

## CHAPTER 2

### TOURISM EDUCATION FRAMEWORKS, HOSPITALITY AND TOURISM EDUCATION STUDIES AND METHODOLOGY

---

- 2.1. Introduction
  - 2.2. Basic Concepts and Tourism Education Development
  - 2.3. Review of Tourism Education Theoretical Frameworks
  - 2.4. Review of Tourism Education and Hospitality Studies
  - 2.5. Methodological Approaches to Tourism and Hospitality Studies
  - 2.6. Proposed Methodology for this Thesis
  - 2.7. Purpose and Specific Aims of the Four Studies on Tourism Education in Indonesia as Viewed by Stakeholders
  - 2.8. Summary of Chapter Two
- 

#### 2.1. Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to explore critically tourism education frameworks. Previous studies on hospitality and tourism education conducted in both developed and developing countries will be reviewed. The development of tourism education and definitions for major terms will be outlined, followed by discussions on current status of tourism education in Indonesia. A review of theoretical frameworks for tourism education for both developed and developing countries will also be undertaken to establish a background context for the thesis. Previous studies on hospitality and tourism education will be analysed to identify gaps which exist in the topic of the study. The chapter also discusses methodological approaches employed for previous tourism studies in order to select appropriate frameworks and approaches. To conclude, the main purposes of the thesis and individual aims of each separate study will be presented.

## **2.2. Basic Concepts and Tourism Education Development**

In order to bring into perspective the importance of the present study particularly in relation to the development of the Indonesia's tourism industry, several questions will be addressed in this section. The questions include 'What is tourism education'? What is tourism training? Are there any differences between tourism education and training? If differences exist, is there any kind of relationship between the two terms? How did tourism education develop in Indonesia? What approaches and delivery modes are being applied by tourism education in its teaching and learning processes? Are there any differences between tourism education's early development and its present development in the approaches employed? And what is the current status of tourism education within higher education in Indonesia.

### **2.2.1 Definition of Terms**

Tourism education has developed rapidly in the academic world in the last two decades. However, it can still be considered a new and emerging area of study. For instance, in the UK, it was only in the mid-1980s that mainstream travel and tourism courses at degree levels were established in higher education institutions (Messenger, 1991). As an emerging discipline tourism studies is subjected to scrutiny (Leiper, 2000). The most contentious issue is, perhaps, whether tourism is a discipline. Two different groups of perspectives exist among tourism scholars. One group of scholars are in favour of regarding tourism studies as a distinct discipline or in the process of developing into a discipline (Cooper, et al, 1998; Goeldner, 1988; Jovicic, 1988; Leiper, 1981; Ryan, 1997). The other group, while noting the lack of integrated frameworks and concepts in tourism studies, has been reluctant to endorse the idea of tourism studies as a discipline (Echtner & Jamal, 1997; Jafari, 1990; Pearce, 1993; Tribe, 1997). The former group argues that tourism studies meet certain criteria for being a discipline such as having status and credibility (Cooper et al, 1996). This contention is supported by the fact that a number of concepts distinctive to tourism studies have developed (Leiper, 2000: 807). For example, 'main destination ratio' is considered as a

tourism-specific concept which does not exist outside tourism studies (Leiper, 1981). In addition, Leiper also asserts that in the Australian context, tourism studies has been classified as a discipline by having its own Australian Standard Research Classification Codes. These criteria suggest that tourism studies has been formally recognised and that it will further develop into a distinct discipline. Jovicic (1988) as noted in Echtner and Jamal (1997) maintains that the emergence of a distinct discipline label, such as tourismology, will crystallise the development of an integrated approach to tourism.

Echtner and Jamal (1997), on the other hand, are not entirely certain that the study of tourism will develop into a distinct discipline considering certain disciplinary dilemmas associated with tourism studies. These authors have evaluated the characteristics of current tourism studies based on Kuhn's (1970) and Bernstein's perspectives (1991). They argue that from a philosophical and practical perspective, the development of tourism studies as a distinct discipline is not a certainty. As noted by Getz (1986) in Echtner and Jamal (1997), the study of tourism is enriched and yet complicated by theoretical diversities. There are a number of descriptive, explanatory, and predictive models which form the 'building block of theories' and describe the whole or subsystems (Getz, 1986:23). Furthermore, practical matters such as where the discipline should be housed and how tourism graduate programs should be tailored also contribute to slowing down the development of tourism studies into a discipline (Echtner and Jamal, 1997). Tribe (1997) has endorsed their disapproval in this regard by stating that the search for establishing tourism studies as a discipline should be abandoned because tourism studies does not qualify as a discipline. However, Tribe also believes that despite the fact that tourism studies seems likely to remain in a pre-paradigmatic phase, this situation should not be seen as a problem and that tourism studies should recognise and celebrate its diversity. Based on Hirst's sets of necessary characteristics of a discipline (1993) cited in Tribe (1997), the author also maintains that tourism studies cannot be regarded as meeting the criteria for the following reasons:

First, tourism studies can, in fact, parade a number of concepts. These include, for example the destination, the tourism multiplier, yield management, tourism impacts, and tourism motivation. But these concepts are hardly particular to tourism studies. They are concepts that have started life elsewhere and been stretched or contextualised to give them a tourism dimension.

Second, tourism concepts do not form a distinctive network. They tend to be separate and atomised and indeed need to be understood generally within the logical structure of their provider discipline. They do not link together in any logical way to provide a tourism studies way of analysing the world. Their only link is the object of their study which is tourism. They do not form a cohesive theoretical framework. Because of this there is not a distinctive logical structure to tourism studies. Third, tourism studies does not have expressions or statements which are testable against experience using criteria which are particular to tourism studies (1997:643).

Based on the discussion above, it appears essential that decision be made concerning tourism studies development, rather than debating the existence of the programs within a country's education system. Australia, for instance, has decided that the programs be accommodated in the existing tertiary educational system, so that they are able to develop quantitatively as well as qualitatively.

Despite the on going debates concerning tourism studies as a discipline, provision of education institutions has grown relatively rapidly in most developed countries. The United Kingdom, for example, has reported a rapid growth in institution numbers and in programs with nearly 100 tourism courses on offer (Airey, 1979; Airey & Johnson, 1999). Australia has also experienced a steady growth in the number of tourism education institutions. From only one institution offering the first tertiary course in 1962, more than 20 undergraduate programs and 5 postgraduate programs were in operation by 1996 (Wells, 1996). In 2002, there are over 30 institutions in Australia offering whole or part-tourism undergraduate and postgraduate degree programs (Pearce, 2002). Similarly, the United States has also experienced a rapid growth in numbers, estimated at 100 colleges and universities offering tourism (Jafari, 1990). However, the development of tourism master and doctoral programs is relatively slow (Goeldner, 2001). Following the growth is research on tourism and tourism education, which has been conducted extensively in most developed countries (Airey, 1979;

Airey & Johnson, 1999; Airey, 1999; Johnson, 1997; Koshizucha, Umemura, Mori, Horiuchi, and Shishido, 1998; Ladkin, 1999; Pearce, 1995; Wells, 1996).

However, several predicaments have arisen in the practice of tourism education such as whether the distinction between education and training and the terms hospitality and tourism have pedagogic implications (Pearce et. al, 1998). In theory, tourism education and training are different areas. The tourism education domain has seen the encouragement of analytical thinking and the understanding of conceptual issues in order to contribute to the professional and intellectual development of a person (Ritchie, 1993). In order to fulfil the requirements of educational programs tourism education should be carried out in higher education institutions such as universities. By way of contrast, tourism training is concerned with delivering practical knowledge, skills, and techniques (Ritchie, 1993). Initially, tourism training was linked to the operations of intermediaries especially in areas such as ticketing or hospitality. In practice, however, the distinction between tourism education and training is unclear (Pearce et al., 1998). Training institutions such as TAFE College in Australia conduct educational courses such as management. On the other hand, several universities offer training in such areas as computer use and communication.

Simpson (2001) also argues that in New Zealand context, the established demarcation between polytechnics, which usually offers training programs and universities is itself in the midst of substantial changes. Some polytechnics are now offering diploma level qualifications and tourism or hospitality degrees. On the other hand, universities whose traditional responsibilities are conducting degree level education have shifted their roles by providing courses at both degree and non-degree levels such as diploma programs.

Indonesian universities have also followed these patterns by conducting non-degree courses such as diplomas I – III in several areas of studies, while training courses and colleges have offered degree courses. For example, the University of Indonesia has been conducting a

three-year non-degree tourism program within the Faculty of Social and Political Sciences. These non-degree programs and training courses were formerly taught in an academy, college or other training institutions, while universities have been traditionally responsible for conducting educational degree courses.

Tourism education and training are not always differentiated or separate (Charles, 1997; Echtner, 1994, 1995; Ibida, 1990), and the terms are often used interchangeably. For the purposes of this study, in which the researcher will investigate the tertiary level only, both terms will be distinguished to ensure clarity for respondents of the study. Pearce et al (1998) propose some extended distinctions between tourism education and training. In their view, the former seeks to develop an understanding of a phenomenon or issue, and provides instruction so that students may learn a set of generally applicable principles. Within this framework, one may develop certain knowledge that will be applicable in certain areas of interest. For example, education in the area of tourism management may well suit somebody for responsibilities in the area of tourist destination or tourism planning.

Gunn (1979; 1994) defines tourism education as the study of the elements that are involved in tourism. Education involves research, professional preparation, continuing education, and public services, whereby a person studies the disciplines comprising the study of tourism. From Gunn's perspective, tourism education encompasses diverse aspects of tourism, which include approaches to tourism education and to professional education. From these perspectives, it can be concluded that tourism education serves as an umbrella for tourism training, in which a more holistic approach to tourism as a system needs to be developed. In this sense, the curriculum necessitates an integrated approach within a framework which has already been suggested by theorists and other writers on aspects of tourism (Wells, 1990), such as conceptual models developed by Leiper (1981&1995), Gunn (1979), and Mill and Morrison (1985) (Figures 2.1, 2.2 and 2.3).

Leiper (1981) states that tourism is an open system of five elements interacting with broader environments, the elements being a dynamic human element, tourists; three geographical elements: generating region, transit route and destination region; and an economic element, the tourist industry. In his newer model, Leiper (1995) indicates that the system has an element which is called 'traveller generating region'. Consequently, this model recognises the fact that many places such as Bali and Jakarta (Indonesia) for examples function as both a traveller-generating region (TGR) as well as a tourist destination region (TDR). This implies that the model acknowledges the existence of different organisations in the places which function as both TGR and TDR. The system developed by Leiper has been used to present the studies of tourism in the context of holistic framework which provides those involved in academic research, government officials or the industry with an understanding of the nature of tourism. For the purposes of tourism education, the concept suggests a framework for the development of tourism courses or specific tourism units (Leiper, 1981).

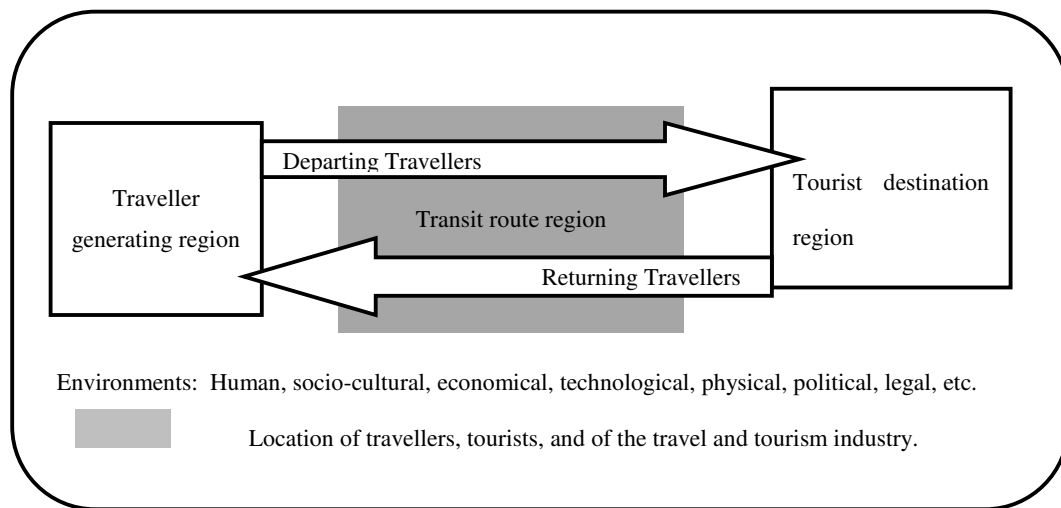


Figure 2.1. A Basic Whole Tourism System  
Source: Leiper, 1995

Ideally, then, tourism education is the systematic and integrated study of tourism, its components and the body of knowledge within a conceptual framework. Because tourism is a new area of study, resources are rationed and there is a very limited understanding by the industry of the educational dimensions of tourism. More often, tourism education centres on

curricula featuring elements only of the body of knowledge and very seldom on a holistic or conceptual approach (Wells, 1990).

Gunn's model (Figure 2.2.) represents a somewhat different approach, in which 'attractions' is arguably one of important aspects in tourism. Consequently, tourism education syllabus is expected to include one or two more units related to attractions, since attractions are one important component contributing to the satisfaction of tourist experiences. French (1996: 124) asserts that "attractions are the features that attract a tourist to a particular destination...they constitute the main reason for travel to the destination.

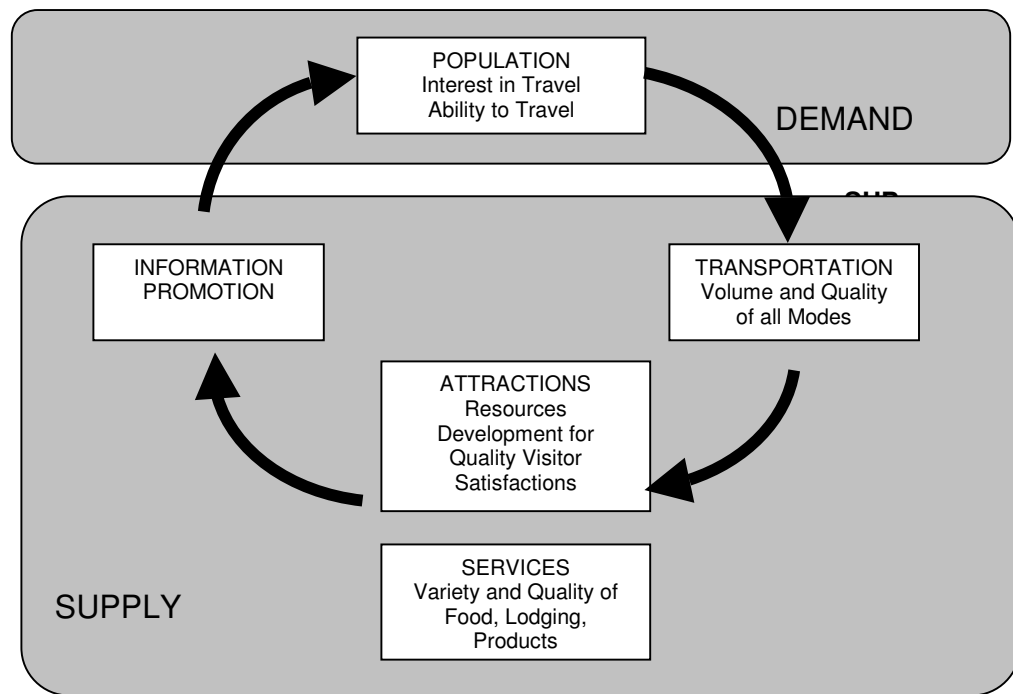


Figure 2.2. The Functioning Tourism System  
Source: Gunn, 1994

Therefore, ideally, tourism programs are developed by encompassing both the whole and the component parts of tourism system defined in the models and individual subjects can be developed based on the elements. For example, the models of tourism systems provided by



Mill and Morrison (1985) and Leiper (1995) both emphasise the supply and demand dimensions of tourism and both include the importance of tourism experience. Leiper's tourism system comprises five basic elements namely a tourist-generating region, a tourist destination region, a travel route, the tourist and the tourism industry. This allows all sectors of the industry, including hospitality services, to be understood in the context of the total tourism phenomenon and the environmental factors which influence it (Stear and Griffin, 1993).

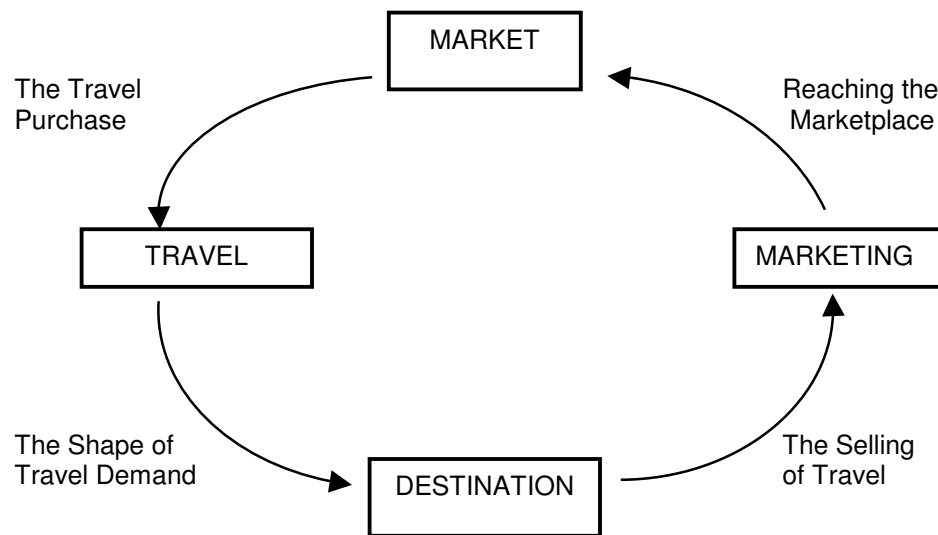


Figure 2.3. Tourism System  
Source: After Mill and Morrison, 1998

Tourism training, on the other hand, develops a set of highly specific skills that are of immediate application to targeted occupations (Pearce et al, 1998). For example, training for guiding complies with the requirements of the tour guide associations who decide on a set of standardised competencies for carrying out the tour guide's tasks. Similarly, training for hotel receptionists complies with the requirements of the front line office according to competency-based training approaches. Gunn (1998) also asserts that tourism training aims at developing highly-structured instructions and skill development for specific tasks, such as hotel housekeeping, accounting, front desk, and maintenance. According to this view, tourism training may be developed based on a competency-based education, which requires

students to be able to perform a certain task, and the training concludes when the aim is achieved.

Based on the approaches reviewed in the preceding paragraph, it may be concluded that tourism education encompasses broader concerns than does tourism training since the latter addresses only specific measurable skills. In this context, tourism training in general can be seen as a component of tourism education. In principle, tourism education should be based only on providing tourism studies without a competency-based achievement. However, in practice, most tourism education provides not only knowledge-based education, but also competency-based education through industry-linked experiences. Such experiences have been widely recommended and adopted to assist graduates in finding employment.

It has also been generally accepted that tourism and hospitality studies are closely linked as the terms hospitality and tourism education have been used interchangeably in the area of research and education. Stear and Griffin (1993:41-42), however, argue that there are four incorrect assumptions about tourism and hospitality linkage, particularly in the Australian context. The suppositions state (1) that commercially or industrially hospitality constitutes the most significant component of tourism; (2) that the hospitality sector is the most significant sector which leads to an assumption that the hospitality industry is the tourism industry; (3) that all commercial or industrial hospitality services are provided mainly for tourists; and (4) that hospitality education and training and tourism education and training are the same thing. There is considerable evidence to support the proposition that these assumptions are widespread. However, the authors have criticised these assumptions by providing detailed evidence. For instance, in response to the third argument, they assert that statistics shows that the largest percentage of visitor nights was spent in a private accommodation and that restaurants are patronised not only by tourists but also by non-travellers. Furthermore, they contend that the fourth assumption has some implications which may result in inappropriate course designs. Based on this notion, it might be assumed that there is no difference between hospitality education and tourism education. In fact, tourism encompasses a much

broader area that includes hospitality as only one of its component parts. Historically, many tourism courses in the UK, the USA and in Australia have had their origin in courses associated with hotel and catering training (Wells, 1990). The first Indonesian tourism course was also established to satisfy human resource needs for the hotel industry and it seems that the trend of offering hospitality education continues to grow in an attempt to keep abreast with developments in the hotel industry sector. However, Stear and Griffith have challenged this myth by asserting that tourism education which focuses exclusively on hospitality would be likely to neglect other significant areas such as planning and management.

Therefore, for the purpose of this study and in order to focus on tourism education which also includes hospitality education, the terms tourism and hospitality education will be differentiated and their positions contrasted. This effort seeks to encourage Indonesian tourism education society and the industry to start considering that terms hospitality and tourism bear different meanings in both theory and practice which provides direct or indirect implications for tourism teaching

Pearce et al (1998: 416) defines hospitality as an area of study and employment where the focus is on the provision of commercial accommodation and catering services. While it intersects with tourism studies, hospitality is not the same as tourism. Based on the definition, hospitality and hospitality education specifically deal with accommodation and catering services. It is, therefore assumed that they are a part of tourism education and the tourism industry. Stear and Griffin (1993) claim that hospitality does not constitute the most significant component of the tourism industry, at least in the Australian context. In fact, according to these authors many visitors stay in private accommodations and certainly not all of them stay in commercially built facilities when they travel.

In their work, Cooper et al (1996) have differentiated precisely between tourism and hospitality education. They maintain that the provision of hospitality education, for example in

the UK, began earlier than tourism education. By the mid-50s, there were over 100 technical institutes offering craft-level trainings in hospitality (Cooper et al, 1996). Tourism education, on the other hand, was not really established until the 1970s and 1980s. Consequently, hospitality has been more mature in program offerings and more likely to welcome the industry on a partnership basis. However, it is not necessarily the case that hospitality education has fewer problems in establishing itself as a discipline. It is beyond the scope of this thesis to discuss problems arising in hospitality education.

### **2.2.2 History and Development of Tourism Education and Training in Indonesia.**

As discussed in Chapter One, the government has acknowledged that tourism could be one of the most promising alternative sources for foreign revenues since the fall in oil prices in 1970s (DGT, 1998b). Accordingly, strategies have been introduced for boosting international tourist arrivals and length of stay. Such strategies include the introduction of a series of 'Visit Indonesia Year' promotions as well as policy improvements such as visa-free entrance points for short-term visitors, and infrastructure and service improvement (DTPT, 1997). In addition, the launching of a five-year campaign to promote areas outside Java and Bali was undertaken (Wall, 1997). However, the most noteworthy effort made by the government and private sectors has been the rapid development of tourism infrastructures such as hotels and resorts. In particular, the rise of tourism development corporations following the success of the Bali Tourism Development Corporation (BTDC) in establishing the Nusa Dua Resort in Bali has made such a progress possible.

The development of the accommodation sector, which has expanded at a quite dramatic rate from 334 star hotels in 1987 to 825 in 1998 (DGT, 1999d), as well as the increase in world tourism and tourist demand for quality goods and services, all confirm the need for a well-educated and well-trained cadre of hospitality and tourism professionals (Charles, 1997). With very limited tourism education facilities existing at early stages of Indonesian tourism industry, private operators were given the opportunity to develop tourism-related courses. In

a comparatively short period of time, several private institutions started to offer courses at vocational and non-degree levels. At first, the programs offered were limited to hospitality courses to satisfy the needs of accommodation sector. However, as the demand for diverse human resources increased, several courses such as tourism management, ecotourism and cultural tourism were also offered to fulfil the needs of both the private and public sectors.

More specifically, the development of tourism education and training in Indonesia dates back to 1957 when a non-profit organisation called Indonesian Tourism Council (ITC) was established. The Indonesian Tourism Council's most important task was to support the government in the area of tourism development. (Gunawan, 1994). The ITC fought hard to have tourism included in the National Development Planning Agenda. As a result, the tourism industry began to grow and a relatively high demand for human resources in tourism forced tourism education institutions to respond to the need. The first academy-level tourism course was established in Bandung in 1967 by the Department of Tourism Post, and Telecommunication. Since then the provision of tourism education has developed rapidly. From only two institutions in the 1960s, private tourism educational and training institutes numbered 24 in 1980, consisting of 5 at senior secondary level, 2 at courses/training, and 17 at the academy level (Junaedi, 1994). The number increased to 140 institutions in 2000 with numerous programs on offer (Directorate General of Higher Education (DGHE), 2000). Various programs have been offered for several years, ranging from Diploma 1 to Diploma 3 (non-degree level) up to Bachelor and Masters Degree Programs. However, anecdotal observations suggest that most existing programs to date are hospitality programs, which account for almost 90 % of the total number of the programs on offer.

Despite its rapid growth in colleges and academies, the development of tourism education in universities is surprisingly slow. It was only in the 1990s that universities began to realise that offering tourism education to students could prove beneficial from several points of view. Firstly, it can produce graduates who are equipped with tourism knowledge as well as

practical experiences that will enable them to fill numerous tourism industry positions. Secondly, in the area of research, there was a fundamental lack of skilled personnel which created a gap between tourism planning needs and the research base for planning. By providing tourism education at university level, this gap will, to a certain extent, be closed since the focus of tourism education at universities will also include research as one of the components on offer. Finally, there are several issues limiting the growth of tourism education in developing countries (Ruddy, 1990). The main constraint is the lack of qualified tourism educators. If universities are able to run degree programs for both Bachelor and Master degrees, this approach will benefit the tourism education itself by boosting the numbers of qualified graduates likely to become tourism educators.

Since the 1990s, several universities have offered tourism degree and non-degree programs in conjunction with other disciplines such as economics and management. Although it is claimed that the programs tend to be more academic in nature, industrial experiences as one of the pre-requisites for students to graduate are still included (Gunadjaja, personal communication, 22 November 1999). This indicates that the division between academically-based and professionally-based tourism education is unclear. In the Australian context, some universities, such as James Cook University, offers a bachelor degree in tourism without requiring direct industry experiences, while others remain confident that by providing an industry experience, graduates will be ready to join the tourism workforce. Some studies also suggest that by undertaking cooperative education, students are likely to improve in self-confidence, self-concept and social skills (Gillin et al., 1983).

One factor contributing to the relatively slow development of tourism education at university level in Indonesia may be associated with the fact that the government, particularly higher education has not developed an appropriate and viable policy for tourism education. The government has not given an authorisation to award undergraduate tourism degrees in universities. Therefore, most programs offered are at non-degree levels. The educational

policy requires a degree program in tourism to be affiliated with one established disciplines such as economics or geography in order to have recognition within the university system. Based on these constraints, it may be necessary to address human resource needs by developing new programs and centres of tourism excellence at colleges and universities (Guerrier, 1993). Recently, several key universities in Java have been attempting to offer a 4-year program in tourism which will be later converted into undergraduate and postgraduate levels (Gunawan, 1999).

### **2.2.3 Current Status of Tourism Education in Higher Education in Indonesia.**

Despite difficulties in obtaining government acknowledgement as a discipline, tourism education and training courses are continuing to develop as one of the popular fields of study for young Indonesians at different levels (see Table 2.1). This is due to the fact that the government remains committed to developing tourism as one of the biggest foreign earners for the Indonesian economy. Consequently, rapid expansion of the accommodation sector has taken place and lack of qualified human resources continues to be crucial. However, the fact that tourism education is not able to satisfy the need explains the large number of foreigners in senior positions in the hotel industry. Although data on the total number of expatriates working in the accommodation sector are not currently available, Bendhi (1994) suggests that there are more than 320 foreigners working in top-level positions in the hotel business. At lower level positions, graduates from non-degree programs and training courses have usually satisfied the needs for qualified employees with vocational skills. Clearly, one reason for the low number of qualified indigenous people in mid and upper-level management has been the lack of hotel schools producing high-level management graduates at the time (Bendhi, 1994).

As is the case with tourism education in developed countries, the status of Indonesian tourism education has also been debated for quite a long time. In 1999, the Association of Tourism High Learning Institutions (Hildiktipari) held a three-day seminar focusing on the

status of tourism studies in Indonesia during which time two different points of view regarding the development of tourism studies became apparent. Some educators firmly believed that it was not necessary to discuss the status of higher educational tourism studies as a field of study, as long as its development is accommodated within the Indonesian higher education system. The development of tourism studies into a discipline is no longer an important issue compared to the critical need to broaden the focus of tourism education away from mainly hospitality to tourism (Nuryanti, 1999).

**TABLE 2.1**  
Structure of Higher Tourism/Hospitality Education and Training in Indonesia

Level	Institutions	Duration	Entrance	Outcome
Pre-undergraduate level (Diploma)	Education & Training Centre Academy	1-3 years for D. 1 & D.II	University entrance	Pre undergraduate Diploma
Undergraduate level	Institute; Polytechnic College; University	3-5 years (D.III) 4-7 years (D.IV)	University Entrance	Diplomas 3 and 4 / Bachelor's degree
Post Graduate level	College University	2 – 4 years	Written and Oral examination	Master Management

Sources: Bendhi, 1994; Deparsenibud, 1998; Sumarsono, 1999

It is also believed that the existence of diverse faculties housing tourism studies indicates that tourism is beginning to develop into a mature field of study. In fact, some universities now conduct tourism studies under various faculties such as Faculty of Letters, Social and Political Sciences, Administrative Studies and Planning and Design. Government authorisation to award a four-year degree in tourism requires that it should be combined with one mature discipline such as economics and geography. By combining both an established discipline and tourism studies either as a major or a minor subject, it is expected that the output of any educational course will benefit the industry which will receive a graduate with the combined knowledge. According to this view, the graduate will also benefit by acquiring a wider body of knowledge as an individual.



Other tourism educators suggested that the issues related to the status of tourism studies were likely to hinder its future development in the Indonesian context. This party insisted on forming a tourism studies consortium in higher education to allow the development of tourism studies into a mature discipline (Kodhyat, 1999; Spillane, 1999). They believed that the curriculum would be able to concentrate on several more aspects of tourism such as tourism planning and impacts if tourism studies were a separate field of study. To date the development of tourism degree programs has been very slow, particularly compared with that of other countries such as Korea where tourism is also an important foreign revenue source. A further difficulty with government policy lies in receiving an appropriate amount of research funding, as tourism is only a small part of the area of Dynamics of Economy, Social and Culture that also includes other disciplines such as Arts.

In order to expand the program and obtain authorisation for awarding a bachelor degree in tourism, private institutions have established tourism programs within a variety of higher education institutions. For example one approach was to establish a tourism academy under the umbrella of an economics and tourism college. The criteria for such an arrangement are that the curriculum should contain about 60 % economics and about 40 % tourism. Some commentators (Gunawan, 1994; Kodhyat, 1999) however, assert that this combination does not provide enough tourism knowledge for graduates. Although this system has been in place for more than 5 years and some observers consider it an alternative for tourism education, this approach has not been fully evaluated. According to Mudyana (Personal communication, 24 November, 1999) HILDIKTIPARI has already established a task force for revising the existing tourism education curriculum in collaboration with government and private sectors in order to provide balance in the curriculum content. It now appears that the focus of discussion has shifted away from forming a consortium to more practical aspects of tourism education. Given the fact that educators have different views on tourism education focus, it is believed that the thesis has relevance to the recent issues in tourism education. By

investigating the perspectives of the stakeholders, the appropriate approach to education can be identified.

### 2.2.4 Approaches to Tourism Education and Training

Several authors have thoroughly discussed the different approaches to tourism education in developed and developing countries (Table 2.2). Various alternatives have been proposed for accommodating the present and future diverse needs of the tourism sector (World Tourism Organisation (WTO), 1999). Selected proposals, particularly those relevant to an Indonesian context, will be assessed to identify the most viable approach for developing countries and Indonesia in particular. In line with Indonesia's tourism education needs, which currently emphasise professional education, certain models put forward by Ritchie (1995) and Theuns and Rasheed (1983) are worthy of further consideration as they satisfy special needs for developing countries. In addition, Howell and Uysal's (1987) and Echtner's (1995) proposals will be examined to identify the strengths and weaknesses of the approaches in light of the Indonesian's context.

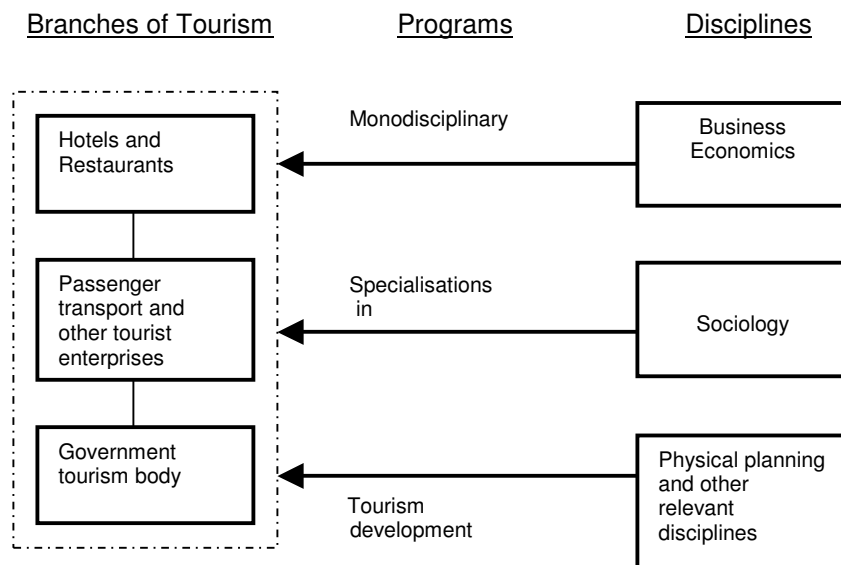


Figure 2.4. Academic-type Programs  
Source: Theuns and Rasheed, 1983

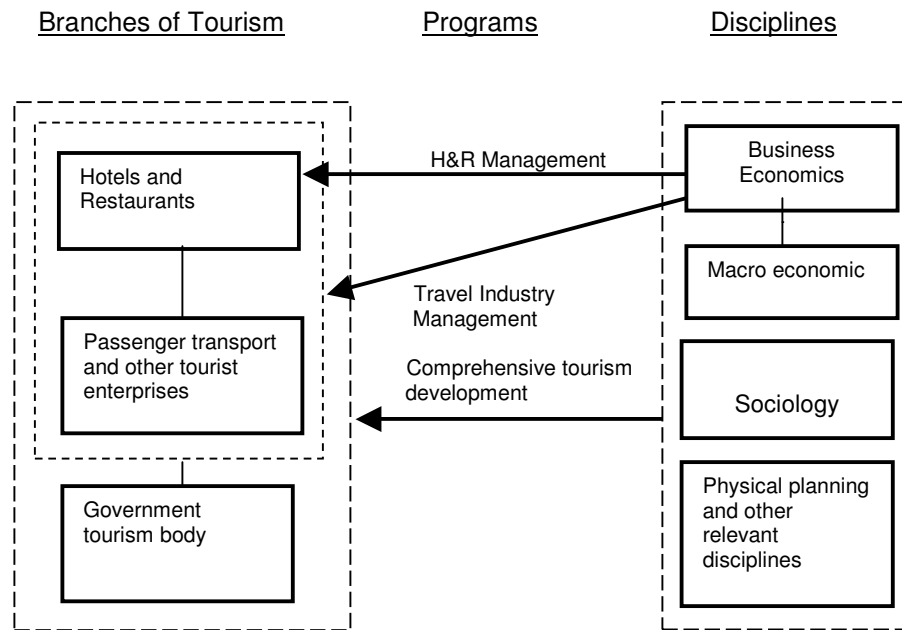


Figure 2.5. Professional-type Programs  
Source: Theuns and Rasheed (1983)

A proposal put forward by Theuns and Rasheed (1983:48) involves both professional and academic type programs in tourism, covering all categories on the supply side (See Figures 2.4 and 2.5). The authors suggest that such a fully-fledged system will include a program in business administration majoring in hotel and restaurant management, a business program majoring in travel and industry management and a number of specialisations in tourism development within academic-type programs in economics, sociology, and physical planning. The academic-type programs are monodisciplinary in nature, whereas the professional-type programs constitute multidisciplinary approaches. Offering a multidisciplinary program necessarily implies that the representation of each individual discipline within its curriculum will be substantially smaller than in a set of monodisciplinary programs.

However, based on the availability of human resources for tourism education, developing countries will find it difficult to apply the whole system. Some suggestions for solving the problems are proposed such as joint work between tourism institutions in developing countries and those in developed countries in terms of exchanging educators and teaching

materials for achieving mutual benefit. Although application of the system remains difficult, operation of the professional-type program remains feasible considering that the accommodation sector is still regarded as a high priority in Indonesia's tourism industry particularly since it generates high employment rates.

**TABLE 2.2**  
Approaches to Tourism Education

AUTHOR & YEAR	APPROACHES	ADVANTAGES
Blanton, 1981	Proposing tourism training for developing countries by incorporating the social and cultural dimension.	The existing social-cultural environment and the problems of communication are considered
McIntosh, 1983	Proposing 11 broad grouping of courses for creating a comprehensive & academically rigorous curriculum in travel and tourism management and work experience.	Applicable for developed countries with appropriate human resources and teaching materials.
Theuns and Rasheed, 1983	Proposing alternative approaches based on supply and demand sides and a multidisciplinary approach (comprehensive approach)	The first two models are acceptable for developing countries. The fully-fledged system is difficult to apply.
Howell & Uysal, 1987	Proposing vocational training and multidisciplinary professional education for developing countries	The proposal is applicable for its immediate use.
Pollock and Ritchie, 1990	Alberta Model and British Columbia Model	Integrating career oriented-education and training
Ritchie, 1995	Hotel School Model (HSM); The General Management with a Tourism Focus Model (GMTF); Liberal Arts Program with a Tourism Focus (LAPTF); Hybrid model of Tourism & Hospitality education.	First three proposals are viable for developing countries & the 4th is difficult to apply due to lack of teaching materials & educators.
Echtner, 1995	A three-pronged approach: professional education, vocationally-based education & entrepreneurial training	Improving entrepreneurship for developing countries.
Cooper, Shepherd, and Westlake, 1996	Three approaches to Tourism Education: holistic approach, application with traditional disciplines, and vocational approach.	The complex nature of tourism is presented in the first. The 2nd may act to improve market-orientation of more traditional disciplines.

Adopting a different perspective, Howell and Uysal (1987) have classified tourism education and training into two basic areas namely vocational training for front-line services and maintenance personnel and professional education for planners, marketers, managers, and researchers. The main objective of vocational training is the provision specialised job skills (1987:62). These authors maintain that based on the uniqueness of the host community,

which is different from that of developed countries, and its role in the tourism system makes the needs of education programs in developing countries different from those in developed countries. The programs should have a sound philosophical foundation along with multidisciplinary professional courses which meet the challenge of providing well-trained graduates who can enter the travel and tourism field with a long-term professional commitment (1987:64).

Echtner (1995) argues that, in the past the debate over vocational and professional education regarding tourism education in developing countries has centred on the relative merits of the two approaches: vocational and professional. However, she suggests that the importance of an entrepreneurial traineeship cannot be underestimated as it provides business and management tools to persons who have been screened for appropriate personality traits (1995:122). This type of training approach has proved to be successful in India, Africa and other developing areas and it is deemed to have contributed to the success of locally-owned enterprises. Although the enterprises are usually smaller in scale, they offer greater direct economic returns and control.

Ritchie (1995) identifies four alternative approaches to tourism education and hospitality education. The first is called the hotel school model (HSM) where the content covers courses related to various operational aspects of the hotel property and those related to various aspects of management to successfully run the hotel. The first component includes front desk operations and food and beverage while the second comprises sales and marketing and hospitality accounting. This type of approach, notwithstanding its limitations, is still quite popular and supported by the industry. The second approach is general management with a tourism focus (GMTF) which incorporates the core program – general management education- and a number of tourism/hospitality courses. This specific approach incorporates practical work as an integral part of the learning process. The third approach, which includes a wide variety of program types, is called a liberal arts program with a tourism focus (LAPTF)

such as disciplinary-based programs with tourism emphasis, recreation and leisure study programs and multidisciplinary majors in tourism studies. The particular characteristics of the last approach is that it tends to have a strong industry orientation. The final approach, which is considered the most sophisticated approach, is the hybrid model. Such an approach embodies certain features such as aiming for a world-class quality but still reflecting local needs, being responsive to industry needs but producing graduates with a broad knowledge base, and having a balance between theoretical and practical experiences as well as being located in a region where tourism forms a significant component of local economy.

#### **2.2.5 Strengths and Weaknesses of the Indonesia's Current Tourism Education.**

To obtain some perspectives on the significance of the present study, Indonesia's existing provision of tourism education will be examined for its strengths and weaknesses. A brief analysis of the issues will enable the researcher to ascertain to what extent the current provision of tourism education in Indonesia contributes to comparatively less qualified human resource in the tourism industry. The current approach possesses a number of advantages, such as size and scale, industry acceptance, government endorsement, quality control as well as certain weaknesses.

To begin with, the accommodation sector represents the largest sector in Indonesia's tourism industry, recruiting a considerable number of employees. As a result, approximately 90 % of tourism education provision is for hospitality programs (Tourism Higher Education Directory, 1999/2000) which most likely provide a reliable assistance for the industry. Considering that these programs are predominantly at non-degree levels and the strong need for human resource in hospitality services are prominent, lower and mid level positions such as front-liners are satisfied by such programs. The current curriculum, however, which was previously preoccupied with hotels and marketing has changed somewhat to wider topics such as ecotourism and tourism planning.

Since the study focus is primarily on hospitality, the majority of programs have gained industry supports in numerous aspects such as curriculum design, human resources and infrastructure. For example, one institution was provided with teaching facilities consisting of a hotel kitchen, hotel room and bar (Mihardjo, personal communication, 25 November, 1999). Although some programs are not well-maintained, most of them have embraced the tourism industry for curriculum design and the teaching process. In addition, the industry provides the students with places for industry experience during their studies. Industry acceptance is essential for continuation of the programs, given that most programs are run by private institutions (Gunawan, 1999).

The next strength is the fact that the government has endorsed existing tourism courses, which combine management or economic majors with tourism. It is, therefore relatively simple to initiate a program and obtain accreditation from higher education as can be demonstrated by the proliferation of the programs within existing faculties such as Social and Politics, Faculty of Arts and Letters, Faculty of Management and in colleges and academies.

To maintain quality of the programs, the government (in this case the Department of Education and Culture) has endorsed the programs by setting up a National Accreditation Body (BAN) to keep watch on the quality of the programs to be offered. The body is responsible for verifying and auditing programs by providing regular inspections to determine the status of tourism education institutions.

Despite these strengths, some weaknesses remain which impede development. The most significant weaknesses involve lack of coordination between related sectors comprising government departments and private sectors. In particular, conflicting attitudes of educators and professionals toward an appropriate tourism education remain unresolved. Lack of agreement on whether tourism students should be taught - basic and transferable skills or specialised tourism education at university (Tan and Morgan, 2001) is frequently encountered

in Indonesia. Because the tourism education focus remains on hospitality education and institutions have committed themselves to continue the program, there is a risk of tourism education growth at university level being decelerated (Gunadjaja, personal communication, 22 November, 1999). In developed countries some employers have expressed their concern regarding the focus of university tourism education (Baum, Amoah and Spivack, 1997), which is mainly based on course credibility and relevance (Elias, 1992). This, however, is not a relevant issue for Indonesia to deal with as the majority of the programs are offered at colleges and academies with a strong support from the industry.

Tourism education in Indonesia is not at an acceptable level as yet because of lack of an appropriate curriculum, which hampers further development. For instance anecdotal observations demonstrate that the scope of the current curriculum is narrowly developed for lower skill achievements and that so far not one institution is registered as a member of World Tourism Organisation Education Council. The WTO council considers that the needs of better service, greater satisfaction and greater quality in tourism can be reached through better training to meet the needs of the industry, government and civil society (WTO, 1999). Becoming a member of WTO Education Council could perhaps enhance the internationalisation of the program, since a quality audit of the programs is conducted before an institution is accepted as a member.

In view of weaknesses of current provision of tourism education and the scarcity of tourism education studies in the Indonesian context, it can be assumed that the present study can make a valuable contribution in this regard. Firstly, it presents the possibility of identifying the most common practices in tourism education approaches and in curriculum designs from the perspective of tourism education stakeholders. Also, research into curriculum content is expected to identify present trends. Furthermore, the study will attempt to investigate potential predicaments and likely implications which benefit both tourism industry and education.



### 2.3. Review of Tourism Education Frameworks

A number of core theoretical issues in tourism education have already been discussed in the previous sections of this chapter. In this section, specific issues such as quality factors in tourism education, the scope and proliferation of tourism courses and curricula, the evolution of tourism education and its relationship with hospitality and leisure studies, industry involvement in the area, and disciplinary approaches to tourism studies will be developed as central issues for the thesis purposes. Existing knowledge of concerns will be used to structure questions on Indonesian tourism education in the empirical chapters of this thesis.

#### 2.3.1. Quality Factors in Tourism Education

Quality is defined as 'matching users' perceptions to their prior expectations (Jones and Lockwood, 1989; Pasuraman, Zeithaml, and Berry, 1985). When expectations and perceptions coincide, quality can exist, but when they diverge, the results are what have been dubbed quality gaps, the size of which will indicate the degree to which quality is lacking (World Tourism Organisation (WTO), 1997). In this context, WTO developed TEDQUAL methodology – an acronym for Tourism Education and Quality – for detecting industry needs in education and training. Furthermore, it is stated that TEDQUAL is an attempt to meet the totality of consumer expectations by the complete elimination of the gaps which exist between expectation/needs and perceptions (Figure 2.6). By measuring and comparing the perceptions of the tourism education stakeholder groups, the level of group satisfaction can be determined as TEDQUAL focuses on the importance of human resource, which is essential element to provide quality products and services for the tourism and hospitality industry.

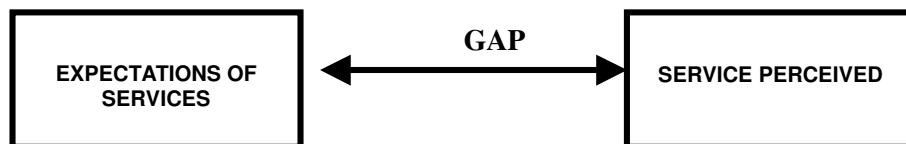


Figure 2.6. Definition of Quality  
Source: WTO, 1997

Quality issues in tourism education have already been discussed by several researchers (Jafari and Ritchie, 1981; Lockwood, 1992; Morrison et.al, 1992; Ritchie, 1992). Lockwood (1992) cited in Cooper et al., (1996) has sought to introduce and define service quality concepts in a tourism education environment. The author suggests that, in order to achieve quality tourism education a number of issues need to be addressed which involve identifying customer needs in the educational process; looking at quality dimensions in terms of service and applying these dimensions to education (Cooper et al., 1996:188).

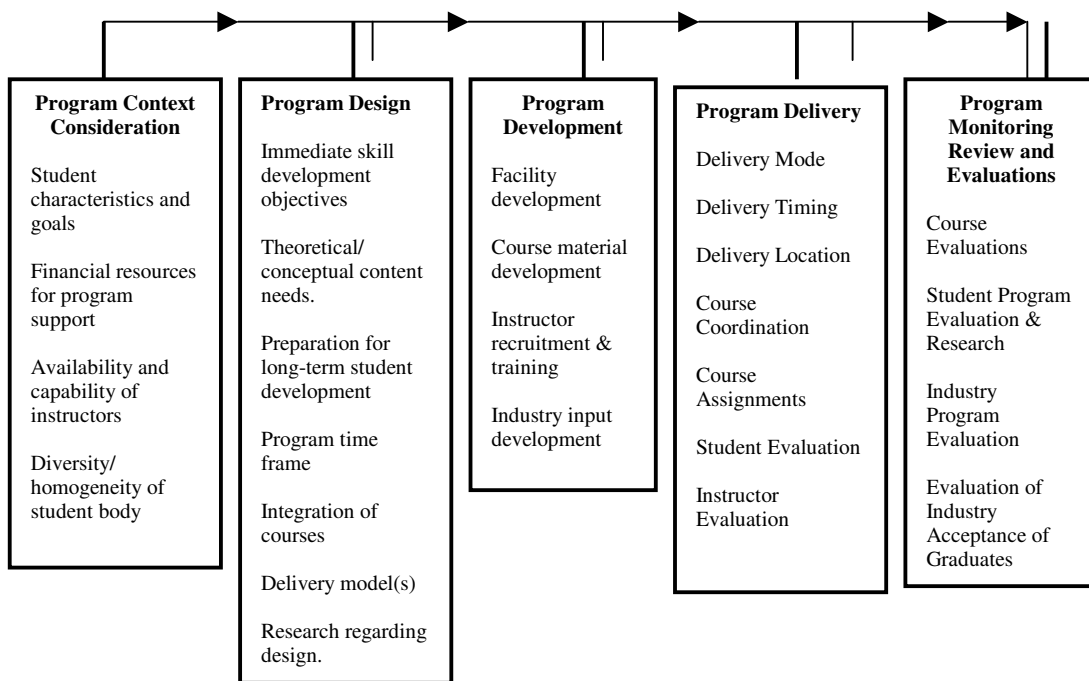


Figure 2.7. The Process of Managing Tourism/Hospitality Education Programs  
Source: Ritchie and Sheehan, 2001a

Ritchie and Sheehan (2001a) have proposed a basic program management model which identifies five major areas of consideration for tourism educators and program managers when proposing a program (Figure 2.7). They have also discussed how to use strategic research methods for program designs, implementation and evaluation. In this context, there are, at least, two very significant areas in which research opportunities are available, namely Program Design and Program Evaluation for enhancing the quality of tourism education. By

considering all of the foregoing concerns as depicted in Figure 2.7, it is anticipated that the program will satisfy the users. Several aspects need to be considered when developing tourism programs. The users may consist of tourism employers and government as graduate recipients for public sectors or education recipients, who are also classified as stakeholders in the Tourism/Hospitality Education system (Ritchie, 1992). These authors also claim that at least five areas, which include program context, program design, program development, program delivery and program monitoring, are essential

Based on a general consensus in the literature on the importance of quality in education and relating this quality to tourism context, quality tourism education should at least establish three distinct outcomes i.e. tourism knowledge and concepts, generic skills and workplace competencies (Dean, 1999, cited in Tan and Morgan, 2001). Each component, which will be highlighted in subsequent sub-sections, plays an important role in achieving the goals of quality tourism education.

#### **2.3.1.1 Tourism Knowledge and Concepts**

An analysis of course content shows that tourism content in Australian courses ranges from a high of 61 % to a low of 16.5 % and that tourism studies across Australia are most commonly integrated within business studies (Wells, 1996). Wells has observed that, despite a diverse approach to content, some commonality exist in the areas of introduction to tourism, tourism planning and development, tourism management, and tourism projects. The analysis reveals that curriculum content has a distinct leaning towards hospitality. In the New Zealand context, this content comprises approximately 45 % (Cooper, 1997). The author notes that, in both countries, the tourism major model tends to restrict tourism content to approximately one quarter of the total curriculum. Variations in content create considerable problems when attempting to maintain the coherence within tourism studies (Tan and Morgan, 2001).

Airey and Middleton (1984) have investigated tourism course content in the UK and found that the ten standard headings of the body of knowledge are generally covered in all courses. This finding indicates some consensus among colleges as to what constitutes tourism. These authors further state that while practical elements of tourism courses are less common in course content they are usually covered in industrial work experiences. Based on the Nightingale study (1980), which shows that the body of knowledge has a broad general relevance to later employment positions, Airey and Middleton maintain that the UK tourism course content provides an adequate grounding at least in vocational skills (1984:61).

Despite the variability, there is a lack of mutual recognition of different qualifications and an absence of common standards in international accreditation procedures (Fayos-Sola, 1997). Sparrowe and Popielarz (1995, cited in Fayos Sola, 1997) point out that acquiring a qualification in tourism administration or management has little bearing on promotion opportunities. Such an argument is also supported by Cargill (1995) who claims that professionals in the tourism industry deem a qualification in general business administration to be of more value than a tourism specialisation. One Cargill's finding also indicates that corporate senior vice-presidents of human resources in the hospitality industry which include lodging, commercial foodservice and noncommercial foodservice in the United States indicates higher needs in nonhospitality master degree programs for four-year hospitality graduates. This claim implies that lack of industry acceptance has direct consequences for the role and importance of tourism knowledge and concepts and for careers in the industry. Based on the theoretical framework related to whether tourism qualifications are important to compete in the tourism industry, it is considered important to investigate such perspectives in an Indonesian context.

However, Ladkin (1999) suggests that the lack of appreciation of tourism graduates by the industry is probably due to the fact that the majority of businesses are run by owners and managers who have not traditionally held tourism qualifications. Therefore, these

entrepreneurs have less appreciation of new recruits who have tourism education backgrounds. Ladkin went on to state that one of the ways forward in this regard is to encourage education and the industry to work in closer partnerships to deliver education and training programs which are more tailored to industry needs. As industry represents one of the main stakeholders with an interest in tourism education, its views should be taken into account.

The development of a core curriculum for tourism education has also become one concern for educators (Ladkin, 1999). This issue needs to be addressed to retain and develop its coherence against powerful pressures for diversification and fragmentation as well as recent blurring of distinctions between courses in tourism studies, leisure, recreation and hospitality (Middleton and Ladkin, 1996). It was argued that without a common core for tourism studies, there is a wide variation in the content and focus of the courses which can lead to confusion among applicants and potential employers. Therefore, standardisation in the curriculum in order to give the subject a credible and identifiable focus is essential (Cooper et. al, 1992). However, the most crucial element is not the standardisation itself. Within Indonesian context, tourism education has not even considered as an emerging discipline under any circumstances. This implies that the tourism programs are frequently offered within the scope of a multidisciplinary approach.

Ichioka (1998) investigates the need for an undergraduate tourism curriculum in Japan from the perspectives of professionals and educators. Some findings indicate that there are significant differences in certain components worthy of further investigation. For instance, in responding to a question regarding instructional approaches, educators prioritised field study as a preferred approach whereas the industry emphasised case studies. Both tourism educators and professionals addressed the need for rigid core disciplines and subjects in future undergraduate tourism programs. On occasion, it can be suggested that a clearer

definition of tourism and tourism studies might be needed before all parties agree on core curriculum issues.

### **2.3.1.2. Relevant Generic Skills**

Pearce et al. (1998) contend that one alternative approach to tourism studies is to place emphasis on generic student abilities and skills as a result of their participation in tourism programs. This will enable graduates to compete successfully for employment in tourism (Airey, 1997). It is, therefore, necessary to discuss what relevant generic skills are required by industry.

In a review of relevant generic skills, Koh (1995) examined the perspectives of tourism educators and executives on skill the elements of tourism study courses. The results indicated that some skills such as written communication skills and interpersonal relation skills were rated differently by educators and executives. More importantly, foreign language speaking skills were rated both by educators and executives as being less important. However, in the Japanese context, foreign language speaking skills were rated highly by both groups (Ichioka, 1998). It is suggested by Pearce et al. (1998) that foreign language skills be emphasised in the Asia Pacific region, as most countries are tourist destination regions which are mostly visited by tourists from developed countries. Additionally, rating differences for particular subjects could be attributed to differing timeframes such as when tourism educators tend to emphasise the needs for forthcoming decades while tourism professionals consider present needs (Pearce et al, 1998).

According to Pearce (1995) tourism students needed to be literate, numerate and articulate. These emphases have their implications in emphasising writing skills, creating a research and information management stream and embedding oral assessment in the degree program (1995:3). He further acknowledged that content knowledge, ability to learn and social skills were all critical features of a tourism education. Cooper (1996, cited in Pearce et.al, 1998)

investigated the perspectives of industry, government and educational authorities on the importance of a number of generic skills for industry positions. It was found that there was a general consensus on generic skills being acquired by students. Such skills include communication, interpersonal skills, analytical abilities, computer literacy, foreign language learning and numeracy.

### **2.3.1.3. Cooperative Education**

Cooperative education is defined as the process of instruction which formally integrates students' academic study with work experience in cooperating employer organisations (Go, 1981). Some of the main reasons for the inconsistency between the labour needs of the tourism sector and the educational programs is chiefly because of inadequate analysis of the training needs of travel market (Go, 1981). One of the efforts to lessen the inconsistency lies in integrating cooperative education, which is also known as work placement, within the tourism programs being offered. Such cooperative education is certainly concerned with experiential learning which results from experience in the workplace. Davies (1990:14) proposes that:

Experiential learning is an integration and alteration of thinking and doing. It is the method by which effective, progressive, and eventually self-directed learning can occur with all that this means for individual and collective confidence, ability and progress.

Most tertiary courses in hospitality and tourism involve some formal elements of practical work experience (Craig-Smith and French, 1990). The length, timing and operation of such work experience can vary enormously from one institution to another. A number of authors argue that cooperative education is one way to connect education and industry for the benefit of the students. (Barron and Maxwell, 1999; Barron, 1998; Evans, 1993; Waryszak, 1998;). For example, Evans (1993) emphasises that undertaking work placement within study programs would significantly enhance employment prospects for students. Leslie (1991) also suggests that supervised work experience (SWE) can facilitate the input of representatives in the vocational sector into course development and delivery. Thus, the course program will be

creatively influenced through improved liaison between educational institutions and the industry.

Most studies conducted in cooperative education have focused on two general areas namely personal skill development and professional/career development (Waryszak, 1999). Smith-Eggeman and Scott (1994) conducted a study which explored the benefits of cooperative education in terms of the development of interpersonal relationship skills. Their findings indicate that, compared to the control group the students showed greater tolerance and enhanced interpersonal relationship skills. The impact of participation in cooperative education has also been investigated by Rogers and Weston (1987) cited in Waryszak (1999) who found out that students participating in cooperative education received significantly higher annual starting salaries.

Yet, despite the recognition that students can benefit from industry experience, a number of Australian university tourism degree programs have either dropped the requirement or reduced the duration of work experience (Craig-Smith, Davidson and French, 1994). Factors such as dramatic increases in the number of enrolled undergraduate students have contributed to the difficulties encountered in obtaining placement. Similarly, Indonesian tourism education has been experiencing difficulties in conducting cooperative education, particularly in finding businesses which are willing to take apart in the program (Gunawan, November 1999, personal communication). In the Australian context, a number of tourism degree programs do not require the students to undertake the work experience, such as James Cook University. Ichioka (1998) maintains that Japanese tourism undergraduate programs are quite distinctive in comparison to common trends in tourism education. Cooperative education is not required for students to graduate, as the focus of degree programs, including tourism, is not on practical knowledge. Such practices have also been applied in some undergraduate degree programs majoring in tourism in Indonesia which



believe that some courses do not necessarily need industry experiences (Gunadjaja, Personal communication, 22 November 1999)

### **2.3.2. The Scope and Proliferation of Tourism Education**

The formal study of tourism began in North America in the 1940s but subject area of study only started in the 1980s (Koh, 1994). The early development of tourism education was characterised by three distinct ways in which the study of tourism has developed as an academic discipline (Cooper et al., 1996). Firstly, tourism has focused mainly on vocational courses for the travel trade with a narrow range of skills on offer. Secondly, tourism studies has developed as a means of enriching business studies with industry application and finally tourism studies has grown from within more traditional disciplines such as geography.

In the last few decades, there have been numerous approaches to the study of tourism at the tertiary level as a result of the rapid development of tourism education. The most favoured one is a multi-disciplinary approach as a device to accommodate different parent disciplines for housing tourism studies. Some programs have supported a specialised or an interdisciplinary approach (e.g., Pearce, 1993; Faulkner and Goeldner, 1998). The most distinguished model for a multi-disciplinary approach was proposed by Jafari which provides a good overview of what constitutes a body of knowledge of tourism (Jafari and Ritchie, 1981). The approach has been derived from the more traditional disciplines and adapted to the study of tourism. This model will be discussed later in section 2.3.4, which presents disciplinary approaches to tourism education. Both approaches have been supported by valid arguments and acknowledged widely by tourism education institutions. However, Weaver and Oppermann (2000) claim that tourism studies is progressively adopting an interdisciplinary approach.

Furthermore, several authors have expressed their views on the most appropriate approach for teaching and indeed there is a great diversity of teaching approaches (Echtner and Jamal,

1997; Gunn, 1998; Goeldner and Ritchie, 1995; Tribe, 1997). For example, Faulkner and Goeldner (1998) argue that tourism has positively been treated as a multi-disciplinary field for which there are two possible explanations. Firstly it is simply because those who have become involved in tourism research are 'migrants' from more established disciplines and thus have brought with them the theory and techniques of the parent disciplines. Secondly, it is perhaps also valid to suggest that the tourism phenomenon can only be approached that way because of certain intrinsic qualities. In Indonesia, tourism studies has arguably been the focus of scholars from different disciplines such as anthropology, geography, planning and design and economy, which form current approach in the area.

In the early 1990s, some commentators drew attention to the rapid growth of hospitality and tourism courses and predicted that lack of industry acceptance of tourism graduates would eventually lead to graduate over-supply (e.g., Evans, 1993). Furthermore, most tourism graduates are educated for positions at supervisory or managerial levels (Pollock and Ritchie, 1990) which comprise only 20 % of the overall needs of employees (Robinson and Yee, 1997).

### **2.3.3. Tourism Education-Industry Relationship.**

Travel and tourism is a traditional industry, fragmented, dominated by small businesses and run by managers who, in the main, have no formal tourism education or training (Cooper, 1993:68). As a result, there exists a lack of understanding which hinders the provision of new tourism courses coming on stream. Cooper contends that there is a view that tourism generalists can now be trained in the specifics of an operation. The reason behind what is happening at the moment could be a lack of an established channel for both tourism education institutions and the industry to express their perspectives.

Cooper (1993) analysed the distinctive character of the travel and tourism industry and the educators and trainers who serve it. The industry, which is described as fragmented and

traditional, has broken through education/training inertia within the industry and put into place education and training scheme. This means that the industry has started to acknowledge the benefits of such approaches. However, while they appreciate training schemes, education, which is considered difficult to measure and which may not show results in a short time, is still not properly understood. In the training sector, some owners of the enterprises still see training as cost not investment. In a line with that, a study conducted Cargill (1995) found out that the one of the hospitality sectors, the lodging industry, has the lowest percentage of new managers with masters degrees. Cooper (1993) suspects that problems such as unclear career paths lead to high staff turnover in this industry sector.

On the other hand, it is no easy task for tourism educators to identify tourism industry needs, as the industry is complex and diverse with many different areas of emphasis. It is, therefore, a challenge for educators to establish a program which satisfactorily considers several factors such as the degree of emphasis of the program, what approaches to adopt in order to produce better graduates and the approach to curriculum design. Cooper (1993) maintains that it is particularly difficult to produce a balanced education and training program which can address both the long and short term needs of the industry.

Differing expectations between the tourism industry and tourism education programs have led the World Tourism Organisation (WTO) to develop the TEDQUAL methodology (the acronym used to refer to *Tourism, Education and Quality*), which aimed at providing standardisation on tourism education and training institutions. The ultimate aim is to ascertain the quality of the education and training needs of the tourism industry by means of a Total Quality approach, which will enable the extent of the existing gaps between training demands at present and future and then determine priorities for action (Fayos-Sola, 1997:14).

One of the notions behind the formation of TEDQUAL is that, in order to construct a better tourism education system, the nature of the sector and the multiplicity of players should be taken into account. It is, therefore, imperative that curriculum content design matches all the

different expectations of tourism education and training systems. Such expectations comprise those of education recipients/future employees who are generally hoping to fulfill their ambition for a long-term career. As direct consumers of the skills acquired by students, employers in the private and public tourism sectors expect to be offered a chance to express their real needs and to help establish an accurate definition of the targets to be addressed and the gaps to be bridged. Finally, educators have their own expectations of the education system such as available resources, tools for the job and the right to freedom in teaching methods (Fayos-Sola, 1997:23-24).

In other words, it is significant to recognise the expectations and real needs of all stakeholders involved in the system of tourism education in order to produce a system that is appropriate for everyone. Maki and Haywood (1992) suggested that while employers emphasise students' practical skills, educators tend to create tourism-oriented materials which are more theoretical in nature. On the other hand, students seek quality education particularly the type which responds to their long-term career expectations. Consequently the authors proposed a model which incorporates parties (stakeholders) involved in the development and output of Tourism Education (Figure 2.8).

As depicted in Figure 2.8, the development and delivery of components that are part of the educational or employment process also involves (implicitly or explicitly) students and/or employees. Whether this involvement is as a collaborator in the design and delivery processes of the tourism education programs or merely as a recipient or a consumer education is a critical experience for these individuals (Haywood and Maki, 1992).

One way of reducing the tension between different groups is by setting up consortia consisting of educators and professionals and linking the differing perspectives towards education and training. This type of initiative is particularly effective for focusing a range of tourism education efforts to produce an effective and efficient tourism education system at local and regional levels (Ritchie, 1995).

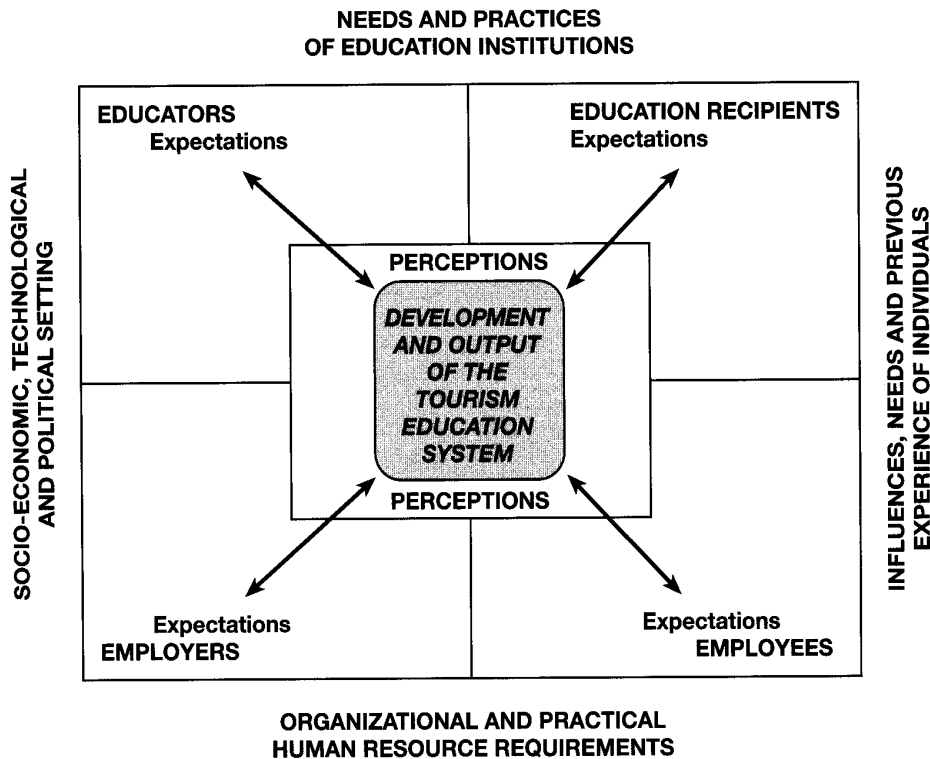


Figure 2.8. Parties involved in the development and Output of Tourism Education  
 Source: Haywood and Maki, 1992

The model put forward by Haywood and Maki was utilised to identify the stakeholders and the nature of their involvement in the process of administering a tourism program in Indonesia. This model was employed in the four studies, which supported the purposes and aims of the thesis. In particular it was used to identify gaps which existed within tourism education and industry relationship. The model was also employed for interpreting the data collected for study one and two reported in chapter three and four respectively.

Similarly, Amoah and Baum (1997:6) have observed that considerable gaps appear to exist between what tourism education offers and industry expectations as expressed in the following statement:

There appears a considerable gap between what providers offer as management level tourism education, and the needs as expressed by the tourism industry. For example, higher education in the UK has been accused by industry of providing broad-based, generic knowledge intertwined with the learning of other disciplines, e.g. business studies and economics, while the industry seeks personal skills such as communication adaptability, leadership and numeracy.

In addition, Amoah and Baum (1997) emphasise that the problems existing in tourism education have their basis in several factors in the tourism industry itself. For instance, there are so many diverse definitions and technical terms for tourism and tourists which are associated with the characteristics of the tourism industry. Different activities also exist within the industry such as those due to varied tourist motivation: leisure, business, and visiting friends and relatives. Consequently, such diversities may influence tourism educator and industry professional perspectives, particularly related to the depth of tourism education programs currently on offer.

Tourism training and education in relation to the tourism industry is depicted in figure 2.9 which shows that training comprises vocationally oriented courses, practical knowledge, and is mostly linked to intermediaries. Education, on the other hand, focuses on conceptual issues and the development of critical capabilities. The figure also indicates that training can be provided at different levels of institutions, whereas education is likely to be conducted at universities and advanced colleges on both non-degree and degree bases.

Based on the specific characteristics of education and training illustrated in figure 2.9, and on the discussion presented in Chapter I, the thesis differentiated between tourism education and training. Consequently, the thesis focus is on tourism education at tertiary level in Indonesia, which is particularly concentrated in universities and colleges without disregarding the importance of training for supplying manpower to the industry.

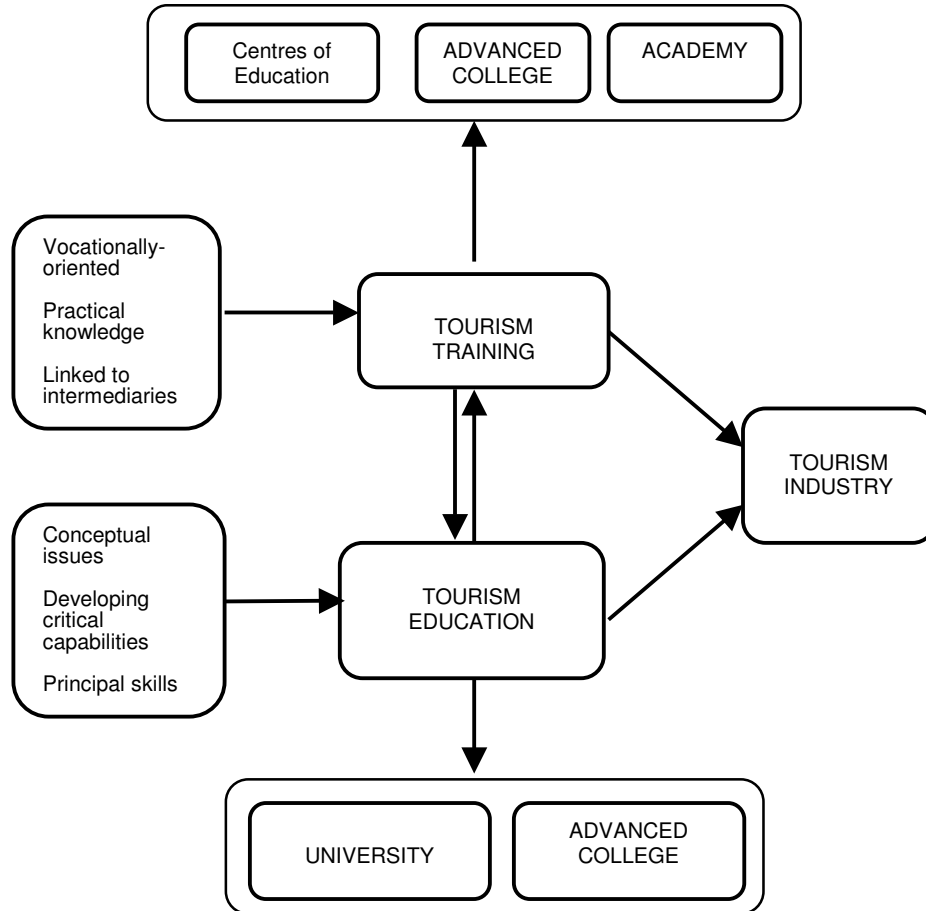


Figure 2.9. Tourism Training, Tourism Education and Industry Relationship  
Adapted from Cooper and Shepherd, 1995

#### 2.3.4. Disciplinary Approaches to Tourism Studies

Numerous approaches to tourism studies are offered by tourism experts (Jafari and Ritchie, 1981; Leiper, 1997; Przeclawski, 1993) as a response to the complexity in tourism. Przeclawski (1993) differentiates between multidisciplinary and interdisciplinary approaches. The former approach describes a situation where, although different disciplinary perspectives are brought to bear on the topic, there is no integration of these perspectives. An interdisciplinary approach, on the other hand, creates synergies between different disciplinary perspectives towards a more holistic synthesis. It is, therefore, suggested that metalanguage

(common language) and philosophy are necessary for underpinning the development of an interdisciplinary approach (Faulkner and Goeldner, 1998).

Jafari and Ritchie (1981) present a model of tourism studies as a field study (Figure 2.10). This model helps to illustrate the multidisciplinary nature of tourism studies by placing the sixteen disciplines which contributes to tourism studies as the centre of the diagram. However, Pearce et al (1998: 365) have criticised this model by maintaining that each of the contributing disciplines has more topic areas and influences than those presented in the figure. Furthermore, they claim that such an approach fails to acknowledge the role of certain disciplines such as geography and economics which have contributed disproportionately to the development of tourism studies.

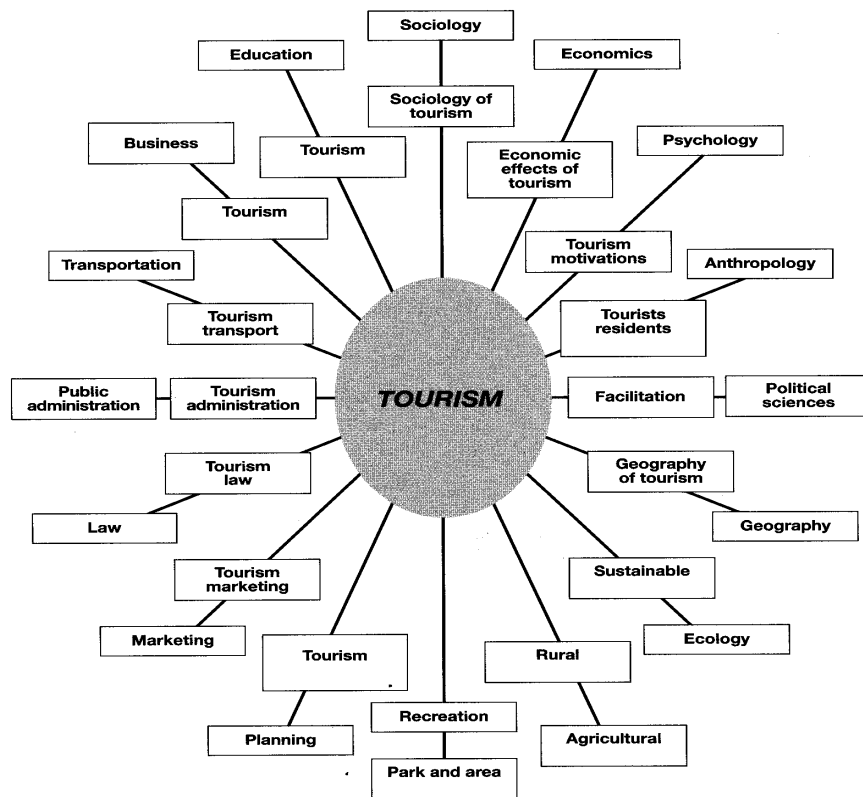


Figure 2.10. Areas of Knowledge in Tourism Education  
Source: Jafar Jafari, 1981



However, Tribe (1997) analysed the model and proposed several modifications based on Hirst's work on the nature of disciplines such as putting together the various tourism puzzles (i.e., the objects of study) on the inner ring and the methods of analysis (i.e., the disciplinary approaches) on the outer ring. Thus, while sociology and economics represent disciplines, parks and recreation, education, and agriculture clearly do not. Instead, they represent something to be studied but not a way of studying. Consequently, they belong in the inner ring (1997:649). Leiper (1981) also proposed an interdisciplinary approach to tourism education which is defined as an approach focusing on 'working between the disciplines, blending various philosophies and techniques so that the particular disciplines do not stand apart but are brought together intentionally and explicitly to seek a synthesis (Leiper, 1981: 72).

Pearce (1993) explores the issues of tourism studies approach by stating that based on the nature of the field of study, which functions as a composite of separate contributions of disciplines such as economics and psychology, tourism can be described as a field of study or a specialism rather than as a discipline in their own right. Specialisms are used to describe emerging, 'preparadigmatic' fields that lack the history, tradition, and unifying paradigms that characterise some of the more established disciplines (Faulkner and Goeldner, 1998).

#### **2.4. Review of Hospitality and Tourism Education Studies**

Formal education plays a crucial role in the provision of skilled and competent human resources. Responsibility for developing service-oriented human resources lies not only with hospitality organisations but also with a country's tourism and hospitality education system. Qualified human resources for the tourism industry can be obtained through procedures such as vocational skills training which aims at providing frontline personnel and professional education for strategic research planning and marketing (Echtner, 1995).

While tourism education in developed countries such as Australia and the United Kingdom is already quite advanced, tourism education in developing countries is still searching for some unifying characteristics and quality. For instance there is uncertainty about whether the focus should be on a professional-type education, an academic-type education or on vocational training. In order to understand the current development of hospitality and tourism education in both developed and developing countries it is necessary to evaluate previous studies which have been conducted in the areas of hospitality and tourism education. This evaluation will assist the researcher to identify gaps that exist in tourism education research area. The inclusion of hospitality education studies in this section is designed to provide a wider perspective on the development of the field as opposed to simply that of tourism education. This section also aims at reviewing methodologies used in previous studies of tourism and hospitality studies as a consideration in selecting an appropriate methodology for the present study as well as identifying shortcomings of the methodologies.

#### **2.4.1. Tourism and Hospitality Education Studies**

While, hospitality and tourism education studies have focussed in the main, on curriculum content, various aspects, such as cooperative education and career images of the industry from different stakeholder perspectives have emerged more recently (Table 2.5). Most studies, however, were conducted in developed countries such as Australia, the United States and the United Kingdom with only a few studies focusing on tourism education in developing countries. The studies which were conducted in developing countries include an investigation of the development of tourism degree programs in Nigeria (Ibida, 1990); tourism education in Kenya (Sindiga, 1996); provision of tourism education in ASEAN countries (Ruddy, 1991); and alternative approaches to tertiary tourism education with special reference to developing countries (Theuns and Rasheed, 1983). Next subsection will highlight a few influential studies and are used to identify gaps in the research as well as methodological issues and other core issues in tourism education research and will be discussed in the chronological order of the publications.

**TABLE 2.3**  
Summary of Hospitality and Tourism Education Studies

STUDY	METHODOLOGY	COUNTRY	FOCUS	OBJECTIVES	SAMPLE TYPE & SIZE
Weenen and Shafer, 1983	Survey Interviews (two-person team)	USA	Course requirements for Master's Degree	Identifying today's graduate student needs to compete in the industry	Tourism Experts N=12
Airey and Middleton, 1984	Survey Method (Open-ended and close-ended questions)	UK	Tourism Higher Education and curriculum	Investigating tourism higher education and analysing curriculum content	Tourism institutions. Total Sampling
Wells, 1990	Multimethod: Desk Research and Survey Method	Australia	Tourism Higher Education and Curriculum	Investigating tourism higher education and analysing curriculum content	Tourism Institution Total Sampling
Ibida, 1990	Desk Research and Survey Method (Close-ended & open-ended questions)	Nigeria	Development of tourism higher education	Determining attitudes of stakeholders & their acceptance of the program at university level.	Government, Educators and Professionals N=30
Ruddy, 1991	Survey Method	ASEAN	Development of hospitality and tourism programs	Investigating the provisions of hospitality and tourism programs	Unknown
Cooper, Scales and Westlake, 1992	Survey Method (phone and mail)	UK	The profile of Tourism and Hospitality Educators	Eliciting profile of tourism and hospitality educators	Educator Total Sampling N=452
O'Halloran and Mill, 1992	Survey Method (Closed-ended questions)	USA and developing countries	Skill and activity importance and course identification	Investigating the importance of managerial skills and activities and courses deemed relevant by representatives	Directors; and representatives of national tourism offices
Goodenough and Page, 1993	Survey Method (open-ended & closed ended questions)	UK	A new provision of tourism management.	Examining managers' views and perceptions in relation to the future provision of tourism management program.	Tourism Managers N=55
Koh, 1994	Delphi Technique	USA	Curriculum	Developing a 4-year curriculum and the scope of knowledge and skills; to solicit the types of human resources most needed by the industry.	Industry professionals Educators N=21
Koh, 1994	Delphi Technique	USA	Curriculum	Developing a 4-year curriculum and the scope of knowledge and skills; to solicit the types of human resources most needed by the industry.	Industry professionals Educators N=21
Yoon, 1996	Survey Questionnaire	Korea	Curriculum	Examining perceptions of satisfaction among respondents with different competencies	N=161 Educators & Professionals
Breiter and Clements, 1996	Survey Questionnaire	USA	Management Competencies	Identifying the specific management competencies that U.S tourism professionals perceive as important for success in the industry	N=301 Professionals
Davidson 1997	Survey Method	Australia	Curriculum	Investigating subject content deemed relevant to industry and level of importance to subjects	Industry professionals N=79

STUDY	METHODOLOGY	COUNTRY	FOCUS	OBJECTIVES	SAMPLE TYPE & SIZE
Barron, 1998	Survey Method (Closed-ended and open ended questions) and Interviews	Tanzania	Environmental awareness	Investigating respondents' attitudes toward environmental issues in relation to curriculum content.	Students & Educators N=38 & 6
Waryszak, 1998	Survey method (self-administered questionnaire)	Australia UK Netherlands	Cooperative Education in hospitality industry	Assessing perceptions of students' cooperative education and students' working placement environment	Student N=287
Ichioka, 1998	Survey Method. (closed-ended and open-ended questions)	Japan	Current status of Japanese undergraduate curricula	Examining curricula status Identifying needs for undergraduate curricula determined by stakeholders	Educators and Industry professionals N=400
Lefever and Withiam, 1998	Survey Method	USA	Curricula	To investigate the industry's outlook toward the effectiveness of hospitality education curricula	Hospitality professionals N=46
Barron and Prideaux, 1998	Multimethod: questionnaire and interviews	Tanzania	Environmental awareness	Investigating attitudes of respondents towards the environmental awareness	Students N=38 Educators N=6
Waryszak, 1998	Survey method: mail and in person	Australia Germany UK	Cooperative education in tourism industry	Assessing perceptions of students' working placement in tourism industry.	Student N=143
Litvin, 2000	Survey method (self-administered questionnaire)	Singapore	Travel agency career image	Measuring the image of a travel agency career by tourism students	Student N=133
Zhang, Lam, and Bauer, 2001	Questionnaire Survey	China	Training and Education needs	Examining education needs of tourism academics. Identifying main tourism training and education issues.	N= 156 Educators
Airey and Johnson, 1999	Multimethod approach: desk research and interview	UK	Nature of the provision of degree courses	Establishing the nature of the current tourism degree & examining the level of support for adoption of the minimum core body of knowledge	Educators N=7
Leslie and Richardson, 2000	Multimethod (desk research and survey using questionnaire)	UK	Examination and evaluation of SWE	Investigating the approach, the perceptions of students prior and post SWE and the attitude of the employers.	Employer N=N/A Students N=295
Christou and Eaton, 2000	Survey Method (self-administered questionnaire)	Greece	Management competencies for graduate trainees	Exploring the employers' expectations regarding the competencies of graduate entrance in the industry	Hotel Managers N=91
Chung, 2000	Structured-questionnaire	Korea	Curriculum reform	Investigating relationship between competencies required and management courses, career success, and between management and career success in the hotel	Graduates (randomly-selected) N=422
Kusluvan and Kusluvan, 2000	Single method (closed-ended questionnaire)	Turkey	Perceptions and Attitude toward working in tourism industry	Developing reliable and valid multi-dimensional and multi-item attitude scales to measure attitudes; outlining general perceptions and attitudes	Student N=397
Tan and Morgan, 2001	Survey Method Closed & open-ended question	Australia	Relevance and Quality in Australian Higher Education	Assessing attitudes and perceptions of educators and professionals on tourism education issues.	Educators (N=56) and Professional (N=100)
Buissink-Smith and McIntosh, 2001	Qualitative: participation observation and in-depth interviews	New Zealand	Conceptualising 'spirit of service' of employees	Investigating skills and qualities provided by tourism courses that are desired and required by tourism industry	Students N=N/A

Airey and Middleton's 1984 study was based on two gaps, which existed in Nightingale's study (1980) and which needed further investigation. The first gap was the lack of up-to-date information about course types, levels, content and qualification in UK tourism education. The second gap was the lack of precision in the body of knowledge statement which had been put forward in the Nightingale study. The finding relating to the first gap, which was the information about the colleges and courses and was published separately in the 1982 British Tourism YearBook. The second finding, however, was disappointing because it was not possible to develop a general model of current course provision due to the problems which were identified during the study. For example, survey respondents often found it difficult to relate the courses they were offering to the headings or subheadings provided in the questionnaire and there were also different interpretations of the topic headings (1984:61).

Ibida (1990) conducted a study on tourism education at university level in Nigeria which focused on the attitudes of government officials, tourism industry professionals and tourism educators towards the development of tourism education at university level. Data were generated by self-administered questionnaires containing closed and open-ended questions. The results indicated that three different groups of respondents displayed a positive attitude towards the development of tourism education in Nigeria, where current tourism education provision is at non-degree and vocational level only. Although this study was not directly linked to tourism education in Indonesia which started its four year-non-degree and degree levels several years ago, both Indonesia and Nigeria nevertheless share similar background and problems such as the lack of qualified teaching staff. Despite its applicability, several weaknesses can be identified. The study did not examine how the current practice of tourism education in Nigeria can be used to forecast the development of future tourism education and students were not involved in the study. Furthermore, the methodology utilised for this study was limited to only survey questionnaires, which might limit the researcher in investigating certain issues in-depth. The issue of triangulation of data is critical to tourism research as it is likely to influence validity and reliability of the research.

In 1990, Wells conducted a similar study to that of Airey and Middleton's (1984) which was concerned with identifying trends and developments in tertiary tourism education in Australia. More particularly, the study focused on the structure, content and characteristics of tourism courses at undergraduate and postgraduate levels. The study revealed that tourism studies across Australia were most commonly integrated within business studies. Although a diverse approach to content was evident across universities, some commonality existed in areas such as introduction to (or nature of) tourism, tourism planning and development, tourism management and tourism projects (Wells, 1996). One of the strengths of this study is that it was conducted nationwide employing total sampling and covering nearly all aspects of tourism education. It identified tourism curriculum contents, tourism components in each institution, the parent faculty where the program was attached and those universities and colleges offering tourism programs. Despite its comprehensive coverage however this descriptive study failed to investigate the future development of tourism education in Australia as seen by stakeholders such as tourism educators and tourism professionals.

Airey (1991) conducted a study on tourism education in the UK which focused more broadly on curriculum, course structure, and issues dealing with meeting the needs of students and industry alike. Airey found that one of the past characteristics of UK tourism education was high student demand. This trend is changing slightly at present with less demand and lower admission numbers for tourism students. However, this study failed to further examine the reasons for this occurrence.

Mukhwana (1991) considered tourism education from an African's perspective and focused his study on the history of the development of tourism education in Africa. The study also discussed curriculum content and tourism educator qualifications. It was found that most tourism educators engaging in the process of teaching and learning were mainly from non-tourism backgrounds such as Economics and Human Resource Development.

Goodenough and Page (1993) used a postal questionnaire survey to examine the views and perceptions of senior tourism managers in Kent in relation to future provision of a new part-time, industry-centred degree course in Tourism Management for existing staff working in the industry. These authors maintained that the views of such key decision-makers were critical to the consultation process in determining whether or not employees would be encouraged to take the new degree course (1993:64). Some of the findings indicated that employers looked for reasonably high levels of technical and academic qualifications and that some 35 % sought a degree or a higher qualification. Over 83 % of respondents, many of whom were in a position to influence training and recruitment policies, said that they would support a new part-time degree program in Tourism Management if it were relevant to their business.

A study conducted by Barron (1998) was concerned with identifying new hospitality management student images of the hospitality industry. Four main areas were investigated namely the reasons for choosing hospitality management education, views on working life in the industry, images, and the image they thought was held by the general public. The results reveal that this group of students generally had positive views of working life in the industry. An overwhelming majority considered it to be a growth industry with many career opportunities and that qualifications would create opportunities for self-employment or working overseas (1998:604). Moreover, most students expressed willing commitment to a career in the industry immediately after graduation. Again, as with several previous studies reviewed in this section, student perceptions were shown to be optimistic and positive in relation to both their education and future employment.

Tourism education research has also been conducted in Japan (Ichioka, 1998) focusing on an examination of the current status of Japanese undergraduate tourism curricula and the need for undergraduate tourism curricula to be determined by tourism educators and tourism industry professionals. Survey questionnaires and content analysis were utilised for data collection procedures and the data were analysed statistically. It was suggested that

educators mostly rated the statements higher than the industry professionals. Despite the large size of samples (N=400), there are again a number of limitations. For example, the study was focused on curriculum content only, without an attempt to include other aspects such as the experience of tourism educators. In addition, the study involved limited stakeholder groups i.e. educators and industry professionals. Similarly, Sindiga (1996) has conducted a study which focuses on curriculum in order to develop a model for tourism education in Kenya and seeks to answer questions relating to what background should be provided to tourism students.

Waryszak (1998) conducted a study investigating international perspective of student expectation from cooperative education placement in the hospitality industry. This study is similar to the one conducted by Barron and Maxwell (1993) with four different groups of students from Melbourne, The Hague, Oxford and Glasgow respectively. This study used the Work Environment Scale developed by Moos (1994). The findings indicate that prior to receiving their cooperative education, students had moderate to high expectations from the organisations' work environment. Specifically, students expected other employees to be friendly and supportive, and to be committed to their job. The most significant finding was that students perceive a lack of support, high work pressure, high managerial control and lack of opportunities for involvement. This author argues that the assessment of students' perceptions would help in predicting not only satisfaction with their current choice of career but subsequent career orientation.

The work of Airey and Johnson (1999) was concerned with the nature of current provision of degree courses in tourism with particular reference to the issue involving a core body of knowledge. Therefore, they examined the level of support for the adoption of a minimum core body of knowledge which was proposed by the National Liaison Group (NLG, 1985) by examining the content of prospectuses/catalogues. The findings indicate that a high proportion of courses offered in the UK cover all or most of areas. More than 50 % of



establishments covering all seven criteria and 94 % covering five out of the seven areas (1999:231). Interview results, however, revealed little convincing evidence of support for the implementation of a minimum core body of knowledge. Three out of seven respondents advocated the inclusion, three were opposed and one was undecided. Despite its important findings on the body of knowledge, this study had certain limitations in the interview section. The number of respondents, although it was claimed to represent a range of different types of tourism courses and different opinions, perhaps contributed to the result in which views were divided equally between those who supported and opposed the introduction of a minimum core body of knowledge.

In a revealing time dependent, Barron and Maxwell (1999) surveyed three groups of students namely first year hospitality management course students, students returning from cooperative education placement to complete the course and newly-graduated employees from the same academic institution. It was found that the first group expressed positive views concerning future placement organisations, especially in the hospitality industry such as financial rewards and job satisfaction. However, those returning from cooperative education placements generally expressed negative views as did the newly graduated employees. The authors concluded that the differences could be attributed not only to the way in which educational institutions socialise the programs, but also to the way in which the industry structures induction programs, and attempts to socialise newly-recruited employees.

A study conducted on tourism student perceptions of a travel agency career in Singapore, conducted by Litvin (1999) found that travel agencies were not seen as an attractive career option because of the low pay and few career prospects as well as less prestige (1999:304). This study also determined the gaps between graduating student expectations and the reality of the work world by comparing their expectations with data obtained from NATAS (National Association of Travel Agents of Singapore). The results of the study were not intended for

generalisation. However, this does not diminish the importance of the research or the relevance of the findings for future reference to the sector.

Chung (2000) conducted a study aimed at devising an effective plan for reforming the hotel management curriculum of Korean universities. This study suggested innovative approaches for reforming the curriculum by way of introducing new research design and methodology subject and interrelating the curriculum, competency, and career success variables (2000:486). Lefever and Withiam (1998) investigated the industry's view of hospitality education curriculum by surveying 46 professionals from the hospitality industry. It was discovered that the most significant issues affecting the industry are employee recruitment, training and retention. Moreover, respondents expected to see improvements in practical and hands-on training as well as finance-related knowledge, while practitioners also expected graduates to possess technical skills and realistic views of the industry. The weakness of the study lies in its methodology whereby participants were chosen for their likelihood to respond and there was a heavy weighting of professionals based in Atlanta, Georgia. Despite this bias, the researchers believe that professionals displayed a broad enough view of both the hospitality industry and hospitality education (1998:23).

A more recent study conducted in Australia (Tan and Morgan, 2001) was concerned with the relevance and quality of Australian tourism higher education as viewed by educators and professionals. This study was based on the notion that partnerships between educators and industry professionals can facilitate tourism career opportunities for students. Results indicated that one-quarter of professionals believe that university tourism majors provide graduates with a competitive advantage and that both groups consider tourism/hospitality, marketing and management as important business majors. Some findings correlated with those of previous studies regarding the relationship between industry and tourism education (Haywood and Maki, 1992). For example, educators considered that specific workplace competencies were relatively less important compared to professional perception. This

different perception raises the issue which divides educators and industry professionals, namely whether students require training or education (2001:75).

Another recent study on hospitality education was conducted by Zhang, Lam and Bauer (2001) who conducted a survey to investigate education needs of tourism academics in terms of their perception of upgrading their qualifications. It was also aimed at identifying the main tourism training and education issues facing China in the 21<sup>st</sup> Century. The findings of the study indicated that respondents expressed that it was either important or very important to upgrade their academic qualifications. The majority of their respondents also indicated that three areas of specialisation namely Tourism Management, Marketing and Hotel Management were the most frequently selected areas for further studies. Several issues which are relevant to Indonesian tourism education were identified, such as the improvement of the education system and its structure, improvement in the design of syllabuses and changing from a traditional teaching mode to more interactive teaching.

Collins (2001) investigated the importance of industrial training in Turkey from the perspectives of three stakeholder groups namely student participants, organisation participants and university participants. A combination of questionnaires, interviews, critical incident forms and material analysis were utilised to generate data of the study. Findings indicated that most student defined industrial training as 'combination of academic knowledge', 'practical experience' and 'opportunity to know business environment, whereas university participants regarded industrial experiences as 'practical experience' and 'an opportunity to define career goals.

#### **2.4.2. Existing Gaps Within Tourism and Hospitality Education Studies**

Based on the reviews of tourism and hospitality education studies (2.3.1), three gaps requiring further investigation were identified. Firstly, there are few studies existing to date concerning tourism education in developing countries, and in Indonesia in particular although

the importance of such education has been acknowledged as one factor contributing to the industry development. Therefore it is necessary to investigate tourism education in Indonesia to determine present and future development of hospitality and tourism education.

Secondly, considering that most of the studies already conducted have focused on curriculum review by utilising content analysis, it is essential to investigate the views of stakeholders involved in the process of designing and conducting tourism education. Thirdly, the reviews revealed that most of the research has involved tourism educators, professionals and to a certain extent government officials (Cooper, Scales and Westlake, 1992; Ibida, 1990; Ichioka, 1998; Koh, 1994). Students have also been involved, mostly in expressing their views on the industry in developed countries (Barron, 1998; Buissink-Smith & McIntosh, 2001; Waryszak, 1998; Waryszak, 1999). It is, therefore, essential to investigate student views on tourism education, especially in reference to developing countries.

The present study, therefore, was designed to include four groups of stakeholders i.e. educators, professionals, government officials and students to investigate views on present and future development of Indonesia's tourism education. Involvement of the four stakeholder groups was expected to satisfy each stakeholder need in order to ascertain the most appropriate type of tourism education for an Indonesian context. Although the findings of the study might have implications for other developing countries, they were not designed to sample issues relevant to all developing countries.

## **2.5. Methodological Approaches to Tourism Studies**

Based on the review of tourism and hospitality studies discussed in section 2.3, various methodologies adopted by researchers to assess tourism and hospitality education can be documented. The most common method utilised is a multimethod approach incorporating desk research for reviewing secondary data and a survey which makes use of Likert-type closed and open-ended questionnaires for gathering primary data. Within the social sciences,

a multimethod approach has been regarded as an acceptable approach to research for some time now (Thomas, 1998).

Several advantages can be identified in adopting a multimethod approach. A different methodology avoids the specific source of error associated with a single method and relatively low methods can be aided by relatively strong methods and vice versa (Brewer and Hunter, 1989). Hartmann (1988) asserts that research could benefit from a combination and an integration of different field methods and techniques which allow for counterchecks. However, a fairly high proportion of studies rely on utilising a single method such as a quantitative approach by means of questionnaires containing closed and open-ended questions or qualitative approaches such as interviews or observations (Table 2.3). Researchers who utilise a quantitative method contend that the method was more practical than the qualitative approach, which takes more time to conduct. In order to enhance the research reliability and validity and to achieve an adequate level of industry representation, the researchers frequently established a set of criteria in the process of selecting panel members or respondents (Ibida, 1990; Tan and Morgan, 2001).

Interviews and observations may also involve greater efforts in analysis, as the researcher is likely to encounter detailed transcripts obtained from fieldwork and interviews. Therefore, the use of self-administered questionnaires was prevalent in many studies, particularly mail-out questionnaires. This view has been confirmed by Riley and Love (1999: 167-168), who stated that in most tourism studies under review, qualitative research discussion was conspicuously absent. Crawford-Welch and McClearly (1992) and Dann et al (1988) cited in Riley and Love (1999) claimed that qualitative research made significant and valuable contributions to the formation of a knowledge base.

Application of the qualitative Delphi methodology is rare in tourism and hospitality studies with the exception of the works of Fayos-Sola (1997) and Koh (1995). The method is

composed of a number of successive interactive rounds with an established panel of experts.

Fayos Sola (1997) argues that:

The method systematically combines the knowledge and opinions of a group of experts, thus building consensus on the probability of one or more events occurring. It is therefore based on a panel of experts and not on a random population (1997:37).

The value of this method lies primarily in the area of forecasting, such as predicting the future of the hotel or tourism industry and this approach is advantageous as a forecasting tool because it reduces peer pressure for conformity and the influence of dominant personalities. It also eliminates communication irrelevant to task completion as well as allows for the collection of information from individuals who cannot be physically brought together. The advantages of applying this methodology have also been stressed by Fayos-Sola (1997), who states that although it is not statistically relevant for the population universe considered, it is sufficiently rich and in-depth to enable a more-far reaching analysis than would be possible with mere numerical results, which could only be interpreted objectively.

A few studies utilised a combination of survey and interviews to enhance the quality of research being carried out (Weenen and Shafer, 1983) as well as the Delphi technique (Koh, 1994, Fayos Sola, 1997). The strengths of these approaches depend on the continuing process of eliciting views compared to the use of closed-ended questionnaires which do not provide any alternatives for respondents to express their own opinions as the researcher has already provided pre-determined alternative answers for the questions. The re-analysis of existing secondary data on hospitality and tourism education has not been featured significantly in previous research with an exception of the works of Wells (1990) and Airey and Johnson (1999) who analysed secondary data available in Australia and the United Kingdom respectively.

Dann, Nash and Pearce (1988) published a study investigating methodology in tourism research and indicated that there were significant lacks of studies conducted using

secondary data in the *Annals of Tourism Research (ATR)*. These authors also claim that there are almost no experiments or field experiments reported in *ATR*, which is a possible tourism research method. The use of simulation techniques and the manipulation of tourist environment to assess preferences, behaviours, and social interaction are both possible and desirable (1988:24).

In terms of sampling procedures, analysis of previous studies indicated that the most frequent procedure which was applied for selecting respondents was a stratified sampling technique. The aim was to achieve a representative sample from each group of respondents (Tan and Morgan, 2001). The sample was by and large taken randomly from lists of organisations in the industry such as list of educators and hotel managers. However, to ensure the adequacy of the list, several researchers established certain criteria or requirements of those to be included in the process of selection of the respondents. For example, in order to be eligible for the research, organisation lists should either provide a reasonable representation across sectors or respondents should have had an extensive range of experience in the industry (Koh, 1994; Tan and Morgan, 2001). Respondents in the current study were selected using a combination of non-probability quota sampling and judgement sampling procedures with specified selection criteria to ascertain that their perspectives represent the current situation of Indonesian tourism education.

Based on the approaches which were used in previous studies, several strengths and weaknesses could be identified. With the advent of computer technology, data analysis of self-administered survey questionnaires with closed-questions is relatively easier, although the design of the questionnaires may take up a considerable amount of time. The process of validating the questionnaires may consist of several stages from drafting to piloting. Furthermore, several sophisticated techniques such as distributions and scalograms, correlation matrices, crosstabulation and multivariate analyses can be conducted (Dann, et.al., 1988). On the other hand, the process of writing questions for open-ended

questionnaires and interviews may be somewhat easier but it takes longer to administer and to analyse as the researcher would more likely deal with a wide range of opinions or themes.

Despite its potential usefulness, the crucial issue of methodological triangulation has not been the concern of most researchers. Oppermann (2000) claims that unfortunately, the basic concepts that underlie the triangulation methods are easily misunderstood (2000:141). Furthermore he asserts that the primary reason of triangulation is the recognition that data set or investigator survey bias can occur with the use of only one method. Denzin (1978) cited in Oppermann (2000) distinguished between a number of different triangulation approaches, namely methodological triangulation, data triangulation, and investigator triangulation.

Methodological triangulation refers to using more than one research method in measuring the same object of interest, for example, using participant observation as well as questionnaires. Data triangulation refers to using the same approach for different sets of data in order to verify or falsify generalisable trends detected in one data set. For example if pleasure travel propensity is closely aligned to age in one country, one could analyse other countries' data in order to check if similar trends can be observed elsewhere and if they are consistent. Investigator triangulation refers to making use of different investigators with different backgrounds. For example, female interviewers might obtain a very different set of responses from male tourists than male interviewers. Multiple triangulation would include using at least two of other triangulation methods in combination (2000:142-43).

However, the use of triangulation has already been criticised and there have been calls for abandoning the concept or at least its terminology (Miller, 1983; Fielding and Fielding, 1986). Oppermann (2000) has decided to restrict the term triangulation to multimethod not data or investigator triangulation. Other writers, however, have maintained confidence in using the term triangulation and have observed its advantages, which were largely derived from a multimethod approach (Thomas, 1998). When a multimethod approach is used, it allows researchers to be more confident about their results and also may help in uncovering a deviant or off-quadrant dimension of a phenomenon (Jick, 1983 in Oppermann, 2000).



## **2.6. Proposed Methodology for this Thesis**

In order to enhance understanding of the current and future states of Indonesia's tourism education, it was decided that the use of a single method would not be adequate. In the light of difficulties which may occur if a single method were utilised, a multimethod approach appears to be a more reasonable choice. Reviews of studies conducted in the areas of hospitality and tourism education indicated that most researchers tend to rely almost exclusively on structured interviews and standardised questionnaires in accordance with the established guidelines of survey research (See Table 2.3) with only few research utilising qualitative approaches.

Therefore, this present study has been designed to implement both qualitative and quantitative approaches for data collection procedures. The qualitative approach consist of two different sources of information namely primary data which were derived from semi-structured interviews and secondary data which consist of documents related to the study such as curricula, reports on tourism education, press releases. Decrop (1999) argues that secondary data, which can be of multiple types (promotional materials, government documentation, newspapers, photographs, and music) are an important source of information for the qualitative researcher. Such a combination of using different data collection method represents the implementation of data triangulation, which means 'involving the use of a variety of data sources in a study' (Decrop, 1999:159).

The quantitative approach mainly consisted of survey methods utilising self-administered questionnaires. By combining two different methods namely qualitative and quantitative techniques, it is expected that personal biases can be reduced and generalisability of a study can be enhanced (Decrop, 1999).

As it has been mentioned before the application of the qualitative method has not been widely used in tourism research as the quantitative one. Therefore, it is a challenge for the

researcher to carry out a study which comprises a qualitative interview approach. There are several characteristics underpinning the method which Lincoln and Guba (1985:39-43) have identified a list of them when describing naturalistic inquiry as one example of qualitative research. Among other examples are natural setting, human instrument, purposive sampling, inductive data analysis, grounded theory and tentative application. The human instrument concept means that the researcher is considered as an instrument for grasping the multiple realities.

Similarly, Denzin and Lincoln (1994) assert that qualitative research provides a crucial perspective that helps scholars understand phenomena in a different way from a positivist perspective. They defined qualitative research as follows:

Multi-method in focus, involving an interpretive, naturalistic approach to its subject matter. This means that qualitative researchers study things in their natural setting, attempting to make sense of, or interpret phenomena in terms of the meanings people bring to them. Qualitative research involves the studied use and collection of a variety of empirical materials – case study, personal experience, introspective, life history, interview, observational, historical, interactional, and visual texts – that describe routine and problematic moments and meanings in individuals life (1994:2).

However, Walle (1997:524) emphasises that the use of qualitative method has usually been restricted to helping create and posing hypotheses which can then be tested and refined using scientific and/or statistical research methods. This statement has been confirmed by Lewis et al. (1995) who observe that the purpose of qualitative research is usually 'to provide information for developing further quantitative research.

Hartmann (1988) doubts whether a strong reliance on survey interviews as the key to the most relevant research issues in the field is justified. There appear to be shortcomings associated with the implementation of the interview. For example, in some societies revealing details of personal experiences such as travel experiences are forbidden and private life of individual is highly valued (Kruse, 1980 cited in Oppermann, 2000).

For the purpose of obtaining relevant data, four studies have been designed to investigate different focus of tourism education at the tertiary level in Indonesia. Table 2.4 summarises the methods used for the four studies. Specific details of the methodological approaches employed, including sampling systems and methods of administering the study will be discussed separately in subsequent chapters (3,4 and 5). An overview of the present study, consisting of four separate areas of focus studies is presented in Figure 2.11.

**TABLE 2.4**  
Methodological Approaches for the Four Studies

STUDY	FOCUS	APPROACHES	SAMPLE TYPE AND SIZE
STUDY ONE Ch. 3	Respondent views on current tourism education: curriculum content, approaches and curriculum relevance to career in industry	Qualitative semi-structured interviews and desk research	Educators, Professionals, Government and Students N=60
STUDY TWO Ch.4	Tourism education-industry relationship	Qualitative semi-structured interviews and desk research	Tourism professionals and Educators N=30
STUDY THREE Ch.5	Proposed Master's Degree Curriculum	Survey questionnaire: Closed and Open-ended questions	Tourism Experts N=13
STUDY FOUR Ch.6	Future development of Tourism Education	Survey questionnaire: Closed-ended questions	Educators, Professionals, Government and Students N=353

Due to time and financial constraints it was not feasible to conduct the study across 27 provinces applying total sampling techniques to tourism education establishments. It was decided to conduct the studies in 5 selected provinces (Jakarta, West Java, Central Java, Yogyakarta, and Bali). Selection of the respondents for studies 1 – 4 was based on certain established criteria, such as years of involvement in the industry and knowledgeable of the area of tourism. A non-probability judgment sampling procedure was applied for selecting respondents of the study. This system was selected, as there was no possibility of identifying the stakeholder population if a random sampling system were applied. Although the results will not be generalised beyond the sample frame, there might be implications for other developing countries as a reference.

The sampling procedure utilised was non-probability sampling which does not provide a basis for estimating how closely the sample characteristics approximate those of the population from which the sample was obtained. Nevertheless, by applying certain criteria to the sample, it is expected that the sample will be more likely to represent the population.

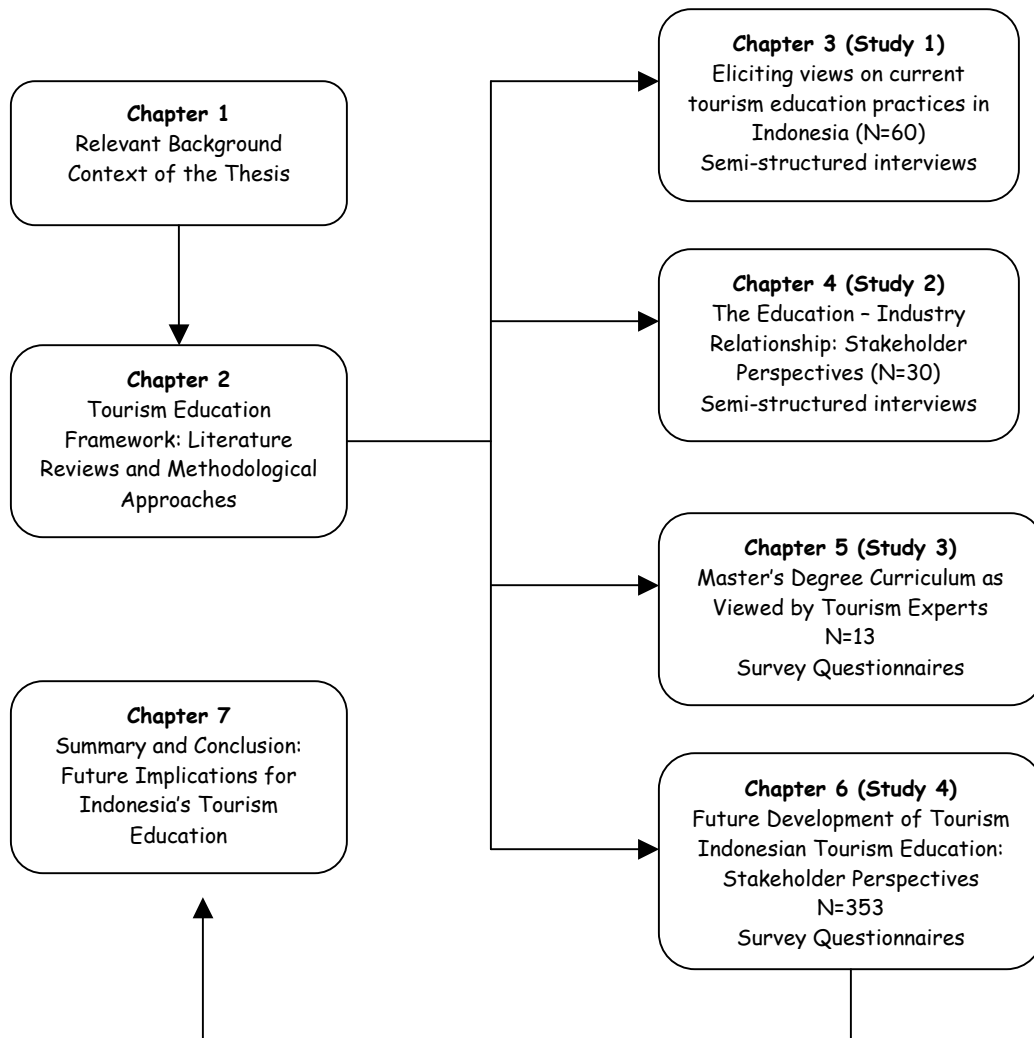


Figure 2.11 Research Design of Thesis

## 2.7 Purpose and Specific Aims of the Four Studies

This section presents the purpose and aims of the four individual studies and present the thesis as an interconnected whole, although of course the aims were pursued through different studies (refer Figure 2.11 and Table 2.7).

### 2.7.1. General Purpose of the Studies

The purpose of the thesis is to investigate tourism education at the tertiary level in Indonesia from the perspective of stakeholders – government officials, tourism industry professionals, educators and students. Four individual studies, presented in Table 2.5, were conducted to analyse different features of higher tourism education. These four studies have explored different aspects deemed relevant to the development of tourism education, particularly from the perspectives of the stakeholders.

**TABLE 2. 5**  
Purposes of the Four Studies

Study	Title of the Study	Purpose of the Study	Chapter in Thesis
1	An exploratory study of tourism education at tertiary level in Indonesia	To investigate the perspectives of the stakeholders toward current tourism education	Chapter 3
2.	Tourism education-industry relationship.	To identify the relationship between tourism education and the tourism industry in Indonesia from the perspectives of professionals and educators.	Chapter 4
3.	A proposed Tourism Master's Degree Curriculum in Indonesia: the expert views.	To develop a curriculum for a tourism master's degree in Indonesia from the perspective of tourism experts.	Chapter 5
4	Future development of tourism education in Indonesia	To investigate stakeholder views on future development of Indonesia's tourism education.	Chapter 6

Methodological approaches, focuses of each study, total respondents and sampling methods varied throughout the thesis. For example, studies One and Two employed a combination of qualitative interview and content analysis, whereas Studies Three and Four employed a quantitative approach and non-probability quota sampling. These two studies also applied similar procedures for data analyses, in which simple descriptive statistical analyses were performed.

### **2.7.2. Aims of Study One - An exploratory study of tourism education at the tertiary level in Indonesia**

The aims of the exploratory study of tourism education at tertiary level in Indonesia were as follows:

1. To examine current curriculum content of tourism higher education in Indonesia.
2. To assess current approaches to teaching tourism in higher education.
3. To evaluate curriculum relevance of tourism education to professional careers in the tourism industry.

### **2.7.3. Aims of Study Two - Tourism education-industry relationship.**

1. To identify key issues influencing the tourism education – industry relationship.
2. To investigate the industry involvements in tourism education in Indonesia.
3. To identify roles of tourism education and the industry in the development of tourism education in Indonesia.
4. To identify industry needs in tourism education and training.

### **2.7.4. Aims of Study Three - A proposed Tourism Masters Degree Curriculum in Indonesia: expert views.**

1. To seek tourism expert opinions on curriculum content of a proposed tourism master's degree course in Indonesia particularly on subjects which are deemed important for graduates to successfully join the industry.

2. To identify area(s) of emphases for a tourism master's degree curriculum.
3. To investigate subjects which are considered important for each area of concentration.

#### **2.7.5. Aims of Study Four - Future development of tourism education in Indonesia**

1. To investigate stakeholder perspectives towards the needs of a tourism degree program.
2. To identify roles of government, higher education and industry in the process of developing a tourism degree program.
3. To investigate stakeholder perspectives on the levels of responsibility for full-time faculty members, part-time faculty members, government officials, industry professionals and students for designing higher education tourism programs.
4. To identify elective courses to be offered in a four-year tourism degree program level.
5. To identify similarities and differences between stakeholder group perceptions of future development of Indonesian tourism education.

#### **2.8. Summary of Chapter Two**

Chapter Two has critically examined tourism education in developed and developing countries. Differences and similarities have also been identified which are then related to the current situation in Indonesia's tourism education. A review of theoretical frameworks in tourism education was undertaken including discussions on the importance of cooperative education for tourism education programs, the education-industry relationship, generic skills and the concept of tourism education.

A number of hospitality and tourism education studies conducted both in developed and developing countries were also critically examined to identify gaps in research areas worth further investigation. By identifying gaps which exist in the studies, several proposed studies

to fill the gaps are designed. Such a review was also aimed at examining methodological approaches to be utilised in those studies to provide a background context for selecting an appropriate method for conducting studies reported in this thesis. Some studies lacked sound methodological approaches. Therefore, the current studies were aimed at designing studies to contribute to the lack of methodological approaches. By doing so, it is expected that more sound design of research, would produce better results. This chapter two material both informs the aims of the studies and is a resource for considering the thesis findings concerning Indonesian tourism education.