CHAPTER 3

TOURISM COURSES AT THE HIGHER EDUCATION LEVEL IN INDONESIA: AN EXPLORATORY STUDY

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3.1.   **Introduction**

The main purpose of this chapter is to present and discuss findings of study one which investigates tourism higher education in Indonesia from the perspectives of the stakeholders. The chapter also discusses methodological approaches which were utilised for data collection and presents respondent profiles which include demographic variables such as age, education and gender. The methodology section includes the data collection method, sampling method, procedure of the interviews, criteria selection of the respondents, ethical considerations and response rate.

The main aims this study is to investigate the perspective of the stakeholders which consist of government officials, tourism educators, industry professionals and tourism students on current tourism education at the tertiary level in Indonesia. In particular, respondent perspectives on universal curriculum content, approaches to teaching and curriculum relevance for professional careers in the industry were sought. Two different methods of data collection namely a semi-structured interview and content analysis were employed to obtain the information. The use of different methods, which is often referred as a multimethod approach was employed to improve the quality of the research as such a method allows

researchers to be more confident about their results (McFee, 1992; Oppermann, 2000; Silverman, 2000; Thomas, 1998).

3.2.   Aims of the Study

The following objectives were established to investigate the perspectives of the stakeholders toward current tourism education provision at the tertiary level in Indonesia:

1.   To examine the current curriculum content in tourism higher education in Indonesia.

2.   To assess the approaches to teaching tourism in higher education.

3.   To evaluate the curriculum relevance of tourism education to professional careers in the tourism industry.

3.3.   Methodology

The use of different methods in a study, which is often referred as method triangulation, entails the application of multiple methods to study a single problem (Decrop, 1999). Such an approach can utilise different qualitative methodologies or a combination of qualitative and quantitative techniques, which are not in hierarchical order. Since each method has its own limitations and biases, and since one methodology may result in personal bias, the use of multiple methods paves the way for more credible and dependable information (Decrop, 1999:159). Examples of multimethod research include the work of Markwell (1997) who used both participant observation and semi-structured interviews; Corey (1996) who utilised focus groups and structured questionnaires; Dann (1996) who employed open-ended interviews and photos; and Barron (1998) who used the survey method with open-ended and closed questions in combination with interviews.

The triangulation approach in the qualitative realm can test rival explanations, look for negative or atypical cases, or keep methods and data in context (Patton, 1990). For the purpose of improving the quality of the research insights, this study was designed to utilise method as well as data triangulation. The former approach refers to the application of two

different qualitative methods (i.e. a content analysis and a semi-structured interview), whereas the latter approach involves examination of a variety of data sources in a study (Decrop, 1999). As well as using primary data from interviews, secondary data can also be an important source of information for qualitative research (Decrop, 1999).

The secondary data examined included documents such as undergraduate curriculum content, governmental documentation on the education system, university handbooks and the Directory of Private Higher Education (DPHE). The use such data is not uncommon in tourism research, since it can save a considerable amount of time and money (McIntosh, Goeldner, and Ritchie, 1995). Secondary data can play a variety of roles in a research project, from being the whole basis of the research to being a vital or incidental point of comparison (Veal, 1997).

The main data collection method was in the form of semi-structured interviews which are considered to be more flexible than either mail or telephone surveys. The interviewer can adapt to the situation and to the respondents and also observe the situation of the respondents. For example, an interviewer in a home can record data concerning the person's socioeconomic status by observing the type of housing in which a respondent resides. Despite its apparent limitations (i.e. cost and time) this method has certain advantages, since the interviewer can alter the questions to make sure that the respondent understands them or probe further if the respondent does not provide a satisfactory answer (McIntosh et. al, 1995).

Personal interviews were conducted by means of a set of interview guides which was designed to ensure that interviews were properly conducted. These interviews were developed based on literature reviews of Indonesian and international tourism education frameworks as well as previous studies in the field, and the result of the content analysis. After the questions had been checked by tourism colleagues, back translation was carried out to ensure the most appropriate translation. This means that the questions were translated into Bahasa Indonesia and then translated back into English to see if there were

discrepancies in the translation. This precaution was undertaken because the interview was carried out in Bahasa Indonesia.

Prior to administration of the interviews, a pilot study was conducted in order to ensure a quality instrument. Five students were interviewed in the pilot test. Based on their oral responses and written comments on the questions as well as the duration of each pilot interview, the questions and the interview guides were revised to ensure the effectiveness of each question. After this, the revised interview questions and guides were administered. Each interview lasted from 15 to 30 minutes with elaboration where necessary. Every single interview was audio taped and transcribed. Transcripts were then translated into English for content analysis to identify themes, concepts and meaning (Burn, 1995).

Interviews were chosen as an appropriate tool because the information gathered can be used to form explanations and theories that are grounded in detail, evidence and examples (Rubin and Rubin, 1995). This method offers many advantages to the researcher. For example, responses given in an in-depth interview can produce a wealth of information about reactions to certain experiences as well as individual perceptions. Given that respondent perceptions and experiences in tourism education can be quite complex, the reduction of such experiences to a few ticks on a five-point scale is not completely satisfactory (Ryan, 1995). Therefore, qualitative methodology was selected for addressing specific aims of the study taking into consideration the complexity of Indonesia's tourism industry and the difficulties encountered in obtaining statistical representative samples of the stakeholders in different regions. Data analysis was performed based on themes and sub-themes that emerged during the interviews. The themes were based on existing literature and previous tourism education studies.

3.3.1   Sampling Method

Taking into account the type of the study, a non-probability quota sampling system was performed. Such a system is considered appropriate as there is no way of estimating the probability of respondents being included in the sample frame (Ryan, 1995). This type of

qualitative research is not concerned with generalising from a sample to the wider population (de Vaus, 1995). Sample representativeness, which is the core issue in quantitative research, may be problematic in this approach but with careful quota selection and design, the broad relevance of the groups studied can be regarded as a positive sampling achievement.

Indonesia consists of more than 30 provinces with diverse types of geographical, economical, and cultural backgrounds. Due to financial and time constraints, only five important tourism provinces (Jakarta, West Java, Central Java, Yogyakarta and Bali) were selected as sample research sites of the study. To ensure that the selection produced nationally important results, the research sites were chosen according to criteria determined in previous research. For example, provinces should be tourist generating as well as destination regions. It was assumed that such regions had more established infrastructures which include tourist facilities and education institutions. Furthermore these five regions have been frequently selected as sample locations for previous tourism research in Indonesia, due to the fact that they are more established compared to the other 25 provinces (Ardika, 1994; BPS, Departemen Pariwisata, Seni dan Budaya, 1998).

Although sample representativeness is not the core issue in the study, the system allows the researcher to choose respondents from selected components of the population. (Robson and Robson, 1994). The method requires the enumerators to interview a fixed number and type of elements with certain characteristics, for example, a quota is established for the number and type of elements to be selected (Cannon, 1987).

Selecting a sample in this fashion is simple, ensuring that elements with selected characteristics are represented. The use of this method is probably the only way that a sample can be drawn from the population for the study, given that it is impossible to list and identify all potential elements in the universe (Cannon, 1987). Because the use of this sampling system is subject to bias, certain criteria such as years of involvement in the area of expertise were used to minimise the bias. The issue of establishing criteria for the

sampling selection is further discussed in section 3.2.4. In addition the sampling system is characterised by a somewhat opportunistic selection of persons to be included in the research. They were not chosen on the basis of random or systematic random selection but on their accessibility and cooperativeness. By way of example, if a researcher conducts an interview with business travellers in a hotel, those travellers spending time in the hotel cafe are more likely to be selected, as they are more accessible than those reading books in their hotel rooms. Therefore, the real chance of sample representativeness is less compared to that of randomised selection.

Given that the population was difficult to identify, the target was set at a total of 60 respondents from four different groups; that is each stakeholder group was represented by 15 respondents. The sample was drawn from different the sources available and consisted of the Association of Indonesian Travel Agents (ASITA) members, Indonesian Hotel and Restaurant Association (PHRI) members, the Association of Tourism Higher Learning Institutions (HILDIKTIPARI) membership, and a list of senior officials in the Ministry of Tourism and Arts. However, selecting samples from the list may also create error. Those persons who are not listed as members would most likely be excluded from being selected. This type of error is regarded as a sampling error. Unlike random sampling which has a readily formulae to be applied, the quota sampling error cannot be measured. Nevertheless, by specifying sample criteria and taking careful steps during the interview, the likelihood of sampling and non-sampling errors was reduced.

In addition to the methods employed, the researcher performed a snowball sampling system to obtain target respondents. Respondents who had been contacted or interviewed were asked to recommend names of persons in their areas with certain characteristics and roles decided upon by the researcher.

As opinions can vary depending on the population or occupational groups (Krippendorf, 1987), the sample chosen from different stakeholders was expected to represent diverse personal experiences and perspectives on tourism education in Indonesia. The decision on

potential tourism education stakeholders was based on previous research and literature into tourism education and other related fields such as management (Haywood and Maki, 1992; Cooper, Shepherd, and Westlake, 1996; Freeman 1984; Mitchell et al. 1997, Westlake and Cooper, 1998). However, minor adjustments were made on the grounds that education establishments, which were regarded as major stakeholders by some authors, were not interviewed separately as a group of stakeholders but represented by educators.

3.3.2.   Data Collection Procedures

During preparation of the proposal, the researcher made contact with several government authorities and tourism industry bodies by means of facsimiles, mail, telephone calls and e-mail. This process made them aware that a study on tourism education in Indonesia was about to be conducted.

Following approval of the proposal by the Research Higher Degree Committee of James Cook University, Australia (Appendix A) and ethics approval for research and teaching involving human subjects from the Ethics Review Committee (See Appendix B), the researcher had obtained letters of support from the Ministry of Tourism, Arts and Culture and the Ministry of Education (Appendix C1 & C2). The researcher adopted the following data collection procedures:

1.   A letter of introduction for the researcher stating her topic of the study was prepared by the researcher's supervisor and obtained prior to data collection. (Appendix D).
2.   Formal written authorisation to conduct the study in the selected provinces was obtained from central and provincial authorities (Appendix E1 & E2).
3.   Informed consent forms to be signed by the participants of the study were prepared. (Appendix F1 & F2)
4.   Key persons in several tourism organisations, government offices, and education establishments were contacted for support request.

5. Following approval of the study by the Indonesian authorities, potential respondents were contacted by mail, e-mail, telephone calls, and facsimile to request their participation.

6. Upon receiving agreement to participate in the study, arrangements for interview times and venues were made.

7. Interviews were conducted using an interview guides (Appendices G1 & G.2) and audiotaped for content analysis.

8. The first to the fifth interviews were transcribed and translated for preliminary analysis in order to facilitate interview sessions with the rest of the respondents.

Data collection for this exploratory study was carried out by the researcher in Jakarta, West Java, Central Java, Yogyakarta and Bali from 18 October 1999 – 15 January 2000 and from 15 July – 15 October 2000. The schedule for the first fieldwork session coincided with a national seminar on tourism education, an annual general meeting of ASITA, and a PHRI annual meeting while the second fieldwork session coincided with the first Asia-Pacific Conference on Tourism for People with Disabilities held in Denpasar, Bali. As a result, Study 1 and Study 2 interviews were conducted in these settings.

Following the preliminary contacts, interview times and venues were arranged. Most educators suggested that interviews be conducted during the seminar to reduce travel and accommodation costs and survey time. In fact, some educators suggested that the researcher attend the seminar sessions to gain access to an interview. A formal introduction to the committee took place in order to advise that the researcher would like to register at the seminar and also to conduct interviews with selected educators. Therefore, most of the tourism educators were interviewed during a three-day national seminar of Tourism Education in Indonesia hosted by HILDIKTIPARI. This seminar was well-attended by tourism educators from private and state institutions offering tourism programs. A small number of educators were interviewed in their offices or other places convenient to them.

Respondents from the tourism industry were mostly interviewed during the annual meeting of ASITA in December 1999 and in the first Asia-Pacific Conference on Tourism for People with Disabilities, conducted in Bali from 24-28, September 2000. Prior to doing so, the researcher sought permission from ASITA and IHRA executive directors for members to participate in the study. Both directors agreed and expressed an interest in the study and their willingness to assist whenever needed. They also recommended that the researcher attend the meetings and be introduced to potential respondents who attend the conferences. These steps proved to be valuable for gaining positive responses from interviewees. Therefore the majority of the respondents were interviewed during these two occasions with only a few interviewed in workplaces during the first and second fieldwork periods.

Government officials were mainly approached and interviewed in their offices or other places according to the arrangement. The fourth group who were students, were also contacted in similar ways to the other stakeholders and were interviewed mostly at their tourism education institutions.

3.3.3. Selection Criteria for Respondents

The selection of the sampling frame of a study often involves a process of 'qualifying' potential respondents (Smith, 1995). Such a process refers to refining the pool of prospective respondents to just those who possess the desired attributes of the sample. Therefore, in the cautious implementation of a quota sampling system, certain criteria were applied which would enhance the reliability and validity. The choice of potential respondents for the study was made only after a careful study of personnel from government, the tourism industry, education institutions and tourism students in relation to factors such as type of group, location, position, educational background where applicable and direct or indirect contribution to the development of tourism education in Indonesia.

The selection criteria were based on previous tourism education studies and current literature in related fields (Fayos-Sola, 1998; Hayes, 1997; Ibida, 1997; Ichioka, 1998;

Sugiarti, 1998). Some criteria which were only applicable for three groups of stakeholders, and exclude students are as follows:

1. The respondents were believed to be acquainted with tourism education, the tourism industry and associated problems and issues.

2. The potential respondents should have been in their areas of expertise for at least three years or more to enable them to identify certain issues in tourism education.

3. The potential respondents were believed to be experienced with the prospects of the industry and tourism education in Indonesia.

4. Tourism industry respondents should be a key person who is familiar with tourism and tourism education. They may not always be high-ranking members of the management board, but may be officials who know about main policies, planning and implementation and who provide access to data from institutions (Hayes, 1997).

5. Student respondents were chosen based on the criteria that they had had to have been in the third year of their studies and have already taken Industry Experiences.

3.3.4. Thematic Analysis of the Interviews

Based on the types of data, a thematic analysis was performed to examine the transcripts of the interviews. The method was employed to ensure identification of the main attributes (Hayes, 1997). Coffey and Atkinson (1996) emphasise that much analysis of qualitative data begins with the identification of key themes and patterns. Furthermore, each unit, containing meaning, was condensed, categorised, narratively structured and interpreted (Kvale, 1996). The following series of steps were taken during the processes of analysis:

1. Establishment of themes and sub-themes. In pursuit of its aims, the themes and sub-themes were developed based on selected literature related to tourism education (Airey and Middleton, 1994; Airey, 1998; Cooper et.al., 1996; Echtner, 1995; Ladkin, 1999; Theuns and Rasheed, 1983, McIntosh, 1983).

2. Transcriptions of the interviews and reviews of all documented data. The interviews were conducted in Bahasa Indonesia. The next step was to translate the

transcriptions into English very carefully in order not to lose the key points in the responses.

3. Identifications of themes and sub-themes based on the identification of attributions during the course of the interviews and related secondary documents. For example, from the responses to a question regarding reasons for choosing a professionally based approach to tourism education, four themes were identified: availability of future employment; fulfilling the industry needs; well-established program; government regulation/policy; and the needs for more industry professionals.

4. Extractions from the interview transcripts of the attributional statements relevant to the themes-and sub-themes under scrutiny. To facilitate analysis, data coding was utilised throughout the process by identifying respondents using numbers. For example, a respondent from government was coded capital letter G followed by numerical number (G-05) and the identified issues were also coded to simplify the procedure.

5. Crosschecking of interview data with data taken from fieldnotes and secondary data to provide reliable analysis.

6. Extracting the transcripts to provide illustration for the thematic analysis in discussing the results of the study.

To increase reliability in the study, two fellow researchers were asked to be panel judges in classifying some data. The differences which emerged were discussed to see whether they had potential to influence analysis and then they were used for the refinement. One limitation of this study, however, was that data collection and data analysis were conducted by a single researcher which made a reliability score impossible to calculate. Cooper (2001) asserts that one of the tactics for increasing reliability is using multiple researchers and conducting 'check-coding' to calculate a reliability score (Miles and Huberman, 1994).

In relation to procedures such as using panel judges for a reliability check, the process of analysing the data also involved an interactive model as depicted in Figure 3.1. The process involved data reduction, data display and drawing conclusions/verification whereby the three

types of analysis activity and the data collection itself form an interactive, cyclical process (Miles and Huberman, 1984). The researcher steadily moves among these four streams during data collection, then shuffles among reduction, display, and conclusion drawing/verification for remainder of the study. Data reduction refers to the process of selecting, focusing, simplifying, abstracting and transforming raw data that appear in written-up field notes. In fact data reduction occurs continuously throughout the life of any qualitatively project (Miles and Huberman, 1984).
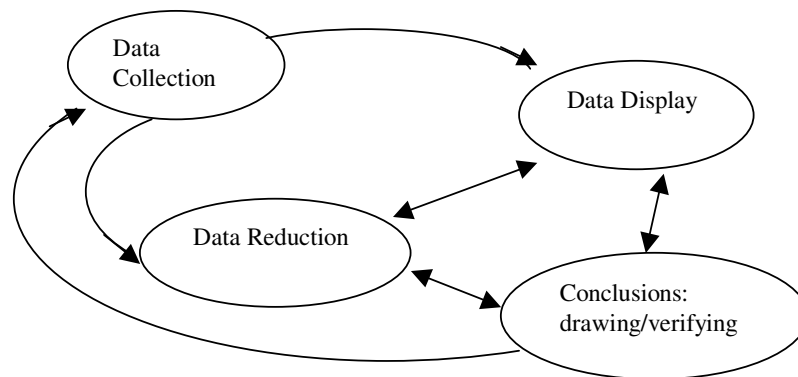

Figure 3.1 Components of Data analysis: Interactive Model
Source: Miles and Huberman (1984)

Some parts of the interactive model were well used, particularly within Data Collection, Data Display and Conclusions. This was applied at the beginning of the first five interviews which had been transcribed earlier (Data Display) to identify any deficiencies in the information gathered.

Data Display is defined as an organised assembly of information that permits conclusion drawing and action taking. The researcher analysed the data which were subsequently displayed in the form of tables and matrices. Miles and Huberman further assert that the most frequent form of data display in qualitative data used in the past has been 'narrative text'. However, it is possible to display data in the form of matrices, graphs, networks and charts. Data of the present study have also been organised in the form of tables and charts

for easy accessibility. These processes were conducted simultaneously with the thematic analysis.

3.3.5. Response Rates

Introduction letters sent to potential respondents concerning the study and subsequent contacts made by using different methods proved to be valuable. The majority of respondents approached were enthusiastic and willing to participate. Although some respondents declined the offer to join in the research due to time constraints and other commitments, the overall response was positive.

Target respondent numbers totalled 60, consisting of 15 respondents for each stakeholder group. The researcher initially contacted 70 potential respondents in order to allow for refusals. Continuous effort resulted in quite a high number of responses, the majority of which indicated positive agreement. Only 10 potential respondents refused the proposal to participate in the study. Therefore, the response rate is considered reasonably high and is a typical for personal interviews which are usually characterised by high response rates compared to other methods such as mail back questionnaires or telephone surveys (Smith, 1995).

3.3.6. Ethical Clearance

Research workers undertaking experimentation involving humans, animal, or genetic manipulation are required to have ethical aspects approved by the appropriate Ethics Review Committee (Appendix A). This approval should be undertaken prior to data collection to ensure that respondent welfare is taken into consideration during and after the research. During the data collection procedure, every participant was notified about the nature of the study and informed that participation in the research was voluntary. They were also encouraged to seek further information about the study. Issues of confidentiality involving respondent identities and security of the data collected were raised at the beginning of each interview before respondents signed the consent forms. The identities of the respondents

and data collected will not be made public or shared with individuals outside the team without the respondent consent (Smith, 1995). Confidentiality of individual records must be protected during and after the study and anonymity must be preserved in the publication of results (James Cook University, 2000).

Efforts were made to ensure that respondents did not feel pressured to join the research. They were free to withdraw from participation in the study at any time before and during the course of the interviews. The respondents were also informed that copies of the completed research report would be made available to all interested parties upon request.

3.4. Respondent Profiles

The following section presents a profile of the respondents participating in the study. Unlike survey questionnaires, which were utilised in studies three and four, this semi-structured interview method provided fewer opportunities for the researcher to obtain information on demographic variables. It was quite difficult to ask respondent to answer such questions orally as the interviews were not accompanied by small-scale questionnaires and this factor was responsible for limitations in the present study.

As stated in previous chapters (1 and 2) demographic variables such as education may have some direct or indirect influences on the perspectives of the stakeholders. However, this particular study did not include all variables to be investigated as they were irrelevant to the objectives of the study. The researcher did not intend to investigate and compare respondent responses based on demographic variables. A few variables that could be obtained in the interviews were analysed and presented in this section to indicate that certain requirements had been met. For example, it was necessary for respondents from the industry, government and educators to have been involved in these areas of expertise for more than three years. The methodology adopted enabled comparisons of the profiles, opinions and experiences of the respondents from the four groups to be made where necessary.

Figure 3.2 indicates that there is an equal mix of respondents from each province. Jakarta has a relatively higher proportion of total numbers (n=15) compared to the other provinces, particularly Yogyakarta which accounts for only nine respondents. Bali, however, has a slightly higher proportion of tourism professionals (n=5) participating in the study. In terms of representativeness among groups, this result indicates that all four groups and five provinces are represented by an equal number of respondents with 15 respondents for each stakeholder group.
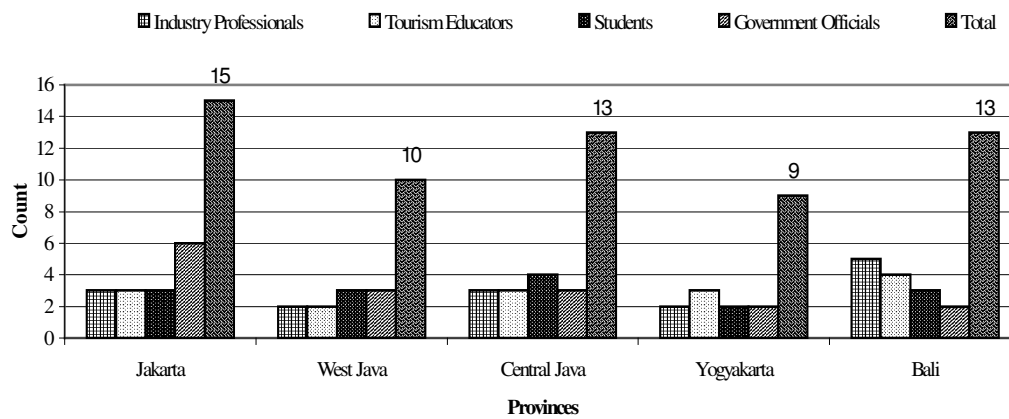

Figure 3.2 Respondents by Groups and Provinces

The three groups have similar characteristics in terms of years of involvement in related areas (See Figure 3.3). The majority of respondents (n=21) were more likely to have been engaged in the area of expertise such as accommodation and government tourism offices for more than five years. Seventeen respondents had been involved in the field for more than nine years.

Based on the analysis, the requirement of the respondent experiences as established in the criteria (Section 3.2.4) has been met with 86.6 % of respondents having more than three years experience. This analysis excluded tourism students, as they were measured in a different way namely by looking at their years of study in tourism and participation in industry placements. Analysis of student respondents also revealed that all interviewees were in their third and fourth years of their study and that every one had been involved in the industry

placements as required by their institutions. This finding indicates that criteria 5 established in Section 3.2.4 has been achieved.
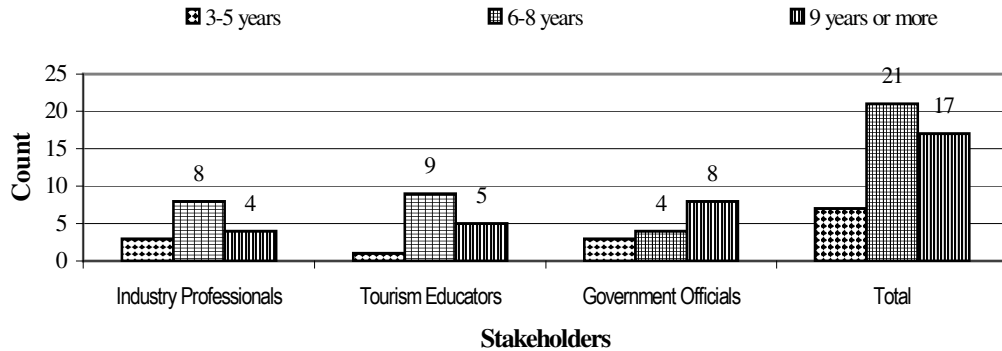

Figure 3.3 Respondent Years of Involvement in the Area of Expertise

As with education background, gender was not considered to be an issue in the study as it only involved small sample numbers and was unlikely to influence stakeholder opinions and experiences concerning tourism education. It was also decided not to perform a comparative analysis between male and female respondents regarding the findings. Therefore, analysis of this demographic variable was conducted solely for illustration purposes. Overall, the findings of the gender among the four groups indicate that there is an unequal mix of male and female respondents participating in the study.
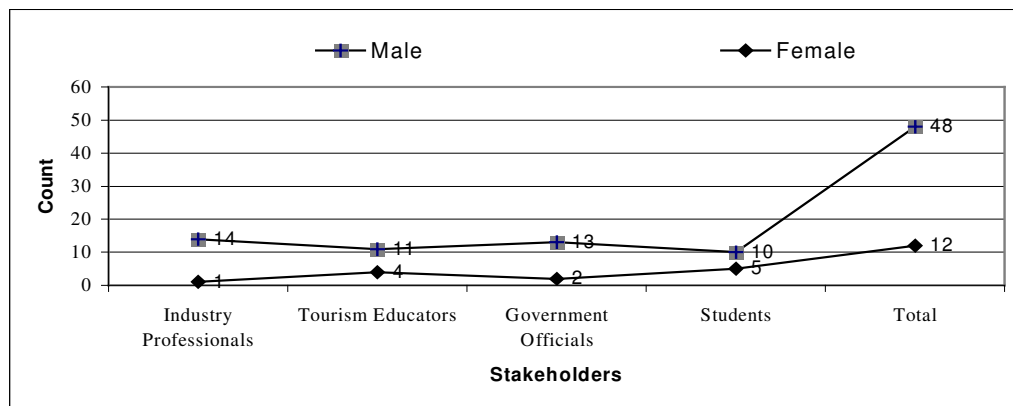

Figure 3.4 Respondents by Gender and Groups

Figure 3.4 demonstrates an imbalance in respondent gender with male respondents dominating the total number of participants (n=48) compared to those of female respondents (n=12). However, tourism educator and student groups are represented by a slightly higher number of females with four and five females respectively compared to the other two groups. However, the male bias in tourism executive employment tend to exist in developing countries (Manwa, 2000). The present data on the imbalance may partly reflect this gender orientation of employees in Indonesian tourism industry.

3.5.   Data Analysis and Results of the Study

Section 3.4 highlights results from secondary and primary data analysis. Section 3.4.1 specifically discusses the results of content analysis of six curricula of tourism programs and identification of Indonesian tourism programs on offer which was taken from the Directory of Private Higher Education (DPHE, 1999/2000). The following section focuses on analysis results from the semi-structured interviews to identify their views and experiences. The presentation of the main data analysis will be organised on the basis of examining each question in the interview under separate sub-headings which are established based on individual aims of the study. This section will be divided into sub-sections and exemplified by relevant statements from the respondents pertaining to major themes which emerged in the course of the interviews.

3.5.1.   Results of Content Analysis

The issue of establishing a core body of knowledge for tourism has been debated for almost as long as tourism has been studied (Airey, 1998). Based on the definition of tourism by the World Tourism Organisation (WTO) and agreed upon by the United Nation Statistical Commission, Airey (1998) has identified the study of tourism as being based on Demand, Supply, Impacts and Marketing (Figure 3.5). The content analysis was also based on the previous literature review related to the components of tourism systems developed by Leiper (1981 & 1995) These four components presented in the figure and also in other frameworks

discussed in Chapter 1.2.1, are more likely to be used for developing course content in tourism education in order to embrace entirely sectors of the tourism industry.
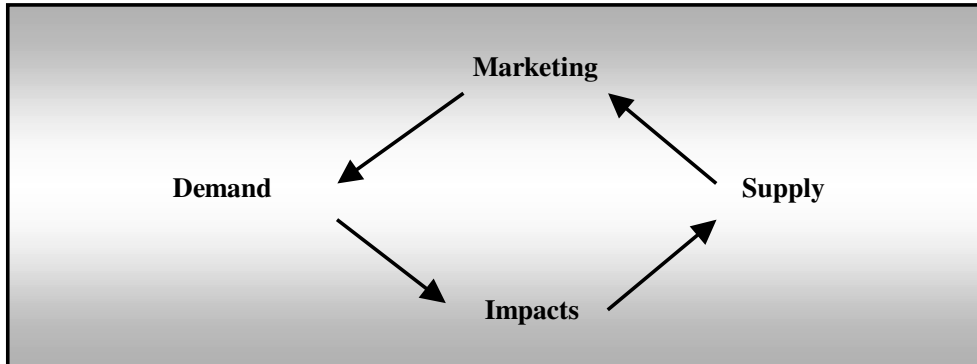

Figure 3.5 The Study of Tourism
Source: Airey, 1998.

The content of the first tourism courses in the UK was strongly influenced by the content of an early and influential textbook by Bukart and Medlik (1974) containing ten chapter headings as illustrated in Table 3.2 and further validated in research by Airey and Middleton (1984). It was the objective of the present study to identify whether these trends had also been followed by Indonesian tourism institutions when offering tourism programs. Furthermore, the results of the content analysis were compared to those of the primary data to determine what differences existed between the perspectives and the actual practices in tourism education.

As previously mentioned, content analysis involved six curricula including four non-degree and two undergraduate degree programs. The sample was taken from numerous backgrounds assuming that the need for program representativeness was satisfied. For example, it included private and state institutions, different programs (non-degree and degree), and different provinces (Central Java, Jakarta, West Java, and Bali). To comply with ethical issues of confidentiality, each curriculum was coded to facilitate analysis such as by coding all curricula 1 to 6. This analysis was undertaken to investigate the content of tourism program curricula currently being offered.

However, small sample size in content analysis does mean that results must be interpreted with some caution particularly with respect to their applicability to all tourism curricula in Indonesia. The broader population involved in tourism education may not share the same characteristics as those surveyed in the present study. Therefore, further research which focuses on curricula and uses total sampling is a necessity to identify trends in Indonesian tourism curricula and to forecast future developments in tourism education.

TABLE 3.1
The Main Components of the Body of Knowledge about Tourism (Tourism Society, 1981)

Major Components	Brief Description of Content
What is tourism	Concepts of leisure, recreation, tourism; Types of tourism according to purpose; Concepts of tourist destination service industry
Historical development of tourism	Past to Second World War; Recent and current – 1945 to 1980; Future from 1980 onwards
Determinants and motivations in tourism	Factors stimulating growth of tourism (determinants); Why people wish to travel (motivations); Influences of supply.
Statistical measurement and dimensions	Types of tourism statistics and their limitations; Domestic tourism-sources, methods, dimensions; International tourism – sources, methods, dimensions.
Component sectors	Tourist industry and component sectors; Economic and operating characteristics of sectors; Current trends and developments in main sectors.
Marketing	Role of marketing in tourist Planning and Research, markets and products, product formulation, Promotion and sales.
Physical planning and development	Planning concepts and planning machinery; Infrastructure planning and development; Superstructure project planning and development.
Organisation	Structure and roles of government and tourist boards; Trade association and unions, professional bodies, Related public bodies.
Finance	Operating financial accounts of tourism firms; requirements, sources, methods – development finance.

Source: Cooper and Shepherd, 1997

As already discussed in section 2.3.1, several authors have examined curriculum content using a core component of the body of knowledge. The sample curricula of this study were also examined against those components derived from components of the Body of Knowledge about Tourism proposed by the UK based Tourism Society (Table 3.1), Bukart and Medlik (1974), and National Liaison Group's (1995) cited in Airey (1998) (See Table 3.2). The works were used to identify whether the proposed components found in the models

had influenced Indonesia's current tourism curricula. The initial processes of analysis involved identifying course titles offered by each institutions which were presented in student handbooks, translating them from Bahasa Indonesia to English and comparing the course titles to the existing literature (Airey & Johnson, 1999; Holloway, 1998; McIntosh, 1983; Sumarsono, 1999; Theuns and Rasheed, 1983; Weenen and Shafer, 1983; Wells, 1990 and 1996). The analysis was conducted to scrutinise what tourism content was being offered to prospective tourism students and whether such reflected that of existing international curricula.

TABLE 3.2.
The Core Body of Knowledge

Core Body of Knowledge	Main Components
Bukart & Medlik, (1974)	• Historical Development • Anatomy of Tourism • Statistics of Tourism • Passenger Transport • Accommodation • Tours and Agencies • Marketing in Tourism • Planning and Development • Organisation and Finance • Future of Tourism
National Liaison Group, (1995)	• The Meaning and Nature of Tourism • The Structure of the Industry • The Dimensions of Tourism and Issues of Measurement • The Significance and Impact of Tourism • The Marketing of Tourism • Tourism Planning and Management • Policy and Management in Tourism

Source: Airey, 1998

Despite consistent arguments for and against the core body of knowledge, there is widespread support among tourism teachers in the UK and the headings identified by the National Liaison Group (NLG) broadly reflect the content of courses being provided (Airey, 1998). Therefore, by comparing curriculum content in Indonesia with the contents of the core body of knowledge, the researcher expected to discover the trend followed by Indonesian tourism institutions. Such an analysis was expected to provide an illustration of whether the institutions were following the same approach adopted by the majority of developed countries in the world. However, due to the small number of the sample, the results of the analysis cannot be extrapolated and generalised for the wider population.

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3.5.1.1. Course Content

The desk evaluation to curricula revealed considerable variations in the range of subjects on offer, subjects for obtaining degrees as well as course duration. The Indonesian education system requires that to complete a Diploma 3 program a student should complete around 110-120 semester credit units, whereas diploma 4 and undergraduate degree programs require the students to complete between 115 to 160 semester credit units, depending on the institutions (Sumarsono, 1999). These programs consist of a combination of general subjects such as Bahasa Indonesia and Religion, basic professionally based subjects such as Introduction to Management and Tourism Psychology and professionally based subjects such as Tourism Economics.

Given that tourism studies has no consortium in the higher education system (Pitana, personal communication, November 1999) the program has been included under the consortia of economic studies, particularly for tourism degree programs. As a consequence, the curriculum content of a degree program is biased towards either economics or business, with less focus on tourism studies. In addition to the issue of consortium, the Minister Decree No 049/U/1995 stipulates that a tourism program should comprise 80 % national curriculum and 20 % local curriculum depending on institutional commitment or the local environment. Thus each institution has to comply with this regulation by providing 80 % curriculum content as proposed by the government and 20 % by institutions. This combination has been a matter of concern for several years as the need for more academically based tourism education increases. This study has attempted to address this specific concern by looking at respondent opinions about the suitability of the combination for Indonesian tourism education (Section 3.4.2.1.6)

Despite the diverse course titles, it was found that the majority of courses represented the broad range of core components proposed by Tourism Society. Figure 3.6 indicates that six curricula contained the following components: (1) What is tourism; (2) Statistical measurements and dimensions; (3) Component sectors; and (4) Marketing. However, it was

found that two important curriculum components namely determinants and motivations in tourism were lacking in these curricula. These two components were considered as important factors in identifying marketing types and tourist destination promotions (Scott, Parfitt and Laws, 2000). It is, essential therefore to take these two factors into consideration when planning future curriculum content for tourism courses.
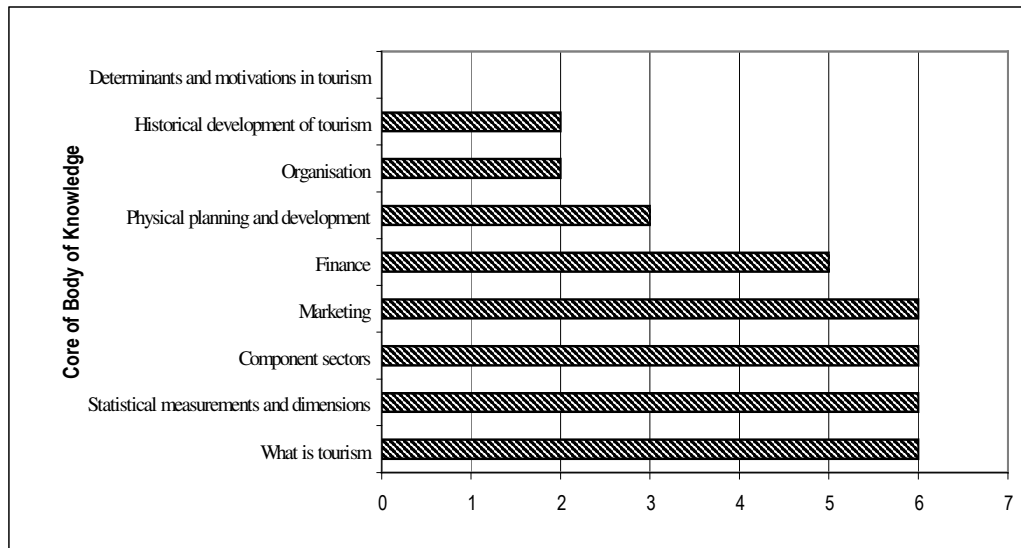

Figure 3.6 Course Contents of the Curricula in Relation to the Body of Knowledge

It was also revealed that minor differences exist between the contents of the Indonesian curricula and the core body of knowledge. For example 'Statistics' in an Indonesian context would likely embrace a study of general statistics at the beginning of the courses with a greater focus on tourism statistics towards the end of the courses (Mudjana, personal communication, 25 November 1999), whereas the core body of knowledge contains a greater focus on tourism statistics from the beginning of the courses. Another common subject likely to be provided by tourism institutions with slight modification in the title was Tours and Agencies.

Historical Development and Future of Tourism were two subjects which were not generally included in the curricula under separate headings. They were more likely to be covered under 'an introduction to tourism' as a major component of 'What is tourism'. This finding indicates that, to some extent, the formulation of the early curriculum in Indonesia was

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influenced by trends being followed by other countries such as the UK and Australia. The fact that the needs of developing countries are different from those of developed countries has been emphasised by several commentators, indicates that current curriculum of Indonesian tourism education needs to be evaluated (Blanton, 1981, Cooper, Shepherd, and Westlake, 1996, Craig-Smith and Michael, 1995, Echtner, 1994, Theuns and Rasheed, 1983).
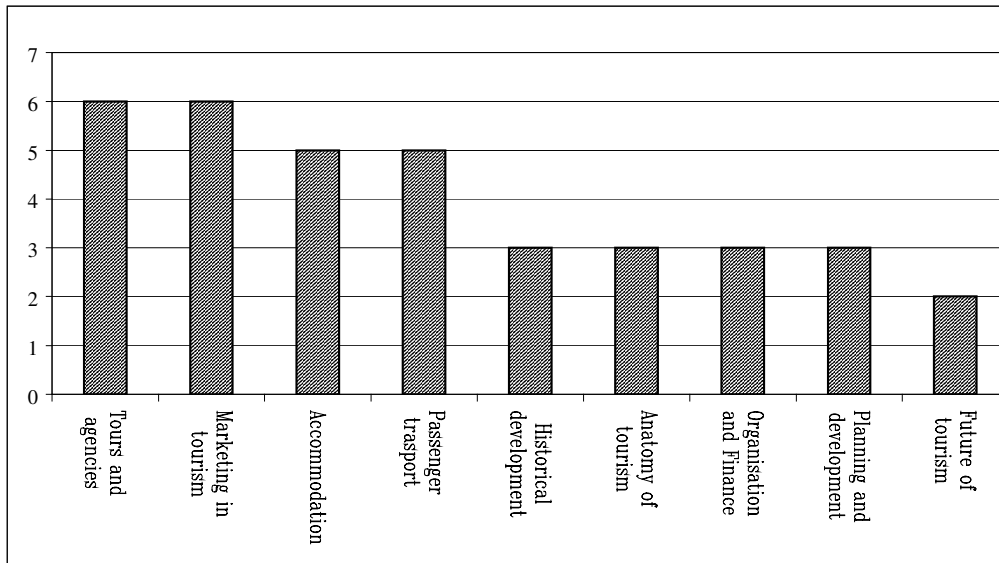
Figure 3.7 Course Content of Tourism Curricula in Relation to the Main Components Proposed by Bukart and Medlik, 1974

Several authors have expressed concern that due to the lack of tourism educators and experts, most curricula have been designed based on already existing curricula designed for developed countries. As a result most of the programs were not appropriate for developing countries (Theuns and Rasheed, 1984). Certain adjustments to the future curricula are necessary in order to accommodate the special needs of developing countries such as Indonesia. For example, there is a desperate need to include environmental aspects to tourism subjects such as Impact of Tourism Developments and Cultural Tourism.
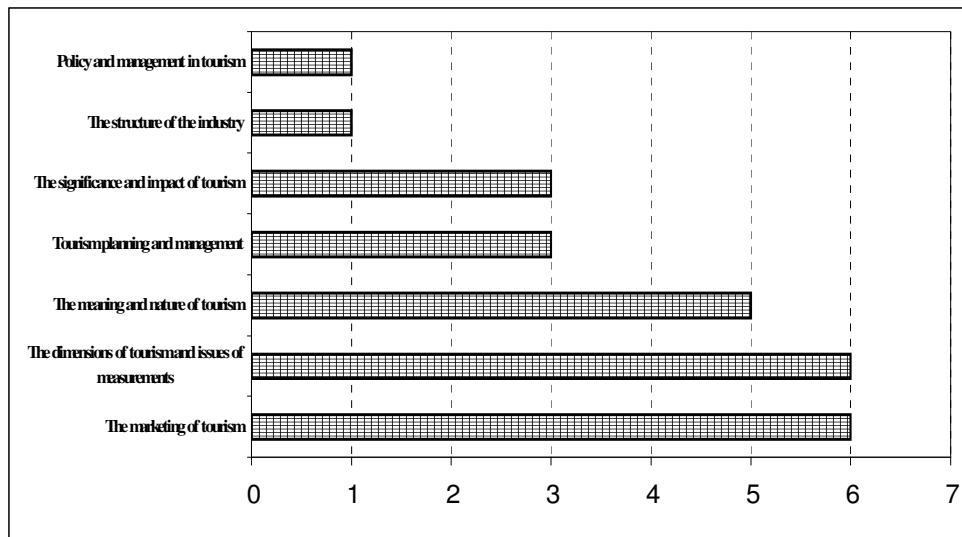
Figure 3.8 Course Contents of Tourism Curriculum in Relation to the Main Components Proposed by NLG (1995).

Some points need to be stressed regarding the inclusion of main components as proposed by Bukart and Medlik (1974). For example, while all courses include Statistics, Tours and Agencies, and Marketing, only two programs offered courses associated with the future of tourism. This implies that current tourism curricula have not considered the negative impacts of mass tourism in future which might influence greatly if programs do not offer such a course. The complete findings of Bukart and Medlik's propositions and NLG are presented in Figures 3.7 and 3.8 respectively.

The analysis also revealed that each curriculum on offer requires students to undertake professional industry placement as an integrated part of the curriculum, this placement is usually referred to as On the Job Training' in an Indonesian context. The duration of the industry placement varies depending on the length of the curses and the institutions. For example, a Diploma 4 program in one college requires students to participate in one of the tourism sectors such as accommodation, tourist destinations, or government tourism offices for up to 6 months. However, the average period allocated by most tourism programs was 3 months. Problems relating to the industry placement in Indonesian higher tourism education will be further discussed in section 3.4.1.3.

3.5.1.2. Course Title

There are two different approaches in summarising tourism course content namely by focusing on subject titles which form part of the degree or diploma courses or by identifying in detail the skills and abilities which the course is attempting to develop (Pearce et al., 1998). However, Pearce et al (1998) have expressed concern focusing on subjects can mask important issues such as how the subject title is being interpreted by the educator or how it is being perceived by an employer. On the other hand, defining courses by skills may also pose questions such as whether the skills have been achieved by the students at the completion of their studies. Due to the lack of data, the study was confined to identifying the tourism courses by merely analysing course titles. Further investigations of tourism curricula would be necessary to investigate the content of each subject title.

TABLE 3.3
Common Subject Titles in Indonesian Hospitality and Tourism Programs

Frequently offered and major subjects	Infrequent and minor subjects
• Introduction to tourism • Tours and Travel Management • Tourism Marketing • Tourism Economics • Tourism Geography (Indonesia & international) • Tourism Management • Tourism Project & Practicum • Tourism/Research Methods • Entrepreneurship • Hotel/restaurant management • Statistical measurement	• Tourism Law • Ecotourism • Special-interest tourism • Cultural Tourism • Transportation system • Leisure and Recreation • Transportation Management • Physical Planning and Development of Tourism

Upon examination of course contents, it was found that some course tittles such as Tours and Travel Management were being commonly offered. On the other hand, certain courses such as Tourism Law were seldom provided. Table 3.4 reports that courses such as Marketing, Tourism Statistics, and Hotel/Restaurant Management were frequently provide, whereas courses such as Ecotourism and Cultural Tourism were not offered very often.

To a certain extent, the findings show commonalities with those of Wells (1996) concerning course titles. For example, Tourism Marketing and Statistical Measurements are considered

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as commonly offered subjects both in Australia and in Indonesia. Ecotourism, on the other hand, is offered less frequently in both countries. However, there are a few contrasts as well. For example, Wells (1996) has pointed out that tourism economics was considered a rare and minor subject in the Australian context, while it was a common subject in Indonesia.

3.5.1.3. Duration of Courses and Industry Experiences

In analysing course duration and industry placements in the program, the researcher discovered that the duration of the programs was very much dependent on the types of programs. For example, diploma programs could vary between one year to four years while undergraduate degrees could vary between four and five years. The data clearly demonstrated that the length of the courses was likely to determine the duration of the industry placement.

Table 3.5 in particular demonstrates that Diplomas 1 – 3 take one to three years to complete and they are more usually provided by colleges, academies, polytechnics, institutes and universities. Undergraduate and postgraduate programs on the other hand are available only at institutes and universities, as colleges are not allowed to develop these programs as yet. The Indonesian higher education system requires that, apart from completing tourism-related subjects, students should be recommended to take a series of compulsory subjects which have been endorsed by the higher education such as Religion and Bahasa Indonesia. Consequently, there are many general subjects to be taken and possibly not enough tourism related subjects.

One of the requirements of the current tourism programs is for students to take industry placement, which is commonly known as On the Job Training (OJT) in Indonesia. The program is an integrated part of most tourism and hospitality curricula which are generally conducted in cooperation with tourism industries in Indonesia as well as foreign countries such as Singapore, Malaysia, Japan, Germany and Canada (Sekolah Tinggi Pariwisata Bandung (STPB), 1998). Industry placements have been widely recognised and they play a valuable role in tourism courses such as promoting a good relationship between universities

and employers (Ladkin, 1999). Results accumulated from various studies point to the many benefits of industry placements such as students' improved self-confidence and improved social skills (Gillin, Davie and Beissel, 1984) as well as increased practical knowledge and skills (William et al., 1993). Evidence from previous surveys also indicates that industry placements are well-appreciated by students and they can help to enhance employment opportunities (Sharma, Mannel and Rowe, 1995).

TABLE 3.4
Tourism Programs Defined by Semester Credit Unit, Duration of the Courses, and Providers

Diploma Stages	Semester Credit Unit	Duration of Study	Institutions
Diploma 1	40 – 50	1 – 2 years	Colleges; Academies; Institutes; Polytechnic; Universities
Diploma 2	80 – 90	2 – 3 years	Colleges; Academies; Institutes; Polytechnic; Universities
Diploma 3	110 – 120	3 – 4 years	Colleges; Academies; Institutes; Polytechnic; Universities
Diploma 4	114 – 160	4 – 7 years	Colleges; Institutes; Universities
Undergraduate Degree	151 – 160	4 – 7 years	Colleges; Institutes; Universities
Postgraduate Degree	47 – 48	2 – 4 years	Institutes; Universities

Adapted from Sumarsono, 1999

The study discovered that in the majority of the programs industry placement is compulsory with its duration varying between 3 – 6 months depending on the programs. For example, Diploma 3, which takes 3 years to complete, requires that the students take placement for three months, while undergraduates and Diploma 4 students must complete 6-month attachment. This finding indicates similarities with some institutions in Malaysia (Goldsmith and Zahari, 1994), where industrial attachments varied between 6 -18 months with an average of 6 months. Some institutions require students to find their own industrial placements. Other education institutions arrange industry placement for the students and require the students to follow independent selection conducted by the industry, as the opportunities are usually relatively limited (Mihardjo, Personal communication, November 1999). However, there were commonalities among institutions in that, after completion of

industry placements, students are required to write a report that will be submitted to the industry and the school and assessed by both groups.

Particular issues regarding industry placement involved difficulty in finding industry partners that were willing to accept students, fairly low level of responsibility usually given to the trainees in the workplace and poor employment conditions. Such factors may have hindered further development of the programs in Indonesia (Gunawan, personal communication November, 1999) which, in the long run, could affect the process of the industry placement for professionally based education students. McMahon and Quinn (1995) state that, despite apparent benefits to all parties concerned, students often report negative experiences on placements.

Notwithstanding these problems, some Indonesian tourism institutions were able to develop a good working relationship with the industry so that students could gain easy access to industry placement. Some institutions managed to send their students overseas for industry placement to places such as the Netherlands, Singapore, Germany and Malaysia. Such international experience was a great benefit to students for future careers. Overseas industry placement often assists the students to locate working opportunities overseas upon graduation.

3.5.1.4.   Entrepreneurship

Echtner (1995) proposed that a three-pronged approach which included entrepreneurial training be considered as appropriate for tourism education in developing countries. She further argued that in the past the debate has centred on the relative merits of two of these approaches i.e. professional education and vocational training, while the third component of entrepreneurial training has been largely neglected (1995:121). Therefore, she maintains that the inclusion of entrepreneurship in tourism education in developing countries should be considered.

Based on the literature review, the researcher then decided that analysis of selected curriculum content should also concentrate on the aspect of entrepreneurship in the Indonesian context. Echtner (1995) asserts that entrepreneurial capabilities can be developed and enhanced by means of education. The program also provides the students with business and management tools for becoming entrepreneurs, particularly if combined with professional education in tourism. Results of the analysis suggest that every tourism and hospitality curriculum under review has included this component in their curriculum contents. Wall (1999) argues that the entrepreneurial paradigm of tourism activity has changed considerably in recent years. The operational model of mass tourism no longer suffices to achieve competitiveness in tourism enterprises and regions. It is, therefore, entrepreneurship needs to be taken into account when designing tourism education programs. After a careful examination of course syllabi, it was found that the unit course is aimed at developing third component of the entrepreneurship i.e. managerial and business capability of the students. Therefore Echtner's claims about the program not being included in tourism curriculum in developing countries are challenged as most curricula have included this component.

The inclusion of this unit in national tourism curriculum was primarily based on government policy on higher education. Such a policy stipulates that to enhance graduate opportunity for creating their own business, entrepreneurship should be included as one of the components of diploma and undergraduate curricula in Indonesian higher education. Governments, including that of Indonesia, have tended to concentrate on large development (such as development corporations) to the relative neglect of small entrepreneurs (Wall, 1999). In an attempt to improve its economy and living standards, the government has established a series of programs designed to facilitate the establishment and growth of small business including educational and training plans (Carland, Carland, and Ciptono, undated). Indonesian examples of entrepreneurship in the context of attractions include the creation of new tourism opportunities such as white-water rafting and bungee jumping in Bali and diving in North Sulawesi, as well as the stimulation of pottery production in villages near Yogyakarta (Wall, 1999).

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One strategy for enhancing entrepreneurship is to recommend the addition of this subject to the national curriculum of higher education. Although the subject is only a two-semester credit unit, it appears that it can be beneficial in that it can assist the students to develop a capacity for creating job for themselves. It has already been acknowledged that professional and vocational approaches to tourism education are mainly concerned with creating human resources who will work for others. In fact, it has been suggested that one of the most critical needs of developing countries is to foster entrepreneurs and an environment within which entrepreneurship can flourish (Nehrt, 1987 cited in Echtner, 1995). The number of successful entrepreneurs can be substantially increased by means of this learning process (Echtner, 1995), but the findings of the present work remain. Echtner assertion that the approach is weak in developing countries does not apply to Indonesia.

3.5.1.5. House Department/Faculty Within Which Tourism Courses Are Attached

In addition to content analysis of the six tourism curricula, another content analysis was performed to identify programs being offered by the tourism education institutions and departments/faculty within which the programs are offered. This analysis was conducted by referring to the programs listed on the DPHE, the Department of Arts and Tourism Annual Report and information gathered from the Directorate General of Higher Education (DGHE). The analysis involved the hospitality and tourism programs available for the academic year 1999 – 2000 and this analysis was conducted based on the list of tourism courses available in the Directory of Private Higher Education in Indonesia. As it is not feasible to present all the title of the courses, Table 3.5 shows a list of random samples of course titles on offer which range from Hospitality to Cultural Tourism in the academic year 1999 – 2000 accompanied by types of programs.

However, the analysis performed was limited to only program identification. Further investigation was not possible, as the information provided in the directories was restricted to institution names, addresses, total number of staffs, facilities provided, academic support

and programs on offer. Other essential information such as teacher qualifications, student input, student output, and curriculum content was not provided.

TABLE 3.5
Hospitality and Tourism Course Titles Academic Year 1999 – 2000

COURSE TITLES	TYPES
• Hotel Management	Diploma III and IV
• Tourism Economics	Diploma IV and Degree Programs
• Tourism	Diploma III
• Tourism Management	Diploma III, IV and Degree Programs
• Tours and Travel Management	Diploma III and Degree Programs
• Ecotourism	Diploma I and III
• Cultural Tourism	Diploma III
• Tourism Management	Postgraduate Degree Programs

Closer analysis of program titles revealed somewhat interesting trends. Firstly, among programs which can be identified from the list, hospitality and accommodation-related service courses were dominant (N=72) with a heavy emphasis on hotel operation, food and beverage, and other restaurant related subjects. This finding supports commonly accepted presupposition within the Indonesian tourism industry that the accommodation sector is the most important sector in the industry. Secondly, the remaining programs related to specialised tourism focuses such as Tourism Studies, Tours and Travel Management, Tourism Management, Tourism Economics, Cultural Tourism and Ecotourism. The third trend indicates that the majority of the programs were offered at diploma level with most courses being delivered at colleges and institutes of tourism.

It also appears that around 89.41 % (N=76) of the courses are now offered at colleges or tourism institutes, which specifically provide either hospitality or tourism programs. The remaining 10.58 % (N=9) programs are offered at universities. In terms of programs, universities also offer both non-degree and degree programs as do colleges and institutes. Those institutions which specialising in bachelor degrees programs combined with economics are located within the institute of tourism and economics. Programs offered at universities are usually provided within the Economics Faculty, Social and Political Sciences

Faculty, Faculty of Arts and Letters, Faculty of Administration and the Department of Planning and Design.

The findings of this study are quite dissimilar to those of previous studies (Cooper et al., 1996; Ladkin, 1999; Wells, 1996). For example, Wells (1996) reported that most tourism programs in Australia were offered under the School of Business in association with either marketing or management studies and that most of these programs were provided at universities. A recent analysis regarding courses in Tourism/Hospitality in Australia (Pearce, 2002) revealed that there is the strong connection and labelling of tourism and hospitality offerings to the disciplines and areas of business and management for undergraduate degrees. While Tourism and Hospitality programs are sometimes classified as independent study areas, the influence of general business and management studies on the non-specific or general curriculum is quite strong (2002:129).

However, for postgraduate courses, there are some offerings with an Arts focus which reflects a broader social and sometimes cultural concern. In the Indonesian context, new trends which offer tourism and hospitality programs with Arts and Social Science are also apparent. Such offers indicated a contemporary trend in Indonesian tourism education. Ladkin (1999) also found that around a third of tourism education institutions in the UK were provided by departments of faculties of Business and Management studies within universities.

Most of the programs currently being offered in Indonesia are professionally based courses which regard practical experiences as an important aspect of the learning process (Ladkin, 1999), whereas, some diploma programs are vocationally based education or training courses. Professionally based education is generally endorsed by the tourism industry which also provides financial support for running the programs or guest lecturers from executive or top managers of tourism enterprises. However, there is an important minority of tourism courses as for example, in the Department of Planning and Design which focuses more on academic-type education. Such an education is typified as being general, theoretical,

discipline-oriented with a higher degree of abstraction (Theuns and Rasheed, 1983) and considers vocational elements as being less important.

The credit semester system has not been fully adopted in Indonesia. This means that the system only allows students to take a number of subjects being offered in certain departments or faculties within colleges or universities before obtaining their degrees. In the UK context, it is already possible for tourism-related subjects to be selected from a wide range of course options on a modular basis (Ladkin, 1999). Such a system provides the opportunity that tourism can be offered with almost any other subject and vice versa (Ladkin, 1999).

3.5.2. Results of Primary Data Analysis

Based on the analysis of curriculum content of tourism programs and related literature reviews, a semi-structured interview was administered to gauge opinions and attitudes of tourism education stakeholders. Sixty respondents from four different stakeholders i.e. government officials, tourism educators, industry professionals and students were interviewed. Each stakeholder group was represented by 15 individuals from the five provinces. Their ideas, views and attitudes were evaluated to obtain a better understanding of Indonesian tourism higher education for further development.

Results of the analysis are presented in categorised themes and sub-themes in the form of tables or diagrams. Each theme is accompanied by interview extracts which illustrate stakeholder opinions and experiences in the area of tourism education. This sub-section will also include a discussion related to the findings and previous studies in tourism education from both developed and developing countries. The findings are presented in three different sections in line with the three aims of the study and each question is discussed separately in the sub-sections.

3.5.2.1. The perspective of the stakeholders on current curriculum content

To address the first aim of the present study, which is the perspective of stakeholders on the curriculum content of current programs, seven questions were developed for exploring stakeholder views and experiences concerning tourism education provisions at tertiary level in Indonesia (See Appendix H). As already discussed before that classifications of the themes emerged from the interviews were based on previous proposals put forward by several authors in this filed (Cooper, Shepherd and Westlake, 1996; Echtner, 1995; Howell and Uysal, 1987; Pollock and Ritchie, 1995).

3.5.2.1.1.   General Curriculum Content

Respondents were asked about the universal curriculum content of the current tourism program in Indonesia. Three major themes emerged during the interviews namely those of a professionally-based curriculum, an academically-based curriculum and a vocationally based curriculum. Operational definitions for the types of tourism education were provided for interviewees prior to the interviews. The academically-based approach is characterised as general, theoretical, discipline-oriented and uses a rather high degree of abstraction. For example, the education may include a number of specialisations in tourism development within economics, sociology, and physical planning (Theuns and Rasheed, 1983). By way of contrast, a professionally based education is defined as an approach that is more specific, applied, less-discipline and more problem. A third approach is identified as a vocationally based education that prepares students in mastering a number of specific vocational skills needed for employment (Department of Education and Culture of the Republic of Indonesia, 1991).

TABLE 3.6
Existing Curriculum Content of Tourism Education in Indonesia

STAKEHOLDERS	CURRICULUM CONTENT			N
	Professionally-based	Academically-based	Vocationally-based	
Government Officials	12	3	-	15
Tourism Industry Professionals	12	1	2	15
Tourism Educators	11	4	-	15
Tourism Students	10	2	3	15
TOTAL	45	10	5	60

Echtner (1995) has a somewhat different interpretation of the term 'professional education' from the one being used in this study, although her definition of training is similar with other authors (Cooper et.al., 1996; Gunn, 1998) and therefore has been adopted for operational definitions for curriculum content. In order to elicit accurate responses, respondents were made aware of operational definitions prior to the interview sessions. Analysis of responses concerning the current tourism curriculum revealed that the third component of the three-pronged approach, which is entrepreneurial training (Echtner, 1995) was rarely mentioned. Thus, it was decided that entrepreneurial training would not be included as one of the themes for analysis. Table 3.6 exhibits the overall themes and frequencies of statements from each stakeholder.

Forty-five out of sixty respondents considered that a professional-based curriculum was the dominant form in Indonesia at present. Further analysis revealed that the majority who believed that the professional-based curriculum most prevalent were government officials (N=12) and industry professionals (N=12). Also most respondents agreed that the existence of this type of education was mainly driven by short-term industry needs for lower level recruits.

Industry development that leads to a high demand for accommodation, for instance, is more likely to influence the establishment of tourism education programs which focus on providing industry with a skilled labour workforce. Such views were apparent in responses such as: *'…for Indonesian context, I guess what the industry needs is those graduated from a professional-based tourism education…they are usually ready to work compared to those graduated from universities with an academic-based curriculum (I-01).* This view is not an uncommon one to other countries as well, where earlier developments in tourism education were also characterised by the existence of hotel management education programs (McIntosh, 1992).

As indicated by Table 3.6 the majority of respondents (N=45) perceived that tourism curriculum content was focused on a professional-based curriculum, in which aspects of

practical experience were seen as an important part of the process of teaching and learning. Based on the definition provided by the Law of National Education System (Department of Education and Culture, 1989), professional education program prepares students primarily to master specialised or job-related knowledge and skills and this was regarded as the main stream of current tourism education program at present.

Some respondents, particularly tourism educators, argued that recently there has been a tendency for curriculum content in tourism programs to move towards a more academically oriented type which focuses primarily on improving the mastery of sciences. They argued that the need for more graduates with theoretical knowledge had risen compared to several years ago. This situation was, to some extent, influenced by the complexity of the industry itself, especially in relation to the impact of tourism development on Indonesia. This view was expressed in comments such as *'I think academic-oriented programs have been offered lately, particularly at universities, since they are not oriented towards producing graduates for certain work-related position in the industry (G-11)', or* in the following ' *the focus of an academic-based curriculum is more in producing graduates for certain positions such as researchers, educators, and planners (E-03).*

3.5.2.1.2. Major Reasons for Current Offerings

Following question one, respondents were asked to provide reasons why certain universal curriculum content was being provided in Indonesia. As the question was based on their answers to the first question, the analysis was only performed on the majority of answers to the question one, which asked the reason for offering a professionally based curriculum. The four main themes emerged during the interviews are presented in Table 3.7.

Major themes which emerged during the interviews included availability of future employment, fulfilling industry needs, common perceptions of tourism education, and government policy. Other minor themes such as 'easy to manage' were classified as others. The table demonstrates that fulfilling industry needs was a major reason for offering a professionally based education program whereas availability of future employment was

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considered as the second most important. Those types of reasons were obvious in the following comments: ' *if the education focuses on this type of education, I believe the industry will find no difficulties in recruiting their future employees. The industry basically consists of different sectors that require their employees to be professionally educated'* (I-14) or *'…for working in the industry, I think the most important area is hospitality where you must be trained to be a professional and you will secure your future job easily (I-05).*

TABLE 3.7
Major Reasons for Offering a Professionally-based Curriculum

THEMES	STAKEHOLDER				
	Government	Industry	Educator	Student	N+
Availability of future employment	8	10	11	8	37
Fulfilling industry needs	12	12	11	9	44
Common perception	1	3	4	2	10
Government policy	-	3	6	-	9
Others	2	-	-	-	2
Total	45	28	32	19	102

+ Based on Multiple Answers

Although relatively small in number (N=9) the theme of government regulation is worthy of consideration, since it may have contributed to the slow development of academic-type tourism education in Indonesia. The decision taken by tourism institutions to offer professionally based hospitality programs exclusively was largely influenced by the government policy in tourism education as demonstrated in statements such as '*…because the government does not allow the development of a four-year tourism degree program, so why do we not take a chance by opening a diploma 4 program which has relatively similar qualification?' (E-06).*

Responses which were categorised under the common perception theme, were mentioned ten times during the interviews. Based on their opinions, tourism education was defined as the program with a professional-based curriculum and the tourism industry was considered to be either similar to hospitality or no different. Misconceptions about the terms hospitality and tourism has been discussed comprehensively in the Australian context by Stear and Griffin (1991 & 1993). It seems that there is a similar presumption in Indonesia as well where

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tourism is regarded as being identical to hospitality and that hospitality is considered as the most productive sector in tourism. For them, this means that hospitality graduates should be able to be placed in all areas of hospitality and tourism.

3.5.2.1.3.   Strengths and Weaknesses of the Current Curricula

Respondents were subsequently asked to mention the strengths and weaknesses of the majority of programs currently on offer. As this question was a continuation of the previous one, the researcher was able to ascertain from respondent comments whether they were in favour of a professional-based curriculum or an academic-based one. This was done since the researcher wanted to identify the strengths and weaknesses of the existing curriculum content, which had been mentioned by the majority of respondents in their responses to the Question 1. These responses were later used for conducting a follow-up analysis to identify frequency of themes for strengths and weaknesses described by each stakeholder group. Table 3.8 summarises the categorised themes of responses.

TABLE 3.8
Strengths and Weaknesses of Current Tourism Higher Education in Indonesia

Strengths	Weaknesses
1. Security of future employments as industry need for professional graduates remain high 2. Students have first-hand experiences through industry placement. 3. On going support from the industry. 4. Ability of graduates to work in all areas providing that they are prepare to start at entry level 5. Strong management skills 6. Courses provide more practical skills	1. Few graduates are strong in tourism marketing and marketing research 2. Courses lack content knowledge 3. Lack of encouragement for use of initiative 4. Lack of tourism research methods 5. Curricula are static therefore skills and attributes are often out of date 6. Inconsistent standard of curriculum

These findings were, to a certain extent, comparable to those of Bushell and Robertson's (1993), particularly in the higher education level section. Their study focused on industry perceptions of the strengths and weaknesses of different training and education levels. Although their study was generally concerned with three different levels of training and education i.e. in-house training, institutionally based technical/skills/operational training, and higher education, several similar themes were found as well as contradictory themes,

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particularly at higher education level. For example, in Bushell and Robertson's study, the findings indicated *that 'few higher education graduates have strong knowledge in areas of marketing research'*. The current study also indicated similar case, although with a slightly additional theme '*tourism marketing'*. In terms of weaknesses, some themes, which were identified, as those associated with institutional based training in Bushell and Robertson's study appeared in higher education weaknesses in the present study. For example, "the courses do not provide students with encouragement of an initiative" was a criticism of institutionally based training in their study while it was cited as one of the weaknesses at higher education level in the present study.

Respondent comments regarding this topic include'…*although we are now using a national curriculum, it is not what we actually wanted. It is the standard which always becomes a problem, each institution applies their own standards of curriculum (E –09).* This statement exemplifies the weaknesses of the curriculum, where quality remained questionable for some respondents. After identifying and tabulating the themes associated with strengths and weaknesses, the following step was to identify and count the frequency of responses of each stakeholder. Overall findings are displayed in Tables 3.9 and 3.10 respectively.

TABLE 3.9
Opinions on the Strengths of the Current Tourism Curricula

THEMES	STAKEHOLDER				
	Government Officials	Industry Professionals	Tourism Educators	Student	N+
Future employment	6	9	10	10	35
Industry placements	6	10	12	9	37
Industry support	6	7	5	6	24
Ability to work in all areas	1	5	8	2	16
Management skills	1	3	2	2	8
Practical skills	4	6	7	10	27
TOTAL	24	40	44	39	147

+ Based on Multiple Responses

Question (1.d) asked respondents about their perspectives on the strengths of current curricula provided by tourism institutions. As Table 3.9 demonstrates, the highest proportion of responses are on 'the benefits of industry placement' (N=37) followed by the benefits of

securing 'future employment' (N=35). Respondent perspectives were clarified in statements such as *'… well in regards to the advantages, this type of program provides students with first-hand experiences in the industry by requiring the students to take an industry placement. This is particularly difficult to maintain if they take an academic-based tourism program' (E-04).* Some respondents also considered that the program focusing on a professionally based curriculum provides graduates with relatively strong management skills especially in some tourism sectors such as accommodation and tours and travel management.

Respondent opinions on weaknesses in the current curriculum are presented in Table 3.10 which demonstrates that responses were almost equally distributed among a series of themes which were identified in the interviews. A higher proportion, however, cited the *static curricula* theme which was mentioned by 32 respondents during the interviews. To some extent, this finding highlights a common practice in the Indonesian Education System in which national curricula at all levels have seldom been evaluated or changed during the past 20 years. For example, the National High School Curricula experienced two big changes in content in 1984 and 1994. Rapid changes in the tourism industry and other sectors mean that curricula should be evaluated more often to ensure that they are in line with the needs of private and public sectors in all areas.

TABLE 3.10
Opinions on the Weaknesses of the Current Tourism Curricula

THEMES	STAKEHOLDER				
	Government Officials	Industry Professionals	Tourism Educators	Student	N+
Lack of marketing skills	2	7	5	8	22
Lack of content knowledge	5	2	9	2	18
Less encouragement in initiative	7	9	3	4	23
Lack of research methods	9	3	9	5	26
Static curricula	7	4	4	7	32
Inconsistent standard	3	8	5	8	24
TOTAL	33	33	35	34	135

+ Based on Multiple Responses

A comparison of the results presented in Tables 3.9 and 3.10 reveals that total number of both strengths and weaknesses are almost equal. The weaknesses were accounted fewer than the strengths with 147 and 136 respectively. This indicates that apart from being suitable with strong characteristics such as management skills, several components were lacking. Therefore, it is essential for all stakeholders to develop effective joint work to discuss the future development of Indonesian tourism education, which sustains the needs of different sectors. A closer examination revealed that government officials and tourism education both agreed that the curriculum did not incorporate enough research knowledge which is particularly desirable for positioning graduates at middle and higher supervisory levels. Such knowledge is also needed by those graduates who were engaged in governmental offices as planners and decision-makers as well as needed by graduates who were engaged in higher education as educators.

3.5.2.1.4. Curriculum Improvement Needs

Based on the weaknesses identified during the interviews, respondents were asked to provide suggestions regarding improvements to the current curricula as well as to the Indonesian Tourism Education System. Tables 3.11 and 3.12 respectively present the findings followed by examples of interview extracts. In relation to improvements needed for tourism education, several themes emerged during the interviews such as setting up a consortium for tourism studies and urging the government to allow the running of tourism undergraduate degrees in colleges and universities.

TABLE 3.11
Issues on Improvements Needed for Tourism Education

THEMES	STAKEHOLDER				
	Government	Industry	Educator	Student	N +
Allocating more funds for tourism education	4	7	8	9	28
Setting up a tourism academic society.	2	2	5	1	10
Conducting more tourism-related research.	5	4	6	3	18
Setting up a consortium of tourism studies	3	4	3	1	11
Creating effective networking with Asian countries	4	7	11	1	23
TOTAL	18	24	33	15	67

+ Based on Multiple responses

Table 3.11 indicates that a relatively higher proportion of respondents believed that suggestions for improvement should involve increased government funding allocation for tourism education. Other responses such as setting up networking with Asian countries in tourism education were also given, albeit very limited. Indonesia has also become a member of ASEANTA in an attempt to improve the quality of training and education in the industry. Indonesia is currently appointed a lead country in ASEAN Tourism Education Association (Indonesia appointed, 1999). Table 3.11 exhibits overall themes for improvement of the current tourism education in Indonesia.

The emergence of a theme regarding the necessity for setting up a consortium was also apparent in the findings. Some respondents were positive that by facilitating the establishment of a consortium for tourism studies future development of tourism education would be more optimistic, particularly with the introduction of tourism degree programs at universities. Respondent views were illustrated by comments such as '*I am sure if a consortium was established, tourism education would continue to grow especially at universities (E-15).*

Respondents were also concerned about the research. Eighteen respondents stated that graduates of tourism programs were usually not equipped with proper knowledge and ability to conduct research, especially marketing research. This finding correlates with the findings regarding program weaknesses. Some respondents expressed the view that: '*too often graduates are only capable of performing skills, not the knowledge of research especially marketing research, which is needed by the industry' (I-07).*

When asked to describe the kind of improvements needed in the curriculum area, several respondents mentioned that the inclusion of more specific factual and up-to-date information on a broad range of tourism areas was necessary for improving graduate quality. However, despite the fact that respondents insisted on the inclusion of the content-based knowledge, they were also determined to include more practical knowledge and social skills knowledge.

These opinions were expressed by 38 and 43 respondents respectively. This theme was of particular interest to the industry professionals who considered that practical knowledge was as important as theoretical knowledge. The government officials (N=11) were also convinced of the necessity for the inclusion of more content-based knowledge due to as the complex nature of the industry which now requires more high-quality planners and decision-makers.

TABLE 3.12
Improvements Needed for the Current Tourism Curricula

THEMES	STAKEHOLDER				
	Government	Industry	Educator	Student	N +
Inclusion of more content based knowledge	11	6	12	2	31
Conducting regular reviews on the curriculum	2	7	12	5	26
Balancing the content percentage	7	10	10	10	37
Involving more practical knowledge	8	14	5	11	38
Inclusion of social skills knowledge	12	13	5	13	43
TOTAL	40	50	44	41	175

+ Based on Multiple Responses

3.5.2.1.5. Appropriateness of the Curricula for Indonesia

Stakeholders were also asked whether the current curricula would be appropriate for Indonesia now and in the future. This question was followed by a question concerning the primary reasons for the curriculum being appropriate or inappropriate. Overall findings are presented in Table 3.13 which indicates that respondents were almost equally divided between those who believed that the curriculum was appropriate (N=28) and those who did not do so (N=29). Further investigation revealed that tourism industry professionals had the highest contribution of 'yes' responses (N=10) in comparison with tourism educators. The majority of industry professionals indicated that the current curriculum was appropriate for Indonesia considering that the tourism industry and education were not yet well-developed. Therefore, the need to change the focus of the curriculum into an academically based curriculum was not regarded as a crucial issue.

A great number of educators, however, considered that the current tourism curriculum was not appropriate (N=12) considering the future complexity of the industry while most tourism

students generally considered that the curriculum was, to some extent, appropriate. Student perspectives were most likely conforming to those of industry professionals rather than to the tourism educators.

TABLE 3.13
Perceptions about Appropriateness of Current Curriculum

STAKEHOLDER	RESPONSES			N
	Yes	No	No answer	
Government Officials	6	8	1	15
Tourism Industry Professionals	10	5	-	15
Tourism Educators	3	12	-	15
Tourism Students	9	4	2	15
TOTAL	28	29	3	60

Following Question 1.e, respondents were asked to provide reasons why they considered the curricula to be either appropriate or inappropriate. Analysis and tabulation of the reasons indicated that some reasons were overlapped with the strengths and weaknesses of the current curricula (Section 4.4.2.1.3).

Nevertheless, these responses were more specific compared to those for the strengths and weaknesses presented in Tables 3.9 and 3.10 respectively as respondents were already divided into two groups, those who considered the curriculum was 'appropriate' and those who believed that it was 'inappropriate'. Tables 3.14 and 3.15 exhibit the themes for the responses which emerged during the interviews.

TABLE 3.14
Major Reasons for Curriculum Being Appropriate for Indonesia

THEMES	STAKEHOLDER				
	Government	Industry	Educator	Student	N+
Strong industry support especially accommodation	6	9	3	9	27
In accordance with the industry needs in HRD	5	10	3	8	26
Strong management knowledge	6	4	2	4	16
The inclusion of content knowledge in curriculum	5	5	3	5	18
Adequate government support	6	10	2	9	27
TOTAL	28	38	13	35	114

+ Based on Multiple Answers

Five themes could be identified from the responses to the questions about appropriateness of the curriculum (Table 3.14) with strong *industry support* (N=27) and *adequate government support* (N=27) being the strongest reasons. Although the number was not very high the theme of *strong management knowledge* (N=16*)* was consistent with the reasons given to the question regarding the strengths and weaknesses of the current curricula (Table 3.9). The current tourism curriculum was particularly strong in the area of management knowledge provision to their students and this view was supported by 18 respondents.

TABLE 3.15
Major Reasons for Curriculum Being Inappropriate for Indonesia

THEMES	STAKEHOLDER				
	Government	Industry	Educator	Student	N+
Unsuitability due to future development of tourism	8	2	10	4	24
Less content knowledge in curriculum	5	4	7	3	19
Providing less graduates for planners & researchers	7	2	10	4	23
Providing less consideration on environmental aspects	8	2	8	3	21
Limited graduates for mid-management positions	8	5	3	4	20
Limited knowledge in tourism knowledge	4	5	7	3	19
TOTAL	40	20	45	21	126

+ Based on Multiple Responses

Respondents who considered that the current curriculum content was inappropriate were mostly tourism educators and government officials (See Table 3.13). In answer to the question on major reasons, several themes were identified (Table 3.15). It appears that almost all the reasons given were equally divided with *unsuitability due to future development of tourism* theme as the main reason. These opinions were exemplified in their statements such as: *'…current curricula are so industry-centred….so practical that they do not accommodate the content knowledge, which is also important to develop tourism industry in Indonesia (G-05).*

Table 3.15 illustrates that educators were more concerned that the current tourism curriculum was not able to satisfy the public sector and tourism education with graduates having quality as researchers or planners. They also showed concern that by applying the current curriculum environmental aspects which become common issues in tourism in

developing countries were not accommodated, as the curriculum was not emphased on a wider aspect of the tourism industry.

3.5.2.1.6. Current Curriculum Combination

The current study was also aimed at investigating stakeholder perspectives on whether current combination of curriculum with core curriculum (80%) and local curriculum (20%) was considered suitable for the needs of tourism industry in Indonesia. Currently, tourism core curriculum, which most of them have included the component of the Core Body of Knowledge, is prepared by the government. Respondents were asked using yes/no question to identify their perspectives on current combination. Findings (Table 3.16) indicate that the majority of respondents believed that the combination was not suitable (N=41). Although further question regarding the reason was not requested, responses such as '*it's time for major changes to be done in Indonesian curriculum' (S-06)* and *'our curriculum in tourism education is out of date' (G-11)* were apparent in the interviews.

A closer examination of 'yes' responses revealed that students (N=4) and tourism professionals (N=5) firmly believed that it was suitable, whereas the majority of educators and government officials considered that the combination was not acceptable as demonstrated in responses such as the following:'..*the combination is so unbalanced and too heavy for general subjects recommended by the government. It is the time to let the schools decide of what curriculum suitable for their need is (E 07).*

TABLE 3.16
Appropriateness of Current Combination

STAKEHOLDER	RESPONSES			N
	Yes	No	No answer	
Government Officials	3	12	-	15
Tourism Industry Professionals	5	8	2	15
Tourism Educators	1	14	-	15
Tourism Students	4	7	4	15
TOTAL	13	41	6	60

Based on the findings, it appears that the government should take the initiative in discussing and deciding on an appropriate tourism curriculum for Indonesia. This initiative would be a

significant move towards including a core body of knowledge in the curriculum in order to allow tourism education to develop properly in the near future.

3.5.2.1.7. The Importance of Developing a Core Curriculum Based on the Body of Knowledge

In accordance with the perceptions of the current curriculum, a question to further clarify the establishment of core curriculum based on the main components of body of knowledge was asked. This issue was raised as other countries were beginning to consider the establishment of the specific core of body of knowledge (Richards and Bowling, 1998). European countries, for example, are beginning to consider its application, despite the problems which might be encountered with differences in educational systems.

The findings suggest that a high proportion of respondents (N=32) agree that development of a core curriculum for tourism is essential for the further development of tourism education. Their responses regarding the importance of developing a core curriculum were apparent in the following: '*the idea of implementing a core curriculum for tourism was excellent. As a developing country, however, we should consider our characteristics both in the industry and education and not only adapt what other people use …(E-04).*

TABLE 3.17
The Importance of Developing a Core Curriculum Based on the Body of Knowledge

STAKEHOLDER	RESPONSES			N
	Yes	No	No answer	
Government Officials	6	6	3	15
Tourism Industry Professionals	10	1	4	15
Tourism Educators	11	4	-	15
Tourism Students	5	5	5	15
TOTAL	32	16	12	60

Respondents also suggest that core curriculum development should not be based solely on the existing core body of knowledge which may not be suitable for a developing country such as Indonesia. Some aspects of the core body of knowledge which currently exist were developed based on developed country needs in tourism human resources which are clearly different from developing countries. Nevertheless, it would be probably be appropriate to

consider setting up a relationship with other tourism education institutions in developing countries as well as developed countries to obtain a balanced combination of the curricula.

3.5.2.2. Perspectives on Tourism Education Approaches

This section addresses the second aim of the study which is to investigate the perspective of the stakeholders towards existing approaches to tourism education in Indonesia. Four questions were raised to identify stakeholder perspectives on existing approaches, major reasons for selecting the approach, possibility of developing an academically based education and major reasons for promoting the academically based education for Indonesian tourism education.

3.5.2.2.1.   Existing Approaches to Tourism Education

In the first question, respondents were asked to describe existing approaches to tourism education in Indonesia. Literature reviews suggest that there are two distinct approaches to tourism education namely multidisciplinary approach which suit a professionally based curriculum and monodisciplinary approach which is particularly appropriate for an academic-type education (Theuns and Rasheed, 1983). Although there was a proposal to define a vocational-based approach separately as the third approach (Echtner, 1995), based on the definition of the terminology for this study, the vocational-based approach was included in the professional-based education.

The findings indicated that government officials, professionals, and students agreed that a multidisciplinary approach was the most common one (N=36). The style is characterised by a problem-oriented approach. According to Melsen cited in Theuns and Rasheed (1983), such an approach can derive the maximum benefit from the contributions of various disciplines. By way of contrast, a monodisciplinary approach, such as an emphasis on tourism economics, is more appropriate for an academically-based curriculum which emphasises theoretical and discipline-oriented issues. However, most educators (N=10) argued that a combination of both approaches was widely used in Indonesia, although some

of them specified that the multidisciplinary approach far outweighed the monodisciplinary approach.

Several commentators have discussed appropriate approaches for developing countries. Echtner (1995) specifically proposed a three-pronged approach, which included entrepreneurial training in the programs. However as mentioned earlier (Chapter I, section 2.4.3) this study has differentiated between training and education. As a consequence, the current study does not include a discussion of training components. The terminology for describing the approaches to tourism education has been adopted from Theuns and Rasheed (1984).

TABLE 3.18
The Existing Approaches to Higher Tourism Education

STAKEHOLDER	THEMES			N
	Multidisciplinary	Monodisciplinary	Combination	
Government Officials	10	2	3	15
Tourism Industry Professionals	12	-	3	15
Tourism Educators	4	1	10	15
Tourism Students	10	-	5	15
TOTAL	36	3	21	60

Although most respondents agreed that a multidisciplinary approach was quite popular in Indonesia (N=36), closer examination revealed that educators had slightly different views from other groups. For example, the majority of tourism educators acknowledged that current approaches to tourism education involved a combination of multidisciplinary approach and monodisciplinary approach (N=10). This finding is consistent with the result of the analysis of Question 1.c which indicate that some educators believe that there is a new trend being offered in Indonesian tourism education. Inclusion of content knowledge in courses and university involvement in providing tourism education were important factors which influence the development of an academic-based education. This finding was confirmed in responses such as '*....although it remains slow, I am positive that sooner or later, a monodisciplinary approach which is characterised by its academic-type education will be applied in Indonesia, as the needs of more qualified graduates increase...(E-13).*

3.5.2.2.2. Major Reasons for Selecting the Approach

Following the question one, respondents were asked to provide reason(s) for tourism institutions being more interested in offering certain approaches. As the majority of respondents had mentioned that a multidisciplinary approach was prevalent (See Table 3.18), analysis of the major reasons was specifically directed towards those respondents who nominated such an approach.

The analysis produced similar responses to the question which asked the reasons for offering a professionally based curriculum. The majority of respondents stated that by running such a program, graduates would have more opportunity of gaining employment than those who have graduated from an academically based education.

TABLE 3.19
Major Reasons for Choosing the Multidisciplinary Approach

THEMES	STAKEHOLDER				
	Government	Industry	Educator	Student	N
Future employment	3	8	2	7	20
Well-established program	4	3	1	2	10
Professionals were in high demand	3	1	1	1	6
Total	10	12	4	10	36

It was also apparent that the program would remain popular as it was considered to be a well-established program. Similarities also exist between responses to this question and the strengths and weaknesses of the current program being held by the stakeholders. For example, some respondents stated that security of future employment was considered to be an important factor in choosing the program and also the need for professional graduates remains high. Overall findings are presented in Table 3.19. There were only few responses to this question. Repeatedly themes emerged during the interviews which were major concerns for the researcher, since it was possible that the respondents were somewhat perplexed by the curriculum and by the approach which used identical terms.

3.5.2.2.3.   Possibilities of Developing an Academically-based Education

The study also sought opinions on the likelihood of developing academically based tourism courses in Indonesia. The majority of respondents (N=43) expressed optimism that it was a good time for Indonesia to consider developing of the program as in other countries such as Australia and the UK to anticipate the growth of tourism industry and its complex nature.

TABLE 3.20
Possibility of Developing an Academically-based Tourism Education.

STAKEHOLDER	RESPONSES			
	YES	NO	No answer	N
Government Officials	12	3	-	15
Tourism Industry Professionals	10	4	1	15
Tourism Educators	12	3	-	15
Tourism Students	9	3	3	15
TOTAL	43	13	4	60

The finding shows that among the stakeholders, the frequency of the students who support the development was the lowest in number (N=9) with three student respondents either not answering the questions or stating that they did not know anything specific about academic-type education. The majority of respondents (N=43), however, agreed that there was a good opportunity to develop a tourism program that focuses specifically on academic-type education. This type of education is necessary for providing the tourism industry with more highly-qualified graduates with a broad knowledge of tourism and its numerous aspects.

3.5.2.2.4.   Major Reasons for Developing an Academic-type Education

Respondents were then asked to provide reasons for developing an academic-based education in Indonesia and for its importance to the tourism industry. Five themes emerged during the interviews most of which were centred on *filling the needs of planners and researcher* (N=27) and *filling the needs of both public and private sectors* (N=17) for Indonesia's tourism industry. These findings were consistent with the claims of some authors who suggested that most developing countries lack tourism planners, researchers and decision-makers in both private and public sectors as a result of lacking such a program (Ruddy, 1994, Kodhyat, 1998; Inskeep, 1994).

To some extent, the findings were also similar to those of Ichioka (1998) which maintain that the need of undergraduate tourism curricula was based on several factors such as improving the status of tourism studies in Japan and fulfilling the need of professionals for the industry. The current status of tourism program in Japan would probably improve if four-year tourism programs were offered to satisfy the managerial needs in the industry.

TABLE 3.21
Reasons for developing an Academically-based Tourism Education

THEMES	STAKEHOLDER				
	Government	Industry	Educator	Student	N +
To fill the needs of public and industry sectors	6	5	4	2	17
To fill the needs of planners/researcher	4	6	10	7	27
To gain credibility as a field of study	2	3	5	6	16
To develop academic knowledge of tourism	3	4	1	1	9
To promote tourism research	4	3	6	-	13
TOTAL	19	21	26	16	82

+ Based on Multiple responses

Results of the analysis concerning major reasons for promoting and academically based education for Indonesia are summarised in Table 3.21. A large number of respondents (N=27) considered that development of the program would probably satisfy the need for planners and researchers which are usually met by graduates from non-tourism programs or from professional-based education programs. Furthermore, the need for middle and upper level managers for the industry would also be likely met by the introduction of this program.

Development of tourism programs with a basis of academic education would be a significant improvement for Indonesian tourism education several reasons. Firstly, the current trend in international tourism education has shifted from a focus on professionalism to a broader tourism education focus with the inclusion of more content knowledge in the tourism curriculum (Pearce, 1995). Although typically it might take longer, the introduction of the more academic program at universities may likely drive further developments in postgraduate programs that have been a concern for some universities in Indonesia. Secondly, a growing awareness of sustainable tourism has led to the need for more qualified employees equipped with the capabilities in management and research for the industry.

Current trends in tourism such as ecotourism, cultural tourism, and green tourism which focus more on sustainability of host countries also contribute to the importance of academically based education. Furthermore, the tourism education sector also need more tourism educators having a sound tourism background because the new policy for developing a university tourism program requires its lectures to have graduated from a tourism program (Mudyana, personal communication, November 1999).

3.5.2.2.5. Preferred Method of Instructional Approaches

The final question sought information about the preferred delivery modes for tourism courses in higher education. This question was based on the work of Ichioka (1998) in which she asked her respondents to rate four different instructional approaches for Japanese four-year tourism degree curricula. However, adjustments were made in that this study did not ask respondents to rate predetermined categories, but asked respondents via an open-ended question to indicate preferred instructional approaches which are considered appropriate in an Indonesian context.

TABLE 3.22
Preferred Instructional Approaches

THEMES	STAKEHOLDER				
	Government	Industry	Educator	Student	N +
Regular-based teaching	7	7	9	10	33
Fieldwork and site visits	8	7	12	7	34
Case Studies	6	15	10	5	36
Practical Experiences	9	13	14	12	48
Seminars	5	3	9	6	23
TOTAL	35	45	54	40	174

+ Based on Multiple Responses

The findings demonstrated that there are five themes in the approaches to delivery of tourism education and that each instructional approach received a different emphasis from each group of respondents. Table 3.22 shows that industry professionals were in favour of case studies and practical experiences in contrast to students who were more interested in regular-based teaching and practical experiences. Overall practical experiences were most selected by all stakeholder groups (N=48), whereas seminar was favoured by educators.

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Based on the findings, it can be concluded that stakeholder groups' preferences on regular-based teaching, which is currently applied, were lower compared to other method of instructional approaches.

Similarities between the current findings and the delivery modes proposed by Ichioka (1998) could be identified such as the use of regular-based teaching and fieldwork and site visits. Ichioka (1998:105) claims that four instructional approaches namely case studies, field studies, practical experiences and seminars all received high scores from both educators and tourism professionals. However, priority differences were found. For example, while educators gave higher scores for 'field study' (Mean 4.35) and 'seminar' (Mean 4.32) among the four approaches listed, industry professionals gave higher ratings for case studies (Mean 3.73) and 'fieldwork' (Mean 3.59). There is some correlation with the results of the present study which found that industry professionals preferred case studies (N=15) in contrast to other delivery modes. Thus, it appears that professionals prefer instructional methods that place emphasis on practical aspects of tourism education for graduates.

3.5.2.3. Stakeholder Perspectives on Career Relevance of the Current Program

The third aim of the study was to look at career relevance of the current universal curriculum to careers in the industry. Curriculum relevance was measured by three interview questions. The first question required respondents to provide opinions as to whether the curriculum was relevant to industry careers. The next question required respondents to provide reasons for the program being considered relevant or irrelevant, while the final question asked stakeholders and tourism professionals in particular to rate the degree of importance of tourism education when hiring new graduates.

3.5.2.3.1. Curriculum Relevance to Careers in the Industry

Respondents were asked whether programs currently on offer were relevant to careers in the industry. Again, the results indicated that differences exist between tourism educators and industry professionals. Most respondents in the former group agreed that, to some

extent, the program was relevant to industry careers (N=13). On the other hand, the latter group considered that the program, albeit a professionally based type of program, was far from being relevant to the needs of the industry (N=10).

Tourism students reported that the program was not considered relevant (N=10). Overall responses indicated that 34 out of 60respondents suggested that the program was irrelevant with the highest participation rates from tourism industry professionals followed by students (See Table 3.22). In order to identify the reason for most respondents agreeing that the program was irrelevant to industry careers and for some who believed to be relevant, a follow-up question was provided. Responses were presented in Tables 3.23 and 3.24 respectively.

TABLE 3.23
Stakeholder Views on Curriculum Relevance to Careers in the Industry

STAKEHOLDER	RESPONSES			
	YES	NO	No answer	N
Government Officials	8	7	-	15
Tourism Industry Professionals	1	13	1	15
Tourism Educators	10	4	1	15
Tourism Students	3	10	2	15
TOTAL	22	34	4	60

3.5.2.3.2.   Major Reasons for the Current Program being Irrelevant

When asked why the current program was irrelevant to careers in the industry, several themes appeared. A careful analysis of interview responses indicated that there were several resemblances to curriculum content weaknesses (Section 3.4.2.1.3). It is not surprising, as respondents might have already held certain perspectives on the negative aspects of the current program.

Table 3.24 exhibits quite striking similarity between professional and student perceptions regarding their reasons for curriculum being irrelevant to industry careers. For example, industry professionals (N=12) and students (N=10) firmly believed that current programs do not provide appropriate facilities for practical training. This result is to a certain extent contradictory to the content analysis which indicated that most tourism institutions,

particularly those in large cities such as Jakarta, Bandung (West Java), Semarang (Central Java), Yogyakarta and Bali were equipped with high-quality laboratories (See Appendix K) Several moderately tourism institutions might have experienced difficulties in providing practical facilities for students and this lack of facilities may also contribute to fairly low industry acceptance (Mihardjo, personal communication, November 1999). This lack of facilities theme was followed by the *too theoretical, less practical* theme (N=28).

TABLE 3.24
Reasons for Curriculum Being 'Irrelevant' to Careers in the Industry

THEMES	STAKEHOLDER				
	Government	Industry	Educator	Student	N+
Less practical	7	7	4	10	28
Less industry oriented	6	8	4	5	23
Inconsistent standards	3	11	4	9	27
Lack of facilities for practical knowledge	7	12	3	10	32
Ineffective industry placement	3	6	4	10	23
TOTAL	26	44	19	44	133

+ Based on Multiple Answers.

Several respondents were concerned that certain tourism institutions were only interested in attracting students without providing adequate facilities for practical training such as front offices, kitchens and other facilities. Such responses were exemplified in statements as the following: '*…it is funny, though, that some institutions are not equipped with qualified facilities for practical training* (I-09).

3.5.2.3.3. Major Reasons for Curriculum Being Relevant

Table 3.24 reports the findings on major reasons provided by respondents regarding curriculum relevance to the industry. It was found that a proportion of respondents regarded the curriculum as relevant since more graduates were being accepted into the industry which suggests a kind of circularly – the more graduates are accepted in the industry, the more relevant the curriculum is. However, due to the small sample number and the fact that no research was conducted to investigate graduate working in the industry after graduations, there is no external evidence validating this reasoning. Additionally, comparative figures

representing graduate numbers remaining in the industry for a longer time were not available.

Table 3.25 reports that 21 out of 65 responses indicated that *active industry involvement* was one factor contributing to curriculum relevance to the industry. This finding indicates that industry involvement was more likely to produce more industry-oriented programs. However, the extent to which the industry participates has already been discussed at length by some authors (Haywood and Maki, 1992; Ritchie, 1995; Gunn, 1995) who have questioned whether more intensive involvement leads to a more industry-centred curriculum.

TABLE 3.25
Reasons for Curriculum Being 'Relevant' to Careers in the Industry

THEMES	STAKEHOLDER				
	Government	Industry	Educator	Student	N+
More graduates working in the industry	1	1	9	2	13
Active industry involvement	8	1	10	2	21
Better curriculum relevant to the industry	5	1	8	3	17
Better networking with other countries	5	-	8	1	14
Total	19	3	35	8	65

+ Based on multiple responses

3.5.2.3.4.   Opinions on Importance of Tourism Knowledge

The final question for identifying curriculum relevance to the industry was whether the possession of tourism knowledge contributed to better opportunities for graduates being accepted into the industry. This question was designed for tourism industry representatives. However, tourism educators were also surveyed to see what differences existed in their responses.

In contrast to the other questions, which used a semi-structured interview, this specific question presented in the form of a Likert Scale where respondents were asked to rate 1 as 'not at all important', 3 'important', and 5 'very important'. When asked whether having tourism knowledge would advantage graduates in the process of recruitment in that they

would be more likely to be accepted, responses from the two groups were almost equally divided into two different ends of the continuum.

TABLE 3.26
Importance of Having Tourism Knowledge

Responses	Professionals		Educators	
	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
Not at all important	5	33.3	1	6.7
Not very important	5	33.3	1	6.7
Important	3	20	3	20
Somewhat important	1	6.7	6	40
Very important	1	6.7	4	26.6
	15	100	15	100

The findings show that having tourism knowledge was considered important by most educators (N=13), while the majority of industry professionals said that graduate backgrounds in tourism were not important in the process of hiring new recruits (N=10). Again, this finding was in line with Ichioka's finding (1998) in the sense that half her respondents, particularly industry professionals indicated that tourism knowledge does not play a significant role in the process of hiring new recruits. In other words graduates with tourism backgrounds would not be anymore advantaged compared to those graduating from non-tourism programs.

3.6. Discussion of Findings and Implications

This section will highlight several important key findings of the study and relate research findings to previous studies to analyse what similarities or differences could be found. It will particularly discuss the relationship between this study and the existing literature on Indonesian and international tourism education and what contributions can be made to the area of tourism education.

To reiterate the study has provided nine main findings relating to issues in Indonesian tourism educations. The key findings are as follows:

1. Three-quarters of the respondents surveyed agreed that Indonesian tourism higher education curricula remains skewed towards a professional-based of education, in which less content knowledge of tourism was provided to students.

2. The reasons given in finding 1 indicate that there is a tendency to offer such type of curricula in order to meet industry needs and to ensure availability of future employment for graduates.

3. Despite its popularity in the Indonesian context, this type of education has certain weaknesses such as a) the lack of subjects like tourism marketing and marketing research, b) graduates are not very competent in research methods and c) the curriculum is considered to be static.

4. As a result of the identified weaknesses in finding 3, some respondents suggested taking certain measures to remedy the problems. The majority recommended allocating more funds to in order to improve the quality of tourism programs in due course.

5. In terms of improvement for curricula, respondents recommended the inclusion of social skills knowledge and more content-based knowledge.

6. The finding also demonstrated that it was essential to develop a core curriculum for tourism which was based on a core body of knowledge about tourism, considering that other countries such as the UK and some European countries have begun to acknowledge the importance of the core curriculum for standardising curriculum contents.

7. On average, tourism educators advocated a tourism education approach which combined both professionally based and academically based education.

8. The four stakeholders agreed that an academically-based education was needed to supply the needs for middle and high-level managerial positions as well as for the public sector.

9. Regarding the preferred methods of delivery, most respondents suggested that a combination of classroom and field-based learning methods was considered to be an appropriate approach for tourism students.

Some findings of the study indicate contradictory points of view. For example, on the one hand, the respondents insist that the tourism program on offer should remain as they are by focussing on professional-based programs (Point 1). Consequently less content-knowledge is provided to the students. On the other hand, they also suggest including more content-knowledge for improving the current curricula (Point 5).These contradictive views are probably due to the facts that some respondents were not quite clear about the terms professionally-based education and academically-based education, although at the beginning of the interviews they had been informed about these differences. Their persistence in choosing the professionally-based education also indicates that for Indonesian needs this approach is suitable bearing in mind that certain sectors such as accommodation and restaurants are the most prominent ones which can absorb the tourism graduates.

However, future development of Indonesian tourism can not lie on those graduating from the programs as they are not educated to anticipate the emergence of negative impacts of tourism developments such as social, cultural and environmental degradations as the effects of uncontrolled mass tourism. To accommodate differences on perspectives of approaches for example, tourism education needs to consider developing the academically-based education for certain areas as well as improving the quality of the professionally-based education in order to fulfil the needs of the industry.

One of the high priority issues facing tourism educators in the 1990s was considered to be the need to address third world concerns in tourism and to facilitate the transfer of knowledge/technology to the tourism sector in developing countries (Ritchie, 1993). Such an issue is still relevant, as Lam and Xiao (2000) stated that developing countries were experiencing a lack of an appropriate tourism education system and had limited number of qualified tourism educators as well as inadequate teaching materials and facilities. In the present investigation of Indonesian tourism education from the perspective of the stakeholders, these broad issues are manifested in some of the detailed responses of the interviews.

Despite greater efforts to improve its quality and satisfy the needs of the complex tourism industry, Indonesian tourism education remains skewed towards hospitality education with the emphasis on non-degree programs. This situation could be seen as surprising considering that the Indonesian tourism education was established almost three decades ago. Although the number of institutions offering tourism programs is increasing each year, such programs have not as yet been expanded to a Master's Degree in Tourism let alone a Doctorate program. The academe appears to be more interested in introducing professionally-based programs which are popular with students in order to remain competitive in the market place. Such an interest was mainly influenced by the fact that most tourism programs have been provided by private institutions, which are oriented towards income earning to support their programs rather than expansion.

In fact the needs of developing countries (including Indonesia) for better tourism programs are greater than those of developed countries, given their dependency on tourism as a mechanism for promoting economic development (Howell and Uysal, 1987). These authors further maintain that tourism education programs in developing countries should be different from those of developed countries in placing more emphasis on the need for sensitivity to the uniqueness of host communities and their roles in the tourism system. Therefore, based on current situation and greater needs of degree programs, initiative from interest groups, particularly tourism education institutions and tourism educators in planning for developing tourism studies at university (for degree level) is expected. This effort is worth trying as based on Australian experiences, once the program is offered and gains its reputation, market will follow.

One of the suggestions provided by stakeholders for improving the quality of tourism education has been to allocate more funds to tourism education. Ritchie (1993) asserts that, in order to retain qualified and committed tourism educators, for instance, it is essential that government and industry officials ensure that the necessary funding is

made available. The slow development of tourism education at university level can be attributed to mainly lack of funds. Due to financial constraints, it may be beneficial to develop a limited number of quality centres and programs within the higher education system. This measure will ensure a steady supply of qualified educators, researchers and tourism planners for government organisations which will provide tourism services at local, provincial and national levels and private sector organisations. In fact, the rapid growth of tourism in the last two decades has provided such employment opportunities.

In terms of curriculum improvement, respondents suggested that an inclusion of social skills knowledge and more content-based knowledge would be advantageous for graduates. Pearce (1995) has stressed that tourism programs in developing countries should include more specific factual and up to date information on the broad range of tourism areas to improve the quality of the graduates. Furthermore, Hawkins (1993) noted that the future success of tourism requires an understanding of costs and benefits as well as the ways in which benefits can be maximised. Tourism education must respond to these factors. It is therefore the inclusion of such elements in a conceptual framework is necessary for producing graduates with a total set of skills required to understand the dynamics of the tourism field, the complex interrelationships involved, and the impact on people's social, physical and economic environment (Hawkins, 1993).

In terms of teaching approaches, most stakeholders believed that a professionally based approach was the most evident in tourism education with the inclusion of practical training as part of the degree requirements. Compared to tourism education in China which does not emphasise internship (Lam and Xiao, 2000), Indonesian tourism education has been consistent in including practical training in at least one area such as hotels, travel agencies, fast food, catering organisations or airlines. The system also indicates a similarity with Hong Kong tourism education which requires students to undergo a certain period of practical training. Despite its popularity, a professionally based approach is not considered to be the most appropriate approach for Indonesia because the needs of educators and administrators of tertiary level tourism education

programs may not be satisfied. It appears that for the next five years, Indonesian tourism education will remain the same as current tourism education. However, more broad-minded decisions need to be taken, particularly in considering setting up consortium as one of the requirements to accelerate the development of the programs in 4-year tourism degree as well as postgraduate programs. Furthermore, Theuns and Rasheed's proposal to set up a fully-fledge system may be considered as one important alternative for future development of Indonesian tourism education.

The question regarding the instructional approaches indicated that regular-based teaching and fieldwork were among the most popular approaches selected by the stakeholders. These methods were also applied in most developed countries. Hawkins (1993) for instance, reported that the George Washington University has implemented a combination of traditional classroom and field–based learning experiences tailored to a professional specialty and to individual student needs. This could also be applied in Indonesia for Indonesia with more field works to be conducted to apply theoretical knowledge the students have in real world, beside conducting regular Job Training. Not only may the fieldworks provide more opportunities for practical things such as managing objects of tourism, but also provide opportunities for identifying problems which may appear on the field.

3.7.   Summary of the Chapter

The chapter has presented and discussed findings and data collection procedures for Study 1. Data for this study were gathered using a qualitative semi-structured interview and content analysis. The interview was conducted using an interview guide developed from previous studies (Ibida 1998; Ichioka 1998; Wells 1990). The method permits the researcher to study selected issues in depth without worrying about predetermined and possibly premature categories. Content analysis was also performed to review selected curricula of the programs to determine the characteristics of the curricula including subject tittles, the inclusion of the body of knowledge, and industry placements. Analysis of the curriculum content revealed a tendency for course content to be represented by a broad range of core

components of the body of knowledge as proposed by the Tourism Society (1981) (See Figure 3.6). Some subjects such as Hotel/Restaurant Management are frequently offered while culture tourism and ecotourism are infrequently offered (Table 3.3) and most curricula required students to undertake industry placement.

The results of this exploratory study indicate that there exist major differences as well as core similarities in the views among the stakeholders towards Indonesian tourism education. First, it is not surprising to find that both tourism educators and industry professionals have different views on what is considered an appropriate curriculum for Indonesian tourism education. This finding corresponds to previous studies (Haywood and Maki, 1992; Cooper and Shepherd, 1997). Secondly, the government officials and educators considered that current practices do not constitute the most appropriate curriculum. Perhaps in the short term, it is better that tourism education follows closely the views of the tourism professionals since it is they who do the hiring and evaluation of new graduates (Koh, 1995). The current study also indicates that there is some broad support for enhancing academic-based education from all stakeholders. For Indonesia's future competitiveness in international tourism, further knowledge of understanding one of its main sources of income and employment would seem warranted.

Some important issues associated with tourism education in Indonesia have been raised. Firstly, despite its predominance, respondents regard more professionally-based programs as inappropriate for Indonesia due to the complexity of the tourism industry and the special needs of planners, researchers and decision-makers for the industry. This finding implies that further investigation using larger sample needs to be conducted to identify the most appropriate program. The current curriculum content is considered to be not relevant to professional careers in the industry. Consequently, industry involvement in curriculum design and teaching and learning processes is essential. Furthermore, to accelerate the growth of an academic-type education, an initiative is needed from the government to adjust the policy currently in place.