or crucial issues in a complex situation or facing with a problem' ($F= .234$), 'Maintain accurate and appropriate record for reporting' ($F= .924$), and 'Seek, evaluate or organise information for action' ($F= 1.603$). In this case no further analysis is required.

7.   People Skills

The importance of human element in an organisation is increasing along with the pace of change. Organisations desperately need people who are able to cope with change. At the same time, change demands innovative and creative people. The businesses that survive in the future will be those that are able to deliver service standards that always meet or exceed the customers' expectations. By focusing on people as resources rather than as costs, on going staff training and development have to be the main agenda.

On the same note, managers must learn to work with everyone inside the organisation who can help in achieving their goals. As such, they are responsible and accountable for their subordinates' actions as well as for their own. Their subordinates' success or failure is a direct measure of their own success or failure. Table 7.4.7 displays the mean scores of the stakeholders rating on the various competence statements under factor 'People skills'.

Table 7.4.7: Degree of importance placed by key stakeholders on the various competence statements represented by 'People Skills'

Factor 7 People Skills Competences	Edu. (n=47) mean (Std. Dev.)	Ind. (n=69) mean	Stu. (n=93) mean	F Ratio	Scheffe test
26. Identify training needs	4.21 (.55)	4.15 (.64)	4.15 (.72)	.175	N/A
21. Appraise employee performance.	4.17 (.52)	4.12 (.67)	4.18 (.71)	.186	N/A
28. Manage employee grievances effectively.	4.30 (.59)	4.10 (.53)	4.01 (.68)	3.24*	E >S
29. Motivate personnel for effective performance.	4.49	4.52	4.30	2.69	N/A

Notes :

Mean scores and (standard deviations) based on a five-point scale, 1= not important to 5= very important
$* p<.05, ** p<.01, *** p<.001$

The results of one-way ANOVA reveal that the stakeholders considered all the statements were important. The results also revealed that there was significant difference detected between educators and students on 'Manage

employee grievances effectively' at p< .05 level. No significant differences

were detected on three other statements 'Identify training needs' (F= .175),

'Appraise employee performance (F= .186), and 'Motivate personnel for

effective performance' (F= 2.69). In this case, no further analysis is

necessary.

8.   Business Environment

In today's environment, organisations have to align themselves with the

business environment in order to survive and play their role in the society. It is

important for managers and leaders to recognise and conceptualise the

interdependency and multiplicity of the environmental forces that have the

most relevancy to the operation. Within this environment, organisations have

to deal and negotiate with the groups and individuals to achieve their desired

goals. This environment consists of groups and individuals who have the

greatest influence in their decision-making process and the organisation's

objective and direction (Bennet, 1997, Jacobs, 1997).

All the competence statements received mean scores of 4.00 and above. The

results of one-way ANOVA show no significant difference detected among the

3 groups surveyed at the alpha levels of .05, .01 and .001. See Table 7.4.8 for

comparison of the stakeholders' expectations. The result indicates that no

further analysis is needed. Within 'Managing business environment',

stakeholders agreed that all competence statements are important for entry-

level managers to acquire.

Table 7.4.8: Degree of importance placed by key stakeholders on the various competence statements represented by 'Business environment'.

Factor 8 *Business Environment* Q.Competences	Edu. (n=47) mean (Std. Dev.)	Ind. (n=69) mean	Stu. (n=93) mean	F Ratio	Scheffe test
66. Keep abreast with technological advancement in the business.	4.19 (.71)	4.15 (.53)	4.16 (.72)	.066	N/A
67. Keep abreast with the social trends (e.g. social cultural, socio-economic).	4.30 (.59)	4.28 (.58)	4.25 (.60)	.118	N/A
68. Knowledgeable in the legal aspects of the business(e.g. state and federal labour law, licensing, trade union, hygiene and safety, etc.).	4.02 (.74)	4.01 (.65)	4.04 (.78)	.042	N/A
69. Possess 'hands-on' experience with computer system and software.	4.43 (.62)	4.29 (.58)	4.26 (.61)	1.15	N/A

Notes :

Mean scores and (standard deviations) based on a five-point scale, 1= not important to 5= very important

*p<.05, **p<.01, ***p<.001

9. Strategic Alliance

The business environment today is one of intense domestic and global competition, rapid technological change and demanding consumers. Also, today organisations are realising that the days of large, vertically integrated business are slowly vanishing, that one firm can no longer afford to maintain sophistication in all levels of technology, distribution channels and so forth. This environment has forced business organisation to realise the importance

of developing new form of relationships (collaborative or strategic alliance) to share the burden and risk. Hence, each statement describes the concept of alliance (see Table 7.4.9).

Table 7.4.9: Degree of importance placed by key stakeholders on the various competence statements represented by 'Strategic Alliance'

Factor 9	*Strategic Alliance*				
Q.Competences	Edu. (n=47)	Ind. (n=69)	Stu. (n=93)	F Ratio	Scheffe test
	mean (Std. Dev.)	mean	mean		
80. Build bridges and business alliance.	4.30 (.59)	4.00 (.47)	3.94 (.83)	4.93**	E > S, I
79. Act with good understanding of how the different needs or department of the organisation and its environment fit together.	4.55 (.58)	4.17 (.50)	4.20 (.68)	7.31**	E > I, S
81. Clearly relate goals and actions to strategic planning of organisation.	4.30 (.66)	4.16 (.56)	4.19 (.67)	.780	N/A

Notes :

Mean scores and (standard deviations) based on a five-point scale, 1= not important to 5= very important
*p<.05, **p<.01, ***p<.001

The results of the analysis indicated that there were significant differences detected among the stakeholders for 'Build bridges and business alliance' (F= 4.93) and 'Act with good understanding of how different needs or department of the organisation and its environment fit together' at p< .01.

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For 'Build bridges and business alliance' and 'Act with good understanding of how different needs or department of the organisation and its environment fit together' competences, educators attached a greater degree of importance than did industry professionals and students. No significant difference was detected on 'Clearly relate goals and actions to strategic planning of organisation'.

10. Meet Standards

Meeting the standards prescribed means to continuously improve the quality of work or service. Standards should be established in accordance to what the customers expect. Managers should be able to follow the procedures that will produce the goods and services to the required standards. Management is about getting things done through other people. Staff training is also vital in developing the necessary knowledge, competences and attitude to enable staff to meet the standards. The results of the analysis indicates that significant differences were detected among the groups for 'Recognise standardised recipes are use to provide a consistent basis for quality control' and 'Plan sanitation schedules and procedures' (see Table 7.4.10).

'Recognise standardised recipes are use to provide a consistent basis for quality control' (F=6.138) was significant at p< .01 level. Students attached a greater degree of importance than did industry professionals on this

statement. It seems that the industry professionals do not look at quality issues from the holistic aspect of the operation.

Table 7.4.10: Degree of importance placed by key stakeholders on the various competence statements represented by 'Meet Standards'

Factor 10 *Meet Standards* Competences	Edu. (n=47) mean (Std. Dev.)	Ind. (n=69) mean	Stu. (n=93) mean	F Ratio	Scheffe test
18. Recognise standardised recipes are use to provide a consistent basis for quality control.	3.55 (.90)	3.35 (.69)	3.80 (.85)	6.138**	S > I
17. Sensitive in the area of energy conservation, environmental issues.	3.79 (.72)	3.71 (.62)	3.77 (.81)	.2350	N/A
16. Plan sanitation schedules and procedures.	3.87 (.65)	3.56 (.65)	3.80 (.78)	4.022*	E > I

Notes :

Mean scores and (standard deviations) based on a five-point scale, 1= not important to 5= very important
*p<.05, **p<.01, ***p<.001

Significant difference p< .05 was also detected on 'Plan sanitation schedules and procedures'. Educators placed a greater degree of importance on the statement than did the industry. As suspected the level of awareness and responsibility for food safety and sanitation is still low in Malaysia. All groups agree that energy conservation and environmental issues are as important as any other business issues. No significant difference was detected (F= .235).

11 and 12.   Change Agent and Sales & Marketing skills

According to Kanter (1989), organisations are now entering a game— the

croquet game in *Alice in Wonderland* — that compels the player to deal with

constant change. The change depends greatly on leadership and situations.

Managers must be able to institute change in an effective manner. In today's

business environment, sales and marketing decisions are often key

components of business strategies. According to Morgan (1988, p. 33), this

perspective lends another dimension of sustaining a market orientation. In

today's business environment, products and services are developed from a

customer standpoint, rather than a supplier or an organisation standpoint.

Although these two dimensions - change agents and sales & marketing skills

- were not significantly discriminated by the three groups, some basic

observation can be made (see Table 7.4.11 and 7.4.12 respectively).

Educators seem to place a greater degree of importance on 'change agent'

in today's business environment. In contrast, industry professionals place

slightly more emphasis on 'sales & marketing skills'.

Table 7.4.11: Degree of importance placed by key stakeholders on the various competence statements represented by 'Change Agent'

Factor 11 Change Agent Q.Competences	Edu. (n=47) mean (Std. Dev.)	Ind. (n=69) mean	Stu. (n=93) mean	F Ratio	Scheffe test
24. Develop abilities to relish change.	4.13 (.65)	3.99 (.54)	390 (.65)	2.28	N/A
31. Strike a balance between Chaos and control.	4.06 (.60)	3.92 (.54)	3.94 (.75)	.820	N/A

Notes :

Mean scores and (standard deviations) based on a five-point scale, 1= not important to 5= very important
*$p<.05$, ** $p<.01$, *** $p<.001$*

Table 7.4.12: Degree of importance placed by key stakeholders on the various competence statements represented by 'Marketing skills' $U^a U^a È$

Factor 12 Sales & Marketing skills Q. Competences	Edu. (n=47) mean (Std. Dev.)	Ind. (n=69) mean	Stu. (n=93) mean	F Ratio	Scheffe test
62. Use marketing strategies to promote sales.	4.13 (.54)	4.17 (.52)	4.10 (.60)	.3362	N/A
59. Carry out sales activities	4.28 (.68)	4.32 (59)	4.09 (.72)	2.66	N/A
61. Contribute to the planning and implementing of marketing and sales development activities.	3.98 (.61)	4.04 (.49)	4.01 (.72)	.183	N/A

Notes :

Mean scores and (standard deviations) based on a five-point scale, 1= not important to5= very important
*$p<.05$, ** $p<.01$, *** $p<.001$*

13.   Single Loading Factors

There were thirteen (13) underlying competences which had a single loading of 0.6 - 0.77, and are presumably error factors. However, since these error factors have some major implications for the study they were included for further consideration. These underlying competences are strongly associated with personal competences. Based on the results there were significant differences detected among the groups in five factors – factor 13 (Sensitive), factor 14 (Perseverance), factor 15 (Proactive), factor 18 (Decision making) and factor 20 (Process). The mean score was examined using an analysis of variance to determine if significant difference in these dimensions existed. See Table 7.4.13.

When significant differences among groups were detected, post-hoc Scheffe tests were applied to identify where these differences existed. For 'Sensitivity', educators rated highly on the importance of this competence for hotel management graduates receiving a mean score of 4.30. Students (4.03) and industry professionals (4.13) rated it as less important than did educators. The corresponding Scheffe test reveals that significant difference concerning 'Sensitivity' was detected at p< .05 between educators and students.

The result reveals that students attached 'Perseverance' a slightly greater degree of importance as did educators and industry professionals. The corresponding Scheffe test indicates that significant difference (p< . 01) was detected between students and industry professionals.

Table 7.4.13: Single Loading Factors

Q. Competences	Edu. (n=47) mean (Std. Dev.)	Ind. (n=69) mean	Stu. (n=93) mean	F Ratio	Scheffe test
Factor 13 Sensitive					
93. Recognise and respond to needs and feelings of others.	4.30 (.59)	4.13 (.37)	4.03 (.62)	3.84*	E > S
Factor 14 Perseverance					
53. Effectively manage life- threatening situation.	3.51 (.75)	3.32 (.69)	3.72 (.82)	5.70**	S > I
Factor 15 Proactive					
20. Able to develop proactive mindset.	4.23 (.63)	4.27 (.78)	3.91 (.73)	5.11**	I > S
Factor 16 Attentive					
87. Focus attention on specific details that are critical to success of key events.	4.21 (.59)	4.11 (.45)	4.07 (.63)	.963	N/A
Factor 17 Cultural awareness					
96. Sensitive to the organisation's business culture and act as expected.	4.40 (.58)	4.37 (.53)	4.26 (.74)	.905	N/A
Factor 18 Decision making					
3. Assist in operational planning and decision making.	4.23 (.67)	3.67 (.66)	4.13 (.67)	15.24***	E > I, S > I
Factor 19 Intuitive					
32. Uses instinct and intuition to assess or explain situation or people.	4.11 (.67)	3.88 (.64)	3.94 (.69)	1.81	N/A
Factor 20 Process					
22. Contribute to recruitment and selection of personnel.	4.09 (.58)	3.67 (.56)	3.91 (.72)	7.72**	E > I, S > I
Factor 21 Responsive					
52. Develop corrective action for substandard services.	4.55 (.54)	4.65 (.50)	4.19 (.70)	11.21***	I > S
Factor 22 Sympathetic					
77. Ability to perceive the needs, concerns and personal problems of others.	4.43 (.60)	4.26 (.51)	4.09 (.70)	2.84	N/A
Factor 23 Collectiveness					
34. Check validity of own thinking with others.	4.04 (.62)	4.02 (.53)	3.94 (.75)	.454	N/A

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Factor 24	Creativity					
82. Create new and imaginative approach to work related issues.	4.30 (.69)	4.11 (.54)	4.09 (.81)	1.61	N/A	

Factor 25	Broad picture					
63. Scan business environment and industry.	4.28 (.65)	4.05 (.78)	4.13 (.66)	1.74	N/A	

Notes :

Mean scores and (standard deviations) based on a five-point scale, 1= not important to 5= very important

* p<.05, ** p<.01, *** p<.001

Industry professionals have attached slightly greater degree of importance to 'Proactive' compared to educators and students. However, the Scheffe test reveals that significant difference was detected between industry professionals and students at p< .01 level.

Interestingly, 'Decision-making' and 'Process' were perceived as slightly less important by industry professionals as did educators and students. The corresponding Scheffe tests reveal that significant differences were detected between educators and industry professionals and students and industry professionals both at p< .001 and .01 respectively.

The post-hoc results indicate that significant differences were detected between educators and students and industry professionals on their rating of the importance of 'Decision-making' (p < .001) and 'Process' (p <.01). Educators and students attached more relative importance to these

competences than did industry professionals. Industry professionals have attached a greater degree of importance to 'Responsiveness' than do students. The corresponding post-hoc test (Scheffe test) reveals that significant differences ($p< .001$) were detected between industry professionals and students.

As stated earlier, the results of the remaining 7 competence statements show no significant difference among the stakeholders at the .05, .01 and .001 probability levels. The 7 competence statements are 'Attentive' ($F = .963$), 'Cultural awareness' ($F = .905$), 'Intuitive' ($F = 1.81$), 'Sympathetic' ($F = 2.84$), 'Collectiveness' ($F = .454$), 'Creativity' ($F = 1.61$), 'Broad picture' ($F = 1.74$). Although the remaining 7 dimensions (factors) were not significantly discriminated by the three groups, educators seem to place a greater degree of importance on almost all the single loaded factors which clearly indicated that personal qualities are very important besides other competences in order to progress through their career. The results of the analysis can be divided into two major headings which can be represented in the Table 7.4.14 below (degree of importance). It should be remembered that this classification does not claim to be exhaustive.

Twelve (12) underlying competences focus on the functional or occupational competences needed to achieve the goals of the organisation. Personal competences are about the qualities one needs to develop to achieve the best results possible. No one classification covers all the managerial work

that has been identified. What is important here was that these underlying

competences have highlighted the key stakeholders' expectations.

Table 7.4.14:   **Underlying Competences of the Stakeholders'**
                        Expectations

Personal		Occupational	
Self and communication	4.57	People Skills	4.22
Responsive	4.47	Business Environment	4.19
Cultural awareness	4.34	Managing Information	4.18
Sympathetic	4.22	Strategic Alliance	4.17
Creativity	4.14	Sales & Marketing Skills	4.13
Proactive	4.14	Managing Operation	4.11
Sensitive	4.13	Business Performance	3.99
Broad picture	4.13	Change Agent	3.98
Attentive	4.12	Process	3.84
Collective	4.00	Managing Purchase &	
Intuitive	3.95	Supply	3.75
Decision Making	3.94	Meet Standards	3.66
Perseverance	3.50	Planning	3.50

7.4 Stakeholders' Expectations

In today's environment, a curriculum designed to meet the needs of the

economy would be considered a useful curriculum and relevant to the needs

of the society. Very often, most educational programmes are designed to

meet the short-term needs of the employer or the needs of educators and

tend to neglect the needs of the learner (Aspinwall *at el*, 1992). If the notion of 'usefulness' and 'relevant' are advocated in an educational planning process, care needs to be exercised in equating usefulness and relevance with usefulness and relevance ideals as used by all parties concerned (O'Connor, 1996). Hence, the concept of stakeholders was advocated in this research project as a mean to provide an answer to the issue of 'usefulness to whom' and relevance to whom'.

One of the objectives of this research project was to ascertain the stakeholders' expectations of hotel management graduates regarding the various managerial competences. Competence identification and validation processes provide an objective framework for the design and planning of educational programme. Subsequently, the effectiveness of any educational programmes can be evaluated against a validated set of competences. They can also be objectively applied for the evaluation of existing education programmes. Changes and turbulence could well describe today's business environment. However, subjecting our present curricula to a systematic review may assist us in setting and framing the future.

It has been realised that no universal set of competences can be defined or applied. The situational variables cause significant variations. Local economy and national priorities, and variations require definition of managerial competences from the natural perspective of a given context. Nevertheless,

there are some universal dimensions in what managers do regardless of the different cultural setting (Drucker, 1992).

The results from Factor analysis indicated that twenty-five (25) underlying competences (factors) have surfaced to represent the one hundred and four (104) competence statements which have been identified in the Stakeholders' survey. These 25 underlying competences accounted for 73.2 % of the total variance. The findings revealed that none of the twenty-five underlying competences had a mean score of below 3.5. Based on the scores classification, all the underlying competences were considered by key stakeholders as either *very important or important* (see Table 7.4.14).

Based on the score classifications, the result can be classified under three categories — *Essential or Very important, Important and Moderately Important (see* Appendix XIX). None of the 104 competences had a mean score of below 2.5 (not important) which indicates that all the competences were at least moderately important (only two statements were rated as moderately important). Of the thirteen (13) competences that have been rated as *Very important or Essential* by the stakeholders, twelve (12) competences loaded clearly on the first factor 'Managing self and Communication'. Competence statements within the 'soft' (personal and communication) domain appear to dominate the top-rated grouping. Not surprisingly, competences within the 'soft' realm appear to load on the first factor.

Hence, the first factor was labelled as 'Managing self and Communication'. Personal competence (Managing self) has always been important to effective performance. Personal competences represent a set of attitudes and values that enable workers to work efficiently; good communicators, good listener and focus on continuing or life-long learning.

On the other hand, communication is a very important management activity. It is crucial that members of an organisation be united through some shared value and understanding of the organisation that could only happen through communications that effectively link them. Communications consist of all the processes by which information is transmitted and received. The subject matter may include intentions, decisions, facts etc., and the main purpose of communication is to make the receiver understand what is in the mind of the sender.

Communication can also be regarded as part of a learning process. Communication can profoundly affect the attitudes of management as well as employees and the degree to which they understand and support the management's decisions and policies. A closer look at each underlying competence in 'Managing Self and Communication' revealed that students have shown a greater reluctance to rate individual competence as 'very important' than the other two groups (educators and industry professionals).

We can confidently say that students have a different expectation when it comes to what the industry and educators considered to be the most important / essential competences. Educators should acknowledge this discrepancy. Industry professionals have long realised this situation by saying that today's graduates lack certain basic qualities and right attitude (personal competences) (Academic Advisory Board, 1995, New Straits Time 1996b). Industry professionals believe that today's graduates are more introverts or inward-looking and cannot interact or communicate well with others. However, educational institutions have not considered this issue seriously and take precedence over others in the management of curriculum. Even though educators realised the importance of personal and communication competences, efforts to correct this have never become an important agenda. In an environment with a constant state of flux, leaders or managers must have the necessary personal and communication competences in order to learn and listen closely to the changing needs of their business and their customers. On the same note, the ability to learn must be acquired at all levels of the workforce in any organisation.

The other twenty four underlying competences are represented by eighty nine (89) competence statements (see Table 7.4.2- 7.3.13) which include 11 clearly loaded dimensions such as *Business Environment, Managing Information, Strategic Alliance, Sales & Marketing Skills, Managing Operation, Business Performance, Process, Change Agent, Meet Standards, Planning and Managing Purchase & Supply.*

Apart from this, 13 underlying competences (single loading factors) revealed other personal competences which are associated with the first underlying competence 'Managing self and communication'. Personal competences are similar whether one holds a supervisory, middle management or senior management position. The difference lies in how they apply them. Supervisory and management positions need to consider how they can develop the personal competences within the job and cultural situation they find at work.

It appears to be quite difficult to suggest an exhaustive list of personal competences, since every study seems to add new competences to the list, but in general the we can conclude that a hotel management graduates needs to have developed the majority of the following personal competences: responsiveness, sympathetic, creativity, proactive, sensitive, broad picture, attentive, collective, intuitive, decision making and perseverance. Above all, none of the underlying competences were considered *Moderately important* or *Not important*.

Competences within the 'Managing self and communication appears within close proximity (thirteen (13) competences have been clustered in this group). Among the key stakeholders, students have shown a greater reluctance to rate individual competence as 'very important' than the other two groups (educators and industry professionals). While this significant difference indicated some

interpretative speculation, it is most likely representing a variation that reflects different expectations that stakeholders have of educational experience.

Most of the differences occurred either between industry-students or educators-students. Nevertheless, three (3) competences, however, have been given a ranking with a divergence of nine (9) or more places and this indicates major differences in perceptions and expectations between students and educators and the industry. These three competences include *'Possess effective writing skills'* (ranked 8 in students' list), *'Present oneself in an assured and confident manner when faced with a challenge'* and *'Possess a proactive mind'* (ranked 10 in students' list). There is one possible interpretation for this difference. One explanation could be that in high power-distance culture, individuals tend to value and respect hierarchy. Thus, students considered these as essential for senior positions rather than at the entry-level.

On the other hand, students valued those competences that assist them in their daily tasks. The students placed greater importance on operation and technical competences that requires the 'how to' knowledge such as *'Maintain accurate and appropriate or reporting purposes record'*, *'Motivate personnel for effective performance'*, *'Analyse past and present business information effectively for future marketing strategic plan'*, *'Sensitive to the organisation's business culture and act as expected'*, *'Ability to perform under pressure'* and *'Examine customers' complaint record for future inquiry*

and improvement'. This could be a reflection of students' perception of managerial work in the hospitality industry which exemplifies the focus on technical skills rather than a business orientation. In comparison, the industry professionals and educators valued generic competences that reflect the nature of the business, which requires an individual who is able to deal with the customers, capable to face challenges and capable to communicate well at all levels. These findings are consistent with the findings from most studies carried out in the either the US or UK.

Only 2 competence statements were considered *Moderately important (mean score of 3.49-2.50* —— 'Assist in menu planning and recipes development' and 'Communicate in foreign language'. It is quite obvious that menu planning and recipes development are not considered important since the chef is considered to be responsible for the development of recipes and menu planning.

English is widely spoken in Malaysia. Clear communication is crucial in both the training situation and in the workplace. From the results we can confidently assume that the stakeholders believed that every member of a hotel's staff must be able to communicate in English. The issue of language has never been a problem or an obstacle when promoting Malaysia as a tourist destination or conducting businesses. However, the ability to communicate in other languages, besides Bahasa Melayu and English, would be considered a bonus rather than a requirement. The competence statement

'Communicate in foreign language other than English' could be considered as a 'supportive' competence rather than essential for graduates to possess.

7.5 Results (Validation Survey)

To elicit further information on the preliminary results, the research project has solicited the initial panel of experts in the Validation survey. The main objective of this survey is to get their comments on the results from the stakeholders' survey. Questions in the Validation survey were primarily based on the rank order of 104 competence statements classified under four headings. The stakeholders' ratings of each competence statement were averaged to yield a mean level of importance. These values were categorised according to the following scale: Very important or essential – 4.50 and above, Important – 3.50-4.49, Moderately important, 2.50 – 3.49, Not important, 2.49 and below (see Appendix XIX for the full list).

Thirteen (13) competence dimensions were deemed very important or essential for hotel management graduates. Greater importance was given to personal and communication skills. This does not mean that other competence areas are not considered important. This could mean recent graduates are considered lacking in these areas. Eighty-nine competence statements were considered Important. Of the 104 competence statements only two competences have been considered moderately important (mean score of below 3.50). These two competence statements were 'Assist in menu planning and recipes development' and Communicate in foreign language

(other than English). The validation survey has enormous consistency with the stakeholders' survey findings. The experts believe that this research project will definitely make a positive contribution towards the debate of the programme's effectiveness.

The information provided by the interview has been used as a basis for identifying some of the main influences in curriculum development planning. Nevertheless, ranges of features were presented, and most of them were congruent with the results of the stakeholders' survey. It was obvious from the interview sessions that experts believe that hotel management programme should not place greater emphasis in just one or two areas. All experts believe that an effective hotel management programme must encompasses the whole spectrum of management functions and should have a balance of people, personal, technical or operation, management skills in the programme of study. Hotel schools are expected to have a programme of study that is able to develop students with the relevant competences required. However, the experts believe that graduates should possess what might be described as 'generic', particularly personal and communication, competences which can be complemented by other functional management competences reflecting specific industry and cultural demands.

The study has identified one hundred and four competences, which produced twenty-five dimensions of managerial competences. Exclusions, additions and priority weighting to the managerial competences according to the organisation

contextual factors may be useful. It should be remembered that local contexts

produce differences in emphasis or urgency of competences utilised rather

than altering the managerial competences *per se*.

Speaking of the potential candidates for employment at managerial position, the

industry is looking at those who possess the relevant personal skills over

academic. All the relevant competences are seen as having good prospect to

be successful in their career. Statements below indicate the experts concerns.

> *Candidates should be able to communicate well both oral and written.*

> *Candidates should possess the right and positive attitude of the industry.*

> *... innovative and thinking skill.*

> *Candidates that demonstrate the essential personal skills are in better*
>
> *position.*

Most of the experts interviewed were of the opinion that hotel schools in Malaysia

are responding to the forces created by the environment but with some

reservations. The overall view seems to indicate that whether hotel schools are

doing 'the right thing at the right time' is open for further debate. Statements like

> *'there are still a lot to be done',*

> *'whether they are responding effectively or not is debatable',*

'... a little slow in responding to changes'

were frequently mentioned to describe the situation. From the observation, it was clear that the experts believe that hotel schools are responding to the changes. However, whether they are 'doing the right thing' or 'doing things right' is debatable. Hotel schools should respond to the issues that have most impact towards the credibility of the programme. The perception of the experts can be summed up as follows:

> *... an effective hotel management programme should have a balance of all relevant competence areas namely managing people (including self), conceptual, operation, information and computer technology, technical (accounting, finance, marketing etc.)' and the business environment.*

The initiative to better serve the society needs to have a better understanding of the nature of these competences. In order to realise this, we need both systematic experimentation and systematic evaluation of the results of the study. If curriculum planners are serious about the issues surrounding the programme of studies, a shift of focus is called for. The concept of competence and content of an educational experience and how they are delivered should be the main concern of educators who are responsible in curriculum development. This could be achieved through the attitude of continuous learning and improvement.

The concept of continuous improvement through learning needs to be developed in every student. However, before this can happen, hotel schools themselves must be a learning organisation. Continuous improvement or life-long learning needs individuals who are willing to learn to improve things. In this respect, all experts agree that a learning individual and organisation are the central concern of organisation in this era of turbulent economy and accelerated technological change. Experts commented that

Education institutions should produce graduates who are capable of learning throughout his or her life.

...the attitude to learning is the most vital attitude in today's business environment

Organisations that possess knowledge and learning capabilities and respond accordingly will have the advantage over others.

Educational institutions themselves must be a learning organisation...

The above statements had strengthened the concept of competence whereby it is important to determine the effectiveness and relevancy of an educational programme. From the analysis of the data gathered during the validation survey, the following conclusions were drawn. There was an enormous consistency between the experts and the stakeholders' expectations. Beyond

this concept the experts believe that the notions of learning and listening to your stakeholders are the crux to the issue of programme's effectiveness and relevancy. Learning capabilities will result in improvement. New competences are needed to establish new perspectives to handle and manage new problems.

7.6   Summary

This chapter presents the results of the surveys. The unprecedented growth of the hotel industry has created great demand for competent managers. This, in turn, has created a challenge for hotel management education providers. As it was mentioned, the purpose of this study is to identify the stakeholders' expectations and to make recommendations concerning future development of degree-level hotel management education in Malaysia. In this chapter, the data is analysed in order to identify the expectations of those various key stakeholders towards the initial ten (10) functional areas and one hundred and four (104) competence statements based on the experts' verification. To reduce the 104 competence statements to a smaller number, factor analysis technique was employed on the 104 items. The result has identified 25 common factors. However, it should be remembered that the findings presented in this chapter should be regarded as indicative rather than definitive.

Stakeholders have various opinions regarding the degree of importance on those competences. It is the responsibility of educational institutions to address these differences. Educational institutions must have the capability of managing this diversity. The statistical analyses and results have shown that even though there are differences in the stakeholders' expectations, the central themes of the hotel management education are obvious. Communication, personal skill, human element, customer orientation, information and technology, management functional competences are

considered the central focus of hotel management education. However, most differences in expectations occur between students and the other two groups; industry professionals and educators.

It is hoped that the results from this analysis will act as a general guideline and assist in the formulation of a conceptual curriculum planning model that reflects the keys stakeholders' expectations and the environment hotel schools exist today . This is the intention of chapter 8.

CHAPTER 8

TOWARDS A STAKEHOLDER MODEL IN CURRICULUM PLANNING

8.1 Introduction

In the Introduction chapter, it is highlighted that the unprecedented development of the hospitality industry has generated exceptional demand for hospitality services. It was also stressed (in Chapter 2) that the survival and prosperity of the industry depend largely on the workforce. This will depend largely on Malaysia's ability to provide a more comprehensive and effective human resource development programme, including hospitality education. However, as mentioned in Chapters 3 and 5, efforts taken to improve the effectiveness of hotel management programmes were mainly concentrated in the West. Consequently, hotel management schools are striving to strengthen and develop their hospitality (hotel) curricula. However, these programmes are based on different structure and educational systems. It has been mentioned earlier that implementing existing models of hotel management education from the developed nations can be costly in terms of ineffectiveness of the curriculum. We cannot just assume that sophisticated business, technological systems and cultural context are in place in the developing world.

They differ greatly in the context within which they are delivered and learned. Differences (highlighted in Chapter 5) in the duration, structure, learning styles, and existing attitudes about the industry and job roles may also seriously affect the effectiveness of the approach developed in the West. The concepts of relevance and effectiveness have been in the forefront in all educational discourses and initiatives. Therefore, hotel management programmes designed for developing nations will have to be modified to adapt to the unique characteristics of a particular national settings.

As stated in Chapter 2, education holds the key to Malaysian's growth and competitiveness. As stated earlier (Chapter 4), in today's business environment, organisation's competitive advantage depends greatly on the development of competences of their managers and future managers. According to Hamel and Prahalad (1994, p.203) "...*competition between firms is as much a race for competence mastery as it is for market position and power*". Dangers await a company that cannot conceive of itself and its competitors in competence term. In this context, hotel management schools have to make a quantum leap to increase managerial competence formation in the country and make education more responsive and relevant to the economy and the industry needs. The idea of linking education and the needs of the economy is said to resemble the 'pragmatism' (Dewey, 1916) or 'rightist' perspective (Hickox, 1995). Hence, the purpose of this research project is to evaluate and investigate the views of key stakeholders and to

make recommendations concerning future development of degree-level hotel management education in Malaysia.

In Chapter 4, the study has described the benefit of stakeholder approach in order to facilitate the identification of managerial competences. Freeman's work (1984) has provided a solid foundation for this present research project. This is in line with what Ticehurst and Veal (1999, p. 4) have posited. They argue that a research carried out involving stakeholders can provide a vital piece of information.

From the discussion (in Chapter 4), a stakeholder approach can provide the most appropriate organising principle — an inventory of key stakeholders expectations and issues (Clarkson, 1995). These dimensions can serve as a guideline or as a stimuli for educators to consider a wider implication on curriculum planning that has been their normal practice. The definition of stakeholders (internal and external) that is proposed here is straightforward, that is, those individuals or groups who can affect or are affected by the organisation's purpose and decisions. As to the relative importance of the various stakeholders, and its relative influence, it is difficult to assign an order of priority, as far as the study is concerned.

Accordingly, this chapter hopes to put together the empirical findings (stakeholders' expectations), as well as a discussion of the proposed curriculum planning model for Malaysian hotel management education. .

Before one begins to discuss the worth of a particular teaching style and whether it is relevant to the situation in Malaysia, it is necessary to establish what it is that needs to be taught and learned in the first place. As such, the chapter begins with a discussion of managing key stakeholders and their expectations of hotel management programme. It is followed by a discussion of the various issues (teaching, learning and assessment) related to competence development.

8.2 Managing Key Stakeholders in Malaysian Hotel Management Education

Needless to say, the complex business environment requires educational institutions to have a new way of thinking about managing key stakeholders and the curriculum.

> It is more realistic to accept complexity as a basic feature of modern reality and fine tune our "antennae" to interpret this complexity so that it is more manageable (Morgan, 1988, p.126)

For educational institutes to position the programme's effectiveness in the constantly changing environment, educational institutions are encouraged to adopt Hickman and Silva's (1987) the 'complex management' philosophy. In essence, the 'complex management' (as described in Chapter 1) allows an organisation to encourage individuals and groups (stakeholders) to shoulder the responsibility for developing the desired workforce for the industry and the nation. The notion of 'partnership in education' could well represent the main

objective of the 'complex management'. By recognising and addressing the diverse stakeholders' expectations, educational institutions are able to plan initiatives that bind those expectations together and create new relationships among stakeholders as attitudes and involvement are transformed. This relationship or network could foster a new sense of understanding that recognise the importance of mutual dependence collaboration and accountability.

In Chapter 4, it was highlighted that educational institutions are unable to function in a vacuum. Thus, higher education institutions need to give constant consideration to their relationships with the environment. In the same vein, management process in higher education institution, like in any organisations, exists within the context of organisational setting. Apparently, the management process in educational institutions must not be regarded as somehow special or unique and different from other organisations. They need viable information from the stakeholders to make decisions and continue to better serve the industry and society.

To some, the stakeholder concept should be understood as a philosophical concept (Jacobs, 1997). Jacobs stresses that the philosophical concept represents the 'general idea of social inclusion' economy where every citizen benefits and to which every citizen contributes. The idea that organisations have stakeholders has been accepted widely by both academic and industry professionals. However, it should be remembered that the management has

an important function to appraise the legitimacy of each expectation; for example, the issue of labour shortage faced by the industry associated in those expectations does not provide any assistance in developing effective educational experiences (Boyatzis *et al*, 1995).

At the same time, these stakeholders' expectations, interests and needs are different. In managing the conflicting claims of multiple stakeholders, organisations are encouraged to accept the notion of 'fair contract' (Freeman and Evan, 1990) or 'tolerance zone' (Doyle, 1994). Freeman and Evan (*ibid*) stress that the interests of all stakeholders are at least taken into consideration. To Doyle (*ibid*), the notion of 'tolerance zone' attempts to match the minimum expectations of all key stakeholders. No one stakeholder is more important than the other. According to Burgoyne (1994), however, there is nothing wrong with acknowledging that any research initiative is developed from a certain point of view and to serve certain interests. This is consistent with Freeman (1984) who argued that different issues have different set of stakeholders.

However, before any attempt is made to elicit information from the stakeholders, it is necessary to distinguish between a stakeholder issue and society issue because educational institutions manage relationships with their key stakeholders rather than the society as a whole (Clarkson, 1995). The reason for this distinction is that curriculum planning issues are not necessarily of immediate concern of the society at large. As mentioned earlier (Chapter 4) a stakeholder approach or model does not imply that all

stakeholders should be equally involved in all processes of decision making (Donaldson and Preston, 1995).

Weaknesses identified in the sampling approach of the various studies identified in Chapter 5 have influenced the research project to adopt the stakeholder approach. For example in Chapter 5, various researches into the effectiveness of hotel management programmes accepts the fact that the industry is the most important customer. To them the sole purpose of hospitality education is to provide a quality work force for the industry. This approach seems to resemble the *product model (input-output model)* or *service model* (Anderson, 1992, Donaldson and Preston, 1995, Reavill, 1997). The supposition of the *product* model is that education is a process which produces a product which follows a production analogy (Reavill, 1997). The idea behind this model is that students are inputs and the transformation process (education) is performed on them, and the products, which are called graduates, are the outputs. Essentially, the buyer or purchaser of this product (graduate) is the employer.

An alternative model trails a service industry analogy. Since many believe that education is a service industry, students are identified as the customers since they can purchase education (regardless who pay their bill) to transform themselves to graduate status. Some educationalists (for example Anderson, 1995, Hill, 1995, Madu and Kuie, 1993) believe that the concept of Total Quality Management (TQM) model can facilitate generalizing service quality

dimensions for the education sector. According to the tenets of TQM, the only meaningful definition of quality is the customers' (internal or external) perceptions of quality (customer-centred). To adopt this concept would require radical changes to organizational structures and attitudes which sometimes lead to confusion. For example, students are in one sense raw materials which will become final products, yet in another sense they are customers themselves. The extent of variability in these 'raw materials' is uncommon in manufacturing or service organisation, generally. The basic notion of these models is that education, just like any other business entity, has customers (customer-centred).

Traditionally, the measurement of business success has been limited to the satisfaction of only one stakeholder, the shareholder or customer. In educational setting, the user of the service is the student, who is identified as the customer. The philosophy behind these two models has demonstrated that the pursuit of this single measure is self-defeating (Freeman, 1984, Reavill, 1998). The weaknesses of these two models identified above suggest that a more comprehensive model is needed. Subsequently, this suggests that a more comprehensive model might provide a holistic picture of the education process. As it was mentioned earlier, stakeholders model can promote an appropriate guiding principle in managing the complexity of curriculum planning. This approach is necessary to preserve or promote the continuous participation of each primary group and to create value to all its primary stakeholders, without favouring one group at the expense of others.

As mentioned earlier, Boyatzis *et al* (1995) stress that the successful planning efforts in higher education institutions are likely to happen when there is a close alignment between the expectations of key stakeholders. Any planning that reflects this alignment of expectations will assist an institution in developing a relevant and effective educational programme.

Nevertheless, knowing and understanding stakeholders' expectations are important to any organisations. In most situations, educational institutions and their stakeholders will never reach consensus on what it means to have 'an effective and relevant programme of study. Nevertheless, Hummel (1998) asserts that

> *Stakeholders are entitled to have their interests and rights acknowledged. It is the role of the management to balance all the rights and interest involved, while at the same time safeguarding the objectives of the firm.*

In this study, a panel of experts had verified six key stakeholders who can affect and be affected in the development of Malaysian hotel management education. They include:

1. Industry professionals,

> The curriculum for any educational programme should be relevant to the profession for which it is being aimed at. To a certain extent, the industry is considered the major customer to any educational institution.

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2. Educators of institutes of higher education (offering degree-level hotel management education),

> The educators are responsible to prepare graduates with the competences that are valuable throughout the graduates' career. They are responsible to design and plan the curriculum.

3. Students of hotel management programme (degree-level),

> Students want and need the knowledge and skills that will enable them to progress in their career. They have to acquire both the necessary knowledge to understand simple and complex situation and the skills to perform effectively in their career.

4. Accreditation Board (from the Ministry of education), and

5. Funding council (Ministry of Finance),

> These agencies represent the Government. They establish policies and rules, which work together or against the programme's objectives.

6. Top management of institutes of higher education offering hotel management education at degree-level.

> Top management is included in the list because they can influence the direction of Malaysian hotel management education. They establish and control internal policies and rules.

These key (or primary) stakeholders can be further divided into two main groups namely:

1. *External stakeholders*

Those outside educational institutions but have significant influence and can intervene on the structure and operation of the programme namely those policy makers from the Ministry and its agencies and the industry (key stakeholders). The Government is responsible for the functioning and funding of the whole education system. The industry's development and prosperity depend heavily on the quality of graduates produced by the system. The industry wants individuals with the relevancy knowledge and competence to handle the business. As such, the curriculum for any educational programme should be relevant to the vocation for which it is being aimed at. The industry has recognized the importance of higher education to productivity and competitiveness; that is, education no longer benefits only the individual. In today's environment, industry professionals see their relationship to the educational system as an economic one. Even though the industry does not have the direct access to influence the structure of the education system, the inputs and grievances from the industry can have a tremendous impact on the system.

2. *Internal stakeholders*

Those from within the educational institution which include students, educators and senior management. These are the key stakeholders who are responsible for students' learning experiences. Students as recipients of hotel management education, have to be acknowledged of their contribution

towards the successfulness of the process. In the same context, students want courses that provide the means to progress. They have to acquire the knowledge and competences to perform the task and be able to handle any unfamiliar situation. At the same time, they are also responsible for their own learning experience. In this case, they have every right to expect educational institutions to provide a range of opportunities. On the other hand, educators are obligated to design a curriculum that stresses the total development and potential of students towards becoming capable managers, as well as responsible individuals. They must not be contented with the school's past and current achievements. The objective here is to produce competences in our society and at the same time assuring society that personal significance can still be possible.

To sustain the nation's economic growth, a cohort of competent workforce is needed. The study has adopted the competence model as a developmental strategy towards an effective hotel management education in Malaysia. Competence approach should be seen as a mechanism that realigns higher education and labour market. Competence approach should not be viewed as two potentially conflicting goals of higher education — maintenance of high academic standards and meeting economy and industry needs. In today's economic situation it is no longer sufficient for graduates to have knowledge of an academic subject or discipline. Today's graduates are expected to acquire those competences, which will enhance their employability. As such,

higher education must be personally relevant to the individual and socially relevant to the economy and society.

8.3   Stakeholders' Expectations: Managerial competences

As mentioned earlier, no single research of this nature has been carried out in Malaysia. In this case, the methodology is the keystone of this research project. All the methodologies are thus a mixture of virtues and weaknesses and are appropriate only to a limited range of the research concerns. By comparison with some other forms of research described in Chapter 5, none of them can be applied to this present research project. As such, the methodology employed must be carefully selected to fit the exact purpose of the research.   It was, therefore, decided that this research should have three separate surveys, each of which will have a contributory factor towards the next. The three surveys were Experts survey, Stakeholders survey and Experts Validation survey.

The panel of experts had verified one hundred and four competence statements that were considered important (or very important) for hotel management graduates to possess. Consequently, the results from the stakeholders' survey revealed that the one hundred and four (104) competence statements (after applying the criteria set forth in the factor analysis) were represented by twenty-five (25) factors or dimensions. However, of the twenty-five (25) factors thirteen (13) factors (factor 13 to factor 25) had a single loading of 0.40 - 0.81, and were presumably error

factors. Nevertheless, since these error factors had some major implications for the study they were included for further consideration. Thirteen (13) underlying competences (single loading factors) revealed other personal qualities and responsibilities that are considered important such as *Responsive, Cultural awareness, Sympathetic, Creativity, Proactive, Sensitive, Broad picture, Attentive Collective, Intuitive, Decision Making and Perseverance.*

Eighty-nine (89) items accounted for 73.2 per cent of the total variance represented by these factors. These eighty-nine (89) items (competence statements) were then further analysed to determine the differences among the key stakeholders. This identification portrayed the expectations of the key stakeholders of hotel management graduates, which definitely poses serious implications for curriculum planning and development.

The results indicated that the key stakeholders have different perceptions on the degree of importance on most of the eighty-nine (89) competence statements. Obviously, most of the differences were detected between students and educators and industry professionals. Differences between educators and students and industry professionals were also detected, but to a lesser extent. Clearly, the results indicate that students show a greater reluctance to rate some competences as 'very important' than the other two groups. The reason could be that higher education is a transition stage which many students enter with no clearly formulated ideas about the industry,

programme or personal ideals. This is the reason why Pavesic *(op cit)* has

questioned about the validity of student as customer. Nevertheless, we should

not renounce them as an important group in the system.

The results from the factor analysis indicated that students (mean= 4.28)

attached factor 1, that is, 'Managing self and communication' (alpha .90) to

a lesser degree of importance than did educators (mean= 4.73) and industry

(mean= 4.72). Students did not seem to perceive this area of competence as

a ***very important*** dimension in managerial work as compared to educators

and industry professionals. This conflicting view needs to be rectified.

Communication is an essential element in today's business environment (be it

within organization for better management or with stakeholders). For

hospitality managers who have learnt to be receptive and responsive, effective

communication may help to improve organizational efficiency within their

organizations (Olsen, 1995). The communication competence statements

within the dimension focus on the ability of an individual to communicate

effectively (in writing or verbal) to all levels. As such, the choice and

management of words, sentences contribute to the readability of the text.

Of equal importance is that while the medium of written report is the printed

page, the medium of oral or verbal report or presentation is the speaker.

Therefore, delivery becomes of critical importance. Posture, gesture, facial

expression, general appearance and so forth are bound to affect the attitude

of the audience. As such, effective communication is an integral element of the hospitality manager's skills. At the same time, the quality of listening is vital to the process of communication. However, it is acknowledged that listening is one of the most effective form of communication, yet it is also the most neglected and least understood (Kanter, 1990). Strategies have to be developed to meet this need. Current programmes should make it mandatory that these skills be inculcated through practical application and it should provide an excellent example of how other skills in the area can be incorporated into classroom learning environment. Hotel management curricula must prepare students to enter a professional workforce that places high value on communication skills. Functional, technical and other competences are extremely important in particular context, but underpinning them are some basic abilities in managing self and communication which is crucial to effective performance.

However, industry professionals attached a lesser degree of importance to Factor 2 'Managing business performance' (alpha .88) than did students and educators. Interestingly, no significant differences were detected in all of the statements attached to 'Managing business performance' except one (Assist in developing selling prices based on operation cost, expected profit and competitors). Nevertheless, Peter (1985) has argued that competences of the organization are strongly related to the best performance.

All key stakeholders perceived Factor 3 'Managing operation' as an important

dimension in hotel management education. All three groups have the same

perception on Factor 4 'Managing purchase & supply'. No significant

differences were detected. As stated earlier, the factor analysis identified

'managing purchase and supply' as the underlying competences representing

all competence statements initially categorised under 'Managing purchase

and supply' Nevertheless, students perceived this dimension as more

important than did educators and industry professionals because this is

basically the technical 'know-how' competences, which students feel that

they should acquire. No significance differences were detected in this

dimension.

Factor 5 'Managing information' (alpha .86) is perceived to be an important

area to all groups. Significant difference at $p < .05$ level was detected on one

statement 'Possess information management mindset'. Industry

professionals placed a greater degree of importance on this area than did

the educators and students. Overall, managing information is considered

important as it is the basis for achieving success in a volatile hospitality or

tourism industry.

Factor 6 'People skills' relates closely to the concept of 'interpersonal skills'.

The dimension attributed to people skills is related to the development of a

relationship and includes, among others, mutual trust and sensitivity to the

needs of others. It is important when applied to any service industries where

constant interaction with the public takes place. Result reveals that significant difference was detected between educators and students at $p<$ .05 level on one statement 'manage employee grievances effectively'. Students attached a lesser degree of importance than did the educators and industry professionals. This reflects the notion that students are more concerned with their personal achievement and issue (self-centred) rather than thinking about others. This is the responsibility of the educational institution to teach students about the importance of caring about others and understanding about the forces that make for dissatisfaction and tension in their subordinates so that they may work in an environment that will be as free as possible from these conditions.

For Factor 7 'Business environment' (alpha .76) all groups perceived that this is important for graduates to acquire. Organisations have to align themselves with today's business environment in order to continue to play their role in the economy and society. A close relationship with suppliers, professional organizations, potential partners and so forth yields several benefits. For example, suppliers can suggest ideas for new product development or execute rapid changes needed in product or service. Relationships are particularly useful to reduce or buffer the inevitable disruptions and uncertainties that characterize today's business environment.

Two of the three items (competence statements) which loaded on Factor 8 (Strategic Alliance) ' Build bridges and business alliance' and ' Act with good

understanding of how different needs or department of the organisation and its environment fit together' were perceived differently in terms of their degree of importance) among the key stakeholders. However, significant differences were detected at $p< .01$ level between the educators and students and industry professionals.

With regards to Factor 9 'Managing planning', the industry professionals and educators perceived that graduates should be able to plan either personal or business activities. However, students attached a lesser degree of importance to this area than did educators and industry. The industry feels that planning is important because it not only establishes where you want to go, but how you are going to get there. As such, students must realize that gaining such competence through education and training will be more valuable to their future employer. Formal planning can yield a number of distinct benefits if sound procedures are used to guide the planning process. This will also encourage students to think systematically ahead of time.

For Factor 10 (Meet Standards), the stakeholders viewed that graduates should be able to perform in the work place. No organisation with continuous pressure of change can survive without clearly spelled-out standards (work or behaviour) (Prahalad, 1997). To achieve organizational goals, meeting the standards set forth is important. This is unlikely to be achieved if graduates do not understand or are not able to meet the organizational or

industry's standards. Nevertheless, a significant difference was detected at $p < .05$ level between educators and industry professionals.

The remaining two factors, which have more than one loading, are Factor 11 'Change agent' and Factor 12 'Marketing skills'. The pace of change within and outside organizations has been unrelenting. Vail (1990) has introduced the analogy of continuous white water as a picture of today's managerial tasks. As such, today's graduate must be able to act as an agent of change. In today's competitive business environment, managers at all levels should possess the 'marketing mentality' in order to sustain growth and competitiveness (Ansoff, 1990).

No significant differences were detected among these three groups. All groups perceived factor 11 and 12 as important areas of study in hotel management education. With regards to the single loading factors (underlying competences), there were significant differences detected among the groups in five factors – Factor 13 (Sensitive), Factor 14 (Perseverance), Factor 15 (Proactive), Factor 18 (Decision making) and Factor 20 (Process). Although the remaining 7 dimensions (factors) were not significantly discriminated by the three groups, some basic observation can be made. Firstly, educators seemed to place a greater degree of importance on almost all the single loaded dimensions which clearly indicated that personal qualities are very important besides other skills and competences in order to progress through their careers.

A further aspect, which merits consideration in relation to this research project in the expectations of key stakeholders, can be seen in Table 8.1. This provides a list of managerial competences from the point of their proximity, in terms of the ranking of top thirteen (13) competences rated by the stakeholders as very important/ essential, between the stakeholders overall ranking and individual stakeholder.

A closer look at the lists results in something interesting. Educators have a greater expectation of graduates to possess 'High spiritual value' among other competences. Educators believe that what is best for students in terms of their present and future educational provision is at heart a moral issue. In the East, it is hardly possible to formulate any effective educational programme in the absence of rational moral reflection upon the objective of human development to which it is directed. To the educators, it is a crucial component of managerial competence to recognize and exhibit certain moral values such as a respect for persons or guests and the system.

Table 8.1: **Proximity of Ranking of Managerial Competences between the Stakeholders (Educators)[1]**

Rank	Competence	Mean	Stakeholders[2]
1	Demonstrate professional appearance and poise.	4.85	4.70* (1)
2	Ability to perform under pressure.	4.79	4.56* (9)
3	Ability to make clear oral presentation of facts or ideas both to small groups or large audience.	4.74	4.65* (4)
4	Good listener, as well as, speaker.	4.72	4.69* (2)
4	Develop teamwork and individuals to enhance performance.	4.72	4.66* (3)
4	High spiritual value	4.72	4.40* (18)
5	Possess effective writing skills.	4.70	4.60* (8)
5	Communicate difficult and complex ideas and problems in a simple manner that aids understanding.	4.70	4.58* (9)
5	Present oneself in an assured and confident manner when faced with a challenge.	4.70	4.56* (10)
6	Develop and use networks to achieve the desired organisation's goals and objectives.	4.68	4.55* (12)
7	Possess a proactive mind.	4.64	4.52* (13)
8	Contribute in developing methods for evaluating customer satisfaction regarding product and service mix.	4.57	4.63* (5)
8	Manage guest problem with understanding and sensitivity.	4.57	4.63* (5)
9	Examine customers' complaint record for future inquiry.	4.55	4.62* (7)
9	Develop corrective action for substandard services.	4.55	4.47* (15)

con't...

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[1] Based on Stakeholders' ranking essential or very important competences
[2] (mean/ranking)

Table 8.1: Ranking of Managerial Competences by the Stakeholders (Industry)[1]

Rank	Competence	Mean	Stakeholders[2]
1	Develop teamwork and individuals to enhance performance.	4.88	4.66* (3)
2	Ability to make clear oral presentation of facts or ideas both to small groups or large audience.	4.87	4.65* (4)
3	Demonstrate professional appearance and poise.	4.86	4.70* (1)
3	Good listener, as well as, speaker.	4.86	4.69* (2)
3	Manage guest problem with understanding and sensitivity.	4.86	4.63* (5)
4	Contribute in developing methods for evaluating customer satisfaction regarding product and service mix.	4.85	4.63* (5)
5.	Examine customers' complaint record for future inquiry and improvement.	4.84	4.62* (7)
6	Possess effective writing skills.	4.81	4.60* (8)
7	Communicate difficult and complex ideas and problems in a simple manner that aids understanding.	4.70	4.58* (9)
8	Present oneself in an assured and confident manner when faced with a challenge.	4.75	4.56* (10)
9	Take a leading role and lead by example.	4.74	4.45* (16)
10	Possess a proactive mind.	4.68	4.52* (13)
11	Develop and use networks to achieve the desired organisation's goals and objectives.	4.65	4.55* (12)
11	Develop corrective action for substandard service.	4.65	4.47* (15)
12	Ability to perform under pressure.	4.62	4.56* (10)
12	Encourage creative thinking.	4.62	4.43* (17)

con't...

[1] Based on Stakeholders' ranking essential or very important competences

Table 8.1: Ranking of Managerial Competences by the Stakeholders (Students)[1]

Rank	Competence	Mean	Stakeholders[2]
1	Good listener, as well as, speaker.	4.43	4.69* (2)
2	Maintain accurate and appropriate record.	4.39	4.48 (14)
3	Demonstrate professional appearance and poise.	4.38	4.70* (1)
3	Contribute in developing methods for evaluating customer satisfaction regarding product and service mix.	4.38	4.63* (5)
3	Examine customers' complaint record for future inquiry and improvement.	4.38	4.62* (7)
3	Manage guest problem with understanding and sensitivity.	4.35	4.63* (5)
4	Develop and use networks to achieve the desired organisation's goals and objectives.	4.32	4.55* (12)
5	Develop teamwork and individuals to enhance performance.	4.30	4.66* (3)
5	Ability to perform under pressure.	4.30	4.56* (10)
5	Motivate personnel for effective performance.	4.30	4.44(16)
6	Ability to make clear oral presentation of facts or ideas both to small groups or large audience.	4.29	4.65* (4)
7	Communicate difficult and complex ideas and problems in a simple manner that aids understanding.	4.26	4.58* (9)
7	Analyse past and present business information for future marketing strategic plan	4.26	4.36 (19)
7	Sensitive to organisation's business culture.	4.26	4.36 (19)
7	Possess 'hands-on' experience with computer system	4.26	4.36 (19)
8	Possess effective writing skills.	4.25	4.60* (8)
8	Keep abreast with the social trends.	4.25	4.27 (25)

[1] Based on Stakeholders' ranking essential or very important competences
[2] *(mean/ranking)*
*$p<.05$

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On the other hand, industry professionals feel that it is essential for graduate to possess 'a creative mind' and be 'able to lead' which are not present in the essential list of educators and students. Most of the graduates will become supervisors or entry-level managers. Their responsibilities for direct supervision of workers places them in a critical position to prove their effectiveness as leaders.

The students, however, stress the importance of acquiring functional managerial competences (strategic marketing planning, using computer system) and to be able to fit in with their new working environment. However, industry professionals and educators view that it is essential for graduates, besides possessing 'a proactive mind', to be 'confident' and able to 'develop corrective action for substandard services'. Table 8.2 presents the essential or very important competence statements rated by key stakeholders. Basically, all the competence statements rated essential or very important by key stakeholders are present in each group. Table 8.3 highlights the competence statements that are not common or present across the students, industry professionals and educators' list of essential managerial competences.

8.4   Planning in Context

In today's business environment, managers are required to possess the necessary managerial competences in order to be effective. Occupational and personal competences should be made adaptable to the requirements

Table 8.2: Essential managerial competence statements

(Stakeholders)

Question No.	Competences	Stakeholders' mean (ranking)
84.	Demonstrate professional appearance and poise.	4.70 (1)
74.	Good listener, as well as, speaker.	4.69 (2)
86.	Develop teamwork and individuals to enhance performance.	4.66 (3)
70.	Ability to make clear oral presentation of facts or ideas both to small groups or large audience.	4.65 (4)
51	Contribute in developing methods for evaluating customer satisfaction regarding product and service mix.	4.63 (5.5)
55.	Manage guest problem with understanding and sensitivity	4.63 (5.5)
54.	Examine customers' complaint record for future inquiry and improvement.	4.62 (7)
75.	Possess effective writing skills.	4.60 (8)
71.	Communicate difficult and complex ideas and problems in a simple manner that aids understanding.	4.58 (9)
92.	Present oneself in an assured and confident manner when faced with a challenge.	4.56 (10.5)
78.	Ability to perform under pressure.	4.56 (10.5)
85.	Develop and use networks to achieve the desired organisation's goals and objectives.	4.55 (12)
90.	Possess a proactive mind.	4.52 (13)

Table 8.3: **Essential or top ranking managerial competences which are not common in all key stakeholders**

Students
  1. Analyse past and present business information for future strategic marketing plan.
  2. Sensitive to organisation's business culture
  3. Possess 'hands=on' experience with computer system
  4. Keep abreast with the social trends
Industry
  1. Take a leading role and lead by example
  2. Encourage creative mind
Educators
  1. High spiritual values.
Present in Educators and Industry Professionals
  1. Present oneself in an assured and confident manner when face with a challenge
  2. Possess a proactive mind

of the work demand and situation. In the same note, hotel management education programme must reflect real workplace requirements if the associated learning experience is to be beneficial to all parties concerned. The overall stakeholders' expectations indicate a strong emphasis on the traditional skills or 'soft-touch' competences. This includes areas such as personal and professionalism, interpersonal and communication. Similar pattern emerged from Baum's (1991) study. In his study, the industry seems to appreciate graduates who are 'well mannered, professional, relate positively to guests, and communicate effectively'.

At this point, it becomes clear that the complexity and the changing business environment requires an individual who is able to manage oneself and the

business. Regardless of their geographical location, managers must acquire these underlying managerial competences to be successful in their jobs. The results from this research project could provide the groundwork for redefinition of the curriculum of hotel management programmes in Malaysia.

Efforts to improve hotel management education must be continued infinitely in order to better serve all parties concerned. The need is growing enormously in this era of constantly changing business environment and accelerated technological change. The industry requires graduates to be equipped with the relevant competences following graduation to ensure organisation's competitiveness. Not only is there an expectation that graduates should be immediately effective but also that they should be able to assist the organisation to deal with changes.

Without a doubt, technology confers agility. In turn, agility itself requires a workforce with greater latitude to act, and therefore new managerial competences and a greater understanding of the organisation's direction. This struggle to leverage value out of the investments in people and technology has led to a focus learning. Learning incompetent or disability will deprive the competitive advantage of an organisation (Senge, 1990). In the same note, the attitude of continuous or life-long learning should be cultivated in every graduate. This is in line with the notion of the reflective practitioner (Schon, 1983). Building individual reflection into learning process is a new

approach to management education for many institutions (Gallo, 1996, Lashley, 1999).

Whether we agree or disagree, the future changing business environment requires graduates to be 'work-ready' following graduation to ensure the nation economic competitiveness in a global context. Not only is there an expectation that graduates should be immediately effective but also that they should be able to assist the organisation in dealing with the changing business environment.

Graduates are expected to possess the life-long learning ability in order to become effective members of learning organisations. Thus, work experience as part of the undergraduate experience can be seen as a precursor to the development of the managerial competences.

In all cases, internships or work placements or work experiences or practicum (whatever term is used) are integral part of hotel management programmes. Although guidelines and procedures for the work experience requirements vary among hotel management programmes, majority adhere to a skill-oriented format.

Generally, this work experience is expected to further student's professional growth. In these regards, work experience not only has an important role in the development of work readiness but also in the development of students as

lifelong learners, not just made aware of the mechanisms for it. At the same time, the work experience hopes to provide students with right setting to put actual practice to the things that they have learned in classroom and discover their professional strengths and weaknesses. However, the approach to work experience or industrial attachment also differs in some aspects. For examples, as mentioned in Chapter 3, paid internship or work placement in the U.S.A is normally not supervised or controlled by academic staff, compared to supervised work experience (SWE) or internship in the U.K. or continental Europe which is carried out under the supervision of hotel schools, where from Easter until the end of September, students undertake 26 or 30 weeks of paid employment in the industry.

Industrial training in the workplace is a fundamental component in German hotel schools. In Germany, the dual system is an important part of vocational education and training and has provided a strong foundation for hotel schools graduates to be 'work-ready' following graduation. As mentioned also in Chapter 3, hotel managers in Germany normally are the products of the education system that provides a strong base of craft education and training (dual system).

Programmes in the dual system are complemented by planned or structured training programme in the workplace. All contracts between the employer and the apprentice must conform to certain broad criteria laid down by the local Chamber of Commerce. For example, the respective employer pays the

salary of the trainee. The payment of trainees must, in accordance to the Vocational Training Act, be fitting and must be raised at least annually depending on the occupation and training progress.

Hotel management programmes in Malaysia also require students to undergo some form of industrial attachment. However, different approaches involve different expectations of work experience and different experience for students. For example, ITM requires 600 hours of industrial attachment yet it is not supervised or controlled by academic staff. Contrary to the conditions in the U.S.A and Europe, where students get some form of financial benefits, work experience in Malaysia is not paid. This industrial attachment is more of an exposure to the industry rather than a planned and structured industrial training. To a certain extent, students considered work experience as a form of 'free labour' rather than learning opportunities.

At the same time, there is also a range of different perceptions among the work experience providers (hotels) on the usefulness of work experience. So far, there is no attempt or initiative taken by hotel schools to identify strategies to increase work experience opportunities and to ensure that these opportunities offer a meaningful experience.

As mentioned earlier, there are several approaches to conduct work experience. The different approach to work experience is paralleled by a range of different perceptions about the efficiency and effectiveness of work

experience. The question of which approach could best provide the solution to the situation in Malaysia is immaterial. Different approach has different focus. Each approach mirrors the local requirements and the industry. Several stakeholders are involved in work experience and in order to highlight the importance there must be a clear link and clarification of how each group benefits in the short and long term. Internship or industrial training programmes provided by the industry also need to be examined to ensure that these programmes are not just jobs for casual or temporary labour but also provide students with opportunities for managerial competences development. In other words, educational institutions and industry should share the responsibility for competence development. At present, this reciprocal relationship is absent in Malaysia.

To this end, it becomes clear that what are the key stakeholders' expectations of hotel management graduates. They expect that graduates should or should be able to:

> *Have the motivation to continue learning even when they are out of college. They should have a well-rounded educational experience (understands technical and professional aspects of the job) that enables them to perform well in the work place. As an individual, they should be able to demonstrate and reflect a broad-based view and perception of issues and their long-term impact of the environment. Graduates are expected to understand the process of planning and organising activities and resources. They should be able to make*

systematic judgement based on relevant input or information. At the

same time, they should also be flexible and perseverance to

changing demands and pressures to achieve individual/personal and

organisation goals. Above all, they must be able to communicate or

interact well (oral and written) to both individuals and groups with

sensitivity.

8.4.1 Managerial Competence Development and its Implications for Curriculum Planning

Before one can develop an effective and relevant curriculum that takes into

account key stakeholders' expectations, there is a need to explore the

implication of the learning and teaching cultures to see how they impinge on

the competence development approach and its implications for the curriculum

itself.

No matter how complete or extensive the list of managerial competence

identified, it means nothing if an individual or organization is incompetent in

learning. Learning competence is characterized as the ability and willingness

to listen and learn (Prahalad and Hamel, 1990). This should be the central

characteristic of all competence initiatives and individual or organisation

transactions. It is recognised and emphasised that people and competence

are the determinant factors of organisational competitiveness (Edmondson

and Moingeon, 1996).

According to Senge (1990), the competitive advantage of an organisation, besides effective people management, lies in the organisation ability to learn. It is recognised that organisations learn because individuals learn (Argyris, 1992; Kanter 1990). In the world dictated by rapid change and uncertainty, the ability of organisations to learn and understand the environment and to respond accordingly is of a great concern.

In the same notion, Argyris (1992) introduced a model of learning which involved different levels in the organisation. Argryis (*ibid*) distinguished between 'single-loop learning' and 'double-loop learning'. The 'single-loop learning' involves detecting and rectifying error without addressing the underlying values. In contrast, the 'double-loop learning' acknowledges the underlying values and culture before error is corrected.

Applying this model to curriculum development, it may be argued that there is a tendency that the current practise in hotel curriculum planning in Malaysia would follow the single-loop learning. For example, when the industry voiced its concerns about today's graduates' capabilities, the initiative taken to improve the curriculum content is carried out without analysing the underlying issues which contributed to curriculum ineffectiveness and graduates' attitude. On the other hand, the 'double-loop learning' approach would serve to encourage educators to assess critically what particular underlying issues needed to be re-examined before any proposal on measures or changes are made. As such, Kelly (1986, p. 74)

stress that the role of competence in educational planning must be acknowledged in terms of their value and economic utility.

It is imperative for educational institutions and educators to re-examine the whole issue of teaching, learning and assessment in curriculum planning. In educational institution, the process of learning, teaching and assessment are central to the development of a programme or student (competent graduate). There is a need to see how Malaysian culture impinges on the learning and teaching style and how that in turn can have implications for the curriculum planning. It would be inappropriate, at this stage of the study, to suggest or recommend an appropriate pedagogical approach in developing the identified managerial competences. Nevertheless, the approach taken here is merely to address the issues related to competence development in a different cultural context. The development of the appropriate pedagogy strategies is beyond the scope of this study.

8.4.1.1 Teaching, Learning and Culture

Before one can plan such a curriculum which takes into consideration of the stakeholders' expectations (managerial competence), there is a need to explore the implications of Malaysian culture to see how they impinge on the teaching and learning styles. The relationship between learning and culture should also be well understood. People in different culture learn differently. Most people are 'culturally conditioned' (Hofstede, 1980). To Hofstede (ibid), this refers to the collective mental programming of the people in an

environment. This mental programming is different from that of other groups, regions or nations. He continues by saying that the dimensions of national culture are best understood by comparison with the dimensions of personality and individual's behaviour. Hence, culture should be seen as a collection of behaviour patterns, which has been learned and shared from previous generation. In two of the four dimensions of national culture identified by Hofstede, 'Power distance' and 'Collectivism', have great significant in this present study.

'Power-distance' dimension is related to how close or how distant subordinates feel from their superior. This dimension is particularly high in most Asian countries, especially the far-eastern region. In a high power-distance culture, subordinates are never in disagreement or reluctant to explicitly voice their disagreement with their superiors.

In addition, in high power-distance culture, individuals tend to value and respect hierarchy. Those who are junior either in age or position are not expected to contradict or disagree on any matters with their seniors or superiors. This situation is no different in a classroom environment where teachers are highly respected and disagreement or contradiction should be avoided (and majority teachers do expect students not to disagree). Apart from this, it is important to show good manners when communicating with superiors or teachers. Their authority is often unquestioned by their subordinates. Students expect teachers to initiate paths to follow and initiate

communication. Teachers or educators are highly respect and never publicly criticised.

Malaysian, regardless of ethnicity (Despite the fact that Malaysia is a multi-cultural nation, the environment of the hotel industry has its own 'de-culturised' character which is acceptable to all cultures), is taught from young to be polite and humble in their behaviour (Abdullah, 1996). On the other hand, superiors are expected to preserve and give face to subordinates by not embarrassing or humiliating them. In high power-distance culture, teachers manage the learning situation unilaterally. As such, there is little need, or no need, for interaction and discourse between teachers and students. Rote learning is fundamental to Malaysia education. Malaysian students accept as normal a transmission model of learning characterised by memory and repetition. Teachers in high power-distance culture tend to view students possessing the theory X assumptions that they are passive individuals and not particularly interested in learning. Normally, teachers take full charge of the classroom to ensure that they have covered the subject adequately.

Students are not expected to know more about a particular subject than the teachers. Teachers would feel embarrassed and threaten if students know more about the subject. In other words, the style and method of teaching in Malaysia do not promote active interaction between students and teachers. The objective on the part of the teachers is to achieve a high pass rate with

little creativity as possible. Consequently, the courage of students to attempt in exploring innovative responses is thwarted. As a result, students feel reluctant to speak, which in turn means a loss of verbal fluency. In contrast, the hospitality industry requires employees who are confident and able to communicate or interact with their customers effectively.

Another national culture dimension identified by Hofstede (*ibid*) is collectivism dimension. Collectivism is characterised by a tight social framework. Collectivistic societies tend to have a high concern for others, keep other people in mind and promote a sense of oneness or belonging with other people. The pursuit of self-interest can be interpreted as deviant behaviour. In high collectivism societies, students will only speak up in class when they are asked or called upon to do so. However, the collectivist attitude towards progression manifests itself in the classroom, by students not answering questions out-loud if posed to the class at large. To answer out-loud would mean that the individual was trying to show-off or put that individual above the rest of the class. A different scenario would be expected in a individualistic culture.

Malaysian students, in general, feel uncomfortable with the Western style 'open and interactive' form of teaching. However, students are more comfortable and willing to speak up in smaller groups with whom they are familiar. Another important element in learning environment is face saving. Apart from this, the traditional learning environment of teacher-centred is

acceptable even though this approach has been challenged for its effectiveness (Guthrie, 1990).

8.4.1.2 Learning Approaches

Learning should be directly relevant for the culture, interests and concerns of the learners, which will have direct impact on their lives and future roles as workers and citizens. The indigenous culture has direct impact on the learning behaviour. In the same notion, learning should occur best when arising out of application to real-life, problem and situation (Lauglo and Lillis, 1988). Lauglo and Lillis argued that the idea of linking education and economy should be viewed as a process to educate the masses so as to fuel the 'economic machine'.

As organisations operate in an environment that happens to be increasingly changing and complex, the ability to learn has been identified as a capability required by all organisations (Garvin, 1993). According to Chris Argyris (1996, p. 1),

> *Organisational learning is important because no managerial theory, no matter how comprehensive, is likely to cover the complexity of the context.... There will always be gaps and there will always be gap filling. Organisational learning is critical to detecting and filling the gaps.*

One approach to bring changes in behavioural and attitudinal about knowledge and competences (functional) is the experiential learning.

Experiential learning theory is claimed to provide the framework for integrative education (Kolb, 1984). Integrative learning focuses on learning from differences in content, point of view, and learning style by creating an environment where these differences can be observed positively (Argyis and Schon, 1978). In experiential learning, the context is more important to learning from experience when the nature of the job involves interpersonal or social interaction (Marsick and Watkins, 1990). The approach emphasizes the importance of congruence between competence and work demands. Managerial competence is not just a judgment about an individual alone, but about the effective match between individual knowledge and competence and work environment requirements. At the same time, the use of this approach in education programme actively engage learners in situations where they must act and observe the consequences of their actions.

This fundamental tends to fit in quite well with the cultural context of the country and nature of the hotel industry itself. Looking at the cultural dimension of Malaysian, one approach to learning would be the experiential learning approach. Experiential learning creates an environment, which requires students to be involved in some form of personally meaningful activity (Kolb, 1984). Experiential learning process normally takes place in small groups with a 'facilitator'. In this case, students are stimulated to react and reflect on the experience. Personal learning is also encouraged as long it is within a group context. However, the challenge associated in experiential

learning is the necessary change in teaching technique, which requires a lecturer to build in time and opportunity for students' reflection upon what have been learned and done. At the same time, subject matter and its delivery must be relevant and appropriate to the learners who are receiving them. This should foster a safe learning environment in which the students can practice and make mistakes without fear of reprimand or peer group humiliation. In experiential learning, everyone shares the same learning experience since learning takes place through discussion among students. In this sense, experiential learning allows students to apply prior knowledge of theory or concept while developing a sense of accomplishment or failure for the results attained (Walter and Marks, 1981). Most importantly, experiential learning promotes an open system and networking approach to the management and learning competence acquisition (Kolb *et al,* 1994).

This approach is seen to be suitable in high collectivism culture, Malaysia in particular, where students are more comfortable and willing to speak up in smaller groups. However, there is one problem associated with experiential learning. Educators (who are very comfortable with the traditional method) must change in their teaching style.

In the same notion, Bowen (1987) suggests that experiential learning can have greater impact on students' learning experience when it is accompanied by a maximum stimulation, takes place in a safe environment (for example, students will not be penalised for the mistakes done) and

ample time for students to grasp the fundamental issue underlying the whole process of learning. This could be in the form of seminars, business simulations, lectures, computer application and so forth.

Another approach that has been used to promote constructive learning is the Situational learning. According to Brown *et al* (1989), situational learning (work-based learning — as an integral part of most hotel management education) focuses the importance of realistic situations in which practise and learning can take place. However, Chung and Reigeluth (1992) stress that for situational learning to happen, students must possess some basic knowledge and competence, and that they must be responsible for their own learning experience.

Hotel management students will be able to put their knowledge and competence to practice in a stable but realistic environment. In work-based learning, it is assumed that all those parties — educators, students and industry— are beneficiaries. Students are expected to grasp the opportunity available and learn more about the structure of the business in an informal or formal learning environment. The facilities available at ITM (now a university) could provide the basic infrastructure needed to promote constructive learning. To the industry, this form of learning could also provide them with inexpensive form of labour, that is, students. This would require the hotel industry to acknowledge that they have an important role in the

development of future hotel managers. As such, there must be some

alternative methods of assessing students' competence.

8.4.1.3 Assessment

Assessment is an important part in any learning experience or process.

Nevertheless, the assessment strategies must be relevant to the teaching and

learning context. In high power-distance and collectivism society (like

Malaysia), the traditional method (examination at the end of a semester or

term) of assessment has been deep-rooted in the academic circles even

though this approach has been challenged. Students rely heavily on a

syllabus, past examination papers and lecturers to prepare for the

examinations.

The traditional method has been criticised for not allowing students to be

responsible for their own learning since they have little control over what and

how they are expected to do (Edwards and Knight, 1995, p. 13). Edwards

and Knight add that the assessment strategies must capture the validity and

relevance of the students learning experiences to the professional or

competence-based objectives of the programme of study. For example, in

the past, academic qualifications were reflections of the content and

structure of educational experiences and there was an implicit hope that at

the end of the education process, students would have become

occupationally competent, or educated to take their part in work. In today's

environment, higher vocational qualifications should reflect competence and be a mean of ensuring a more competent workforce (Mitchell, 1989).

Conventional methods of assessment (defined by end assessment process through examination at the end of each semester or term) are unable to capture or relate directly to the elements of competence. The task of defining the learning for students has often proved contentious. However, in Malaysia, the assessment strategy is confronted by a number of problems. Students approach to learning has a profound effect on the structure permanence of students' learning process. Firstly, there is the predilection of Malaysian students for qualifications with the perception that the obtaining of such certificates or degrees is more important than the understanding or content of what have been learned or studied.

In this part of the world, self-assessment is not seen as a better alternative since students easily assign themselves with successful completion of an aspect of the subject, knowing that they are below the prescribed standards. Similarly, peer group assessment could also see all of the students being given high grades by their fellow students so as to maintain the harmonic atmosphere of the group.

Outcomes measurement and assessment could be seen as a viable alternative to traditional assessment. This assessment could provide a systematic feedback necessary for continuous improvement. Such an

assessment procedure would enable the student to gain a better understanding of what is expected in a given working environment. The emphasis laid upon assessing the achievement of outcomes very much reinforces the importance of the work-based learning as opposed to the perceived over-theoretical approach of the present practices. The challenge now lies in addressing assessment strategy to the demand of the business environment. However, whatever assessment strategies are considered, they must be tempered with the understanding of the Malaysian culture.

Figure 8.1 shows an example of how the various competence dimensions can be assessed. Assessment methods need to be designed to enable students to demonstrate their learning achievement. These methods include oral presentation, reports, case studies, and so forth. This can be achieved by using a competence dimension matrix. This exercise would focus on eliciting the competence and relevant to each particular exercise. A multidisciplinary team of experts (industry experts could also be considered) should be employed to further identify the indicative 'skills' (behavioural or occupational). Once this exercise is completed, it can be refined by assigning that responsibility to individual content experts. For example, a faculty member in communication or human resource might work with a member of the project team to refine the indicator needed in some facet of presentation or communication skills. In order to reduce further the load of information placed on the educator or assessor during the process,

indicative anchored rating scales can be developed from information gathered in the previous exercises.

Figure 8.2 shows an excerpt from the matrix for Managing Self and Communication (dimension).

Figure 8.1:   Dimension/Competence Matrix

Name of Student: Specimen
Course :
Date   :
Lecturer/Assessor :

Exercise / Dimension	Report	Presentation	Exercise 1 or Assignments1	Exercise 2 or Assignment 2	Exams
Managing Self/Communication					
Business Performance					
Managing Operation					
Managing Information					
People Skills (interpersonal)					
Strategic Alliance					
Business Environment					
Planning					
Meet Standards					
Change Agent					
And so forth					

Rating Guidelines
See Figure 8.2

Figure 8.2:   Rating Guidelines for Managing Self and Communication Dimension

(Competence: Ability to make clear presentation of facts or ideas both to small groups or large audience)

Rating	Indicator
5	Coordinated and contributed highly to discussion Raised numerous and highly creative new ideas High eye contact with all others Positive body posture
4	Built on other's ideas Proposed some new creative ideas Moderately high level of eye contact Looked for clarification/understanding
3	Acceptable level of contribution Proposed one or two new ideas Followed the lead rather than leading Eye contact only with few
2	Side tracked discussion into irrelevant issues Always seeking confirmation from others Points made in a confusing manner Fond of interrupting others
1	Lack new ideas Unable to make any impact on other/group No eye contact Repeat others suggestions or ideas Mumbling speech

This scale will provide examples of appropriate behavioural or occupational skills (for each competence statement) at each point on the five-point scale. The percentile data for the tests or exercises could also be converted into similar five-point (or other measurement scales). This can assist the lecturer or assessor in the evaluation or assessment task. Subsequently, this will reduce the information placed on the lecturer during the process.

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This exercise is intended to reduce the subjectivity of ratings and to increase lecturer or assessor reliability further, which ultimately leading to improve predictive validity. This approach will guide the lecturer or assessor and by no means replaces the need for further discussion or/and evaluation exercise (for example the traditional final examination at the end of each semester).

8.5 Towards a Conceptual Curriculum Planning Model

The results from the analysis revealed several important issues that need to be given serious consideration by hospitality educators. The results (expectations of the stakeholders) are also considered as a vital source of educational objectives and curriculum planning and development. These are the issues that need to be dealt with and taken centre stage in any educational discourse or initiatives if educational institutions are to continue to function effectively for the industry, economy and society.

Educational institutions involve with the issue of learning process rather than the product per se. Richmond (1969, p. 1) stresses that educational institution has to deal with the

> *process of learning - bringing about ethical and intellectual changes in*
>
> *people, whereas industrial process - bringing about material changes*
>
> *in things.*

In the same respect, hotel schools need to ensure that they offer a well-balanced and relevant curriculum and should keep abreast with the latest development and emerging issues affecting the hotel business such as the

managerial competences required to confront the present robust business environment or technological advances in the industry.

The study believes that the competence (however defined) approach would provide the mechanism to capture the issues surrounding hotel management education. Hotel management education would benefit from employing this approach in order to ascertain the various competences and highlighting those that are crucial. At the same time, hotel management education needs to consider whether the current focus and practices they give to competences are relevant. However, before one is able to plan a curriculum that takes into account the various key stakeholders' expectations there is the need to examine the issues involved. This model argues that all key stakeholders with legitimate interests participating in the process do so to obtain benefits and that no prima facie priority of one set of interest and benefits over another.

Looking at these cultural scenarios, this triad (learning, teaching and assessment) should be redefined in terms of its relevancy to the local and cultural environment of the nation. To enmesh the whole issues discussed earlier, Figure 8.3 depicts the conceptual curriculum planning model. Basically, the model indicates that any curriculum inquiry initiative should be based on inputs from the stakeholders. The model focuses on process and assumes the aim of continual curriculum improvement and effectiveness.

Figure 8.3: Conceptual Model for Curriculum Planning

Inputs

Concept of Stakeholders in Education-
Key Stakeholders' Expectations of Hotel Management Graduates

Learning Environment

**Development of
Competences**

*Reflective Learning & Teaching and Assessment
Strategies*

Assessment ←→ **Learning & teaching**

Learning Environment

Competent Graduates
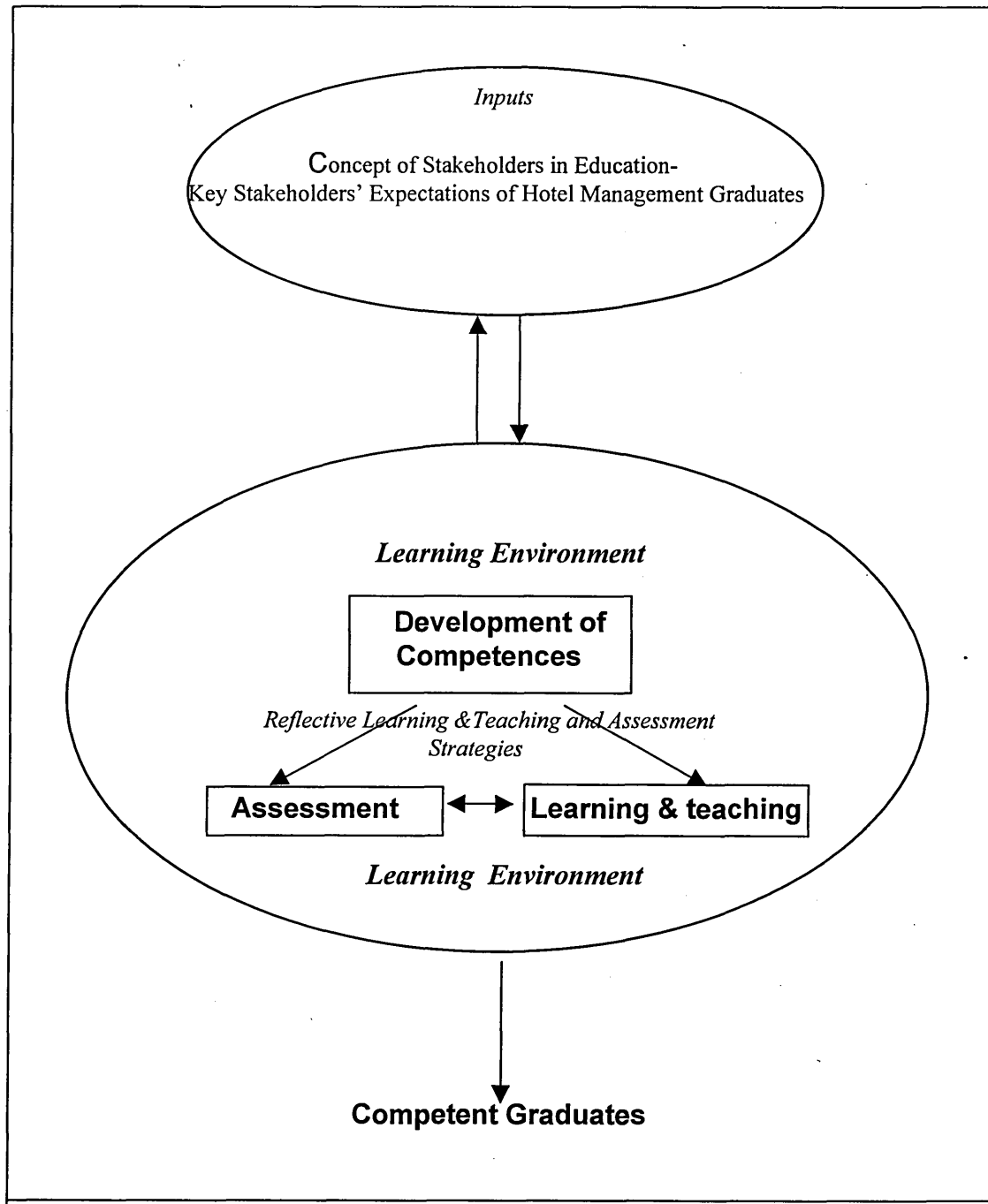
Hence, the arrows between the stakeholders and the issues involved run in both directions. These inputs provide the basis of deciding the educational aims and objectives, which include both the philosophical (for example, 'worthwhileness', structure of knowledge and so forth) and sociological (for example, social change, technological change and so forth). The oval encircling the triad (competence, learning & teaching and assessment) represents the learning environment and the entire context in which learning occurs. This environment allows students to apply prior competences while developing confidence and commitment to the exercise and experience a real sense of accomplishment. Figure 8.3 also attempts to highlight that curriculum effectiveness is a dynamic concept involving a continuous process for improvement and development at students, teachers and school levels. In this model, the link between competence and pedagogic issues to prevailing business environment and stakeholders expectations is seen as an approach of keeping abreast and assist educational institutes to determine the programme structure, objectives and direction of curriculum development (see Figure 8.4). As such, the ongoing evaluational elements of the courses and programmes are vital to maintaining effective and responsive hotel management education in Malaysia.

Figure 8.4: The Role of Competences Identification in Curriculum Development

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                    ┌──────────────────────────────────┐
                    │                                    │
                    │       Managerial Competences       │
                    │                                    │
                    └──────────────────────────────────┘
                       /              |              \
   ┌──────────────────┐   ┌──────────────────┐   ┌──────────────────┐
   │                  │   │                  │   │                  │
   │    Programme     │   │    Subjects or   │   │  Subject or Course│
   │    Structure     │   │     Courses      │   │     Contents     │
   │                  │   │                  │   │                  │
   └──────────────────┘   └──────────────────┘   └──────────────────┘
```
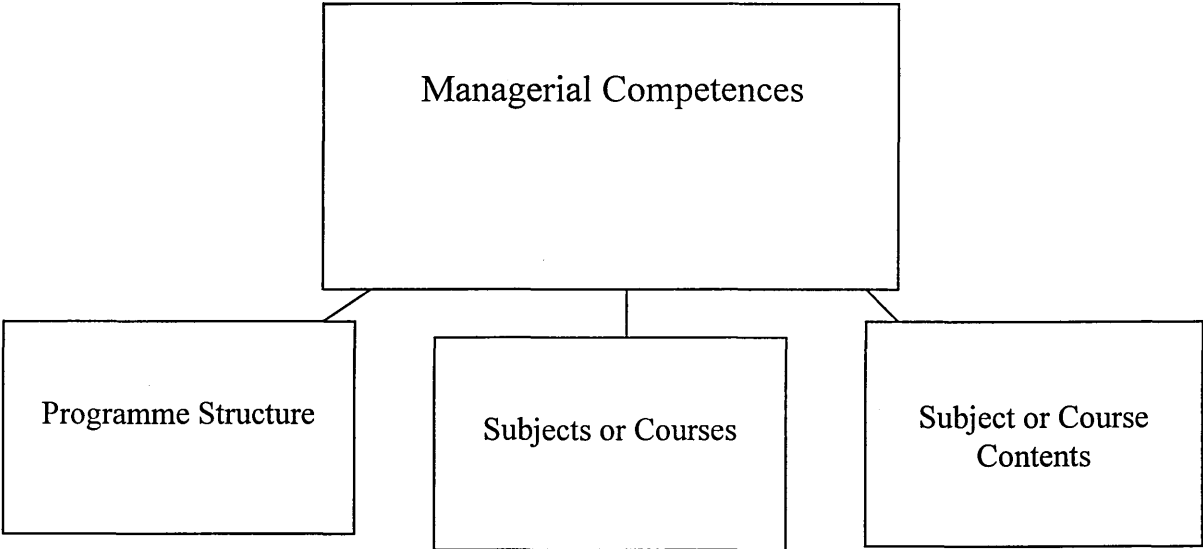
8.6   Summary

This chapter proposes a stakeholders model of curriculum planning. The stakeholder model puts forward as being applicable to hotel management education in Malaysia has had to take into account several variables (teaching and learning, and cultural context). The objective has been to combine a culturally relevant approach to learning with practical indications of implementation.

On going evaluation has to take place in order to ensure the relevancy and effectiveness of the programme. At the same time, the effectiveness of the programme must also be equated with a continuing process of critical self-examination that focuses on the institution's contribution to the student's intellectual and personal development. The model can be used as a stimulus to educators to consider a wider implication on curriculum planning that has been their normal practise. The design and implementation of the courses (subjects) will be structured around knowledge and managerial competences.

Whilst this model has not been put forward as the ultimate way for hotel management education to progress, it is suggested that this model is able to respond to the stakeholders' expectations at this time in Malaysia's hotel industry development. In many senses it is an over-simplified model, but together with the issues on which it is based, it does have some practical and theoretical implications. Putting this in mind, Chapter 9 presents the conclusions and implications for further research.

CHAPTER 9

CONCLUSIONS

9.1   Introduction

The objective of this chapter is to present a summary of the study and

conclude the research project. Accordingly, this chapter presents the

summary of the Malaysian hotel management education, the findings of this

research project; and finally, recommendations and implications for further

research.

9.2   Malaysian Hotel Management Education

Tourism's unprecedented growth has generated exceptional demand for

hospitality services. The development of the tourism industry since the 1980's

has been associated with the expansion in the size of its workforce and the

proliferation of programmes in hotel management or related to tourism. The

importance of the provision of hospitality education to the entire tourism and

economic system has been recognised by both the Government and the

industry. Nevertheless, issues such as the effectiveness or the relevancy of

the existing programmes to the needs of the key stakeholders are often

neglected and raised much concern.

Chapters 3 highlighted the development of hospitality education in the West

which have been influential in shaping the structure of Malaysian hotel

education, especially its curriculum. After a period of relatively unguided development, the research project is the first of its kind that has been conducted to study the expectation of hotel management education and its relevancy in Malaysia. No previous investigation into a specific educational programme for the hotel industry in Malaysia which takes into account the expectations of the stakeholders and sets this within a context of Malaysian culture. In the West, extensive research has been carried on how to improve hotel management education.

Historically, the development and the basis of higher education in Malaysia was based on the Western systems of higher education, particularly the British system of higher education. The curriculum, content and character of the education system of most programmes or courses were basically Western oriented. The curriculum was overtly espoused by both the western philosophy and continued after the country has achieved independence.

The recovery of the financial crisis in the region, the Malaysian tourism industry provides a stronger impact to Malaysia's economic growth. This in turn has provided exceptional opportunities for Malaysian hospitality management graduates. However, educational institutions have been criticised for not keeping up with the times and developing the competences required by industry (Razak, 1997). The industry has criticised hotel schools for not responding to the challenges posed by the unprecedented progress of the industry (External Academic Advisory Board, 1995).

Apart from this, hotel management programmes in Malaysia have been accused of becoming too much of an acquisition of theoretical knowledge rather than an orientation towards the wider and real world. However, it was not mentioned as to what are the specific requirements of the industry and what is expected of hotel management graduates. This necessitated investigations into what key stakeholders expect from hotel management graduates and the subsequent need for an effective hotel management education.

Before one begins to question the worth of a particular programme and whether it is appropriate or relevant, it is necessary to establish what it is that needs to be taught and learned in the first place. As such, this research project proposes that actual needs and expectations (based on Malaysia context) should be investigated and referred to in the curriculum planning effort. Thus in order to achieve this, four objectives were identified. They were as follows:-

1.   To identify the key stakeholders in Malaysian hotel management education;

2.   To identify the degree of importance of the various functional areas that are considered important in hotel management education (bachelor's degree- level);

3.   To identify the managerial competences expected of Malaysian

        Hotel management graduates and evaluate their importance; and

4.   To develop a conceptual curriculum planning model of hotel

        management education which takes account of the key stakeholders'

        expectations (in light of objectives 2 and 3) and the Malaysian context.

The study stresses that the first step in planning an effective and relevant educational programme is the description of managerial competences required for effective functioning in a position. In the same notion, the study believes that the descriptions of competence statements do not change radically (Yeung, 1996). It is just a matter of increasing or decreasing in the weighting of the competence. Competence identification and validation processes provide an objective framework for the design and planning of educational programme. They can also be objectively applied for the evaluation of existing education programmes.

A curriculum designed to meet the needs of the economy would be considered a useful curriculum and relevant to the needs of society. However, the transition students make from college into the workplace will be successful if competences learn and acquire in college closely parallel those competences needed for effective performance in the workplace. Changes and turbulence could well describe today's business environment. There is little question in today's business environment that major changes in competitiveness and globalisation affects the structure and content of hotel management education.

Every industry is in a state of constant change. Today's solution could be tomorrow's problem. In order to prevent this from happening, subjecting our present environment and curricula to a systematic review (and research) may assist us in setting and framing the future.

The study was descriptive in nature. Using both qualitative and quantitative methodology, the study was designed to determine the prevailing managerial competences that are considered to be relevant for entry-level management positions. The description of competences was developed from a survey of experts in the discipline.

This study utilises the stakeholder approach (discussed in Chapter 4) as a conceptual schema to identify the managerial competences expected of hotel management graduates. This approach (discussed in Chapter 6) could provide the input or source of much of the lack of agreement as to what is considered as a responsive and an effective hotel management curriculum.

It is imperative for educators and curriculum planners to have the characteristic feeling of 'ownership' among the stakeholders rather than 'elsewhereness' (Grundy and Henry, 1995). As such, the curriculum contents should not be in isolation from the real world. The curriculum should reflect the present and future concern of key stakeholders. This can be attained by giving them the opportunity to voice out their concerns through dialogue or participate in research project. In the same light, the development of a

curriculum planning model for hotel management education should be based on the expectations and requirements of key stakeholders within one's cultural context and the demand of the society.

The proposed model (Chapter 8) may be viewed as a reference point encapsulating the issues affecting curriculum planning process. The model does not make exclusive use of any one school of thought or claim to be conclusive. The model stresses that key stakeholders should participate in the planning process. Key stakeholders are a significant force affecting organisation's effectiveness. The potential for key stakeholders cooperation is particularly relevant because it may lead to educational institutions joining forces resulting in better curriculum management. An educational system should meet the expectations and requirements of the economy and society it serves by producing the required competences necessary to function effectively. At the same time, the study also believes that educational institutions have a wider set of responsibilities and tailoring education to meet the narrow perceived requirements of a profession is a fallacy.

To aid educators in this task, the study proposed that curriculum planners (or any individuals responsible) should focus on identifying the relevant managerial competences. As the whole concept of skills and abilities move toward the need for competence, business organisations have begun to place greater emphasis on determining 'competences' of their future managers (and

college graduates). The study believes that managerial competences can provide an alternative approach to capture key stakeholders expectations. We need to re-examine our education systems for adaptability to issues industry and economic advancement and development. As such, hotel management education should provide sufficient competences to enable students to address societal and employment problems (economically and socially useful). It should be broad-based sufficiently enough to provide not only the technical or operational understanding of the jobs but also competences that make up a complete worker. Occupational and personal (professional) competence should first be made adaptable to the immediate requirements of the work environment. At the same time, the competitive business environment would appear to force us to consider education beyond the immediate demands and requirements. Managerial competences in this context should emphasis complexity, judgement, and understanding and should be proactive in relation to the future.

The results presented in Chapter 7 should create a greater awareness as to what are the important elements necessary to be taught and learned. In contemporary curriculum planning theory, course content is just a part of the whole learning process. However, without having the knowledge of what should be taught and learned in the first place could make the whole learning process incomplete and erroneous.

The results from the stakeholders' (sample = 209) survey revealed that the one hundred and four (104) competence statements (after applying the criteria set forth in the factor analysis) were represented by twenty-five (25) factors or dimensions. These factors or dimensions can be grouped into two major categories namely Personal (Behavioural) competence and Occupational competence. None of the 104 competences had a mean score of below 2.5 (not important) which indicates that all the competences were at least moderately important (only two statements were rated as moderately important). Of the thirteen (13) competences that had been rated as *Very important or Essential* by the stakeholders, twelve (12) competences loaded clearly on the first factor 'Managing self and Communication'. Competence statements within the 'soft' (personal and communication) domain appeared to dominate the top-rated grouping. Not surprisingly, competences within the 'soft' realm appeared to load on the first factor. Hence, the first factor was labelled as 'Managing self and communication'.

Personal competence (Managing self) has always been important to effective performance. Personal competences represent a set of attitudes and values that enable workers to work efficiently; good communicators, good listener and focus on continuing or life-long learning.

As it was mentioned in Chapter 8, an experiential or situational learning model could be considered to develop these competences. This is particularly useful to the hotel industry where the tasks which are performed are very often

practical. It was also mentioned that in the previous educational experiences traditional teaching and learning styles have not been given the opportunity to discuss or argue aspects of study. As such, the idea of students reflecting upon their own learning would require a considerable paradigm shift in the students and educators way of teaching, learning and thinking. On the other hand, educators must also re-examine their roles. Rather than being dispensers of knowledge, educators' role in learning is to manage the process of learning and facilitate learners in the process of learning from their own experiences in a given situation. Of particular value here is the establishment of a strategic alliance between industry and higher educational institutions that promise to increase the effectiveness of both.

9.3   Delimitations

As it was mentioned earlier (Chapter 3), the history of hotel management education in Malaysia is also relatively new compared to other developed nations. Early development of the hotel education in Malaysia has been orientated on the importance of meeting the needs of skilled manpower of the industry (strong emphasis in the technical skills of food and accommodation). Malaysia's first degree-level hotel management education was introduced in June 1995. It was almost 83 years after the first bachelor's degree in Hotel Management was introduced in the U.S.A. and about thirty years in the U.K.

Despite all of the precautions and concerns over the methodology being appropriate and adding worth to the study there have been few limitations to

the work. One limitation of this study is that the stakeholder representation

was not in balance (93 from industry, 45 from education, 69 from student, 5

from top management from higher educational institutions) and no response

from government representatives. Balanced representation would be ideal (the

nature of the stakeholder also contribute to this imbalance).

Given the nature of stakeholders, they are made up of different groups varying

in size and influence. As such, this imbalance could be considered as normal

and unavoidable. However, attempt was made in this study to overcome this

limitation (and for statistical purposes) by grouping the stakeholders into three

groups, industry, educators and students. The findings are limited to these key

stakeholders. For the findings to be more reflective of the totality of the

stakeholders' expectations, it is necessary to have representatives of other

stakeholders.

The second limitation of this study was due to the fact that the focus of this

investigation was on the development of a specification of managerial

competences rather than an evaluation of hotel management programmes in

Malaysia, which involved the whole pedagogic issues. Further research is

needed to address and investigate the broad and complicated pedagogic

issues in relation to curriculum development. The study on the pedagogic

issues could be extended for further research.

9.4   Implications for Further Research

The present study attempts to look at the managerial competences as a method to learn and understand the stakeholders' requirements and expectations, of the ever- changing environment, that have significant forces on the curriculum of hotel management education. This research project is the first initiative and contribution towards a more comprehensive future research on hotel management education in Malaysia. The current findings highlighted several crucial themes concerning the managerial competences, and raised important implications for the development of hotel management curriculum planning.

The idea of having the faculty as the sole educational inquiry, sole authority in providing the information needed for curriculum planning should be re-evaluated and questioned. This idea could be appropriate several decades ago when there was no gap (or the gap was so small) between what graduates needed to know and performed in the work place and the industry's requirements and expectations. To certain extent, some argued that most new knowledge was not created in educational institution (Nonaka and Takeuchi, 1995). However, this notion must not be viewed as furious attack on educational institution credibility rather it must be considered as a pushing factor for educational institution to re-examine their function to the society. The function of education in any civilisation cannot be denied. In the same context, Dewey (1916, p.46) states that

In the modern society, literate, industrial society, the growing

complexity of knowledge and life is such that society looks to school

and something that has come to be called curriculum as necessary for

enabling the rising   generation to gain the needed weight and power

to build a better society.

The study has highlighted that Malaysian students expect educators to be the source of all knowledge and their role is to absorb the materials which is being given to them. In previous educational experience (prior entering higher institution of learning) they have not been given the opportunities to explore, discuss, question or argue aspects of study. Therefore, the idea of students reflecting upon their own learning and performing would demand a paradigm shift in their way of thinking and learning.

Besides the crucial themes identified, further research into these themes are necessary. The present research would become a catalyst or a springboard for future research. The study believes that additional research is needed to enrich the discussion of an effective and relevant learning experience. Further research needed includes:

1. Each functional area needs to be further investigated to determine the depth of knowledge and competence involve. This could further assist hotel management education providers in their curriculum development and improvement and course materials.

2. One of the features of hotel management education is the extent to which it demanded an emphasis of competence and the development of students' employability. As such, strategies should be aimed at developing reciprocal relationship between learning and working. At present, there are no examples of educational institutions in Malaysia setting themselves targets for the employability of their students. Future research over a period of several years is felt to be needed for investigating the changing expectations of the stakeholders, which would combine the pedagogic issues (learning styles, learning environment and learning outcomes) and the implications for strategies development that are appropriate within the national context.

3. One of the barriers to change is the conservatism of faculty staff within an educational institution. Many have invested considerable time and effort in developing the existing curriculum and in accumulating teaching and learning materials to deliver their courses. Any change to the status quo promises only more work for them. Apart from this, radical programmes of change have implicit threats for their professional practise. The mode of delivery course materials has been traditionally focused on didactic classroom teaching; new methods of learning, experiential learning could pose additional hostility.

4. So far, the present study revolves within the realm of what is expected of hotel management graduates— managerial competences. There has

been a relative lack of attention in most research to the position of the lecturer in higher education institution: what constitutes 'the competence teacher or lecturer'? Have the changes in the our expectations of academic staff paralleled by the changes in our expectations of graduates?

Competence development requires lecturers with the necessary competences as well. In this respect, if students are to develop the competence for personal and occupational competence and lifelong learning, then their lecturers need to develop not only the skills required, but also a heightened awareness of their own competence. In these circumstances, it is appropriate to embark on a study which provide a description of those competences comprising effective educators or lecturers. Such competences can be objectively assessed, enabling an accurate evaluation of educator's current and potential job (teaching) performance and prove crucial in management training and development, and selection and recruitment.

9.5 Summary

The research project starts by stating that organisations must be sensitive and responsive to the environment, which they exist and operate. This is the premise of the research project. As it was mentioned earlier, educational institutions are no different with other organisations when environmental forces are concerned. Educational institutions have to adapt and adjust accordingly to the environmental forces if they are to continue function effectively.

One of the methods of determining the programme's effectiveness and relevancy is to *'listen'* to those who are concern about the development of an educational experience (key stakeholders). Educational institutions should listen and learn from all parties involved in the process of developing a holistic human being (Kanter 1990, p. 9). She continues to say that

> *Amid the clatter and the noise of all the activities in today's business world, there are many notes of change. Some of the new sounds are 'high notes' — innovations or strategies that generate excitement and challenge, although they may not yet be fully understood. But some of the sounds are discordant — work styles and management concepts that don't quite seem fit, or cause disharmony. Both sounds must be listened to as keys to the future....*

It is clear that hotel management education must be updated and improved accordingly. As the industry expands, present knowledge and competences

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of management are rapidly becoming obsolete. It seems that the greatest challenge faced by hospitality educators and managers is that the business is constantly changing. What best yesterday is no longer appreciated tomorrow.

Curriculum is, therefore, considered the heart of education since it determines the direction and priorities of the institution, industry and the nation. It was accepted that one approach to judge the effectiveness of education system is the curriculum. Over the years, numerous changes have been taking place in the development of the industry. Changes have to be made to reflect the industry's needs, priorities and direction. In the same notion, education curriculum must be constantly reviewed to meet current and future expectations and new trends in the industry.

The curriculum contents should include new inputs and findings from empirical research and analyses, which will act as a guideline for any curriculum reformation or revision. However, any changes should be done in totality and not just by introducing new subjects. New elements should be incorporated in the existing curriculum instead of creating more subjects.

Hotel management curriculum should not burden students further, but at the same time we do not want our students to be lagging behind in new areas. We have to be very selective and cautious about changes to the curriculum, as they will have a systemic effect on the hospitality management education

system. The days of 'assumption-based' curriculum development must take a halt if hotel management education to be one of the major management programmes in any higher education institutions. In short, there must be the element of dynamism in the curriculum itself.

From the findings of this study, based on the interpretation of the stakeholder survey, it is possible to identify the areas that need further examination in curriculum development. Whilst the advantages of experiential learning have been highlighted, this method of delivering the subject or course has to be adjusted and modified according to the learning and teaching experiences relevant to the cultural context. The proposed curriculum planning model for hotel management education in Malaysia hopes to meet the stakeholders' expectations at this time in Malaysia's hotel industry development.

At the same time, if the industry hopes to attract brighter and better workers (Ineson and Kempa, 1997) the present human resource system of the industry has to fine-tune its philosophy and system to cope with new demands and expectations. Better educated workers also bring with him or her a certain level of expectations relating to the condition of work. The industry must improve its image of working environments, if it is to compete and attract capable graduates to the industry. Such changes would definitely extent its appeal to include a larger portion of the labour force.

As tourism industry strives to become a viable sector of the economy, it must work in partnership with educators and other parties to ensure that higher education in hospitality management is providing the relevant education and training for the youngster and the workforce. The industry must give full support for any professional initiatives taken by any institutes of higher education and encourage academic staffs that wish to improve and upgrade their management skills and knowledge. On the other hand, higher educational institutions must not be contemplated in developing a programme of studies based solely on academic realm, but the needs and requirements of the economy.

To realise the aspiration of becoming industrialised nation by the year 2020 and the region's centre for educational excellence and be able to compete successfully within the region would require a shift in attitude, focus and priorities within the context of an integrated approach to management education. Since managerial activities are complex in nature, working in partnership, between all parties, would become a crucial element in determining the future direction of hotel management education. In return, hotel management schools would be able to prepare future managers that are competent enough to handle the turbulent, robust and full of uncertainties business environment.

In the face of ever-changing economic environment, the transformation of hotel management education in Malaysia depends very much on the

commitment of all parties concerned. Since overseas education is expensive, Malaysian has no other alternative than to look at the local higher education institutions for advance education. This will boost the education sector as a foreign exchange earner and promote Malaysia as a regional centre for education excellence (Star, 1998a). The Malaysian government believes that the currency crisis in 1998 had some positive implications and expedite the process of making Malaysia as the region of education excellence.

The findings should also provide a common platform for those individuals who are responsible for curriculum development and review in making sure that the curriculum contents are responsive, relevant and effective. This is the focus of the research project. In the same notion, 'relevance' should be seen as the means-ends towards achieving the goals, which involve the learner and the institution (Bruner, 1977). Today's graduates must also be capable of dealing with future turbulence and shocks. Toffler (1970) succinctly argues that the challenge of educational system is to prepare students who are able to cope effectively with the environmental changes in the world of work.

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Appendix I: Washington State University

Programme in Hotel & Restaurant Administration (4 years)

120 Total Semester credits required

English and Communication (15 credits)

Freshman English (I and II)
Oral Communication
Advance Writing
Career Services

Natural Sciences and Mathematics (18 credits)
Biology
Nutrition
Physiology
Discrete mathematics for business and social sciences
Calculus
Decision sciences

Social sciences (9 credits)
Microeconomics
Managerial economics
Sociology or Psychology

Professionals (24 credits)
Business law
MIS
Marketing Strategy
Marketing Management
Accounting I & II
Finance
Management and Organisation

Hotel and Restaurant Administration (52 credits)
Introduction to Hospitality Service industries
Fundamentals of Cooking and Dining room service
Lodging systems and procedures
Foodservice systems and control
Hospitality management and organisation
Operational analysis
Hospitality services marketing
Marketing strategy and development
Case studies and research
Meeting and convention Management
Food and Beverage system design and analysis
Beverage Management
Special topics
International tourism
Industrial relations
Internship (2 credits)   **Con't../**

Appendix 1. : Hotel Management Curriculum - Iowa State University, Iowa, U.S.A.

Duration: 4 years

First year First semester
First year composition I
Orientation (Family & Consumer Sciences)
General Chemistry
Introduction to Psychology
Principles of Microeconomic
Career Opportunities
Computer Application

Second semester
First year composition II
Business composition
Introduction to Sociology
Principles of Marketing
Individual & Family Life Development
Introduction to Human Nutrition

Second year (third semester)
Fundamentals of Public Speaking
Business Mathematics
Principles of Statistics
Legal Environment of Business
Financial Accounting
Design Studies

Second year (forth semester)
Technology and Social Change
Human Development
Introduction to Hospitality Management
Introduction to Human Nutrition
Hospitality Sanitation & Safety
Fundamentals of Food Preparation

Third year (fifth semester)
Introduction to Hotel, Restaurant & Institutional
Human Physiology
Food Service Operation Controls
Lodging Operation I
Hospitality Marketing
Hospitality Work Experience
Managerial Accounting

Third year (sixth semester)
Quantity Food Production and Service Mgmt.
Hospitality Marketing
Textiles & Clothing
Recipe Development

Forth year (seventh semester)
Hospitality Management Information System
Beverage Management
Hospitality Law
Hospitality Strategic Management

Forth year (eight semester)
Hospitality Marketing Research
Hospitality Human Resource Management
Quantity food production
Food Quality Evaluation

Source: Iowa State University Brochure, 1997

Appendix II: Sheffield Hallam University, U.K.

Duration: 3 years[1]

First year
Core units
Information skills
Quantitative methods
Social Psychology
Introduction to Hospitality
Options
Food Foundation or Tourism
Food & Wind, Vegetarian Cuisine
Language

Second year
Food and Beverage Management
Finance
Marketing Management
Human Resource Management
Career Management
Hospitality Resource Management
Options
Research Survey Technique
Operation Management
International Culinary Arts and Wines I
Licensed Retailing
Hotel and Catering Law
Conference & Events Management
Business Tourism
Food Safety
Language

Third year
Strategic Management
Hospitality Facilities Design & Planning
Hospitality Management
Options
Computer Aided Design
International Hospitality Management
Hospitality Management Application
Hospitality and tourism enterprise
Hospitality marketing planning
Dissertation
Language

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[1] The three-year full-time route is designed for those with work experience. A four-year sandwich route is designed for those without work. The third year of the four-year sandwich route takes the form of an industrial placement.

Appendix III: Major Private Colleges in Malaysia Offering Hotel/Hospitality Management Programme at various levels

College	Programme Levels
1. Flamingo Inst. Of Further Education, Kuala Lumpur	Certificate/Diploma/ (Degree, Collaborative Programme)
2. Institut Teknologi Tun Abd. Razak, Kuala Lumpur	Certificate/Diploma
3. The Legend Hotel School, (Distance Learning) Kuala Lumpur	Certificate/Diploma/Degree
4. National Productivity Corporation, Petaling Jaya	Certificate/Diploma
5. PERNAS Hotel School, Kuala Lumpur	Certificate/Diploma/ (Degree, Collaborative Programme)
6. Stamford College, Kuala Lumpur	Certificate/Diploma
7. Kolej Damansara Utama, Petaling Jaya	Certificate/Diploma
8. Taylor's School of Hotel Management, Cheras	Certificate/Diploma

Source: Othman and Ishak, 1998

Appendix IV: Ten Core Criteria in Quality Assessment

1. There are adequate physical resources (library, workshops, IT resources) to support teaching and learning.

2. There are adequate human resources to support teaching and learning and staff are properly qualified.

3. Programmes of study should have clear aims and objectives, which are understood by staff and students.

4. The subject content relates to a programme's aims and objectives.

5. Students are encouraged to be actively involved in, and given responsibility for, learning.

6. The standard of the programme is appropriate to the award.

7. Assessment is valid, objective and fair.

8. Assessment covers the full range of course aims and objectives.

9. Students receive useful feedback from assessment and are kept informed of progress.

10. Students leave the programme of study with transferable knowledge and skills.

Appendix V: Competent First-Level Managers: The relationship of competences to productivity, efficiency, and other measures of effectiveness.

How the first-level manager can improve his or her performance through:

Goal Setting
Planning
Efficient use of time, people and resources
Initiating action and overcoming obstacles
Using frameworks to solve problems

How the first-level manager can help his or her subordinates to improve their performance, by:

Providing meaningful feedback
Providing necessary assistance and resources
Giving clear directions

How the first-level manager can influence the organisational environment to improve his or her performance, through:

Acquiring a realistic view of his or her own strengths and weaknesses
Building coalitions and networks
Focusing on organisational needs

Planning for continued professional development, by:

Establishing goals and action plans
Evaluating the risk associated with goals

Source: Boyatzis, 1982

Appendix VI :Personal Competence Model

**Cluster of
personal
Competence**

**Dimensions of
Personal Competence**

1. Planning to optimise the achievement of activities

1.1 Showing concern for excellence

1.3 Setting and prioritising objectives

1.2 Monitoring result and responding to actual against and planned

2. Managing others to optimise results

2.1 Showing sensitivity to the needs of others

2.2 Relating to others

2.3 Obtaining the commitment of others

2.4 Presenting oneself positively to others

**Personal
Competence**

3. Managing oneself to optimise results

3.1 Showing self-confidence and personal drive

3.2 Managing personal emotions and stress

3.3 Managing personal learning and development

4. Using Intellect to optimise results information

4.1 Collecting and organising

4.2 Identifying and applying concepts

4.3 taking decision

Source: Local Government Management Board, 1991

Appendix VII: Key Skills Matrix

National Skills Taskforce	SEEC (1996)	NCIHE (1997)	Hawkins and, Winter (1995)	Harvey, Moon and Geall (1997)	(QCA) (1998)	Univ. of Wolverhampton (1994)
1. Coomunication	Communication	Communication			Communication	Communication
2. IT		IT			IT	IT
3. Working with others	Group skills		Networking		Teamwork	Teamwork
4. Improve own learning	Management of learning	Learning to learn			Willing/ability to learn	Gather Information
5. Problem solving	Problem solving			Intellectual (problem solving)		
6. Application of number		Numeracy			Numeracy	Numeracy
7.	Psycho-motor					
8.	Self-appraisal	Self-awareness		Self-skills (Self-discipline, Self-motivation, self assurance etc.)		Act Independent
9.			Self reliance			
10.			Self Promotion			
11.			Self confidence			
12.			Decision making			
13.			Negotiate			
14.			Action plan			
15.			Coping with uncertianty	Flexibility and adaptibility to respond to change		
16.			Creativity			
17.			Focus			
18.			Political awareness			
19.			Transfer skills			
20.				Interpersonal skills		
21.				Knowledge		
22.						Organise

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Appendix VIII: **The Southern England Consortium for Credit Accumulation and Transfer Dimension of 'Graduateness'**

COGNITIVE

- knowledge and understanding;
- analysis;
- synthesis/creativity;
- evaluation.

OTHER TRANSFERABLE SKILLS

- psycho-motor;
- self-appraisal - reflection on practise;
- planning and management;
- problem-solving;
- communication and presentation;
- interactive and group skills.

OPERATIONAL CONTEXTS

- responsibility and
- ethical understanding.

Source: SEEC, 1996

Appendix IX: Block Titles 'Corpus of Management Excellence

Core Hospitality Topics

Supervisory Management	Operational Management	Senior Management
1 customer service in hospitality	1 managing customer service in hospitality	1 hospitality consumer behaviour
2 sales supervision in hospitality	2 sales management in hospitality	
3 accomodation & reception skills and knowledge	3 accomodation & reception skills and knowledge	
4 F&B production and service skills and knowledge	4 F&B skills and knowledge	
5 basic nutrition and diet	5 nutrition and diet	
6 food hygiene	6 managing food hygiene	6 corporate food hygiene policy
7 supervising food production operation	7 managing food operation	
8 supervising food & beverage service	8 managing food & beverage service	
9 supervising rooms' and accommodation services	9 managing room' and accommodation services	
10 supervising reception services	10 front of the house management	
11 supervising hospitality operation	11 managing hospitality operation	11 directing hospitality operations
12 work experience	12 work experience	12 work experience

Key Management Themes

13 cost control in hospitality	13 budgeting and accounting	13 financial management
	14 marketing	14 marketing management
15 team-leading	15 human resources mgmt.	15 corporate HRM
	16 training & development	
17 self-development & personal skills	17 self-development & personal skills	17 self-development and personal skills
	18 management studies	18 advanced management studies

38 statutory regulations and legal requirements	38 statutory regulations and legal requirements	
39 intro. to business information systems	39 managing business info. systems in hospitality 1	39 managign business info. systems in hospitality 2
		40 environmental policy making
	41 hospitality technology	
	42 food and safety	
	43 food science	
	44 ergonomics & occupational health	
	45 tourism	
	46 managign international hospitality business operations	46 directing int'l hospiatlity business operations
	47 organisational behavior	
48 foreign languages	48 foreign languages	48 foreign languages

Source: HCIMA, 1998

Appendix X:

MATRIX GRID OF FUNCTIONAL AREAS AND COMPETENCE STATEMENTS

Question No.	Johnson, 1977 (1)	HCIMA, 1994b (2) NVQ index	Morgan, 1984 (3)	Tas, 1988 (4)
I. MANAGING OPERATION				
1. Analyse menu as to nutritional content.	1			
and quantity control.	1			
3. Assist in operational and	1			
strategic planning.				
16. Plan sanitation schedules and procedures	1			
pertaining to lodging and foodservice				
business.				
17. Sensitive in the area of energy conservation,	1			
environmental issues (e.g. waste, pollution, etc.)				
18. Recognise that standardised recipes are	1			
used to provide a consistent basis for				
quality and quantity control.				
19. Recognise the importance of interior	1			
decoration aspects in restaurant design				
32. Write job descriptions and specification	1			
for personnel.				
59. Carry out sales activities.	1			
60. Conduct market research.	1			
72. Communicate in foreign language	1			
(e.g. Japanese, Spanish, French, etc				
other than English).				
76. Prepare reports (e.g. sales and marketing,	1			
meetings, etc.).				
86. Develop teamwork and individuals	1			
to enhance performance.				
87. Focus personal attention on specific	1			
details that are critical to success of				
key events.				

Item		
92. Present oneself in an assured and confident manner when faced with a challenge.	1	
99. Assist in developing purchasing specification for food and non-food supplies that attain appropriate quality, quantity, source and price.	1	
100. Carry out the department purchase procedures (e.g. bids, call for tender, etc.)	1	
101. Contribute in the implementation of inventory control system.	1	
103. Justify equipment purchase and cost/benefit and payback.	1	
104. Manage control and evaluate stock within area of responsibility.	1	
105. Possess technical skills in receiving, storing and issuing of food and beverage items.	1	
VI. MANAGING SALES AND MARKETING	1	
2. Assist in menu planning and recipes development		2
4. Assist in planning and designing of facilities.		2
5. Conceptualise the total operation of the business.		2
6. Contribute to the implementation of change in service, product and system.		2
8. Manage food production operations		2
9. Manage front-office operations		2
10. Manage housekeeping operations.		2
11. Manage laundry operations.		2
12. Manage restaurant operations and services.		2
13. Manage the portering or concierge services.		2
15. Plan and manage the running of an event.		2
II. MANAGING PEOPLE (HUMAN RESOURCE)		2
26. Identify training needs		2
27. Implement health, safety and security practices for better working environment		2

		2
30.	Perform in-service training.	2
32.	Uses instinct and intuition to assess or explain situations or people.	2
III.	Managing Information	
34.	Check validity of own thinking with others.	2
36.	Identify implications or casual relationship for action.	2
37.	Identify the most important or crucial issues in a complex situation or facing with a problem	2
38.	Maintain accurate and appropriate record for reporting purposes.	2
41.	Seek, evaluate or organise information for action (technology).	2
IV.	MANAGING FINANCE AND ACCOUNTING	
43.	Analyse financial statements to evaluate operational performance.	2
47.	Implement standard food, beverage and labour cost control procedures.	2
48.	Manage system for handling cash/cash equivalent.	2
49.	Prepare department income and expense and budget statements.	2
50.	Record, monitor and carry out cost control system and procedures.	2
V.	MANAGING CUSTOMERS	
51.	Contribute in developing methods for evaluating customer satisfaction regarding product and service mix.	2
52.	Develop corrective action for substandard services.	2
54.	Examine customers' complaint record for future inquiry and improvement.	2
55.	Manage guest problem with under standing and sensitivity.	2
56.	Recognise the importance of consumer behaviour in business strategy.	2
62.	Use marketing strategies to promote sales	2

VII. MANAGING BUSINESS ENVIRONMENT		
65. Carry out evaluative and investigative study for organisation's business development	2	
66. Keep abreast with technological advancement in the business.	2	
67. Keep abreast with the social trends (e.g. social cultural, socio-economic, etc.).	2	
68. Knowledgeable in the legal aspects of the (e.g. state and federal labour law, licensing, trade union, hygiene and safety, etc.).	2	
69. Possess 'hands-on' experience with computer system and software.	2	
VIII. MANAGING COMMUNICATION		
73. Contribute in establishing organisational and departmental objective strategies.	2	
74. Good listener, as well as, speaker.	2	
75. Possess effective writing skills	2	
IX. MANAGING SELF		
77. Ability to perceive the needs, concerns and personal problems of others.	2	
98. Take the leading role in initiating and lead by example.	2	
82. Create new and imaginative approaches to work related issues.	2	
89. Plan, allocate and evaluate work carried out by teams, individuals and self	2	
95. Seek, evaluate and organise information for action (soft-tech).	2	
X. MANAGING PURCHASE AND SUPPLY		
102. Identify equipment and supply requirements.	2	
24. Develop abilities to relish change.		3
25. Encourage creative thinking.		3
31. Strike a balance between chaos and control.		3
37. Identify new modes, interprets events in new perspectives.		3
40. Possess information management mindset		3
42. Use several ideas to explain the actions,		3

Item		
needs or motives of others.		
63. Ability to scan the business environment of the organisation and industry.	3	
78. Ability to perform under pressure.	3	
80. Build bridges and business alliance.	3	
81. Clearly relate goals and actions to strategic planning of organisation.	3	
88. Manage many things at once.	3	
90. Possess a proactive mindset.	3	
91. Possess high spiritual values.	3	
94. Reframe problems to create new solutions.	3	
96. Sensitive to the organisation's business culture and act as expected.	3	
97. Set objectives and priorities in uncertain and complex situation.	3	
20. Able to develop proactive mindset.	3	
79. Act with good understanding of how the different needs or department of the organisation and its environment fit together.	3	
85. Develop and use networks to achieve the desired organisation's goals and objectives.	3	
93. Recognise and respond to the needs and feelings of others.	3	
3. Assist in operational planning and decision making		4
7. Identify operational problems.		4
21. Appraise employee performance.		4
22. Contribute to recruitment and selection of personnel.		4
23. Create, maintain and enhance effective working relationship.		4
28. Manage employee grievances effectively.		4
29. Motivate personnel for effective performance.		4
35. Focus on facts and feelings when handling an emotional situation.		4
44. Analyse weekly, monthly and annual		4

Item	Score
financial and statistical reports.	
45. Assist in developing selling prices based on operation cost, expected profit and competitors.	4
46. Evaluate budget variances in operations performance.	4
53. Effectively manage life-threatening situation (e.g. fire, bomb threat, serious illness, etc.).	4
57. Analyse past and present business information effectively for future marketing strategic plan.	4
58. Analyse quantitatively and qualitatively marketing information.	4
61. Contribute to the planning and implementing of marketing and sales development activities.	4
64. Identify the organisation's competitors.	4
70. Ability to make clear oral presentation of facts or ideas both to small groups or large audience.	4
71. Communicate difficult and complex ideas and problems in a simple manner that aids understanding.	4
83. Delegate appropriate tasks to others.	4
84. Demonstrate professional appearance and poise.	4

Appendix XI: List of Panel of Experts

1. Tuan Haji Nordin Mohamad
    General Manager
    Perdana Hotel Resort
    Jalan Mahmud
    P.O. Box 222
    15720 Kota Bahru, Kelantan

2. Encik Zain Putih
    Executive Assistant Manager
    Kuala Lumpur Hilton
    P.O. Box 10577
    Jalan Sultan Ismail
    50718 Kuala Lumpur

3. Encik Mazli Mohamed
    General Manager
    Hotel Operations/Development
    Holiday Inn Corporate Office
    Jalan Pinang
    P.O. Box 10983
    50732 Kuala Lumpur

4. John Roozemond
    Vice President
    Hicom Leisure Berhad
    Tingkat 2 Wisma Hicom
    No. 2 Jalan U1/8
    off Persiaran Kerjaya (Glenmarie)
    40000 Shah Alam, Selangor

5. Encik Shahidul Azmir Said
    Director of Training
    Sheraton Langkawi Beach Resort
    Telok Nibong
    07000 Pulau Langkawi
    Kedah

6. Encik Ramesh Kailanathan
    Training Manager
    Penang Mutiara Beach Hotel
    1 Teluk Bahang
    11050 Pulau Pinang

7. Lynn Chee
    Director of Human resources
    Regent of Kuala Lumpur
    160 Jalan Bukit Bintang
    55100 Kuala Lumpur

8. Nancy Lim
    Director of Human Resources
    Concorde Hotel
    2 Jalan Sultan Ismail
    50250 Kuala Lumpur

9.   Ruby Gong Siew Mui
     Group Director of Human Resources
     Dynasty Hotel
     218 Jalan Ipoh
     51200 Kuala Lumpur

10. Gerard Christopher
     Training Manager
     Golden Sands Hotel
     Batu Ferringhi
     11100 Pulau Pinang

12. Puan Azian Zainal Azman
     Istana Hotel
     73 Jalan Raja Chulan
     50250 Kuala Lumpur

13. Petrus Leong
     Director of Human Resources
     Hyatt Regency Johor
     Jalan Sungai Chat
     81100 Johor Bahru
     Johor

14. Sulaiman Sheridan Abdullah
     The Pan Pacific Glenmarie resort
     Jalan Glenmarie,
     Off Jalan Lapangan Terbang Antarabangsa Subang
     P.O. Box 8354 Kelana Jaya
     Selangor

15. Rozainor Sani Abdullah Sani
     Personnel and Training Manager
     Pens Travelodge Kangar
     135 Main Road
     01000 Kangar, Perlis

16. General Manager
     Primula Beach Resort
     Jalan Persinggahan
     20904 Kuala Trengganu
     Trengganu

17. Norshah Ahmad
     Corporate Human Resource Director
     Shangri-la Penang
     10013 Georgetown
     Penang

18. Prof. Dr. Nor Khomar Ishak
     School of Hotel and Tourism Management
     Institut Teknologi MARA
     40450 Shah Alam
     Selangor

19. Assoc. Prof. Dr. Mohamad Muda
School of Hotel and Tourism Management
Institut Teknologi MARA
40450 Shah Alam, Selangor

20. National Development Corporation
Hotel Management Institute
45621 Petaling Jaya
Selangor

21. Dean
School of Hotel and Tourism Management
Institut Teknologi MARA
40450 Shah Alam
Selangor

22. Maimunah Sulaiman
School of Hotel and Tourism Management
Institut Teknologi MARA
40450 Shah Alam
Selangor

23. Prof. Dr. Adnan Alias
Asst. Director
Centre for Total Quality in Education
Institut Teknologi MARA
40450 Shah Alam
Selangor

24. Head of School of Hotel Management
Kolej Damansara Utama
Petaling Jaya
Selangor

25. Assoc. Prof. Dr. Ibrahim Ahmad
Dean of Graduate School
Universiti Utara Malaysia
02341 Sintok
Jitra, Kedah

26. Institut Teknologi Tun Abdul Razak
Head of School of Hotel and Tourism Management
Jalan Tuanku Abdul Razak
50741 Kuala Lumpur

27. Director
Hotel, Catering and Institutional Management Institute
Jalan Ipoh
50317 Kuala Lumpur

28. Stamford College
Head
School of Hotel and Catering Management
Jalan Masjid India
50711 Kuala Lumpur

29. Director
    Taylor's College School of Hotel and Tourism
    51900 Subang Jaya
    Selangor Darul Ehsan

30. General Manager
    Federal Hotel
    35 Jalan Bukit Bintang
    5510 Kuala Lumpur

31. Managing Director
    Seasons Tower Hotel
    Jalan Horley 67
    55100 Kuala Lumpur

32. General Manager
    Seri Malaysia Hotel
    Johor Bharu
    Lot - PTB 17648 Jalan Langkasuka
    80350 Larkin
    Johore

33. Director of Human Resource
    Sunway Hotel
    No. 33 New Lane, Georgetown
    10400 Pulau Pinang.

34. Asst. Director
    Malaysia Tourism Promotion Board (MTPB)
    Tingkat 26 Menara Dato' Onn
    Pusat Dagangan Dunia Putra
    45 Jalan Tun Ismail
    50480 Kuala Lumpur

35. President
    Malaysia Association of Hotels
    Taman Cheras
    52062 Kuala Lumpur

36. Group Director of Human Resources
    Hotel Renaissance
    Jalan Ampang
    50450 Kuala Lumpur

37. General Manager
    Hotel Nikko
    165 Jalan Ampang
    50450 Kuala Lumpur

38. Tuan Syed Ibrahim
    Group General Manager
    Seri Malaysia
    Bangunan Dato' Hussein Onn
    50450 Kuala Lumpur

39. Group Human Resource Director
    Rangkaian Resort World Berhad
    Genting Highlands
    69000 Pahang darul Makmur

40. General Manager
    Primula Parkroyal
    Jalan Persinggahan
    PO Box 43
    20904 Kuala Terengganu, Terengganu Darul Naim

41. Ketua Pengarah
    Bahagian Pendidikan Tinggi (Higher Education Department)
    Kementerian Pendidikan
    Bandar Damansara Utama
    50101 Kuala Lumpur

42. Regional Human Resource Director
    Crown Princess Intercontinental Hotel
    City Square Center
    Jalan Tun Razak
    50450 Kuala Lumpur

43. General Manager
    Crystal Crown Hotel
    12 Lorong Utara A
    46200 Petaling Jaya
    Selangor Darul Ehsan

44. Ahmad Bukhari Hamzah
    Assisstant Executive Manager
    Penang Sheraton
    Jalan Argyll
    10076 Penang

45. Sudirman Wan Mansor
    General Manager
    Sheraton Perdana
    Jalan Pantai
    07000 Langkawi
    Kedah Darul Aman

Appendix XII

Fakulti Pengurusan Hotel & Pelancongan
Institut Teknologi Mara
Shah Alam

28/5/97

Ahmad Bukhari Hamzah
Assisstant Executive Manager
Penang Sheraton
Jalan Argyll
10076 Penang

Dear Sir,

**RE: RESEARCH PROJECT ON HOSPITALITY MANAGEMENT
          PROGRAMME**

This is to inform you that Mr. Rahmat Hashim, a faculty member of the school, is conducting an important research project that will determine the future direction of Hotel management education in Malaysia. The topic for the research project involves investigating key stakeholders' expectations of Malaysian degree-level hotel management education and the implications for curriculum development.

The unprecedented growth of the Malaysian tourism industry poses new challenges to the educational institutions - to prepare future professionals with the relevant skills and attitude. With its strong commitment toward the industry and the nation, the school has initiated a research project that attempts to identify the expectations of those individuals and groups who are interested in the development of hotel management education in Malaysia.

In this task, it will be of great value to have the opinion of experts. I am writing to you as a person of high professional standing and acknowledged commitment to the industry to ask whether you will provide expert assistance. At this time, I would greatly appreciate your opinion regarding:-

- Who are the stakeholder groups who have a legitimate interest in hotel management education in Malaysia?
- Which functional areas and competence statements that are considered important for a typical entry-level position?

Giving your advice will, at this stage, involve completing the enclosed questionnaire. It will take around thirty (30) minutes to complete. If you agree to participate, I will collect the questionnaire from you and ask you some follow up questions in a short interview. The interview will be arranged at your convenience and will be strictly confidential.

If you are willing to help I will later ask you to also provide expert comment on the preliminary recommendations and conclusions of a major survey (validation survey). Your initial advice now will help shape the contents of this survey.

I take this opportunity to thank you very much for your time and contribution. I very much hope you will participate. Your professional assistance will make a significant impact in developing an effective hotel management programme for the nation. I will call you to make further arrangement for the interview session.

Thank you for your time and co-operation.

Yours sincerely

Puan Yong Siang Yang
Degree Programme Co-ordinator
Fakulti Pengurusan Hotel & Pelancongan
Institut Teknologi Mara
Shah Alam

Survey Instrument (Panel of Experts Survey)

The stakeholder Concept

It is widely acknowledged that the forces affecting the hospitality business environment today are both complex and full of uncertainties. In order to have a better understanding of the environment, organisations need to identify and understand the forces that are most relevant to their operation and have greatest influence in their decision making process. One of the approaches used to identify and understand these environmental forces is the stakeholder concept. Stakeholder is defined as *any individual or group who can affect, or is affected by, the future development of a department or an organisation.*

Hospitality management education in Malaysia is in the process of rapid development due to the unprecedented growth in the tourism industry. In order for hospitality education providers to be able to produce the needed workforce for the industry, an effective programme of study needs to be planned. This should take into consideration the expectations of various individuals or groups who are interested in the development of the educational programme.

On the following pages you will find three questions. Question 1 is concerned with the identification of key stakeholders of the hotel management education programme in Malaysia. Question 2 is concerned with the functional expertise and competences to be expected of entry-level managers, graduating from hotel management degree courses.

Instructions for completion

The survey presents you with groups of potential key stakeholders, functional areas and competences. You are asked to provide a graded response according to whether you think they are important. For example section B asks you to identify the individuals or groups who you consider to be the key stakeholders by circling the appropriate number.

Rating Classifications

1	2	3	4	5
Not Important	Less Important	Moderately Important	Important	Very Important

For example, if you feel that educators (those involved in the hospitality education) are one of the key stakeholders please circle number 5 in the extreme right.

Not important   Very important

1   2   3   4 (5)

Or, if you feel that the individual or group is important but not very important stakeholder then mark 4 on the scale given.

Not important   Very important

1   2   3 (4) 5

Or, if you feel that they are neither most important nor not important but should be considered as an important stakeholder, please circle the number in the middle.

Not important   Very important

1   2 (3) 4   5

Or, if the individual or group you come across is less important but could be considered then mark 2 on the scale given.

Not important   Very important

1 (2) 3   4   5

Or, if the individual or group you come across is not at all important to be considered as stakeholder then mark number 1 by circling it on the scale given.

Not important   Very important

(1) 2   3   4   5

The direction toward which end of the scale you mark depends upon how strongly you feel about your judgement. Be sure to mark every scale.

Please do not put more than one mark on a single scale.

In your opinion, which of these individuals or groups do you consider to be the key stakeholders of hospitality management education?

	Not important				Very important
1. STUDENTS	1	2	3	4	5
2. EDUCATORS IN THE HOSPITALITY MANAGEMENT EDUCATION	1	2	3	4	5
3. INDUSTRY PROFESSIONALS	1	2	3	4	5
4. FUNDING COUNCIL (GOVERNMENT)	1	2	3	4	5
5. ACCREDITATION BOARD (GOVERNMENT)	1	2	3	4	5
6. TOP MANAGEMENT/SENIOR ADMINISTRATORS IN INSTITUTES OF HIGHER EDUCATION	1	2	3	4	5

7. OTHERS WHO YOU THINK THAT NEED TO BE CONSIDERED.

	Not important				Very important
i ----------------------------------	1	2	3	4	5
ii ----------------------------------	1	2	3	4	5
iii ----------------------------------	1	2	3	4	5
iv ----------------------------------	1	2	3	4	5

This question is concerned with the identification of the functional areas and competences expected of entry-level managers i.e. graduates of hotel management (degree-level) programme.

Members are required to identify or establish an importance rating of the functional areas and competences needed for effective performance in entry-level managerial jobs. Please read the following definition before responding to the questionnaire

Please judge each functional area and competence expected of entry-level managers on the basis of relative importance that each one has for success in hotel management career.

Please identify the key roles/function of an entry-level manager

	Not Important			Very Important	
I. Managing Operation *Concerns with all the operational aspect of hotel management (e.g. room division operations and services (front-office and housekeeping operation), food and beverage services, restaurant services etc.*	1	2	3	4	5
II. Managing People (Human Resource) *Human resource management - activities related to recruitment, training, employee relation, showing sensitivity to others' needs etc.*	1	2	3	4	5
III. Managing Information *Handling of information for effective decision making (e.g. information management system).*	1	2	3	4	5
IV. Managing Finance and Accounting *This functional area concerns the ability to relate and apply the accounting and financial principles in carrying out the managerial tasks (e.g. operation budget planning, financial management, cost accounting etc.)*	1	2	3	4	5
V. Managing Customers *Managing customers relation, consumer behaviour etc. for competitive advantage.*	1	2	3	4	5

VI. Managing Sales and Marketing *Understanding the core concept of marketing as a business function that identifies current needs and wants, determine which market the organisation can best serve and identify the appropriate product, service and programmes to serve these markets (e.g. advertising, promotion, sales, PR etc.).*	1 2 3 4 5
VII. Managing Business Environment *Technology, legal, political, social, economic aspects that can affect business plans and performance.*	1 2 3 4 5
VIII. Managing Communication *Able to communicate clearly with others both oral and written in a purposeful manner.*	1 2 3 4 5
IX. Managing Self *Involves managing oneself and others for better performance (e.g. self-awareness, proactive, personal drive, managing personal emotions and stress, showing concern for excellence, etc.)*	1 2 3 4 5
X. Managing Purchase and Supply *Relating to all purchasing and storing aspects of hotel management (e.g. store-keeping procedures, purchasing and merchandising management etc.*	1 2 3 4 5
XI. Others, please specify 1.	1 2 3 4 5
2.	1 2 3 4 5
3.	1 2 3 4 5

A hotel management trainee who has graduated from a degree-level management programme should/should be able to:

I. Managing Operation						
Competence	**Not Important**					**Very Important**
1. Analyse menu as to nutritional content. and quantity control.	1	2	3	4	5	
2. Assist in menu planning and recipes development.	1	2	3	4	5	
3. Assist in operational and strategic planning.	1	2	3	4	5	
4. Assist in planning and designing of facilities.	1	2	3	4	5	
5. Conceptualise the total operation of the business.	1	2	3	4	5	
6. Contribute to the implementation of change in service, product and system.	1	2	3	4	5	
7. Identify operational problems.	1	2	3	4	5	
8. Manage food production operations.	1	2	3	4	5	
9. Manage front-office operations.	1	2	3	4	5	
10. Manage housekeeping operations.	1	2	3	4	5	
11. Manage laundry operations.	1	2	3	4	5	
12. Manage restaurant operations and services.	1	2	3	4	5	
13. Manage the portering or concierge services.	1	2	3	4	5	
15. Plan and manage the running of an event.	1	2	3	4	5	
16. Plan sanitation schedules and procedures pertaining to lodging and foodservice business.	1	2	3	4	5	
17. Sensitive in the area of energy conservation, environmental issues (e.g. waste, pollution, etc.)	1	2	3	4	5	
18. Recognise that standardised recipes are used to provide a consistent basis for quality and quantity control.	1	2	3	4	5	
19. Recognise the importance of interior decoration aspects in restaurant design.	1	2	3	4	5	
Others, please specify						
I.	1	2	3	4	5	
ii.	1	2	3	4	5	
iii.	1	2	3	4	5	

iv.	1	2	3	4	5

II. Managing People (Human Resource)

20. Able to develop proactive mindset.	1	2	3	4	5
21. Appraise employee performance.	1	2	3	4	5
22. Contribute to recruitment and selection of personnel.	1	2	3	4	5
23. Create, maintain and enhance effective working relationship.	1	2	3	4	5
24. Develop abilities to relish change.	1	2	3	4	5
25. Encourage creative thinking.	1	2	3	4	5
26. Identify training needs	1	2	3	4	5
27. Implement health, safety and security practices for better working environment	1	2	3	4	5
28. Manage employee grievances effectively.	1	2	3	4	5
29. Motivate personnel for effective performance.	1	2	3	4	5
30. Perform in-service training.	1	2	3	4	5
31. Strike a balance between chaos and control.	1	2	3	4	5
32. Uses instinct and intuition to assess or explain situations or people.	1	2	3	4	5
33. Write job descriptions and specification for personnel.	1	2	3	4	5

Others, please specify

i.	1	2	3	4	5
ii.	1	2	3	4	5
iii.	1	2	3	4	5
iv.	1	2	3	4	5

III. Managing Information

34. Check validity of own thinking with others.	1	2	3	4	5
35. Focus on facts and feelings when handling an emotional situation.	1	2	3	4	5
36. Identify implications or casual relationship for action.	1	2	3	4	5
37. Identify new modes, interprets events in new perspectives.	1	2	3	4	5
38. Identify the most important or crucial issues in a complex situation or facing with a problem.	1	2	3	4	5
39. Maintain accurate and appropriate record for reporting purposes.	1	2	3	4	5
40. Possess information management mindset	1	2	3	4	5
41. Seek, evaluate or organise information for					

action.	1	2	3	4	5
42. Use several ideas to explain the actions,					
needs or motives of others.	1	2	3	4	5
Others, please specify					
i.	1	2	3	4	5
ii.	1	2	3	4	5
iii.	1	2	3	4	5
iv.	1	2	3	4	5
IV. Managing Finance and Accounting					
43. Analyse financial statements to evaluate					
operational performance.	1	2	3	4	5
44. Analyse weekly, monthly and annual					
financial and statistical reports.	1	2	3	4	5
45. Assist in developing selling prices based					
on operation cost, expected profit and					
competitors.	1	2	3	4	5
46. Evaluate budget variances in					
operations performance.	1	2	3	4	5
47. Implement standard food, beverage					
and labour cost control procedures.	1	2	3	4	5
48. Manage system for handling cash/cash					
equivalent.	1	2	3	4	5
49. Prepare department income and expense					
and budget statements.	1	2	3	4	5
50. Record, monitor and carry out cost control					
system and procedures.	1	2	3	4	5
Others, please specify					
i.	1	2	3	4	5
ii.	1	2	3	4	5
iii.	1	2	3	4	5
iv.	1	2	3	4	5
V. Managing Customers					
51. Contribute in developing methods					
for evaluating customer satisfaction					
regarding product and service mix.	1	2	3	4	5
52. Develop corrective action for					
substandard services.	1	2	3	4	5
53. Effectively manage life threatening					
situation (e.g. fire, bomb threat,					
serious illness, etc.).	1	2	3	4	5

54. Examine customers' complaint record for future inquiry and improvement.	1	2	3	4	5
55. Manage guest problem with under standing and sensitivity.	1	2	3	4	5
56. Recognise the importance of consumer behaviour in business strategy.	1	2	3	4	5
Others, please specify					
i.	1	2	3	4	5
ii.	1	2	3	4	5
iii.	1	2	3	4	5
iv.	1	2	3	4	5
VI. Managing Sales and Marketing					
57. Analyse past and present business information effectively for future marketing strategic plan.	1	2	3	4	5
58. Analyse quantitatively and qualitatively marketing information.	1	2	3	4	5
59. Carry out sales activities.	1	2	3	4	5
60. Conduct market research.	1	2	3	4	5
61. Contribute to the planning and implementing of marketing and sales development activities.	1	2	3	4	5
62. Use marketing strategies to promote sales.	1	2	3	4	5
Others, please specify					
i.	1	2	3	4	5
ii.	1	2	3	4	5
iii.	1	2	3	4	5
iv.	1	2	3	4	5
VII. Managing Business Environment					
63. Ability to scan the business environment of the organisation and industry.	1	2	3	4	5
64. Identify the organisation's competitors.	1	2	3	4	5
65. Carry out evaluative and investigative study for organisation's business development.	1	2	3	4	5
66. Keep abreast with technological advancement in the business.	1	2	3	4	5
67. Keep abreast with the social trends					

(e.g. social cultural, socio-economic, etc.).	1 2 3 4 5
68. Knowledgeable in the legal aspects of the	
(e.g. state and federal labour law, licensing,	
trade union, hygiene and safety, etc.).	1 2 3 4 5
69. Possess 'hands-on' experience with	
computer system and software.	1 2 3 4 5
Others, please specify	
i.	1 2 3 4 5
ii.	1 2 3 4 5
iii.	1 2 3 4 5
iv.	1 2 3 4 5
VIII. Managing Communication	
70. Ability to make clear oral presentation of	
facts or ideas both to small groups or	
large audience.	1 2 3 4 5
71. Communicate difficult and complex ideas	
and problems in a simple manner that	
aids understanding.	1 2 3 4 5
72. Communicate in foreign language	
(e.g. Japanese, Spanish, French, etc	
other than English).	1 2 3 4 5
73. Contribute in establishing organisational	
and departmental objective strategies.	1 2 3 4 5
74. Good listener, as well as, speaker.	1 2 3 4 5
75. Possess effective writing and verbal	
skills.	1 2 3 4 5
76. Prepare reports (e.g. sales and marketing,	
meetings, etc.).	1 2 3 4 5
Others, please specify	
i.	1 2 3 4 5
ii.	1 2 3 4 5
iii.	1 2 3 4 5
iv.	1 2 3 4 5
IX. Managing Self	
77. Ability to perceive the needs, concerns	
and personal problems of others.	1 2 3 4 5
78. Ability to perform under pressure.	1 2 3 4 5

I

79. Act with good understanding of how the different needs or department of the organisation and its environment fit together.	1	2	3	4	5
80. Build bridges and business alliance.	1	2	3	4	5
81. Clearly relate goals and actions to strategic planning of organisation.	1	2	3	4	5
82. Create new and imaginative approaches to work related issues.	1	2	3	4	5
83. Delegate appropriate tasks to others.	1	2	3	4	5
84. Demonstrate professional appearance and poise.	1	2	3	4	5
85. Develop and use networks to achieve the desired organisation's goals and objectives.	1	2	3	4	5
86. Develop teamwork and individuals to enhance performance.	1	2	3	4	5
87. Focus personal attention on specific details that are critical to success of key events.	1	2	3	4	5
88. Manage many things at once.	1	2	3	4	5
89. Plan, allocate and evaluate work carried out by teams, individuals and self.	1	2	3	4	5
90. Possess a proactive mindset.	1	2	3	4	5
91. Possess high spiritual values.	1	2	3	4	5
92. Present oneself in an assured and confident manner when faced with a challenge.	1	2	3	4	5
93. Recognise and respond to the needs and feelings of others.	1	2	3	4	5
94. Reframe problems to create new solutions.	1	2	3	4	5
95. Seek, evaluate and organise information for action.	1	2	3	4	5
96. Sensitive to the organisation's business culture and act as expected.	1	2	3	4	5
97. Set objectives and priorities in uncertain and complex situation.	1	2	3	4	5
98. Take the leading role in initiating and lead by example.	1	2	3	4	5

Others, please specify

i.	1	2	3	4	5
ii.	1	2	3	4	5

iii.	1 2 3 4 5
iv.	1 2 3 4 5
X. *Managing Purchase and Supply*	
99. Assist in developing purchasing specification for food and non-food supplies that attain appropriate quality, quantity, source and price.	1 2 3 4 5
100. Carry out the department purchase procedures (e.g. bids, call for tender, etc.)	1 2 3 4 5
101. Contribute in the implementation of inventory control system.	1 2 3 4 5
102. Identify equipment and supply requirements.	1 2 3 4 5
103. Justify equipment purchase and cost/benefit and payback.	1 2 3 4 5
104. Manage control and evaluate stock within area of responsibility.	1 2 3 4 5
105. Possess technical skills in receiving, storing and issuing of food and beverage items.	1 2 3 4 5
Others, please specify	
i.	1 2 3 4 5
ii.	1 2 3 4 5
iii.	1 2 3 4 5
iv.	1 2 3 4 5
OTHER FUNCTIONAL AREA AND COMPETENCE STATEMENTS:	
XI.	
i.	1 2 3 4 5
ii.	1 2 3 4 5
iii.	1 2 3 4 5
iv.	1 2 3 4 5
OTHER FUNCTIONAL AREA AND COMPETENCE STATEMENTS	
XII.	
i.	1 2 3 4 5
ii.	1 2 3 4 5

iii.	1	2	3	4	5	
iv.	1	2	3	4	5	

OTHER FUNCTIONAL AREA AND COMPETENCE STATEMENTS

XII.						
i.	1	2	3	4	5	
ii.	1	2	3	4	5	
iii.	1	2	3	4	5	
iv.	1	2	3	4	5	

Note:

Amendment - Due to a typographical error in numbering the competence statements list number 14 has been missed out. Although the number 14 is missing the sequence remains correct, so statement 13 immediately follows number 15

Appendix XIV

1. In this changing business environment do think managers need   new skills and competences or rather changing the priority of the various competences to become effective?

    Prompt: Do you think the study has covered all the essential part of competences for entry-level managers?

2. The subject of cultural understanding in the field of management.
    Is there any management differences or similarities between cultures?

3. Management is complex occupation. What is your opinion?

Appendix XV: How the Experts rated the various competence statements*

Question No.	Mean	Std. Dev.	Min	Max	N	Label
Q2.84	4.75	.45	4.00	5.00	16	professional appearan
Q2.74	4.69	.48	4.00	5.00	16	good listerner&speak
Q2.70	4.69	.48	4.00	5.00	16	oralpresentation
Q2.75	4.63	.50	4.00	5.00	16	writing skills
Q2.23	4.63	.50	4.00	5.00	16	workrelation
Q2.39	4.62	.50	4.00	5.00	16	accuraterecord
Q2.98	4.56	.63	3.00	5.00	16	take leading role & l
Q2.9	4.56	.51	4.00	5.00	16	managefrontoffice
Q2.86	4.50	.52	4.00	5.00	16	develop teamwork to e
Q2.15	4.50	.52	4.00	5.00	16	plan&manageevent
Q2.20	4.50	.52	4.00	5.00	16	proactivemind
Q2.90	4.44	.63	3.00	5.00	16	proactive mind
Q2.78	4.44	.63	3.00	5.00	16	perform under pressur
Q2.5	4.44	.63	3.00	5.00	16	conceptotaloper
Q2.12	4.44	.51	4.00	5.00	16	managerestoperation
Q2.97	4.44	.63	3.00	5.00	16	set objectives & prio
Q2.92	4.44	.63	3.00	5.00	16	assured & confident f
Q2.8	4.44	.63	3.00	5.00	16	managefood
Q2.29	4.44	.51	4.00	5.00	16	motivatestaff
Q2.25	4.38	.50	4.00	5.00	16	creativethinking
Q2.71	4.31	.70	3.00	5.00	16	comm difficult ideas
Q2.34	4.31	.70	3.00	5.00	16	checkownthinking
Q2.96	4.31	.70	3.00	5.00	16	sentive to orgn cultu
Q2.40	4.31	.70	3.00	5.00	16	mgmtmindset
Q2.66	4.25	.68	3.00	5.00	16	abreasttech
Q2.30	4.25	.58	3.00	5.00	16	performtraining
Q2.26	4.25	.58	3.00	5.00	16	trainingneeds
Q2.81	4.25	.58	3.00	5.00	16	clearly relate goals
Q2.7	4.25	.68	3.00	5.00	16	operproblem
Q2.69	4.25	.58	3.00	5.00	16	software'hands-on'
Q2.64	4.25	.68	3.00	5.00	16	identifycompetitor
Q2.6	4.25	.58	3.00	5.00	16	implechangeservice
Q2.22	4.25	.58	3.00	5.00	16	recruit&select
Q2.76	4.25	.58	3.00	5.00	16	prepare reports
Q2.67	4.25	.77	3.00	5.00	16	abreastsocial
Q2.56	4.25	.68	3.00	5.00	16	consumerbeh
Q2.24	4.25	.68	3.00	5.00	16	relishchange
Q2.11	4.19	.66	3.00	5.00	16	managelaundry
Q2.95	4.19	.66	3.00	5.00	16	seek, evaluate and or
Q2.77	4.19	.75	3.00	5.00	16	percieve needs of oth
Q2.46	4.19	.66	3.00	5.00	16	budgetvariances
Q2.59	4.19	.54	3.00	5.00	16	salesactivities
Q2.41	4.19	.66	3.00	5.00	16	evaluateinfoaction

con't../

Question No.	Mean	Std Dev	Min	Max	N	Label
Q2.101	4.19	.75	3.00	5.00	16	implementation of inv
Q2.94	4.13	.81	2.00	5.00	16	reframe problem to cr
Q2.87	4.13	.62	3.00	5.00	16	focus attention that
Q2.79	4.13	.72	3.00	5.00	16	u/standing of diff. n
Q2.57	4.13	.62	3.00	5.00	16	businfor
Q2.3	4.13	.72	3.00	5.00	16	asstoperplan
Q2.16	4.13	.50	3.00	5.00	16	plansanitation
Q2.28	4.12	.72	3.00	5.00	16	employeegrieve
Q2.21	4.12	.72	3.00	5.00	16	factsfeeling
Q2.105	4.06	.68	3.00	5.00	16	possess tech. skills
Q2.93	4.06	.77	3.00	5.00	16	recognise & respond t
Q2.85	4.06	.68	3.00	5.00	16	networking
Q2.68	4.06	.77	3.00	5.00	16	abreastlegal
Q2.65	4.06	.68	3.00	5.00	16	eva&investigateorgdev
Q2.62	4.06	.68	3.00	5.00	16	strateprosales
Q2.52	4.06	.93	2.00	5.00	16	correctiveactions
Q2.51	4.06	.93	2.00	5.00	16	customersatisfaction
Q2.35	4.06	.68	3.00	5.00	16	fact&feelingothers
Q2.27	4.00	.63	3.00	5.00	16	healthsafety
Q2.99	4.00	.63	3.00	5.00	16	purchase spec for foo
Q2.73	4.00	.73	3.00	5.00	16	contribute orgn&dept
Q2.61	4.00	.63	3.00	5.00	16	salesdevactivities
Q2.60	4.00	.73	3.00	5.00	16	mktresearch
Q2.55	4.00	.73	3.00	5.00	16	guestprob
Q2.43	4.00	.63	3.00	5.00	16	finstatements
Q2.38	4.00	.63	3.00	5.00	16	complexsituation
Q2.37	4.00	.73	3.00	5.00	16	newmodes
Q2.33	4.00	.63	3.00	5.00	16	jobdescription
Q2.104	4.00	.63	3.00	5.00	16	manage control & eval
Q2.100	4.00	.63	3.00	5.00	16	purchase procedure
Q2.10	4.00	.63	3.00	5.00	16	managehousekeep
Q2.80	4.00	.73	3.00	5.00	16	bridges &bus alliance
Q2.91	3.94	.93	2.00	5.00	16	spiritual values
Q2.83	3.94	.77	2.00	5.00	16	delegate tasks to oth
Q2.54	3.94	.93	2.00	5.00	16	complaints
Q2.19	3.94	.68	3.00	5.00	16	interiordeco
Q2.103	3.94	.57	3.00	5.00	16	justify equip. purcha
Q2.102	3.94	.68	3.00	5.00	16	identify equip. & sup
Q2.42	3.94	.68	3.00	5.00	16	ideasexplain
Q2.31	3.94	.85	2.00	5.00	16	chaos&control
Q2.89	3.88	.62	3.00	5.00	16	evaluate work of self
Q2.17	3.87	.62	3.00	5.00	16	sensitiveenergyconser
Q2.1	3.81	.83	2.00	5.00	16	mennutri
Q2.44	3.75	.86	2.00	5.00	16	weekstatsreport
Q2.47	3.75	.77	3.00	5.00	16	foodcost

con't../

Question No.	Mean	Std Dev	Min	Max	N	Label
Q2.58	3.75	.77	2.00	5.00	16	quali&quantiinfor
Q2.50	3.75	.68	3.00	5.00	16	monitorcostsys
Q2.49	3.75	.58	3.00	5.00	16	preparei/comestat
Q2.82	3.75	.77	2.00	5.00	16	new approaches of doi
Q2.88	3.69	.87	2.00	5.00	16	manage many things at
Q2.63	3.69	.79	2.00	5.00	16	scanenvi
Q2.45	3.63	.72	2.00	5.00	16	sellingprices
Q2.36	3.56	.81	2.00	5.00	16	causalrel
Q2.32	3.56	.73	2.00	5.00	16	instinct&intuition
Q2.2	3.56	.89	2.00	5.00	16	menplan
Q2.4	3.50	.52	3.00	4.00	16	asstplan&faci
Q2.13	3.50	.63	2.00	4.00	16	manageporter
Q2.18	3.31	.70	2.00	4.00	16	standardrecipies
Q2.48	3.25	.86	2.00	5.00	16	cashmgmt
Q2.72	3.06	.77	2.00	4.00	16	foreign language
Q2.53	2.94	.68	2.00	4.00	16	mlifethreat

* For full description of the question please refer to Appendix XII

Appendix XVI: Letters to the Stakeholders (stakeholders survey)

Institut Teknologi Mara
Fakulti Pengurusan Hotel & Pelancongan
Shah Alam 40450
Selangor Darul Ehsan

Date

Addressee

Dear sir/Madame,

This is to inform you that Mr. Rahmat Hashim, a faculty member of the school, is conducting an important research project. This research attempts to identify the managerial competences expected of hotel management graduates (degree-level). The topic of the research project involves investigating into key stakeholders' expectations of Malaysian degree-level hotel management education and the implication for curriculum development.

In this task, it will be of great value to have your opinion as the key stakeholder of hotel management education. I am writing to you as a person who is concern with the hotel education development in Malaysia and can affect the effectiveness of the programme. I would greatly appreciate if you take a few moments of your time to answer the questions on the enclosed questionnaire. It will take around twenty (20) minutes to complete.

If you are willing to help please find the self-addressed stamped envelop and return your responses as soon as possible. Your response will have great impact in this study. Your answers will be held in strict confidence and used only in this research project.

I take this opportunity to thank you very much for your time and contribution in this survey. I very much hope you will participate. Your assistance will make a significant impact in developing an effective hotel management programme for the nation.

Thank you for your time and co-operation.

Yours sincerely

S. Y. Yong
Degree Programme Co-ordinator

Appendix XVII

Institut Teknologi Mara
Fakulti Pengurusan Hotel & Pelancongan
Shah Alam 40450
Selangor Darul Ehsan

Addressee

Dear sir/Madame,

      Recently I have mailed you a set of questionnaire asking your help to identify the importance of functional areas and competences in hotel management education in Malaysia. We have been very selective in selecting our respondents, your response is very crucial in the study.

      It will take only a few moment to fill out and return the questionnaire in the stamped envelope enclosed. If you have already done so, thank you very much. If you have not yet had the opportunity to answer, we would be very grateful if you would do so. Your answers will be held in strict confidence.

Thank you very much.

Yours sincerely,

S. Y. Yong
Degree Program Co-ordinator

P.S. Possibly our questionnaire went astray in the mails. Therefore we enclose another set for your convenience.

Appendix XVIII

1.   Do you think that today's educational institutions are sensitive enough to the changes that are taking place in the environment?

        Probe: What about the notion of learning individual or
               organisation?

2.   In response to the changing environment, educational institutions have taken various initiatives to keep abreast with the latest development in the industry.

        Prompt:
            Do you think it should concentrate more on the
            managerial skills or operational skills?

3.   In your opinion, how would you describe a potential candidate for an entry-level manager?

Appendix XIX: Overall Ranking of Competence Statements
RANK ORDER OF THE DEGREE OF IMPORTANCE KEY STAKEHOLDERS PLACED ON THE MANAGEMENT COMPETENCES

Question No.	Competences	Stakeholders (n=209) Mean (Rank*)	Edu (n=47)	Ind. (n=93)	Stu (n=69)
Competence considered very important/essential					
84.	Demonstrate professional appearance and poise.	4.70* (1)	4.85 (1)	4.86 (3.5)	4.38 (3.5)
74.	Good listener, as well as, speaker.	4.69* (2)	4.72 (4.5)	4.86 (3.5)	4.43 (1)
86.	Develop teamwork and individuals to enhance performance.	4.66* (3)	4.72 (4.5)	4.88 (1)	4.30 (8.5)
70.	Ability to make clear oral presentation of facts or ideas both to small groups or large audience.	4.65* (4)	4.74 (3)	4.87 (2)	4.29 (11)
51	Contribute in developing methods for evaluating customer satisfaction regarding product and service mix.	4.63* (5.5)	4.57 (13.5)	4.85 (6)	4.38 (3.5)
55.	Manage guest problem with understanding and sensitivity.	4.63* (5.5)	4.57 (13.5)	4.86 (3.5)	4.35 (6)
54.	Examine customers' complaint record for future inquiry and improvement.	4.62* (7)	4.55 (15.5)	4.84 (7)	4.38 (3.5)
75.	Possess effective writing skills.	4.60* (8)	4.70(7.5)	4.81 (8)	4.25 (17.5)
71.	Communicate difficult and complex ideas and problems in a simple manner that aids understanding.	4.58* (9)	4.70 (7.5)	4.76 (9)	4.26 (13.5)

Question Competences No.	Stakeholders (n=209)	Edu (n=47)	Ind. (n=93)	Stu (n=69)
	Mean (Rank*)			
92. Present oneself in an assured and confident manner when faced with a challenge.	4.56* (10.5)	4.70 (7.5)	4.75 (10)	4.22 (20.5)
78. Ability to perform under pressure.	4.56* (10.5)	4.79 (2)	4.62 (15.5)	4.30 (8.5)
85. Develop and use networks to achieve the desired organisation's goals and objectives.	4.55* (12)	4.68 (10)	4.65 (13.5)	4.32 (7)
90. Possess a proactive mind.	4.52* (13)	4.64 (11)	4.68 (12)	4.22 (20.5)

Competence considered Important

39. Maintain accurate and appropriate record or reporting purposes .	4.48 (14)	4.49 (23.5)	4.54 (18)	4.39 (2)
52. Develop corrective action for substandard services.	4.47* (15)	4.55 (15.5)	4.65 (13.5)	4.19 (24.5)
98. Take the leading role in initiating and lead by example.	4.45* (16)	4.49 (23.5)	4.74 (11)	4.04 (54.5)
29. Motivate personnel for effective performance.	4.44 (17)	4.49 (23.5)	4.52 (16)	4.30 (8.5)
25. Encourage creative thinking working relationship.	4.43* (18.5)	4.53 (19.5)	4.62 (15.5)	4.10 (42.5)
30. Perform in-service training.	4.43 (18.5)	4.55 (15.5)	4.51 (17.5)	4.23 (19)
91 Possess high spiritual values .	4.40* (20)	4.72 (4.5)	4.45 (19)	4.10 (42.5)
57 Analyse past and present business information effectively for future marketing strategic plan.	4.36 (21.5)	4.36 (35.5)	4.44 (23)	4.26 (13.5)
40. Possess information mindset.	4.36*(21.5)	4.26 (50.5)	4.59 (17)	4.12 (40.5)
96. Sensitive to the organisation's business culture and act as expected.	4.34 (23)	4.40 (12)	4.37 (26)	4.26 (13.5)

Question No.	Competences	Stakeholders (n=209)	Edu (n=47)	Ind. (n=93)	Stu (n=69)
		Mean (Rank)			
76.	Prepare reports (e.g. sales and marketing, meetings, etc.).	4.33 (24)	4.60 (12)	4.24 (38.5)	4.28 (12)
15.	Plan and manage the running of an event.	4.32* (25.5)	4.50 (22)	4.38 (25)	4.13 (35.5)
97.	Set objectives and priorities in uncertain and complex situation.	4.32 (25.5)	4.43 (28.5)	4.35 (27.5)	4.20 (22.5)
5.	Conceptualise the total operation of the business.	4.32* (25.5)	4.53 (19.5)	4.51 (20.5)	3.91 (76.5)
69.	Possess 'hands-on' experience with computer system and software.	4.31 (28)	4.43 (28.5)	4.29 (32)	4.26 (13.5)
41.	Seeks, evaluate or organise information for action. (technology)	4.30 (29)	4.28 (47)	4.39 (24)	4.19 (24.5)
12.	Manage restaurant operations and services.	4.27 (30.25)	4.43 (28.5)	4.31 (30)	4.12 (40.5)
67.	Keep abreast with the social trends (e.g. social cultural, socio-economic, etc.).	4.27 (30.25)	4.30 (40.5)	4.28 (33)	4.25 (17.5)
56.	Recognise the importance of consumer behaviour in business strategy.	4.27 (30.25)	4.32 (39)	4.35 (27.5)	4.13 (35.5)
79.	Act with good understanding of how the different needs or department of the organisation and its environment fit together.	4.27* (30.25)	4.55 (15.5)	4.17 (43.5)	4.20 (22.5)
10.	Manage housekeeping operations.	4.24* (34)	4.43 (28.5)	4.27 (34.5)	4.07 (49.5)
59.	Carry out sales activities.	4.23 (35.5)	4.28 (47)	4.32 (29)	4.09 (45.5)
9.	Manage front-office operations.	4.23* (35.5)	4.45 (26.5)	4.30 (31)	4.00 (61.5)

Question No.	Competences	Stakeholders (n=209) Mean (Rank*)	Edu (n=47)	Ind. (n=93)	Stu (n=69)
43.	Analyse financial statements to evaluate operational performance.	4.22 (37.5)	4.36 (35.5)	4.22 (40)	4.14 (34)
23	Create & enhance effective working relationship	4.22 (37.5)	4.26 (50.5)	4.24 (38.5)	4.19 (24.5)
77.	Ability to perceive the needs, concerns and personal problems of others.	4.22 (37.5)	4.34 (38)	4.26 (36.5)	4.09 (42.5)
42.	Use several ideas to explain the actions, needs or motives of others.	4.21* (40)	4.40 (32.5)	4.26 (36.5)	4.00 (61.5)
81.	Clearly relate goals and actions to strategic planning of organisation.	4.20 (41.5)	4.30 (40.5)	4.16 (47)	4.19 (24.5)
38.	Identify the most important or crucial issues in a complex situation or facing with a problem.	4.20 (41.5)	4.26 (48.5)	4.18 (42)	4.17 (29)
88.	Manage many things at once.	4.19* (43)	4.51 (21)	4.20 (41)	3.94 (66.5)
94.	Reframe problems to create new solutions.	4.18* (44)	4.45 (26.5)	4.15 (48.5)	4.03 (56.5)
26.	Identify training needs.	4.16 (45.5)	4.21 (58.5)	4.15 (48.5)	4.15 (34)
66.	Keep abreast with technological advancement in the business.	4.16 (45.5)	4.19 (60.5)	4.15 (48.5)	4.16 (30.5)
58.	Analyse quantitatively and qualitatively marketing information.	4.16 (45.5)	4.23 (54.5)	4.17 (43.5)	4.09 (45.5)
7.	Identify operational problems.	4.15 (48.5)	4.19 (60.5)	4.13 (51.5)	4.16 (30.5)
21.	Appraise employee performance.	4.15 (48.5)	4.17 (62)	4.12 (53)	4.18 (28)
20.	Able to develop proactive mindset.	4.14* (50.25)	4.23 (54.5)	4.27 (34.5)	3.91 (76.5)

Question No.	Competences	Stakeholders (n=209) Mean (Rank*)	Edu (n=47)	Ind. (n=93)	Stu (n=69)
82	Create new and imaginative approaches to work related issues.	4.14 (50.25)	4.30 (40.5)	4.11 (54.5)	4.09 (45.5)
95.	Seek, evaluate and organise information for action. (rationale)	4.14* (50.25)	4.36 (35.5)	4.17 (43.5)	3.96 (64.5)
62.	Use marketing strategies to promote sales.	4.14 (50.25)	4.13 (64.5)	4.17 (43.5)	4.10 (42.5)
73	Contribute in establishing department objective strategies.	4.14 (50.25)	4.30 (40.5)	4.10 (56.5)	4.07 (49.5)
93.	Recognise and respond to the needs and feelings of others.	4.13* (55.5)	4.30 (40.5)	4.13 (51.5)	4.03 (56.5)
63.	Ability to scan the business environment of the organisation and industry.	4.13 (55.5)	4.28 (48.5)	4.05 (60)	4.13 (35.5)
87.	Focus personal attention on specific details that are critical to success of key events.	4.12 (57)	4.21 (58.5)	4.11 (54.5)	4.07 (49.5)
64.	Identify the organisation's competitors.	4.11 (58.5)	4.38 (34)	4.02 (63.5)	4.06 (52.5)
28.	Manage employee grievances effectively.	4.11 (58.5)	4.30 (40.5)	4.10 (56.5)	4.01 (58.5)
89.	Plan, allocate and evaluate work carried out by teams, individuals and self.	4.07 (60.5)	4.23 (54.5)	4.02 (63.5)	4.01 (58.5)
44.	Analyse weekly, monthly and annual financial and statistical reports .	4.07 (60.5)	4.04 (77.5)	4.01 (66.5)	4.16 (30.5)
80.	Build bridges and business alliances.	4.05 (62)	4.30 (40.5)	4.00 (68)	3.94 (66.5)
50.	Record, monitor, and carry out cost control system & procedure.	4.03 (63)	4.06 (69.5)	3.94 (77)	4.13 (35.5)

Con't../

Question No.	Competences	Stakeholders (n=209) Mean (Rank*)	Edu (n=47)	Ind. (n=93)	Stu (n=69)
6.	Contribute to the implementation of change in service, product and system.	4.02* (64.25)	4.15 (63)	4.09 (58)	3.86 (85.5)
68.	Knowledge in the legal aspects of the business (e.g. state and federal labour law, licensing, trade union, hygiene and safety, etc.).	4.02 (64.25)	4.02 (73.5)	4.01 (66.5)	4.04 (54.5)
35.	Focus on facts and feelings when handling an emotional situation.	4.02 (64.25)	4.00 (76)	4.06 (59)	3.97 (63)
61	Contribute to the planning and implementation of marketing and sales development activities.	4.02 (64.25)	3.98 (77.5)	4.04 (61)	4.01 (58.5)
36.	Identify implications or casual relationship for action.	4.01 (68)	4.09 (67.5)	4.03 (62)	3.93 (73.5)
34.	Check validity of own thinking with others.	4.00 (69)	4.04 (71.5)	4.02 (63.5)	3.94 (66.5)
24.	Develop abilities to relish change.	3.99 (70)	4.13 (64.5)	3.99 (69)	3.90 (82.5)
31.	Strike a balance between chaos and control.	3.96 (71.5)	4.06 (69.5)	3.92 (72.5)	3.94 (66.5)
65.	Carry out evaluative and investigative study for organisation's business development.	3.96 (71.5)	3.94 (80.5)	3.89 (76)	4.06 (52.5)
32.	Uses instinct and intuition to assess or explain situations or people.	3.95 (73.5)	4.11 (66)	3.88 (77)	3.94 (66.5)
3.	Assist in operational planning and decision-making.	3.95* (73.5)	4.23 (54.5)	3.67 (84.5)	4.13 (35.5)
46.	Evaluate budget variances in operations performance.	3.92 (75.5)	3.94 (80.5)	3.91 (74)	3.93 (73.5)

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Question No.	Competences	Stakeholders (n=209) Mean (Rank*)	Edu (n=47)	Ind. (n=93)	Stu (n=69)
11.	Manage laundry operations.	3.91* (77.5)	4.26 (50.5)	3.92 (72.5)	3.67 (101)
47.	Implement standard food, beverage and labour cost control procedures.	3.92 (75.5)	3.91 (83.5)	3.90 (75)	3.94 (66.5)
37.	Identify new modes, interprets events in new perspectives.	3.91 (77.5)	3.83 (90.5)	3.95 (70)	3.91 (76.5)
83.	Delegate appropriate tasks to others.	3.90 (79)	34.02 (73.5)	3.84 (78)	3.91 (76.5)
22.	Contribute to recruitment & selection of personnel.	3.84* (80)	4.09 (67.5)	3.67 (84.5)	3.91 (76.5)
33.	Write job descriptions and specification for personnel.	3.83 (81.5)	3.07 (85.5)	3.71 (80.5)	3.96 (64.5)
8.	Manage food production operations.	3.83 (81.5)	3.96 (79)	3.70 (82.5)	3.91 (76.5)
99.	Assist in developing purchasing specification for food and non-food supplies that attain appropriate quality, quantity, source and price.	3.81 (83)	3.98 (77.5)	3.70 (82.5)	3.85 (87)
105.	Possess technical skills in receiving, storing and issuing of food and beverage items.	3.80 (84)	3.91 (83.5)	3.67 (84.5)	3.90 (892.5)
104.	Manage control and evaluate stock within area of responsibility.	3.79 (85)	3.79 (93.5)	3.76 (79)	3,83 (88.5)
101.	Contribute in the implementation of inventory control system	3.77 (86.5)	3.85 (89)	3.67 (84.5)	3.86 (85.5)
60.	Conduct market research.	3.77 (86.5)	3.94 (80.5)	3.63 (89)	3.83 (88.5)
45.	Assist in developing selling prices based on operation cost, expected profit and competitors.	3.76* (88)	3.87 (85.5)	3.57 (93)	3.93 (73.5)

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Question No.	Competences	Stakeholders (n=209) Mean (Rank*)	Edu (n=47)	Ind. (n=93)	Stu (n=69)
17.	Sensitive in the area of energy conservation, environmental issues (e.g. waste, pollution, etc.)	3.75 (89)	3.79 (93.5)	3.71 (80.5)	3.77 (96.5)
27.	Implement health, safety and security practices for better working environment.	3.73* (90.5)	3.77 (95)	3.55 (95)	3.94 (66.5)
102.	Identify equipment and supply requirements.	3.73 (90.5)	3.81 (97)	3.61 (90)	3.83 (88.5)
103.	Justify equipment purchase and cost/benefit and payback.	3.73 (90.5)	3.83 (90.5)	3.66 (88)	3.75 (98.5)
49.	Prepare department income & expense and budget statements.	3.72 (93)	3.87 (85.5)	3.59 (91.5)	3.80 (91.5)
16.	Plan sanitation schedules and procedures pertaining to lodging and foodservice business.	3.71 (94)	3.87 (85.5)	3.56 (94)	3.80 (91.5)
13.	Manage the portering or concierge services.	3.70* (95)	4.02 (73.5)	3.59 (91.5)	3.62 (102.5)
19.	Recognise the importance of interior decoration aspects in restaurant design.	3.67* (96.5)	3.74 (96.5)	3.48 (97)	3.87 (95)
100.	Carry out the department purchase procedure (e.g. bids, call for tender, etc.)	3.67 (96.5)	3.74 (96.5)	3.54 (96)	3.78 (95)
1.	Analyse menu as to nutritional content and quality control.	3.59* (98)	3.74 (96.5)	3.35 (98.5)	3.77 (96.5)
18.	Recognise that standardised recipes are used to provide a consistent basis for quality & quantity control.	3.55* (99)	3.55 (101)	3.35 (98.5)	3.80 (91.5)
4.	Assist in planning and designing of facilities.	3.52* (100)	3.72 (99)	3.23 (102)	3.77 (96.5)

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Question No.	Competences	Stakeholders (n=209)	Edu (n=47)	Ind. (n=93)	Stu (n=69)
		Mean (Rank*)			
53.	Effectively manage life-threatening situation (e.g. fire, bomb threat, serious illness, etc.).	3.50* (101.5)	3.51 (102)	3.32 (100)	3.72 (100)
48.	Manage system for handling cash/cash equivalent.	3.50* (101.5)	3.57 (100)	3.27 (101)	3.75 (98.5)
Competence considered moderately Important					
2.	Assist in menu planning and recipes development	3.21* (103)	3.40 (103)	2.80 (104)	3.62 (102.5)
72.	Communicate in foreign language (e.g. Japanese, Spanish, French, etc. other English).	3.11* (104)	3.26 (104)	2.81 (103)	3.43 (104)

Note: *$p<.05$