A CURRICULUM FRAMEWORK FOR HOSPITALITY AND TOURISM HIGHER EDUCATION IN INDONESIA: AN EXPLORATORY STUDY

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A Curriculum Framework for Hospitality and Tourism Higher Education in Indonesia: An Exploratory Study

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CERTIFICATE OF ORIGINALITY

I hereby declare that this thesis is my own work and that, to the best of my knowledge and belief, it reproduces no material previously published or written, nor material that has been accepted for the award of any other degree or diploma, except where due acknowledgement has been made in the text.

Hera Oktadiana

DEDICATION

This thesis is dedicated to:

My late father, A. Iskandar, who had always encouraged me to pursue my dream to obtain a PhD degree and to explore every adventure

My mother, my brothers, and my daughter Anetta, for the care, love and tremendous support, and

Hospitality and Tourism Education of Indonesia

ABSTRACT

This study seeks to develop a distinctive framework of graduate profiles and curriculum for the vocational and academic Bachelor programs of Indonesia's hospitality and tourism higher education. Hospitality and tourism education was established in Indonesia 50 years ago in 1965. It was not until 2008, however, that hospitality and tourism education received recognition from the Directorate General of Higher Education as a field of study. This acknowledgement resulted in the opening of the academic Bachelor and postgraduate programs in hospitality and tourism. Previously, hospitality and tourism studies were only offered at the diploma levels, which varied from a one year to a four year diploma. The four year diploma is known as a vocational Bachelor or Diploma IV (D IV).

The emergence and existence of both academic and vocational Bachelor degrees and are also aligned with the growth of Indonesia's tourism as a major and growing economic activity of the country. It is expected that robust growth in tourism and hospitality services will continue in the foreseeable future. To promote and sustain the expansion of the Indonesian tourism industry, well-trained and well-educated individuals for various levels and types of occupations are required. Well founded and effective academic and vocational education courses are needed to build these national human resources.

Both the vocational and the academic Bachelor programs which are the focus of this study are positioned at level six in the Indonesian Qualification Framework. This rating system is the principal basis of Indonesia's education structure. While the categorization level is clear, ambivalence towards the

offerings and ambiguity about their goals and delivery styles persist. Replication and similarity can be found in the content of the curriculum, mission statements, and the aims and objectives of the programs. This has led to a great confusion for the key internal and external stakeholders, such as students, parents, and industry people. Consequently, there is an urgent need to reform the current curriculum of both Bachelor programs.

This study adopts an interpretive approach using qualitative research tools. The perspectives from four groups of stakeholders, educators, students, industry practitioners, and government officials, are accessed and considered as the basis for developing the framework. Data obtained from the in-depth semi structured interviews with the stakeholders were analyzed using NVivo-content analysis. Trustworthiness of the data was gained through credibility, transferability, dependability, and confirmability. All ethical concerns in conducting the study were met.

The results indicate that Indonesia's tourism indubitably needs two types of individuals: those who excel in planning, concept development, and strategy for tourism development (e.g. tourism planners, policy makers, scholars), and those who are capable of implementing the strategies and conducting the day-to-day operations (e.g. operation manager, front line staff, tour guides). The former can be fulfilled by the academic style of the education and the later by the vocational mode. Although the findings show some integrated elements in the curriculum of both Bachelor programs, it can be concluded that through the separation of underpinning educational philosophies, aims and objectives, content, learning and instruction, and

assessment, the differences between the academic and vocational Bachelors can actually be articulated and are possible.

The framework considered and built in this study emphasizes the reflection and action conception that are based on the eclectic educational philosophies to define the main purposes of the academic and the vocational Bachelor programs and their curriculum components.

To produce human resources who can satisfy the country's diverse hospitality and tourism positions, the purposes of the academic strand should be promoting tourism stewardship and tourism knowledge based on the reflection and action, while the vocational mode is endorsing essential knowledge and skills for employability that built upon the notions of action and reflection. The content of the academic program, therefore, should promote knowledge and skills leading to higher-order thinking skills through the application of theories, experience, exploration, and reflection. On the other hand, the vocational mode should emphasize knowledge and transferable skills leading to growth and employment through (real-world) experience, exploration, and reflection. In terms of the learning and instruction, the amalgamation of learning approaches (constructivism, cognitive behaviour modification and neo-behaviorism) can be applied for both programs. Nevertheless, the constructivism approach that is reinforced with the critical view should inform the academic style, whereas cognitive behaviour modification and neo-behaviorism approaches should support the vocational mode. Concerning the assessment, a mixture of traditional assessment (teacher-made assessments) and authentic assessment (performance and product/portfolio) are appropriate for both programs. The focus of assessment,

however, can be specified into complex knowledge (metacognitive knowledge), essential skills, and process, for the academic style, and the expert skills/capabilities (procedural knowledge), essential knowledge, and the product, for the vocational camp.

The framework generated from this study can contribute to the reconsideration of curriculum development for Indonesia's hospitality and tourism undergraduate programs. Furthermore, the results may help reframe hospitality and tourism education discussions in other ASEAN and developing countries that have similar issues concerning academic and vocational education. The development of ideas about the educational philosophies which underpin curriculum, and the holistic examination of key curriculum components may also be of assistance in augmenting the analysis of hospitality and tourism education literature globally.

Keywords: Academic Bachelor, Vocational Bachelor, Hospitality and Tourism Education, Curriculum, Indonesia, Educational Philosophy.

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Oktadiana, H. & Chon, K. (2015, June). Stakeholders' perspectives on undergraduate curriculum of hospitality and tourism: A case of Indonesia. In Poulston, J. & Kim, P. B. (Eds.). *Hospitality and Tourism in Greening World: Challenges and Opportunities.* Paper presented at the 13th APacCHRIE Conference 2015, Auckland, New Zealand (pp. 925-934). Auckland: Auckland University of Technology.

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Chapter 1

INTRODUCTION

This thesis deals with issues of contemporary concern about the undergraduate hospitality and tourism curriculum. The first chapter begins with a description of hospitality and tourism education development in the global context. There is then a particular focus on Indonesia where the detailed study is conducted. Previous studies on hospitality and tourism curriculum are presented and the gaps are identified. This is followed by the identification of the problems, which motivate this study and which shape the aim and objectives, the research questions, and the significance of the work. Definitions of key terms used in this research are explained for easy reference. The full organization of the rationale for this thesis and a chapter summary are presented in the final section of Chapter One.

1.1. Background to the Research

Hospitality and tourism education has been growing relatively quickly in many parts of the world; such growth is driven by greater recognition from the public sector of the importance of the whole sector for national socio-economic development (Cooper, 2002; Mayaka & Akama, 2007). The increased interest in hospitality and tourism education by private and public sectors has resulted in the high number of middle and tertiary institutions offering such study programs at various levels (Mayaka & Akama, 2007). Rapid expansion occurred in the 1980s and 1990s. Hospitality and tourism education appeared in most countries in the world that deemed tourism as an imperative sector (Cooper, Shepherd, & Westlake,

1996).

Although hospitality and tourism education has grown and developed, there are mounting debates about its existence, such concerns include how vocational and academic approaches should be balanced, what constitutes a tourism degree/program, inarticulate terminology, indistinct purpose of the hospitality and tourism program, the nature of hospitality and tourism knowledge, desirable and viable home for hospitality and tourism study, and the overall lack of standardization (Airey, 2004; Cooper et al., 1996; Cooper & Westlake, 1989; Dale & Robinson, 2001; Eder & Umbreit, 1988; Inui, Wheeler, & Lankford, 2006; Jafari & Ritchie, 1981). Pearce (1993) identified three core issues in tourism education: its content, the relationships with other disciplines, and the quality control of tourism programs. Another concern has been having a clear clarification of the knowledge and skills that students should possess upon graduation (Dopson & Tas, 2004; Lockwood, 1995; Sripun & Ladkin, 2001). It can be maintained that tourism degrees are usually offered with non-uniform titles, often appearing in various guises with diverse labels and descriptions (Dale & Robinson, 2001). Dopson and Tas (2004) suggest that a master curriculum should be developed to determine the abilities, knowledge, or competencies of the graduates. The curriculum should not be too diverse in order to receive professional recognition (Koh, 1995). Standardization can be used to measure the quality of the curriculum (Sripun & Ladkin, 2001). Those aforementioned issues and the immaturity of tourism as a subject area are probably the reasons why tourism education remains a controversial field (Sepherd & Cooper, 1994 as cited in Sripun & Ladkin, 2001).

Despite all preceding concerns, hospitality and tourism education plays a critical role in providing a professional workforce to meet the industry's demand

(Jafari & Ritchie, 1981; Sripun & Ladkin, 2001; Stanciulescu & Bulin, 2012). This is especially true for the developing countries as the growth of the tourism industry requires many skilled staff at all levels of occupations (Goldsmith & Zahari, 1994). Indeed, there is a severe need for well-trained tourism policy makers and personnel in the developing countries as many of these countries are highly dependent on tourism as a main source of economic development (Jafari & Ritchie, 1981).

Indonesia as one of the world heavily populated and developing countries, relies on tourism as one of the major providers of the revenue stream for the country. The industry is expanding faster than the country's economic growth (Prihtiyani & Adhi, 2012). Travel and tourism contributed 9.3% of the total GDP in 2014 and 8.4% (9,814,000 jobs) of the total employment (World Travel & Tourism Council, 2015). According to the Travel and Tourism Competitiveness Report, the global ranking of the importance of Indonesia's travel and tourism has been improving from 81 in 2009 to 50 in 2015. The report is based on four key indicators; enabling environment, tourism and travel policy and enabling conditions, infrastructure, and natural and cultural resources. Indonesia excels in the last category. In the 2015 report, Indonesia ranked 10 and four in two components of natural resources; world heritage natural sites and total known species. However, the rank of tourist service infrastructure and human resources and labor market are relatively low, 101 and 53 respectively (World Economic Forum, 2013, 2015).

In comparison with its three neighboring ASEAN countries, Singapore, Malaysia, and Thailand, Indonesia's tourism competitiveness is still far behind. Singapore ranks 11, Malaysia ranks 25, and Thailand ranks 35. The capabilities and qualification of human resources have placed Singapore as the world's top destination (World Economic Forum, 2015). Undoubtedly, human resources play

substantial roles for the successful delivery of tourism services and the development of tourism in a country or region (Baum & Szivas, 2008; Haven-Tang & Jones, 2006). It is apparent therefore, that Indonesia needs to develop its human resources capabilities to sustain its tourism industry in the global marketplace (Andriani, 2014; Hernasari, 2014). This can only be attained through a good quality education and training system, both at the vocational and academic levels (Andriani, 2014; Hernasari, 2014; Indopos, 2014; Lina, 2014; Shortt, 2003).

The beginning of Indonesia's hospitality and tourism education took place in Bandung in 1965, with the opening of Akademi Perhotelan Nasional/APN (currently known as STP Bandung or Bandung Institute of Tourism) (STP Bandung, n.d.). A formal recognition of hospitality and tourism as a field of study, however, was just realized in March 2008 by the Directorate General of Higher Education. This new status has marked a new era in hospitality and tourism higher education in the country. Nowadays, hospitality and tourism schools are allowed to offer both undergraduate and postgraduate programs. Previously, it was only diploma programs (Diploma I to IV) with a vocational focus which were endorsed. Such program had the aim of producing employees with technical and operational skills (Indopos, 2014; Sodikin, n.d.).

In the launching and inauguration of the Indonesia tourism expert association (ICPI) on June 4, 2013, the Minister of Tourism and Creative Economy (now Minister of Tourism) stated that the development of Indonesia's hospitality and tourism education is relatively idle despite its recognition as a field of study in 2008. The Minister identified that education regulation, communication shortfalls among hospitality and tourism educators, and inadequate strategic initiatives are some of the reasons for the stagnation (Oktadiana & Chon, 2014a; Sofia, 2013). Moreover,

research studies concerning hospitality and tourism education in Indonesia such as degrees on offer, curriculum content, educators' characteristics, and the future development of hospitality and tourism education are limited (Ernawati & Pearce, 2003). Although Indonesia's hospitality and tourism education has existed for almost half decade, the academic degrees in hospitality and tourism (i.e. undergraduate and postgraduate) just emerged after 2008. In other countries or regions such as the United Kingdom (UK), South Korea, Taiwan, Hong Kong, Italy, and Australia, this field of study had arisen in the 1960s, 1980s and 1990s (Cho & Kang, 2005; Fidgeon, 2010; Formica, 1997; Horng & Lee, 2005; Lo, 2005; Weaver & Lawton, 2010).

Perhaps due to the late arrival of its courses, it is not surprising to find that curriculum of Indonesia's hospitality and tourism undergraduate programs at both the vocational and academic levels are not yet well-structured and tend to be influenced by vocational approach and management/business studies. It is quite usual in the developing countries such as Indonesia to borrow and adapt already well-established curriculum although the content may not be applicable to the local needs (Blanton, 1981 as cited in Ernawati & Pierce, 2003). As asserted by Tribe (2015), curriculum can be established because of various reasons such as local powers, precedent, pragmatism, and popularity.

A curriculum ideally should be designed or adopted according to where the curriculum and teaching is situated as particular values and assumptions may affect the outcomes (Bloom, 2006). Curriculum is often influenced by several factors such as politics, social forces, cultural views, historical developed, economic needs, technology, and environmental settings (MacDonald, 2000; UNESCO, 1998; Wattanacharoensil, 2014). Fidgeon (2010) contends that the nature of hospitality and

tourism itself, the academic/vocational focus, the stakeholders' involvement and the national curriculum are the factors which should be considered when planning and constructing hospitality and tourism curriculum. It has been observed that tourism education in the developed and developing countries should be differ, highlighting the distinctiveness of host communities and their role in tourism (Howell & Uysal, 1987). As noted in the UNESCO's (1998) World Declaration on Higher Education for the Twenty-First Century-Vision and Action, the courses and content of the curriculum should be designed in line with the needs of the society:

> To educate highly qualified graduates and responsible citizens able to meet the needs of all sectors of human activity, by offering relevant qualifications, including professional training, which combine high-level knowledge and skills, using courses and content continually tailored to the present and future needs of society (Missions and Functions of Higher Education Section, article 1a).

In the context of Indonesia, there are two facets that influence the curriculum development. The first concern is the implementation of the Indonesia Qualification Framework (IQF). IQF, as mandated in the Presidential Decree no. 8/2012, serves as a sole reference for all education and training providers in Indonesia with its aim being to guide the development of qualified and productive human resources for the country. The framework has nine levels of qualifications, starting from level one as the lowest and level nine as the highest. It defines the educational qualifications for the professional/vocational stream (specialist, profession, and Diploma I to IV) and the academic stream (Bachelor, Master, and Doctor). The former emphasizes the development of practical skills and job preparation, and the latter focuses on the academic knowledge and science. As specified in the framework, there are two types

of undergraduate programs; the vocational- and the academic- based Bachelor. The vocational refers to Diploma IV (D IV), whereas the academic denotes a Bachelor degree (known as Sarjana or S1 in Indonesia). Both programs are categorized as level six in IQF (Directorate of Higher Education, Ministry of Education and Culture Republic of Indonesia, 2012; Penyelarasan Pendidikan dengan Dunia Kerja Republik Indonesia, 2012; Peraturan Presiden Republik Indonesia Nomor 08, 2012; Silitonga, 2013). For the consistency in the use of terms in this thesis, the words Bachelor, Master, and Doctor are capitalized throughout.

The second issue is the Mutual Recognition Agreement of Tourism Professionals (MRA-TP) within the ASEAN countries that is primarily aimed to improve mobility access for tourism professionals in the hotel and travel industry (front office, housekeeping, food production, food and beverage service, travel agencies and tour operation) by 2015 under the ASEAN Economic Community framework. Tourism professionals from all ASEAN countries will be able to work in other ASEAN countries if they have certain qualifications as agreed by all members of ASEAN (Association of Southeast Asian Nations, 2012; Guide to ASEAN MRA on Tourism Professionals, n.d.). The MRA-TP set of guidelines may affect the curriculum content of hospitality and tourism higher education at the vocational level.

To obtain a better understanding and perspectives about Indonesia's hospitality and tourism higher education, initial interviews with 21 Indonesian hospitality and tourism educators at management/senior levels and industry practitioners/experts were conducted in May and June 2013, prior to the implementation of this study. The purpose of the interviews was to support the need for the researcher's study. The findings indicated that the majority of hospitality and

tourism schools in Indonesia were relatively vocationally oriented and offered at the diploma levels (Diploma III and IV). In fact, vocational influences remained strong in all the undergraduate programs. The curricula had generally emphasis on a vocational approach with practical exercises. The respondents perceived that the vocational programs were more appealing to the market as they were aimed to produce skilled workers required by the industry. This view confirms the work of Ernawati (2003) and Zehrer and Mössenlechner (2009) who assert that the hotel and restaurant curriculum has a strong vocational flavor (skills training) and is professionally-based in order to be able to response to the industry's needs and to create employment opportunities. It is believed that vocational education has a fundamental place in a country's economic development as globalization requires a specialized labor market with higher levels of skills. Therefore, a skillful and knowledgeable workforce is deemed vital for the economic competitiveness of a country (Mouzakitis, 2010). In terms of the knowledge approach, multidisciplinary and interdisciplinary approaches are viewed as viable options.

In response to the IQF implementation, it is suggested that hospitality and tourism higher education should be delivered at both academic and vocational streams. An academic stream is deemed necessary to provide solid foundation for the theories and knowledge, whereas the vocational stream can develop specific competencies and skills development. It can be argued that curricula for both the vocational and the academic Bachelor programs need to be updated. As indicated by Ernawati (2003), the curriculum of hospitality and tourism education in Indonesia was not yet appropriate in the eye of stakeholders in meeting the complexity of the tourism industry. Ernawati also maintains that the core body of knowledge in most of hospitality and tourism curricula in Indonesia greatly focuses on marketing,

component sectors, statistical measurement, definition of tourism, finance, organization, and physical planning and development. None offered determinants and motivation of hospitality and tourism. The subjects are delivered in hotel management, restaurant management and tours and travel management courses. The curriculum predominantly emphasizes professional and practical skills based content. In developing the curriculum, respondents in this background study suggested the value of involving all stakeholders such as academia, students and alumni, industry practitioners, association, and the government.

The importance of curriculum in education is clearly undeniable. The ideal and perfect curriculum may not exist as a review of curriculum is an ongoing process and curriculum changes are part of the process (Hussain, Dogar, Azeem, & Shakoor, 2011; Williams, 2005). Curriculum should be continuously updated due to the dynamic nature of the hospitality and tourism industry (Busby & Huang, 2012; Gursoy, Rahman, & Swanger, 2012). As pointed out by Gunn (1998), a sole model of curriculum cannot be uniformly imposed to meet all the needs of tourism education and training. Hospitality and tourism education needs to adapt to the societal and industry transformation by repeatedly changing the concepts and structure on what is taught and how it is taught (Sheldon, Fesenmaier, Woeber, Cooper, & Antonioli, 2008). Curriculum is a pathway to produce specific, intended learning outcomes, and a route to the development of knowledge and skills (Mouzakitis, 2010). A well-designed hospitality and tourism curriculum will benefit tourists and employers, and foster the well-being of the graduates (Gu, Kavanaugh, & Cong, 2007).

Having initially examined the current condition in Indonesian hospitality and tourism education, a distinct curriculum framework for the vocational and the

academic bachelor programs is needed. Moreover, standardization of common core in the hospitality and tourism curriculum may need to be designed for the individual stream. Standardization is viewed as a method to improve quality and minimize confusion on the degree content (Cooper et al., 1996; Sripun & Ladkin, 2001). The work in this thesis is directed at the development of a curriculum framework for the academic and vocational Bachelor program emphasizing the key curriculum components: aims and objectives, subject matter or content, learning and instruction, and assessment (Eash, 1991; Nicholls & Nicholls, 1978; R. Tyler, 1949). Generally, researchers studying curriculum tend to focus on a specific or a single curriculum component (Eash, 1991). The work in this thesis, therefore, provides a more holistic examination rather than an in-depth analysis of an individual curriculum component. Perspectives from four groups of stakeholders (educators, students, industry practitioners, and government officials) are sought in order to develop the curriculum framework.

1.2. Previous Studies on Curriculum

Various studies have been carried out to examine different aspects of hospitality curricula, such as underlying principles for competency based education, industry and management expectation on graduate skills, and inclusion of work based training (Felisitas, Molline, & Clotildah, 2012). By drawing on the selected previous studies on curriculum (presented in Table 1.1), the key topics can be divided into seven areas: curriculum related to job demand/industry's needs, stakeholders' perspectives on curriculum content, curriculum design and development, curriculum and the philosophy, curriculum structure and content,

curriculum evaluation, and other issues and approaches in hospitality and tourism curriculum. However, these studies are more likely to be viewed from Western perspectives rather than Asian perspectives. For example, studies on educational philosophy is largely based on Western oriented concepts (North America and Europe), emphasizing individual development and rational thinking (Kauchak & Eggen, 2011).

Overall, issues and gaps in curriculum studies may come in five categories. First, most curriculum related studies are mainly based on viewpoints of the industry (Bovill, Morss, & Bulley, 2008; Mayo & Thomas-Haysbert, 2005) and/or educators, and lack student and/or graduate involvement. Second, a philosophical foundation for the basis of curriculum design and development is commonly overlooked (Chen & Groves, 1999; Ornstein & Hunkins, 2009). Third, curriculum studies in higher education including tourism are not well developed (Tribe, 2002). Fourth, research studies related to hospitality and tourism curriculum construction and the development at baccalaureate programs are still relatively limited (Chen & Groves, 1999). Fifth, research on curriculum is generally conducted on a specific component (e.g. aims or objectives, teaching methodology) rather than in a holistic way by looking at the integration of all the components of curriculum. Methods or modes of transaction are probably the most commonly studied areas of the curriculum (Eash, 1991). A study conducted by Hsu (2015) on the tourism education research trend between 2005-2014 revelead that teaching and learning is the most predominant topic in tourism education. She noted that such topic accounted for 37.7% of research in tourism education. Hsu further asserted that although curriculum topic remains significant, most discussions concern curriculum space and involvement of stakeholders in a curriculum development.

By reviewing existing studies in hospitality and tourism education and the curriculum, two major research gaps can be concluded. Documentation to support these claims is provided in Table 1.1. First, there is lack of curriculum study that incorporates several main elements of curriculum with philosophical underpinning. Second, there is limited study on curriculum that involves various stakeholders; not just comprising educators and the industry people.

Table 1.1 Research Foci on Hospitality and Tourism Curriculum in Higher Education

Topics	Authors	Year
Curriculum related to job demand/industry's needs:		
• Management and leadership skills for working in the hospitality industry	- R. Lewis - Breiter & Dements	1993 1996
• Skills development for the future (European case): Hospitality and tourism curriculum for meeting a labour demand on highly skilled non-manual workers	Stanciulescu & Bulin	2012
• Curriculum structure for hospitality management program	Shariff	2013
Stakeholders' perspective on curriculum content:		
• Hospitality and tourism curriculum and courses in the Indonesian higher education	Ernawati Ernawati & Pearce	2003 2003
• Levels of students' competencies, courses, quality of teaching delivery and employability	Felisitas, Molline & Clotildah	2012
• Hospitality subject areas required for successful career	Gursoy, Rahman, & Swanger	2012
Curriculum design and development:		
• Hospitality curriculum design to build up academic and professional credibility	Pavesic	1993
• Curriculum design/planning in International School of Tourism and Hotel Management, Puerto Rico	Smith & Cooper	2000
• Three methodological paradigms in tourism curriculum design	Tribe	2001
• Development of university-level tourism curriculum in Jordan	Cooper	2002
• Implementation of learning outcomes for curriculum design and student learning	Maher	2004
• Curriculum planning and development for advanced foods and catering courses	Mills, Eschenfelder, & Rudd	2009
• The inclusion of macroeconomic as influencing factors in tourism curriculum development (UK and the US)	Wattanacharoensil	2014
Curriculum and the philosophy:		
• Relationships of philosophical positions between hospitality and tourism curricula	Chen & Groves	1999
• The need for philosophical and sociological foundation in tourism curriculum: approaches in educating future tourism professionals	Inui, Wheeler, & Lankford	2006
• The importance of philosophical beliefs	Scotland	2006
Curriculum structure and content:		

• Structure/classification of hospitality and tourism curriculum	- McIntosh - Umbreit - Riegel & Dallas(as cited in Williams) - Koh - Rainsford	1983 1992 1993 1995 1997
• Environmental education in hospitality curricula (UK Case)	Wade	1997
• The importance of curriculum dimensions/subject areas	Lin	2002
• Curriculum structure for the food and beverage management in Taiwan's technological and vocational education	Horng	2004
• Ethics education in the hospitality curriculum • Core curricula/core course requirements for the business-oriented hospitality and tourism undergraduate programs/programs housed in accredited college or business	Yeung - Gursoy & Swanger - Chathoth & Sharma	2004 2005 2007
• Eight critical subject areas in hospitality and tourism curriculum	Ring, Dickinger, & Wober	2009
• Incorporate sustainability into hospitality and tourism curriculum	Boley	2011
• Critical Management Studies (CMS) in tourism curriculum	Belhassen & Caton	2011
• Understanding integration and disintermediation concept in the outbound market place	Busby & Huang	2012
Curriculum evaluation:		
• Curriculum review and revision process: a case study at the University of North Texas Hospitality Management program, USA	Dopson & Tas	2004
Other issues and approaches in hospitality and tourism curriculum:		
• Heteredox approach in tourism education through interdisciplinary path	Leiper	1981
• Curriculum related issues: what should be included in tourism course, leading vs following the industry, balancing theory and application, shortage of resources and teaching materials, the need to integrate languages, information technology, enterprise and innovation into courses	Cooper & Westlake	1989
• The philosophic practitioners: integrating liberal/academic and vocational education in tourism courses	Tribe	2002 b
• Relationship between graduate performance and curriculum approaches (business, combined, food home economics, and tourism)	Williams	2005
• Dual type curriculum for Technical Vocational Education and Training (TVET): transience curriculum and innovative form of curriculum	Mouzakitis	2010
• Review of the growth and development of tourism education and the curriculum within Great Britain	Fidgeon	2010
• A review of contemporary issues in hospitality and tourism education and the use of philosophic practitioners education/framework as a base of curriculum decision making	Dredge et al.	2012c

1.3. Problem Statement

Tourism in Indonesia has been transformed from a minor economic activity into an integral part of the country's economy. The industry is now the country's fourth main revenue generator (Lina, 2014). The strong growth of the industry and tourism investment is expected to continue well into the future and play a more imperative role for the country's economic development. To promote the development of Indonesia's tourism industry, well-trained and well-educated human resources are required (Kompas, 2015; Shortt, 1994; Sugiyarto, Blake, & Sinclair, 2003). The Indonesian government, as expressed by the Minister of Tourism and Creative Economy (now the Minister of Tourism) and the Directorate General of Higher Education, have recognized that the country highly needs high-level managers, planners, researchers, scholars, technocrats, and other professionals (Andriani, 2014; Hernasari, 2014; Indopos, 2014). The increased demand for highly qualified workers and medium-level qualifications has also arisen in Europe. According to the European Center for the Development of Vocational Training on Skills and Demand in Europe, a demand for highly qualified workers and medium-level qualifications will escalate by 16 million and 3.5 million workers in 2020 respectively, whereas a requirement of low-skilled workers will decrease around 12 million (Stanciulescu & Bulin, 2012). The advancement of Indonesia's tourism can be sustained if it is strongly supported by the academic and vocational education and certification programs, with first class academic staff and state-of-the-art facilities (Andriani, 2014; Hernasari, 2014; Indopos, 2014; Shortt, 1994). Continuous investment in hospitality and tourism education and training is vital to meet the demand of the knowledge and skills-intensive occupation as well as to build

professional human resources in today's highly competitive environment (Sripun & Ladkin, 2001; Stanciulescu & Bulin, 2012).

Responding to the government's recognition, the IQF, and the growth of tourism, Indonesia's hospitality and tourism programs are now delivered in two types of education paths, the vocational and the academic. At the undergraduate level, the vocational path is known as Diploma IV (D IV) and in the academic strand as the Bachelor. Both programs are regarded as equal in terms of the level of study. The level of those two Bachelor programs has clearly been identified, yet questions regarding the purpose and content of each program still remain as the structure of the programs is ambivalent. Questions concerning the differences between those two programs are often asked by prospective students, parents and the industry. The indistinct purpose of the academic and the vocational Bachelor programs will affect the teaching-learning process and the outcomes. A confusion may arises in hiring graduates who have similar degrees and very much alike in title and content (Dale & Robinson, 2001). In China for example, the ambiguity of education level and position of tourism and hospitality programs has led to an indeterminate marketplace positioning for the graduates (Gu et al., 2007). Graduates from the undergraduate programs are facing more difficulty in finding a job compared to those from the diploma programs due to their lack of functional skills and work experience that did not match the industry's employment needs (Zhang & Fan, 2005b). In Taiwan, it is laborious to comply with the needs of the industry due to the lack of differentiation of hospitality and tourism schools' objectives and their curriculum (Horng & Lee, 2005; Liu, 2006).

1.4. Purpose of Study

This study aims to determine graduate profiles and develop curriculum framework for the vocational and academic Bachelor programs of Indonesia's hospitality and tourism higher education.

1.5. Objectives of the Study

Deriving from the purpose of the study, the objectives of this study come in five folds:

1. To determine graduate profiles of Indonesia's hospitality and tourism undergraduate programs that suit the occupational needs of Indonesia's tourism industry
2. To generate aims and objectives for the academic and vocational Bachelor programs in Indonesia's hospitality and tourism higher education
3. To develop the content of the curriculum for the academic and vocational Bachelor programs in Indonesia's hospitality and tourism higher education
4. To develop the prevailing learning and instruction for the academic and vocational Bachelor programs in Indonesia's hospitality and tourism higher education
5. To develop the classification of assessment for the academic and vocational Bachelor programs in Indonesia's hospitality and tourism higher education.

1.6. Research Questions

Given the research problem, the study is intended to address two research questions relating to the undergraduate curriculum of the hospitality and tourism

higher education in Indonesia:

1. What is the desired graduate profiles of the academic and the vocational Bachelor programs?
2. What constitute the curriculum of the academic and the vocational Bachelor programs?

In the context of this study, the curriculum construct composes of four main elements: aims and objectives, content, learning and instructions, and assessment (Nicholls & Nicholls, 1978; Preedy, 2001). Detail explanation concerning the curriculum components is presented in Chapter Two of the Literature Review.

1.7. Importance of the study

The main contribution of this study lies in identifying the educational philosophies for developing a hospitality and tourism curriculum. This philosophical approach serves as a guide for planning the materials, the methods of instructions, the learning experiences for students, and the assessment strategies. This work also integrates a number of concepts to develop the curriculum framework: educational philosophical positions, learning theories, and the epistemology of multidisciplinary, interdisciplinary and business interdisciplinary in hospitality and tourism content and assessment methods.

A well-designed curriculum is essential for the enhancement of learning experiences. Participation of the stakeholders (hospitality and tourism educators and students, and industry and government people) enhances and strengthens the development of curriculum framework by considering their interests as suppliers/education providers, customers, employers, and policy makers

respectively.

The curriculum framework developed from this study may serve as a precedent for the curriculum development of Indonesia's hospitality and tourism undergraduate programs (the academic and vocational Bachelors). The findings may also contribute to hospitality and tourism programs in other ASEAN countries, and in the developed and developing countries that have similar issues as Indonesia concerning the dualism of the academic and the vocational education in hospitality and tourism.

1.8. Definition of Key Terms

Term	Definition
Bachelor program (Indonesian: Sarjana/S1)	• An undergraduate degree from a university or college. A person is entitled to earn Bachelor degree after completion of his/her undergraduate study which normally takes three to four years (Bachelor, n.d.; Nidirect, 2014). • An undergraduate degree with an academic focus, and is located on the level six of the Indonesian Qualification Framework (Kumpulan Hukum Perguruan Tinggi (n.d.); as stipulated in the Letter of Directorate General of Higher Education No. 498/E/T/2011 and in The Decree of Ministry of Education and Culture Republic of Indonesia No. 72/2013 (Peraturan Menteri Pendidikan dan Kebudayaan Republik Indonesia No. 73/2013).
Curriculum	• Curriculum is a pathway of study and can be viewed as a person's life experience (Connelly & Clandinin, 1988 as cited in Bloom, 2006). • A set of practical educational proposals (Cooper, 2002, p. 21). • The process and substance of an educational program, comprising the purpose, design, conduct, and evaluation of educational experiences (Gaff & Ratcliff, 1997, p. 709). • A program of activities designed so that pupils will attain as far as possible certain educational aims or objectives

	(Hirst, 1980, p. 9 as quoted in Cooper, 2002, p. 21). • What happens to pupils in school as a result of what teachers do (Stenhouse, 1975 as cited in Cooper, 2002, p. 21). • A whole programme of educational experiences that is packed as a degree programme (Tribe, 2005b, p. 48). • Interrelated set of plans and experience that a student undertakes under the guidance of the school (Marsh & Willis, 2003, p. 13).
- Core curriculum	• Minimum content of a curriculum that students need to comprehend (Busby, 2001). • Common learning that students are expected to achieve (Klein, 1991).
Diploma IV(D IV)/vocational Bachelor program	• An undergraduate degree which emphasizes practical skills/ vocational study (vocational-based undergraduate). • D IV degree is equivalent to Bachelor degree and located on level six in the Indonesian Qualification Framework (DIKTI 2000, 2011; Kumpulan Hukum Perguruan Tinggi (n.d.); as specified on the Letter of Directorate General of Higher Education No. 498/E/T/2011 and in The Decree of Ministry of Education and Culture Republic of Indonesia No. 72/2013 (Peraturan Menteri Pendidikan dan Kebudayaan Republik Indonesia No. 73/2013).
Hospitality and tourism education	• One of the main hospitality and tourism sub sector in which its manifestation can impact hospitality and tourism industry directly and indirectly (i.e. hospitality and tourism business competitiveness) (Ayikoru, Tribe & Airey, 2009).
Indonesian Qualification Framework (IQF)	• An instrument in levelling qualifications and competencies of the Indonesian manpower, starting from level one as the lowest and level nine as the highest (Directorate General of Higher Education, Ministry of Education and Culture Republic of Indonesia, 2012).
Interdisciplinary	• Integration of concepts and ideas: to relate one concept to another concept, one concept to the total field, and the total field to a one concept (Jafari & Ritchie, 1981). • Several separate subjects are related to teach a topic (Klein, 1991). • A blend of various philosophies and techniques between different disciplines in order to seek a synthesis and synergistic outcomes (Leiper, 1981). • Interdisciplinary courses are courses organized around a theme, problem, cultural or historical period, world area or

	national region, or other unifying principle, rather than a departmental discipline. Faculty from various departments interact in designing courses by bringing to light and re-examining the topic's underlying assumption, and then modifying their own disciplinary perspectives in the process (Gaff & Ratcliff, 1997, p. 711). • One or more disciplines that form a new genuine knowledge (Airey, 2004) or a combination of perspectives from various disciplines to develop a new hospitality and tourism perspective (Weaver & Lawton, 2010).
Multidisciplinary	• Knowledge that derives from a various range of discipline (Airey, 2004). • Multidisciplinary courses are courses that are designed "to present various aspects of a theme by having faculty with different specialties present their individual perspectives in serial, encyclopaedic fashion" (Gaff & Ratcliff, 1997, p. 713). • One topic or issue is observed from several disciplines in which each discipline provides individual contribution without any integration of ideas (Jafari & Ritchie, 1981). • Coordination of several subjects but the subjects are still taught separately (Klein, 1991). • More than one discipline is conveyed to appertain to some topic (Leiper, 1981). • A number of discrete disciplinary approaches to the field (Tribe, 1997, p. 651).
Vocational education	• Training and practical skills for a specific job or profession (Dredge et al., 2012c). • Type of education system that emphasizes on generating skilled workers and knowledgeable managerial staff for the industry (Inui et al., 2006). • An education approach that focus on preparing students for hospitality and tourism employment by providing training in specific skills and competencies (Tribe, 2005 in Zehrer & Mössenlechner, 2009).

Although there are many varieties of curriculum definition and how curriculum study is addressed, the key topics of curriculum studies can be categorized as the basic components (purpose, content, learning and

instruction/delivery and assessment), technical aspects (e.g. policy and planning), and social and political aspects (e.g. decision on curriculum and curriculum impact) (Morris & Adamson, 2010). As this study emphasizes the fundamental components of curriculum, here the term curriculum in defined as an educational plan that constitutes aims and objectives, content, learning and instruction and assessment.

1.9. Organization of the Thesis

This thesis is organized into five chapters. Chapter One has considered the research background. It has included the research problem, purpose of study, objectives, research questions, significance of the study, and definition of key terms.

Chapter Two provides an in-depth discussion of the relevant literature that supports this study. It covers information on hospitality and tourism education in the global context (i.e. the shifting paradigm, the history, and the development of hospitality and tourism education in other countries), overview of the curriculum, curriculum models, components of the curriculum and design, hospitality and tourism higher education cases, a profile of Indonesia and its tourism industry, the education system in Indonesia, a review of hospitality and tourism education development in Indonesia, and the conceptual framework for the thesis.

Chapter Three documents the research methodology employed in this thesis. This includes an overview of the research paradigm, research design, participants, data collection, data analysis, validity and reliability, and ethical consideration.

Chapter Four presents and discusses the research findings obtained from the interviews with the stakeholders supported by an examination of relevant documents. A scheme of the curriculum framework is exhibited in this chapter.

Chapter Five summarizes this work, discusses the research limitations, notes

its theoretical and practical implications, and provides recommendation for future research.

1.10. Summary

To inform the background of the study, the first part of Chapter One discussed the current issues in Indonesia's hospitality and tourism education after its recognition as a field of study, as well as the global issues facing the hospitality and tourism education. This chapter highlighted the importance of having a discrete curriculum with clear learning outcomes for the vocational and academic hospitality and tourism undergraduate programs. The substance and groundwork of the study were explained in detail and included the gaps in hospitality and tourism education and curriculum studies, problem statement, aim and objectives of the study, research questions, the importance of the study, and thesis organization.

Chapter Two considers the global tourism industry, previous and existing studies on hospitality and tourism education, curriculum, and the profile of Indonesia and its tourism sectors. The conceptual framework of this study is also presented in this chapter.

Chapter 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter provides a foundation for the study based on the review of existing literature. The chapter begins with a succinct overview of the tourism industry, followed by a description of hospitality and tourism education in the global setting. The review considers history and development, research, accreditation, and associated development issues. Curriculum is then discussed, covering its components, models and general design. Specifically, curriculum concerns in the hospitality and tourism higher education context are highlighted. A description of the research setting includes the profile of Indonesia, Indonesian education system, and Indonesian hospitality and tourism higher education. A conceptual framework is presented preceding the chapter summary to illustrate the key concept employed for this research.

2.1. The World Tourism Industry

Tourism has been recognized as one of the main contributors to the local and national economies (Dale & Robinson, 2001). According to ITB Berlin (2013), the growth of travel and tourism is faster than the global economy. The continuous expansion of tourism over the past six decades has made tourism one of the world's largest and fastest-growing economic sectors and it has become a key driver of socio-economic change in many destinations. The number of tourist arrivals keeps rising from 25 million in 1950 to 1,087 million in 2013. The growth may reach 1.8 billion by 2030 with an expected increase of 3.3% annually from 2010 to 2030.

Tourism contributes to US$ 2.1 trillion to the world economy, 9% of the world's GDP, 6% of the world's exports, 29% of service exports, and 8.7% (102 million people) of the total jobs worldwide (ITB Berlin, 2013; UNWTO, 2014). Approximately one in 11 jobs is generated from the tourism industry (UNWTO, 2014). In 2021, the hospitality and tourism industry will amount to 3.6% (120,427,000) of the world's jobs and 4% (US$ 1,850 billion) of the world's GDP (Boley, 2011 as cited from WTTC, 2011).

Among the five regions defined by the UNWTO, the prospects for tourism growth is the strongest in Asia and the Pacific (5%-6%), followed by Africa (4%-6%) (UNWTO, 2014). In 2030, it is predicted that 57% of international arrivals will be in the emerging economy destinations. Asia and the Pacific region will still experience the strongest growth with 535 million arrivals in 2030. Overall, the global market shares of Asia and the Pacific, Middle East and Africa will increase, while Europe and Americas will decline due to slow expansion of the mature destinations (UNWTO, 2014). Asia is viewed as a strong destination in 2013 with 6.3% international arrivals between January and August. The South-East Asia countries has the strongest performance with 12% increase (9% in 2012), followed by South Asia with 6% (4% in 2012). North-East Asia experiences a decline, from 6% in 2012 to 3% growth in 2013 (ITB Berlin, 2013).

In relations to travel purposes, leisure travel prevails over the business travel. It is dominated by city trips with a 47% increase since 2009, followed by touring holiday (27% growth), and sun and beach holiday (12% growth). On the other hand, the countryside holiday has decreased by 10%. In the business travel market, MICE (Meetings, Incentives, Conferences and Exhibitions) sector has surged faster than the traditional/company business travel, and accounts for 54% of the total business

travel (ITB Berlin, 2013).

The number of international tourism arrivals, the international tourist receipts and tourism growth in 2013 are presented in Figure 2.1.

International tourist arrival: 1,087 million
International tourist receipts (ITR): US$ 1,159 billion
Worldwide growth: 5%
Purpose of visit: Leisure, recreation and holidays (52%), VFR, health, religion, other (27%), business and professional (14%), unspecified (7%)

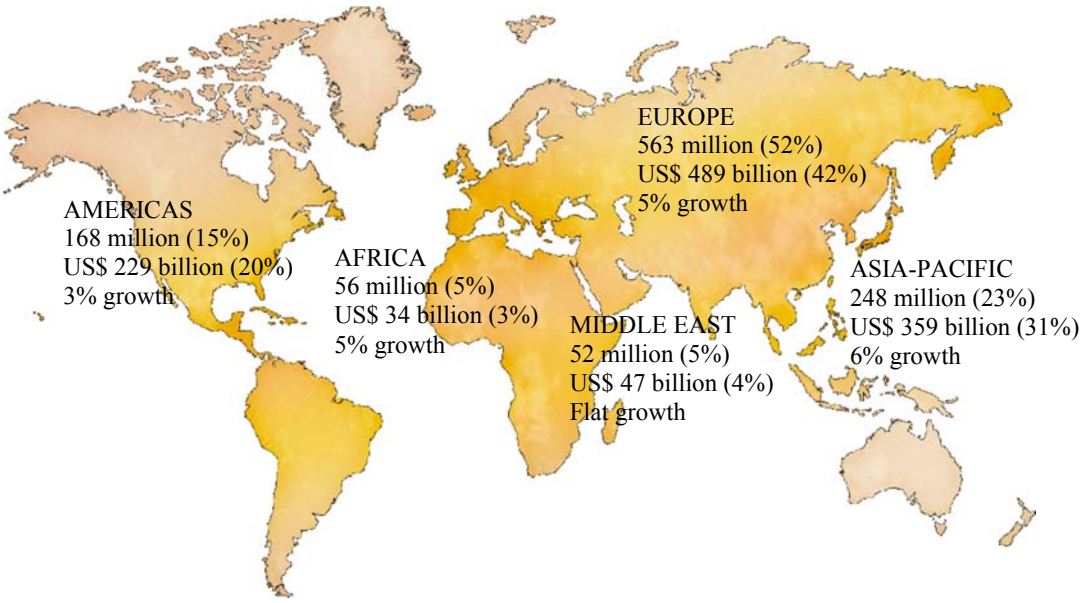


Figure 2.1 International Tourism, 2013
Sources of map: UNWTO (2014); http://dig.do/dinosaurlive.com

2.2. Hospitality and Tourism Education

2.2.1. History and Development

The growth of the tourism industry in the twentieth century resulted in the emergence of hospitality education in the form of a formal apprenticeship program in hotel and restaurants. These approaches were widely found in Western Europe,

with Switzerland and the United Kingdom (UK) as the centers. Culinary schools are the earliest formal apprenticeship that cater back-of-the-house career (Barrows, 1999). In 1893, the local hoteliers association in Lausanne, Switzerland, initiated the establishment of the hospitality vocational school (Formica, 1997; Inui et al., 2006). In the United States (US), the first hospitality education was introduced at Cornell University in 1922, while the second school was established in 1927 at the Michigan State University (McIntosh, 1992). Not surprising, the development of hospitality and tourism education was typified by a strong emphasis on a vocational or action oriented curriculum, a business-based program, and driven by the industry's needs and demand (Airey, n.d.; Airey, 2004; Borchgrevink & Sciarini, 1999; Dredge et al., 2012b; Inui et al., 2006; Lo, 2005).

A study conducted by Riegel in 1995 indicated that hospitality is typically a multidisciplinary study that is designed to prepare students for managerial positions in the hospitality industry through application and practices (Barrows, 1999). Goeldner and Ritchie (2012) also specified that many vocational schools focused on producing entry-level employees. The emergence of tourism as a discrete area of study up to diploma and degree level as well as a research subject occurred in the 1960s (Airey, 2004). Based on the International Council on Hotel, Restaurant, and Institutional Education report that was noted by Riegel and Dallas in their 2006 study, hospitality and tourism education primarily consists of five areas: food service, lodging, recreation, travel related management, and convention and meetings (Millar, Mao, & Moreo, 2010).

The growth of tourism and its contribution for the economic development of a region has led to the global increase in the studies and research of hospitality and tourism (Dredged et al., 2012c; Hobson, 1999; Robinson, 2012). The progression of

hospitality and tourism education has been notable from the large number of universities offering the programs and the explosion of the referred academic journals in hospitality and tourism area (Hudson, 2005; Weaver & Lawton, 2010; Zehrer & Mössenlechner, 2009).

The advancement of hospitality and tourism education is not problem-free. There are various challenges faced by this emerging field of study which include lack of support and respect from the stakeholders or community (e.g. industry and government), and variable homes for the programs (hospitality and tourism programs are still commonly accommodated by other disciplines such as business, economics, sociology, geography, anthropology, and humanities). Further challenges include the perception of hospitality and tourism study as non-serious and nonessential activity (i.e. pleasure-based activity) with only a vocational focus, ambiguous definitions and terms, lack of resources, difficulty in standardization/legitimation of programs and qualifications, erratic and inconsistent data, and the strong influence of researchers' disciplinary background (e.g. history, geography, business, social sciences, philosophy) in conducting research (Cooper & Westlake, 1989; Goeldner, 2001; Goeldner & Ritchie, 2012; Howell & Uysal, 1987; Mayaka & Akama, 2007; Weaver & Lawton, 2010). The tourism subject area is often perceived as having a lack of academic credibility and little recognition as a distinct area (Dale & Robinson, 2001). Such issues may impact the development of hospitality and tourism study and may also result in the lack of coherent teaching and training approaches within the programs (Mayaka & Akama, 2007; Weaver & Lawton, 2010).

The most widely discussed curriculum issues are the course content, the academic and vocational balance, and the knowledge approach - multidisciplinary

and interdisciplinary – of the field (Airey, 2004; Busby & Fiedel, 2001; Busby & Huang, 2012; Dredge et al., 2012c; Inui et al., 2006; Jennings, 2010). Jennings (2010) asserts that the argumentations and discourse on multidisciplinary and interdisciplinary issues have been addressed by numerous scholars such as Jafari (1977), Leiper (1981, 2000), Stear (1981), Przeclawski (1993), Echtner and Jamal (1997), Tribe (1997, 2000), Hall, Williams and Lew (2004), and Weaver and Lawton (2010). An interdisciplinary approach was advocated by Leiper (1989) who argued that the development of tourism study required a central ground of interdisciplinary and he suggests tourism as an emerging discipline (Leiper, 2000). Weaver and Lawton (2010) also view the evolution of hospitality and tourism study as changing from a multidiscipline approach towards an interdisciplinary style and from a field of study to an academic discipline. They argued that a foundation for the academic status of the field could be obtained through an interdisciplinary approach and the creation of indigenous theories and methodologies. To be considered as an academic discipline, Airey (2004) suggests that hospitality and tourism knowledge should be evolved into interdisciplinary knowledge. On the other hand, other scholars (cf. Gunn, 1991, 1998; Stanciulescu & Bulin, 2012; Tribe, 1997) have affirmed the indiscipline of tourism and contend that tourism studies should adopt multidisciplinary approach as the topic area needs many disciplines. Airey (2004) argues that multidisciplinarity and the vocationalism may restrict the full development of tourism as a firm field of study because "vocationalism seems to have been good for attracting students but not for academic reputation, and multidisciplinarity makes for stimulating programs but for fragmented research" (p. 14).

According to Jafari's 2001 study, the expansion of the tourism field was influenced by four tourism platforms (Table 2.1), namely advocacy, cautionary, adaptancy, and knowledge-based. However, the knowledge-based approach that occurred in the late 1980s is probably the most central platform buildings academic tourism study (Weaver & Lawton, 2010). Several approaches that have been utilized in the study of tourism were listed by Goeldner and Ritchie (2012), albeit agreement is lacking on how to employ such approaches. The approaches include an institutional approach, a product approach, the historical approach, a managerial approach, an economic approach, the sociological approach, a geographical approach, an interdisciplinary approach, and a system approach (Table 2.2).

Table 2.1 Tourism Platforms

Platforms	Period	Characteristics
Advocacy	1950s-1960s	Positive attitude and perception on tourism sector; contribution of tourism to communities; free market principles.
Cautionary	Late 1960s to 1970s	The need of tourism regulations/policy in response to the rapid growth of mass tourism and the negative impacts of tourism. - Turner & Ash (1975): International Tourism and the Pleasure Periphery - Finney & Watson (1975): A New Kind of Sugar: Tourism in the Pacific - Butler (1980): Destination lifecycle model
Adaptancy	Early 1980s Mid 1980s	Introduction of alternative tourism (small-scale and regulated tourism modes). - Holden (1984): examine the alternative tourism for Asia Appearance of Ecotourism.
Knowledge-based	Late 1980s	The movement of tourism academic study to a knowledge-based platform (Jafari's model). - Leiper (2004): Tourism Management textbook

Source: Weaver & Lawton (2010)

Table 2.2 Approaches in the Study of Tourism

Approach	Focus
Institutional	Intermediaries and institutions (e.g. travel agency) that carry out tourism activities.
Product	Creation, promotion and consumption of tourism products.
Historical	Tourism activities and institutions from evolutionary point of view (e.g. growth and decline, innovations). This type of approach is not widely used.
Managerial	A company-oriented approach that emphasizes management activities (e.g. planning, controlling, marketing, budgeting). Example: Journal of Travel Research and Tourism Management.
Economic	Economic factors such as supply and demand, employment, foreign exchange, and multiplier. Example: Tourism Economics.
Sociological	Tourist behavior and the impact of tourism on society.
Geographical	Tourism movement, location of tourist area, land use, demographic impact, and cultural problem. Example: Journal of Leisure Research, Leisure Science, and Tourism Geographers.
Interdisciplinary	The complexity and multifaceted nature of tourism industry. Example: Annals of Tourism Research.
System	Integration of all approaches to examine the micro and macro issues in hospitality and tourism.

Source: Goeldner & Ritchie (2012)

Hobson (2010) reviewed current and future trends affecting the hospitality and tourism education sector. He identified ten trends in hospitality and tourism study. They were the growing demand for international education, user-pays education and the growth of private education providers, higher demand and expectation of students and the increase competition between educational institutions, the use of English as the global education language in non-speaking English countries, the escalation of skilled-labor mobility, the increased standardization and credential uniformity of educational systems (e.g. the Bologna Process, Copenhagen Process), international accreditation (e.g. UNWTO's TedQUAL, THE-ICE), transnational education (e.g. Monash University in Malaysia, University of Nottingham in China), international collaborations (e.g. joint double-degree program), and the development of global education hubs and cities (e.g. Adelaide's Learning City strategy).

The implications of these historical consideration have been the diversity of issues and resources for building on education curriculum. These issues can be further understood by considering the history of tourism research itself.

2.2.2. Research in Hospitality and Tourism

Research in the hospitality sector started to emerge in the 1940s. Hospitality research in that era was applied, contextual, and conducted to capture the industry's best practices. The area of research were especially related to accounting and foods (Olsen, 2001). Eder and Umbreit (1988) pointed out that hospitality research was mainly applied research that focused on a specific issue which was capable of answering immediate need, but it may have links relevance at a later date. Scholarly journals in hospitality started to develop between early 1950s and the late 1960s with knowledge exchange and sharing as the research focus. Hospitality researchers generally seek literature and substance from other field of studies such as business and social sciences (Olsen, 2001). The earliest hospitality journal is probably British Food Journal which was published in 1897. The Cornell Hotel and Restaurant Administrations Quarterly, one of the most prominent journals in hospitality was being published by 1960 (Hung & Law, 2011).

Research in tourism took off in early 1960s (Weiler, 2001). The Tourist Review is the first academic journal in tourism which was published in 1946 by the International Association of Scientific Experts in Tourism in Switzerland (Goeldner & Ritchie, 2012). In 1972, Journal of Travel Research (JTR) was issued, followed by Annals of Tourism Research (ATR) in 1973. JTR, the first academic journal which appeared in North America, was created by the Business Research Division of

the University of Colorado and the Travel and Tourism Research Association (TTRA). It was formerly named Travel Research Business which had its inception in 1968 (Goeldner, 2001; Goeldner & Ritchie, 2012; Hung & Law, 2011; Jennings, 2010; Sage, 2014; Weiler, 2001). Prior to 1972, only four tourism journals existed: Tourism Review (1946), Tourism (previously Turizam, 1956), World Leisure Journal (1958), and Journal of Leisure Research (1968) (Goeldner & Ritchie, 2012).

In 1970s and beyond, research became more developed. Quality academic journals were rising and PhD output began to take place (Olsen, 2001). Numerous scholars studied various issues concerning hospitality and tourism which led to the increased number of tourism and hospitality journals (Hung & Law, 2011). Fifty refereed journals in hospitality, tourism, and leisure were listed in 1999 (Weiler, 2001). Jennings (2010) asserted that there were 51 refereed English journals in hospitality and tourism within 47 years starting from the 1962 issue. McKercher, Law, and Lam (2005) specified that there are more than 70 English-language journals in hospitality and tourism published nowadays. The development of tourism research and the academic refereed journals may indicate a maturity of tourism study and contributes to the formation of body of knowledge towards a status as a discipline or as field of study (Goeldner, 2001; Weiler, 2001). On the contrary, Weiler (2001) has contended that the progression of more sophisticated tourism research creates a wider gap between the academia and the industry as well as alienation by the industry.

The significant growth of hospitality and tourism research occurred in the 1990s with 20 journal titles listed. The number was ten times higher from the 1980s when only two journals existed (Jennings, 2010). Of all these journals, however, only three journals are strongly devoted to the hospitality and tourism education

research (Tribe, 2005a): Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Education, Journal of Teaching in Travel & Tourism, and Journal of Hospitality, Leisure, Sport & Tourism Education. The first one appeared in 1989, while the last two emerged more than a decade later in 2001 and 2002 respectively. According to Jennings (2010), journal editors are predominantly come from the US (14 journals), followed by the UK (13 journals), then Australia and Hong Kong with four journals each. Weiler (2001) notes that it is common to find editors, publishers and authors of tourism research coming from the developed countries. She identified that 40% out of 50 journals are published in the United States, 26% in the United Kingdom, 20% in Australia and Canada, 8% in Europe, and 6% in the developing countries. Moreover, much research has been focused on the developed countries and it has been stated that the importance of tourism research in the developing countries is not properly represented (Weiler, 2001)

In regards to the research methodology, positivism as a paradigm and quantitative methods have been predominantly used in hospitality and tourism research (Riley & Love, 2000; Jennings, 2010). This may be due to the economic focus of the tourism industry that value quantification (Riley & Love, 2006). Ballantyne, Packer, and Axelsen's (2009) study based on twelve journals review between 1994 and 2004 indicated that 59% of hospitality and tourism studies employed quantitative methods. Qualitative approaches ranked second with 19%, followed by 16% review or theoretical articles, and 6% mixed method. Statistical analysis was found in about 70% of the total articles, including studies that employed qualitative approach. Chacko (1999) argues that focus group and interviews are the most common methods used in qualitative study in hospitality.

Descriptive quantitative work is frequently employed in the quantitative research, as well as inferential statistics.

Tian, Lee, and Law (2011) identify trends in hospitality and tourism research topics from the studies of several scholars (e.g. Baloglu & Assante, 1999; Chon, Evans, & Sutherlin, 1989; Lu & Nepal, 2009; Ma & Law, 2009, O'Connor & Murphy, 2004; Wang, Fesenmaier, Werthner, & Wober, 2010; Xiao & Smith, 2006). Their results indicate that key hospitality research topics include administration, operation/property management, marketing, human resources, research and development, finance, distribution, pricing, and consumer, while tourism research tends to focus on destination/product, visitor, heritage and environment issues, methodology, planning and development, impact, customer and demand, technology implementation, industry and business functions. Tian et al. (2011) further state that psychology and tourist behavior, theory and research development, destination, and sociology and culture issues are the top research topics appeared in four leading referred journals (Annals for Tourism Research, Tourism Management, Journal of Travel Research, and Journal of Travel and Tourism Marketing) between 2000 and 2010. Research topics on tourism education and training were ranked 18 out of 20 with only 27 articles published in those four journals.

Ballantyne et al. (2009) identified four topics related to tourist/visitor studies, destination, tourism planning, and marketing as the most popular published topics in 12 major tourism journals. Tourism education and training was ranked 19 out of 21 with two percent of all articles published in those 12 journals and top three journals. Khan and Olsen (1988) listed marketing, tourism planning, personnel administration, food service management and accounting as the most frequent research area in hospitality. Khan and Olsen suggested that the changing needs of

the industry required research priorities on human resources, education and training, computer and software development, promotion and marketing, and strategy and quality assurance. An examination of tourism doctoral research in four countries (the United States, Canada, Australia, and New Zealand) revealed that tourism doctoral theses were largely influenced by psychology, environmental studies, and anthropology. Education was the discipline informing relatively few tourism doctoral dissertations with only 70 theses out of 1,888 from 1951 to 2010 (Weiler, Moyle, & McLennan, 2012). A study conducted by Afifi (2013) on doctoral thesis' topics in the United Kingdom and Ireland from 2000 to 2009 found that there were only five topics related to tourism education from a total of 332 accepted thesis in 86 universities. The data show that research on hospitality and tourism education is still inconsequential.

Tribe (2005a) contends that research in hospitality and tourism education can be primarily categorized into curriculum, teaching, learning and assessment, student progression and achievement, learning resources, and quality management and enhancement. Curriculum is perhaps the most prevalent and common study in the education milieu, however he argues that curriculum studies in higher education in general and in tourism education in particular are not full-fledged (Tribe, 2002a). The studies of tourism curriculum began in the early 1980s as advocated by Leiper and Murphy in 1981 (Olsson & Martinsson, 2007). Conran and Beauchamp (1975) state the problem as follow:

> … progress in the theory development and in-theory-directed research in the field of curriculum has been slow… one of the reasons for this state of affairs is the failure to use more vigorous rules in theory building and more sophisticated techniques in research design in the field of curriculum. (p.

392).

A review of pedagogic research by Fidgeon (2010) indicates that only five percent of curriculum related research addressed curriculum design and planning. Literature in this area is lacking and the discussion on where tourism curriculum is heading is infrequent. Selected pedagogic research papers in tourism education are summarized in Table 2.3.

Table 2.3 Selected Research in Tourism Education

Issues	Author(s) and Year of Publications
Tourism education in a specific country/comparisons and international studies	Chrisite-Mill (1978), Airey (1979), Cooper and Messenger (1991); Walsh (1992), *Goldsmith and Zahari (1994)*, Formica (1996, 1997), Sims (1997), Kusluvan and Kusluvan (2000), Wu (2000), *Dolnicar (2001),* Anderson (2002), *Ernawati and Pearce (2003), Chaisawat (2005)*, King and Craig-Smith (2005), Leal and Padilha (2005), A. Lewis (2005), *Pearce (2005, 2007)*, Singh and Singh (2005), Venema (2005), Zhang and Fan (2005a), Zhang and Xixia (2005), Cullen (2006), *Gu, Kavanaugh, and Chong (2007), Chang and Hsu (2010), Penfold,, Wei, and Ladkin (2012), Li and Li (2013)*
Academic-industry relations/industry related matter	Burton (1988), Goodenough and Page (1993), Cassels (1994), Botterill (1996), Echtner (2004), *Mayo and Thomas-Haysbert (2005), Millar, Mao, and Moreo (2010), Gursoy, Rahman, and Swanger (2012)*
Disciplinary issues	Leiper (1981), Echtner and Jamal (1997), *Leiper (2000)*, Tribe (*1997*, 2000)
Body of knowledge/area of knowledge/content and structure	Jafari and Ritchie (1981), Holloway (1995), *Airey and Johnson (1999), Dopson and Nelson (2003), Ritchie, Sheehan, and Timur (2008), Belhassen and Caton (2011), Darbellay and Stock (2011), Gursoy, Rahman, and Swanger (2012), Shariff (2013)*
Education and training issues, trends, challenges	Lawson (1974), Collins, Sweeney, and Green (1994), Go (1994, 1998), *Baum (2002), Hobson (2010)*
Vocational and academic balance	Tribe (2000)
Curriculum planning and development	Murphy (1981, 1992), Cooper, Shepherd, and Westlake (1994, 1996), Ritchie (1995), Cooper (1997), Cooper and Westlake (1998), *Smith and Cooper (2000)*, *Cooper (2002), Dopson and Tas (2004), Dredge et al (2012a)*
Curriculum review	McIntosh, van Weenen, and Scafer (1983), Ryan (1995), Amoah and Baum (1997)
Curriculum topic and issues	Airey & Middleton (1984), Rafferty (1990), Koh (1995), Smith and Cooper (1995), *Gunn (1998),* Airey and Johnson (1999), Spears, Boger, and Gould (1999), Buhalis (2006), *Chathoth and Sharma (2007), Boley (2011), Busby and Huang (2012), Dredge et al (2012c)*
Work experience in curriculum	Busby, Brunt, and Baber (1997), Busby (2005)
Teaching/methods and assessment, learning support	*Cooper & Westlake (1989),* Haywood (1989), Sivan, Yan, and Kember (1995), Cave (1997, 1999), Richard (1997, 1998), *R. O'Halloran and C. O'Halloran (1999), C.*

	O'Halloran and R. O'Halloran (2001), Deale O'Halloran (2003), Airey and Tribe (2005), Witney (2005), *Belhassen and Caton (2011)*
Subject specific guidelines	Botterill and Tribe (2000)
Accreditation and quality assurance	Bosselman (1996), *Su, Miller, and Shanklin (1997a, 1997b), Sripun and Ladkin (2001)*
Academic progression	Fidgeon (2003)
Research	*Eder and Umbreit (1988)*, *Olsen (2001)*, Tribe (*2001*, 2005), *Stepchenkova, Kirilenko, and Morrison (2008), Hung and Law (2011), Park, Phillips, Canter, and Abbott (2011)*
Labor market	Berry-Laund et al (1991)
Ecology and sociology aspects	Pirjevec (1990)
Competitive advantages	Gamble (1992)
Staff roles and development	Busby (1995), Tas and Morgan (2001)

Note: The non-italic words are sourced from Fidgeon (2010)

2.2.3. Accreditation in Hospitality and Tourism Higher Education

Quality assurance is an essential element in education for its key stakeholders, namely universities, employers, public and potential students, and government (Robbins, 2005). In the hospitality education context, quality assurance can be quite challenging due to its intangible nature (Fenich, 1999). Fenich believes there are two key factors influencing quality. They are organization structure (e.g. curriculum, governance, prestige, and number of students' organization) and resources (e.g. human resources, physical resources, learning resources, financial resources). He also argues that the level of quality depends on the number of resources acquired. There are two methods that can be employed to ensure the quality; internal and external. Internal methods include evaluation by and of students, annual program monitoring, and periodic review, while the external means include accreditation, certification, outside peer reviews, and industry reviews (Fenich, 1999; Robbins, 2005).

Quality is highly important for any higher education course and its stakeholders, but on the other hand, quality is not easy to define in the educational

context. This is due to the implicit and inconsistency quality dimensions among various programs or institutions, and the intangibility and complex nature of educational products (Becket & Brookes, 2008; Fenich, 1999; Horng, Teng, & Baum, 2009; Robbins, 2005). As advocated by several scholars (e.g. Fenich, 1999; Robbins, 2005), quality can be assured by various means such as accreditation, certification, industry review, peer review, and students' evaluation. Accreditation as an essential element for the academic quality assurance and improvement is probably the oldest process of self-regulation through peer and professional reviews and has been implemented more than a century ago (Eaton, 2010).

Several international accreditation agencies have been established in hospitality and tourism education, namely UNWTO.TedQual Certification, Accreditation Commission for Programs in Hospitality Administration (ACPHA), American Culinary Federation (ACF), the National Recreation and Park Association (NRPA), the Institute of Hospitality, and International Centre of Excellence in Tourism and Hospitality Education (THE-ICE). UNWTO.TedQual is a certification issued by the World Tourism Organization of United Nations with the aim to improve the quality of the tourism education, training and research programs (Ibañez, n.d.; TedQual UNWTO.THEMIS, 2013). THE-ICE was initiated by the Australian Federal Government in 2004 and became an independent not-for-profit organization in 2008. THE-ICE focuses on the recognition, benchmarking, development and promotion of quality programs in tourism, hospitality, events and culinary arts education, training and research (International Centre of Excellence in Tourism and Hospitality Education [THE-ICE], n.d.).

The Accreditation Commission for Programs in Hospitality Administration (ACPHA) was set up by the International CHRIE (Council of Hotel, Restaurant, and

Institutional Education) in 1988 to assess baccalaureate programs. The first accreditation process of ACPHA began in January 1991 following the publication of final standards in 1990 (ACPHA, n.d.; Fenich, 1999; Su, Miller, & Shanklin, 1997b). The American Culinary Federation (ACF) accredited vocational and the two-year food service programs, whereas the National Recreation and Park Association (NRPA) assessed tourism programs (Fenich, 1999).

The Institute of Hospitality is an awarding body that recognized by the Quality Assurance Agency for Higher Education (QAA) and accredited by the Office of the Qualifications and Examinations Regulator in the United Kingdom (Institute of Hospitality, 2014). It represents professional managers in the hospitality, tourism, and leisure industry (Ring, Dickinger, & Wöber, 2009). The Institute acts as a benchmarking organization for hospitality and related subjects standards and has authority to award a range of qualifications (professional, vocational and academic qualifications) (Institute of Hospitality, 2014).

Other accreditation bodies that also important for tourism programs are those related with business school: from the United States - Association to Advance Collegiate School of Business (AACSB), from Europe - EQUIS (European Quality Improvement System), and from the United Kingdom - Association for Masters in Business Administration (AMBA) (Ring et al., 2009). Following Horng et al. (2009), a summary of the accreditation bodies in hospitality and tourism is presented in Table 2.4.

Table 2.4 International Accreditation in Hospitality and Tourism Higher Education

	UNWTO. TedQual	**ACPHA (USA)**	**NRPA (USA)**	**THE-ICE (Australia)**	**Institute of Hospitality Accreditation (UK)**
Establish ment	1995	1988	1974	2004	1998
Organiza -tion	UNWTO	CHRIE	NRPA and AAPAR	Independent not-for–profit organisation (initiated by Australian Federal Government)	Institute of Hospitality
Quality standards	1. Employers (industry and public sector) 2. Students 3. Curriculum and pedagogi-cal system 4. Faculty 5. Manage-ment	1. Mission & Outcomes 2. Administra-tion and Governance 3. Planning 4. Assurance of Student Learning 5. Curriculum 6. Instructional Resources 7. Student Support Services 8. Physical and Learning Resources 9. Financial Resources	1. Unit characteris-tics 2. Philosophy and goals 3. Administrat ion 4. Faculty 5. Students 6. Instruction-al resources 7. The curriculum	1. Status of the institution 2. Governance and administration 3. Vision, mission and objectives 4. Courses/ programs, curriculum and graduate outcomes 5. Teaching and learning approach 6. Planning, program review and quality assurance mechanism 7. Internationali-zation 8. Physical recourses and facilities 9. Student support services 10. Industry advisory board 11. Staffing resources 12. Financial resources 13. Member-ships, partnerships, community engagement and social responsibility 14. Areas of excellence	1. Organization 2. Programs 3. Organization resources 4. Quality management systems

Sources: ACHPA (n.d.); Horng et al. (2009); Ibañez (n.d.); TedQual UNWTO.THEMIS (2013); THE-ICE (n.d.);

The quality standards/assessment criteria listed in Table 2.4 are mainly related to organization/management and administration, student, faculty, curriculum/pedagogy, and resources. These issues were also identified by Horng et al. (2009) who proposed quality framework for hospitality, tourism and leisure programs as strategic planning, curriculum, teaching and learning, resources, faculty, student achievements, and administrative management. Horng et al. further argue that curriculum, faculty, and instruction are critical factors in educational quality. Accreditation within hospitality and tourism higher education has not yet formed as a sole accreditation body with a standardized and broadly recognized structure (like accounting and nursing) although several accreditation schemes have been implemented in hospitality and tourism education (Dredge et al., 2013). Dredge et al. suggest the need for a comprehensive accreditation process and the development of a set of standards accreditation to assess the performance of hospitality and tourism higher education in meeting their objectives.

2.2.4. The Disciplinary Issues of Tourism Studies

The disciplinary status of tourism study is a perennial debate and the resolution of this quest is likely to continue into the future (Echtner & Jamal, 1997). Tribe (2010) asserts that tourism study "remains a Cinderella area in the academy, and its academics range from management scientist and economist, through cultural geographers and anthropologist to sociologists" (p. 7). Tourism is viewed more as a field of study rather than as a discipline, which can be classified as the Business of Tourism and Non-Business related Tourism or Tourism Social Science. The knowledge creation of tourism are generated from multidisciplinary,

interdisciplinary and extra-disciplinary perspectives (Tribe, 1997, 2010). Multidisciplinarity is probably still dominant considering that tourism knowledge is mainly drawing on other disciplines (Airey, 2008; Tribe, 2010). Tourism study is not administered by a paradigm or hard knowledge (what should be researched and how it should be implemented and offered). The divergence of tourism communities which tolerate differences and variety of approaches can see tourism as characterized by permeable boundaries and effectively a soft approach (Pearce, 1993; Tribe, 2010).

Pearce (1993) notes that tourism study is pre-paradigmatic and viewed as specialism rather than a discipline. He states that "in the language of contemporary higher education research, tourism is a soft, unrestricted, applied, pre-paradigmatic, rural and content based specialism, with a concrete, reflective learning style" (p. 27). Tourism study requires knowledge from cross disciplines to solve a problem and utilizes eclectic research mechanism and approaches. Heavy influence from the world outside the academic circle such as industry marks tourism as an applied study. Tourism research therefore is usually practical and utilitarian, often with some relevance to direct problems (Pearce, 1993).

Jafari and Ritchie (1981) argue that the study of tourism is connected to a wide range of disciplines. Five disciplines are perceived as the basis of tourism study: economics, sociology, psychology, geography, and anthropology. Economics contributes to tourism studies which relates to for example, multiplier effects, balance of payment, and employment. Sociology enriches tourism study through the studies of human behavior such as host and visitors' interactions. Psychology provides the study on cognitive process and traits and how they influence human behavior. Geography focuses on earth and its life, and it provides dimensions on

tourism movement, tourism impact, and so forth. Anthropology deals with study of people in relation to the origin, population, environment and social, and culture.

Ritchie et al. (2008) also believe that tourism is constructed based upon various disciplines, ranging from ecology to economics. Jafari and Ritchie (1981) illustrate tourism courses which were drawn from 21 disciplinary areas as shown in Figure 2.2 (Ritchie et al., 2008). Ritchie et al. further note that the dispute about tourism as a discipline may arise from how tourism should be defined: 'tourism theory' versus 'fundamental theory for tourism'. The former is the core tourism theory and the latter is theory generated from other disciplines. Core tourism theory is characterized by tourism specific material, not generalizable to other disciplines, building on or critiquing the existing tourism concepts and spanning disciplines. Such fundamental tourism theory aims to create generalizations, build-on or critique concepts from other/own disciplines and contained in one discipline. Ritchie et al. suggest a conceptual of tourism theory and its relationships to other disciplines. The primary foundation disciplines (sociology, economics, management, anthropology, psychology) play a major role to the core tourism theory. Lesser contributions are provided by the secondary foundation disciplines (ethics, geography, philosophy and methodology, and multiple disciplines). The least contribution is given by the tertiary foundation disciplines.

It must be noted that such assertions may reveal several author biases. For those in business disciplines such as Ritchie et al., the contribution of geographers, for example, are not given a high profile. Nevertheless, much work in tourism is built on geography (S. Smith, 2010).

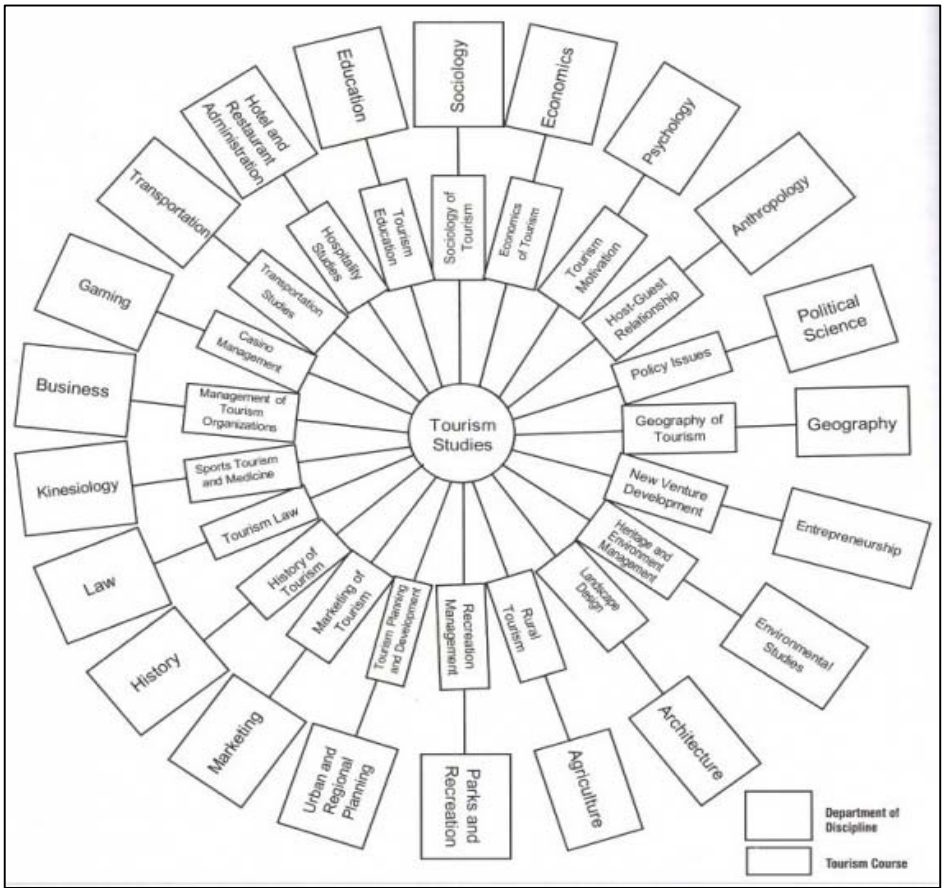


Figure 2.2 Choice of Discipline and Approach to Tourism Study
Source: Ritchie et al. (2008), downloaded from http://teoros.revues.org/docannexe/image/1621/img-1.jpg, as adapted from Jafar Jafari, University of Winconsin-Stout

The influence of multifaceted disciplinary paradigms on tourism study has made it challenging to establish tourism study as a distinct discipline. There are, however, as claimed by Echtner and Jamal (1997), some potential directions and indications that tourism is moving towards a disciplinary status. It is evident by the rise of scholarly journals, textbooks, and professional associations. They further suggest some key dimensions that would encourage the evolution of tourism study: an interdisciplinary focus through a collaboration across disciplines, the generation of a theoretical body of knowledge, holistic and integrated research by the use of diverse methodological approaches, and clearly elucidated theories and

methodologies. By way of contrast, Echtner and Jamal also note that a variety of practical and philosophical issues can impede the evolution of tourism study.

2.2.5. Overview of Global Hospitality and Tourism Education Development

The purpose of the following broad overview of global hospitality and tourism programs is to identify ways in which the case study examined in this thesis (that of Indonesia) is similar to and different from the global practice. It is to be noted that the hospitality and tourism programs presented here are selected samples of courses at institutions from across the country. Such contextual material assists in an appreciation of the specificity or universality of the study.

Hospitality and Tourism Education in Western Europe

The growth of hospitality and tourism education in Europe has evolved over the decades. It was traditionally based on the operational aspect or skills oriented training. The courses were delivered in a relatively short time period (one to three years), and offered in polytechnics, colleges, and institutes of higher education (Formica, 1996). For many European schools in the mid-1970s, tourism was also viewed as closely related to recreation (Wattanacharoensil, 2014). Switzerland was one of the first European countries offering tourism courses at a business college. The country has been well-known for its long tradition in hospitality education and training, started by the famous hotel school in Lausanne (Formica, 1996; Weiermair & Bieger, 2005). According to Weiermair and Bieger (2005), tourism education in Switzerland can be subdivided into horizontal and vertical models. The horizontal model consists of the hotel and restaurant, tourism organization (e.g. travel

agencies), experience sectors (e.g. sports and culture, casino, theme parks), and transport and mobility (e.g. public transport, cable cars). The vertical model has different types of educational levels to obtain a degree in tourism. The major ones are the higher vocational diploma, the vocational college schools of tourism, the polytechnic schools (major in tourism), and the universities (major or minor in tourism). The Swiss education system is mainly industry-driven and practice oriented with an employment focus and very strong apprenticeship programs. It is geared towards quality and the development of core professional competencies (Horng, 2004).

In Austria, tourism education and training comprises apprenticeship education and training (a dual system within the vocational schools that combines education and employment), secondary vocational tourism schools (hotel operations and catering focus), post-secondary non-university degree programs (polytechnic tourism education and university study program/ diploma courses), and a university level of tourism education. The apprenticeship is a three-year program that trains restaurant specialists, trades cooks, and system gastronomes, to name three. The polytechnic education is practical in orientation and allows graduates to continue their study to a PhD level at a university. Tourism polytechnic universities in Austria currently have autonomy to offer Master degree programs. At the university level, the study programs stress management and business administration as well as tourism specific knowledge and skills. Tourism study at university level is offered by the Vienna Economics University, the University of Innsbruck, and the Vienna's Modul University (Dolnicar, 2001; The Independent, 2011; Weiermair & Bieger, 2005).

The Higher Education qualification in hospitality and tourism in France is called BTS (Brevet de Technicien Supérieur). BTS is delivered in further education colleges, secondary schools and some universities. The program normally lasts for two years, assuming that students have a prior vocational qualification, otherwise students need to take a one-year preliminary program. The courses are taught using the same curriculum and follow a national syllabus. Hospitality programs largely comprise Hotel Management or Restaurant Management pathways. The hospitality courses include foreign languages, economics, human resources management, finance, marketing, applied science, gastronomy, food and beverage studies, professional communication and professional maintenance. Tourism management programs usually offer two pathways: Sales and Production or Service and Organization. The courses offered in Tourism management include English, another foreign language, heritage, geography, economics, marketing, tourism techniques and professional case-studies. A major theme in hospitality study in France is applied management that enable students to enhance their skills and contextualized knowledge (Lominé, 2003).

Tourism education in Germany originally was only offered in *Fachhocschulen* (the second sector of higher education) with a practical emphasis. Responding to international tourism growth, advanced courses were promoted at both *Fachhocschulen* and universities in 1960s. The programs were located in business study, geography, and political economics units. The first tourism curriculum in Germany was established in the *Fachhocschule* (FH) of Munich in 1971 under the business economic discipline. Germany's hospitality and tourism education can be obtained through vocational education, educational professions and academic education (Freyer, Hammer, & Piermeier, 2005).

Vocational education comprises apprentice training or dual system of education (*Duales system der Berufsausbildung*) with a study duration of three years. Work studied includes vocational training in tourism, vocational school for hospitality, vocational school for travel agent, and vocational education in tourist transportation. The graduates can obtain further qualification at the school for hospitality and tourism management that provides a two-year sub degree of business and management education. At the academic level, hospitality and tourism are provided at the academies of cooperative education, *Fachhochschulen*, and universities. The academy of cooperative education is a three-year program with one year internship. It focuses in tour operator & travel intermediaries, hospitality, and the public administration of tourism. *Fachhochschulen* is a three- to four- year business course which specializes in tourism/travel/hotel management. Programs at universities are a four-year program and one-year post graduate extension with a tourism specialization. The majority of the hospitality and tourism education providers are government funded, except for the Cologne Business School and Dresden International University (Freyer et al., 2005).

Tourism education in the Netherlands is accessible at the Secondary Vocational Education Level (MBO), the Higher Vocational Education Level (HBO) and at the University Level. MBO is catered by MRTO (Secondary Level Tourism and Leisure Education) in the ROCs (Regional Training Center). Bachelor and Master programs are offered at HBO (university of applied science) and the research universities such as Tilburg University, The Erasmus University of Rotterdam, and Wageningen University. The first tourism institute in the Netherlands was located in Breda in 1966: Nederlands Wetenschappelijk Instituut voor Toerisme (NWIT). The institute was born as the outcome of an interchange between the Dutch Secretary of

Commerce and the Director of the Convention and Visitor Bureau of Breda in early 1960s. The institute changed its structure to the four-year normal higher vocational education in 1980. In 1987 NWIT became part of the Nationale Hogeschool voor Tourisme en Verkeer or NHTV (now NHTV Breda College for Tourism and Transportation). NHTV has offered a four-year Bachelor in various tourism and leisure studies for some time (Venema, 2005).

Hospitality and Tourism Education in Central/ Eastern Europe

Hospitality and tourism courses in Bulgaria appeared in the mid-1960s as part of the academic program at a university. The Higher Institute of Economics Dimitar Blagoev (established in 1965) is the country's pioneer for academic education in hotel, catering and tourism. The courses in hospitality and tourism are generally developed within the higher institute of economics or department of geography-geology, and last for five years. Several generic issues faced by tourism education and training institutions are reported and relate to content and methods of teaching, and the linkage between theories and practice (Formica, 1996; Rakadjiyska, 1990).

In Poland, the education and training in hospitality and tourism consists of basic vocational (2-3 years), technical and vocational (4-5 years), post-secondary vocational (2 years), and university (5 years). The post-secondary vocational program offers courses in hotel management or tourism services. A five-year Masters' degrees level which incorporates vocational elements are delivered at the university level. Two Bachelor programs in hotel management were launched in 1992, followed by the opening of a two-year tourism management program. Curriculum and teaching resources are viewed as the prevalent problems within

hospitality and tourism education in Poland. The curriculum issues include inadequate teaching methods and lack of connection with the industry for the students' internship. The curriculum design is seen as not meeting the demands and needs of the industry (Airey, 1994; Formica, 1996).

Hospitality and Tourism Education in the United Kingdom

The first hospitality and tourism study in the United Kingdom (UK) began in the mid-1960s at Bournemouth University and Ealing College of Higher Education and Hammersmith College as part of an undergraduate diploma in business study. In 1972, a postgraduate or Master program in Hospitality and tourism was introduced at the University of Surrey and also at Strathclyde University. The first degree program was established in 1986 at the Dorset Institute of Higher Education and Newcastle Polytechnic, in conjunction with New College Durham (Airey, 2005b; Busby, 2001; Fidgeon, 2010). As listed by University and Colleges Admissions Service's website, there were 80 institutions offering degrees in tourism in 2001. The majority of the programs in UK are highly vocationally oriented (Airey & Johnson, 1999; Busby & Fiedel, 2001), and mainly delivered by further education (AVCE or Advanced Certificate of Vocational Education and below) and higher education (HND or Higher National Diploma/ Foundation degree and above) (Airey, 2005a).

The core body of knowledge for the first tourism study in the UK was originally derived from Burkart and Medlik's (1974) influential book. The other two commonly agreed core body of knowledge for the UK's tourism study was set out by Tourism Society (1981) and National Liaison Group (NLG) for Tourism in Higher Education (1995) (Airey & Johnson, 1999; Busby & Fiedel, 2001). NLG

developed seven headings for the core body of knowledge: meaning and nature of tourism, industry structure, dimensions of tourism, significance and impact of tourism, marketing of tourism, tourism planning and management, and policy and management in tourism. Consequently, tourism curricula, aims and objective of tourism courses are similar across the UK's educational institutions following the NLG (Airey & Johnson, 1999). Tourism curriculum in the universities as well as in further education are vocationally based. The courses are mainly business oriented focusing on the management and business skills, and aiming for a career preparation (Airey, 2005b).

Hospitality and Tourism Education in Southern Europe

In Italy, the first step toward the academic development of hospitality and tourism education started in the early 1960s at the University of Florence with its professional program in Tourism Economics. Similar programs were offered in the University of Bologna and the Liberal International University of Social Studies in Rome a decade later. The programs, however, were not formally accredited nor granted a legal status by the Italian Government (Formica, 1996, 1997). A new education law that was passed by the Italian government in 1990 generated an evolution of hospitality and tourism education in Italy. A three-year Associate Degree in Economy and Management of Tourism Services (previously an unknown degree in Italy) emerged in 1993. During 1993-1995, the number of hospitality and tourism programs offered at the Italian universities increased from two to fourteen (twelve associate and two Bachelor programs).

The associate degrees were offered within the colleges of education, political science, language, and business and economy. The milestone of the Italian

hospitality and tourism education marked by the opening of Bachelor degree programs in University of Perugia and University of Bologna in 1994. Students taking associate or Bachelor degree programs are required to study fundamental disciplines (e.g. economics, accounting, statistics, mathematics), and specialized or elective courses (e.g. tourism geography, tourism economy, tourism marketing, commercial law, tourism statistics, finance, food product business, and economics and management of travel and tourism organization) (Formica, 1996, 1997).

Prior to the Bologna Declaration in 1999, the higher education system in Spain was categorized in three levels. The first level was a three-year program that had no access to any higher education (*diplomaturas*). This was the level where tourism education belonged. The second level (*licenciado*) was a five- to a six- year program that offered accessibility to a doctoral degree. The third level was the Doctorate. Hospitality and tourism education in Spain is generally connected to business or the social science studies. After the Bologna Declaration in 1999, tourism academics gained an opportunity to develop postgraduate programs. The University of Balearic Islands (UIB) in Mallorca is one of the higher institutions in Spain that offers various tourism programs. Its School of Tourism was established in 1987 (Munar & Montano, 2009). The university now offers a Master and doctoral degrees in Tourism and Environmental Economics that accentuate an applied vocational approach (Universitat de les Illes Balears, 2014). Although tourism education is expanding in Spain, some issues such as clear curriculum content and competencies need to be clarified (Munar & Montano, 2009).

Hospitality and Tourism Education in Australia

The hospitality management degree programs in Australia were pioneered by two institutions located in Melbourne and outside Brisbane in 1974: Footscray Institute (now Victoria University) and the Queensland Agricultural College (now the University of Queensland). The Australian undergraduate programs was initially hospitality focused instead of travel and tourism focused. This type of program is still popular and made up about half of the current programs. This can be traced from the late 1960s when the Queensland Agricultural College made a gradual movement from food production course and food processing (1967), food service management (1972), and finally to hospitality management degree program (Breakey & Craig-Smith, 2007). Prior to late 1960s, the Australian hospitality and tourism education were limited to a small number of vocational trade programs (Dredge et al., 2013). In mid 1980s, the undergraduate programs were restructured. Students were able to obtain a Bachelor degree in just 3.5 years after a completion of 33 courses starting 1984 (Breakey & Craig-Smith, 2007).

Higher education in Australia can be classified into four clusters. Cluster one comprises six traditional universities located in the capital city of the state (e.g. University of Sydney, University of Melbourne). The second cluster emerged in the 1960s and 1970s and was defined as research oriented universities. Some of these universities are James Cook University, Monash University, Flinders University, and Murdoch University. Cluster three arose post 1987, consists of 17 institutions (e.g. Swinburne University, Curtin University, Southern Cross University). Cluster four comprises private institutions that were established in 1980s and 1990s on-going (e.g. Blue Mountain Hotel School). Many Australia institutions are now offering undergraduate programs as well as postgraduate programs. But the doctoral

programs are relatively stronger in the cluster one and two universities such as James Cook University, Queensland University, and Monash University (Pearce, 2005).

The rapid growth of hospitality programs in Australia started in 1990s up to 2000s, marked by the increase number of degree programs (from originally three programs to 40) offered by 30 institutions (Breakey & Craig-Smith, 2007). The rapid development of Australia's tourism education were caused by international tourism arrivals, the Australian economy in late 1980s and changes in the Commonwealth education policy (Hobson, 1995 as cited in McKercher, 2002). There are 48 higher education institutions nowadays offering Bachelor degree in tourism, hospitality and event management (Dredge et al., 2013). The typology of hospitality degree programs in Australia can be divided into four focuses: hospitality focus (e.g. Bachelor of Hospitality Management), business and hospitality focus (e.g. Bachelor of Business, Hospitality), tourism added focus (e.g. Bachelor of Tourism and Hospitality Management), and non-hospitality focus (e.g. Bachelor of Business) (Breakey & Smith, 2007). The subjects generally consist of business and non-business (McKercher, 2002). Attributes or generic skills of tourism graduates may be slightly different between institutions, but they mostly include critical thinking and problem solving, communication, social and cultural awareness, information technology, numeracy, teamwork, community responsibility, and life-long learning orientation (Pearce, 2005).

Hospitality and Tourism Education in the United States of America (USA)

The first four-year program in hospitality management in USA was introduced in 1922 at the Hotel School of Cornell University, one of the world's

well-known hotel administration programs (Hobson, 1999; McIntosh, 1992). The first two-year program opened in 1935 at the City College of San Francisco (CCSF) which mainly focus on technical courses to produce trained professionals The curriculum of CCSF's Hotel and Restaurant Management (dated in 1936) was a combination of liberal arts (i.e. English, Business, Mathematics, Physical Education, Chemistry, and Business Correspondence) and specific hospitality courses (i.e. Food Preparation, Cooking, Hygiene, Food Cost and Hotel Accounting, and Restaurant Operation) (Hobson, 1999). Hobson also states that the rapid growth of hospitality school in USA during 1960s and 1980s was an effect of the industry's growth. However, the programs started to decrease in 1990s, indicated by the dropping of student numbers and the closing down of programs in several universities.

Tourism study in USA is widely accessible at various levels of education: vocational schools, community colleges, colleges, universities, and association and professional services. At college and university level, courses are generally offered in the school of hotel & restaurant administration, school of business, college of natural resources, department of commercial recreation, sociology, geography, and anthropology. There are four types of programs available: a one to three year program of certificate diploma offered at business technical and career institute, a two year associate and diploma programs provided at the community colleges and technical institutions, a four year baccalaureate program delivered at both colleges and universities, and graduate programs offered at universities (1-2 year Master and 3-5 year Doctorate) (Hudson, 2005).

A study conducted by Park, Phillips, Canter, and Abbott (2011) indicated that USA was ranked first among the top 20 countries in hospitality and tourism research contribution. Moreover, the first books in tourism were published in USA

in 1972, specifically Tourism Principles, Practices and Philosophies (Robert W. McIntosh), The Tourist Business (Donald Lundberg), and Vacationscape: Designing Tourist Regions (Claire A. Gunn) (Gunn, 1991).

Hospitality and Tourism Education in South America

Tourism higher education in Brazil can be classified into four development phases. The first phase in 1970s was characterized by the launching of the first tourism Bachelor degree program in Faculdade de Turismo do Morumbi, Sao Paolo in 1971. At the second phase in 1980s, a few new tourism programs started to emerge. The third phase in 1990s was the milestone of the Brazil's hospitality and tourism higher education with the significant growth of 900%, from 32 tourism undergraduate programs in 1994 to 834 programs in 2005. The first postgraduate program was offered during this phase in 1993. The fourth phase was indicated by the development of alternative curricula, striking the balance between quantity and quality (Ansarah, 2002 as cited in Leal & Padilha, 2005; Leal & Padilha, 2005).

The evolution of tourism education stimulated the establishment of institutional journals in Brazil and Latin America, albeit they were more likely to be seen internationally as newsletters than refereed journals. The first tourism journal, *Turismo em Análise* (Tourism Analysis), was published in 1990 by Universidade de Sao Paulo. This is Brazil's earliest and the most popular tourism journal. The second journal, *Turismo: Visao e Acao* (Tourism: Vision and Action), was issued by the Universidade do Vale do Itajai in 1998. *Revista Electronica de Turismo* (Electronic Tourism Journal) was published by Faculdade Cenecista Presidente Kennedy in 2002. It was followed by *Boletim de Estudos em Hotelaria e Turismo* (Journal of Tourism and Hotel Management Studies), published by the Faculdades Integradas da

Vitoria de Santo Antao in 2003 (Leal & Padilha, 2005). Leal and Padilha contend that despite the explosion of tourism education in Brazil, there are still many concerns which need to be addressed, such as the balance between professional, vocational, academic and entrepreneurial skills, and the lack of stakeholder's recognition on the significance and values of the study and towards the graduates.

Hospitality and Tourism Education in the Caribbean

The hospitality and tourism education in the Caribbean was initiated by the Barbados Hotel School (culinary school) which was established in 1966. In 1968 the Jamaica Hotel School followed suit by offering programs with rooms division and a food & beverage focus. Several schools were opened in 1970s: Trinidad and Tobago School, Bahamas Hotel Training College (1975), and Universities of the West Indies (UWI) in Jamaica (1977) which offered Hotel Management degree program within its Department of Management Studies. The first Bachelor degree in Tourism Management was introduced in CHTM (The Center for Hotel and Tourism Management) in 1983. Unfortunately this program was stopped in 2004-2005 academic year. A joint degree program (2+2) was initiated in Jamaica in 1998 between the UWI and the University of Technology. A Master degree in Tourism and Hospitality Management has been accessible at the UWI Jamaica since 1999 (A. Lewis, 2005).

Several issues were encountered by tourism higher education in the Latin America and the Caribbean despite its growth, such as the balance between vocational and academic skills, lack of recognition by the industry, lack of academic-industry relations, and immaturity of conceptual, theoretical and methodological research in tourism (Leal & Padilha, 2005; A. Lewis, 2005).

Hospitality and Tourism Education in North-East Asia

Hospitality and tourism study in China began in 1978 at the Nanjing Tourism School. A year later in 1979, the first tourism college/higher learning, Shanghai Institute of Tourism was established (Li & Li, 2013; Tao, 1997 in Lam & Xiao, 2000; Yang & Song, 2010-2011; Zhang & Fan, 2005b). In the early 1980s, eight universities were appointed by the China Ministry of Education's to open first undergraduate programs in tourism. They were Nan Kai University, Beijing International Studies University, Hangzhou University (merged with Zhejiang University in 1998), Dalian University of Foreign Languages, Northwest University, Xian International Studies University, Changchun University and Sun Yat-Sen University (Yang & Song, 2010-2011).

The development of hospitality and tourism education in China can be classified into three phases: exploratory (1978-1988), massive development (1989-1995) (Tian, 2008 in Yang & Song, 2010-2011) and the canonical stage (1996-present) (Yang & Song, 2010-2011). In Dong' study in 1998, the development of China's hospitality and tourism education is identified as exploration stage, expansion stage, and quality development stage (Li & Li, 2013; Zhang & Fan, 2005b). Secondary or vocational schools mostly appeared during the first two stages of exploration and development, whereas hospitality and tourism tertiary education emerged during the canonical stage (Yang & Song, 2010-2011). The immense development of China's tourism higher education in 1990s was due to the rapid growth of China's tourism industry with a rising number of tourism higher institutions from 55 in 1990 to 494 in 2003. By the end of 2011 there were 1,115 tourism institutions accommodating around 599,800 students (Li & Li, 2013; Zhang & Fan, 2005b).

Yang and Song (2010-2011) state that hospitality and tourism tertiary education in China consists of four program levels: undergraduate, traditional Master, professional Master, and Doctorate degree. The four-year undergraduate programs are delivered under sub-discipline of Business Management and Public Administration, and they fall into two types of program, namely Hospitality and Tourism Management and Exhibition, and Economy and Management. The undergraduate curriculum in China follows what is called as a 9+X formula in which students should take nine common compulsory subjects in Business Management courses such as management, statistics and economics. The 'X' represents other subjects that can be offered by an individual institution. The curriculum in the tertiary program is mainly influenced by the Western paradigms or grounded from other disciplines. The traditional Master is a three-year program offered by generic discipline schools such as economic, business management, and history. Professional Master program or Master of hospitality and tourism administration requires two years working experiences from the students and it includes one-term internship. Doctorate degree can be obtained within three to five years, full time or part time (Yang & Song, 2010-2011). The fast growth of China's hospitality and tourism education is not problem-free. Some challenges faced by the higher education sector include the industry's criticism towards the graduates' skills and attitude, poor curriculum design, the balance of hospitality and tourism competencies and general knowledge, lack of quality textbooks and qualified lecturers, to name a few (Li & Li, 2013; Zhang & Fan, 2005a).

In Hong Kong, the Haking Wong Technical Institute (HWTI) was the first government institution in formal vocational hotel and catering courses that provided a one-year certificate program. It was established in 1977 in response to the demand

for the hotel's trained staff. In 1979, the Hong Kong Polytechnic, now known as PolyU, (established in 1972), introduced the Department of Institutional Management and Catering Studies (IMCS) that offered a two-year diploma and a three-year higher diploma in catering studies. IMCS changed to Department of Hospitality Management in 1986 and launched a four-year Bachelor program in Hospitality Management (1988) and Tourism Management (1991) which included one-year industrial internship. The department was renamed Department of Hotel and Tourism Management in 1992 offering BA in Hotel and Catering Management. Later in 2001, BA (Hons) in Hotel, Catering and Tourism Management was launched and Department of Hotel and Tourism of PolyU became School of Hotel and Tourism Management (SHTM) (Lo, 2005). The PolyU's SHTM offers Bachelor (BSc) in Hotel Management and Tourism Management (Lee, Kim, & Lo, 2008). The Chinese University of Hong Kong (CUHK) introduced a three-year Bachelor of Business Administration (BBA) (Hons) in Hotel Management in 1999 which was delivered by the School of Hotel Management of the Faculty of Business Administration. CUHK's BBA in Hotel Management converted to Hotel and Tourism Management in 2002 (Lo, 2005). Currently, Bachelor programs offered by the PolyU and CUHK are the only two government-funded undergraduate programs (Lee et al., 2008).

Hospitality and tourism programs in Hong Kong are offered at various levels (government or non-government funded) that can be categorised into sub-degree education, undergraduate and postgraduate education, and top-up degree programs. Sub degree education consists of Professional Diploma (part-time mode), Advance Diploma (16-36 months), Associate Degree (2 years) and Higher Diploma (1-2 years). Graduate and postgraduate education encompasses Bachelor, Master and

Doctorate degrees. The postgraduate degrees (PhD and MPhil programs) were initiated by the Polytechnic's Department of Hospitality Management in 1991. CUHK's School of Hotel Management followed suit in 1999 by offering MPhil and PhD programs (Lee et al., 2008; Lo, 2005).

Hong Kong is one of the top 20 countries/regions for research performance in hospitality and tourism: ranked second on the contribution to hospitality research and ranked fifth for tourism research (Park et al., 2011). The Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Research ranked SHTM PolyU the second in the world based on research and scholarly activities in 2009. The school was ranked first in tourism research and second in hospitality research (contribute to 6% of the total hospitality research) among many prominent higher education institutions in the world (Park et al., 2011; The School of Hotel & Tourism Management the Hong Kong Polytechnic University, 2014).

In Taiwan, the development of hospitality and tourism education is classified into three periods. The first one was the origination period (1946-1968). The Tourism Department at Hsing Wu Junior College (now Hsing Wu College) was established in this period in 1965 as a response to the need of highly-trained professionals in tourism industry. In the following year, 1966, Department of Tourism Management was set up at the Chinese Cultural College. The College was transformed into a university in 1968. It was the first university to offer a graduate program in tourism (1990) and to have a department in tourism. Tamkang College (now Aletheia University) and Ming Chuan College (now Ming Chuan University) also provided tourism study in 1966 and 1969 respectively. The second period was the growth period (1969-1991), indicated by the increase of inbound and outbound tourism (Horng & Lee, 2005). The third period was called the competition and

adjustment period (1990-present). This period is marked by highly diverse tourist market and the increase of private sector investment in the domestic market. The launching of Master program by the Chinese Culture University in 1990 was a first in Taiwan's hospitality and tourism education. National Kaohsiung Hospitality College was the first professional tourism and hospitality institution in 1995 that employed a sandwich-style scheme that allowed students to do an industry work experience for one semester or more. The first PhD program was established in National Taiwan Normal University in 2001 under the Department of Human Development and Family Studies (Horng & Lee, 2005).

The increase in the number of hospitality and tourism education programs in Taiwan started in 1998 and expanded in 2000. There were 64 Bachelor programs, 17 Master programs, and one PhD in leisure, hospitality and tourism, offered by various colleges and universities as of academic year 2003 (Horng & Lee, 2005). In 2007, the Ministry of Education of the Republic of China listed 86 schools offering 164 tourism, hospitality and recreation programs, in which 67% were higher vocational education (Chang & Hsu, 2010).

Tourism education system in Taiwan is primarily categorized into technical/vocational system and higher education system. The vocational system consists of a two-year and five-year junior college, and a two-year and four-year institute/university of technology. The higher education system or universities provide undergraduate (Bachelor) and graduate (MA and PhD) programs. Since 1996, many junior colleges were converted into a four-year college due to low image of technical or skilled-oriented education system (Horng & Lee, 2005).

Liu (2006) identified several issues in the hospitality and tourism education in Taiwan based on the perspective of hospitality human resources managers. The

concerns include the gaps in the expectation and perception among students, educators and the industry, the need for taking an internship, the importance of higher education and industry partnerships, the balance of the curriculum between general education and professional specialization, unclear objectives for different types of tourism and hospitality degree programs, the importance of personal qualities and attitudes of the students (soft skills), outdated and limited textbook in Chinese and the impact of modern technology and information literacy. Furthermore, the curriculum is viewed as not fully compatible with the industry's needs as it is designed based on the previous local and select international programs (Horng & Lee, 2005).

Hospitality and Tourism Education in South-East Asia

In Malaysia, hospitality and tourism education and training are performed by public and private organizations. The inception of hospitality education can be dated to 1967 at the School of Hotel and Tourism Management, University Institute of Technology MARA (UiTM). The university provided certificate and diploma courses in Hotel Management, Chef Training, Tourism Management, and Food Service Management. In 1993, an undergraduate program was launched at the School of Hotel and Tourism Management UiTM. In response to the expansion of hospitality industry and the increase in demand for the workforce, public and private higher institutions in Malaysia started to offer hospitality programs (e.g. Universiti Malaya, Universiti Sains Malaysia, Universiti Malaysia Sarawak, Universiti Malaysia Sabah, Universiti Utara Malaysia, Taylor's University College, Damansara Utama College and Limkokwing University of Creative Technology). In addition,

two hotel sectors also offer hospitality education: Berjaya University College and Legend International College (Goldsmith & Zahari, 1994; Shariff, 2013).

In the Philippines, the initial platforms of hospitality and tourism training occurred between 1973 to 1979 due to the growth of tourist arrivals and tourism business. In the 1970s, there was only one four-year degree (BS) in Hotel and Restaurant Administration offered by the University of the Philippines. The other hospitality and tourism education and training were delivered at twelve private institutions (certificate courses), top hotels (in-house, on-the-job and development training programs), Ministry of Tourism (short-term courses) and the Ministry of Tourism and National Human resources and Youth Council (training, seminars and workshops) (Bosangit & Mena, 2007 as cited from Librando and Nartea, 1980).

The first Bachelor degree in Tourism was introduced at the Asian Institute of Tourism (AIT) 1977. The institution was born in 1975 as a joint venture between the University of the Philippines (UP), the Ministry of Tourism (now Department of Tourism) and the Philippine Tourism Authority (PTA). According to the data of the Commission on Higher Education (CHED), there were 114 institutions offering tourism programs in 2003 on top of vocational and technical schools that provide tourism certificates and non-degree programs (Bosangit & Mena, 2007).

The first tourism study in Thailand (called Travel Management) was introduced at Chulalongkorn University under the Bachelor of Commerce Degree, the Faculty of Commerce and Accountancy in 1966. A decade later in 1977, Prince of Songkla University (PSU) set up Phuket Community College that offered a two-year diploma in Hotel and Tourism Management to meet the demand of staff for the Phuket tourism industry. PSU Phuket Campus established a Faculty of Hotel and Tourism Management in 1993 and offered an international four-year degree program

(Bachelor of Business Administration in Hotel Management) in 1994 academic year. This program was the first international program in Hotel Management in Thailand (Chaisawat, 2005).

Based upon his previous study in 2000, Chaisawat (2005) claims that the number of hospitality and tourism studies offered at Thailand's higher institutions increased from 42 institutions in 1996 to 78 institutions in 2003. The international programs were doubled from six in 1999 to 15 in 2003. There are various levels of degrees can be obtained in this field of study in Thailand: Advance Certificate, Graduate Certificate, Bachelor Degree, Master Degree, and Doctorate degree. The Bachelor degree programs are mainly related to hotel, tourism and travel management. A Master program was launched in Chiang Mai University in 1999, followed by a Master in International Tourism and Hotel Management in 2000 at Silpakorn University, in collaboration with the School of Tourism and Hospitality Management, Southern Cross University (Chaisawat, 2005). Although there were ample tourism and hospitality programs at baccalaureate and graduate levels, the quality of graduates has arguably, not yet met the industry's standard for qualifications (Chaisawat and Boonchu, 2005, in Chaisawat, 2005).

On May 27, 2005, Tourism Academic Association of Thailand (TAAT) was established with approval from the Ministry of Interior and supported by the Thailand Research Fund (TRF). Its objectives are to develop tourism body of knowledge, liaise the tourism teaching staff with local and overseas organizations, promote and enhance the potential of teaching staff, curriculum, and research activities, and disseminate academic information to public (Chaisawat, 2005).

Hospitality and Tourism Education in Africa

Kenya, Tanzania, and Uganda are three countries of East African region that heavily depended on their inbound nature-based tourism. Co-operation in tourism on common tourism policy in the East African dates back to 1938. This led to the formation of the East African Tourist Travel Association (EATTA) in 1948 with the role of promoting tourism to the region. However, several problems occurred after the three countries gained their independencies, resulted in the downfall of EATTA. In 1999, the East African Community (EAC) was reestablished after its fall in 1977 (Mayaka, 2005). This new framework conveyed Kenya Utalii College in Kenya, Soroti Flying School in Uganda, and College of African Wildlife Management (CAWM), Mweka in Tanzania, as the center of excellence in tourism training and education (Kamar, 2003 in Mayaka, 2005).

The introduction of hospitality and tourism training in Kenya took place in 1969 with the opening of hotel management program in the Kenya Polytechnic, Nairobi. Kenya Utalii College (KUC), a joint program of the Kenya government and Switzerland, was later established in 1975. The college offered certificate and diploma programs in hotel management and operational areas, tour guiding and travel operations. University level education was initiated by Moi University in 1992. School of Tourism, Hospitality & Events Management of Moi University is the leading institution in tourism and hospitality in Kenya and the East African region. The school has three departments (Hospitality and Hotel Management, Travel and Tour Operations Management, and Tourism Management) and offers diploma, Bachelor and post graduate programs (Mayaka, 2005; School of Tourism, Hospitality & Events Management Moi University, 2014). Moi university's tourism

and hospitality program was followed by other higher institutions: Maseno, Kenyata, Nairobi and Egerton (Mayaka, 2005; Mayaka & Akama, 2007; Sindiga, 1996).

In Tanzania, a hospitality course was delivered at the National College of Tourism (NCT) in Dar-es-Salaam in 1969. The college offered certificate programs in food production, food and beverage, front office, housekeeping and laundry. NCT is the only government training institution in tourism and hospitality in the Tanzania mainland, operated under the Ministry of Natural Resources and Tourism. The college offered short courses, certificate and diploma programs within its three departments: Hospitality Management, Tourism Management, and the Management Studies (Mayaka, 2005; National College of Tourism, 2014). Another institution called VETA (Vocational Education and Training Authority) Hotel and Tourism Training Institute in Arusha administered short courses and vocational diploma in front office, housekeeping and laundry, food and beverage service and sales and food production (VETA Hotel and Tourism Training Institute, 2014).

Hospitality and tourism education in Uganda is relatively new. It began in 1994 with the opening of the Crested Crane Hotel and Tourism Training Institute in Jinja. Nkuba university was the first higher institution that introduced tourism and related course at the university level in 1994 (Mayaka, 2005). Other institutions offering hospitality and tourism diploma courses include Buganda Royal Institute (Tourism Management and Hotel and Institutional Catering), Makarere University (leisure and hospitality management under the Faculty of Business Management), and Kempala International University (Tourism and Catering and Hotel Management) (Mayaka, 2005).

Similar to the three countries within East African region, South Africa also relies on the tourism sector to support its economy. Conversely, the courses in travel

and tourism management were just only appeared in 1980s and early 1990s respectively. Travel courses are mainly accommodated by the University of Technology or *technikons* in the Department of Secretarial or Communication studies (Mayaka, 2005). At the tertiary level, tourism courses are delivered based on three approaches: vocational, a part of Business Study, and within traditional disciplines (Cooper et al., 1996 and Geldenhuys, 2000 as cited in Mayaka, 2005).

The development of tourism education and training in Africa, and probably in other developing countries are still bound with many complications, such as pedagogical disparity for the curriculum design and body of knowledge, lack of support and commitment from the public and private sectors, and lack of qualified lecturers (Mayaka, 2005; Mayaka & Akama, 2007). Training and education has also been dominated by middle level colleges or vocational training that provides certificates or diplomas in hospitality and tourism (Mayaka, 2005).

Overview of the Overall Development of Hospitality and Tourism Education

The appearance of hospitality and tourism education in various countries can mainly be found in the 1960s and 1970s as a result of tourism growth. Based on the examination of the aforementioned hospitality and tourism education programs, some commonalities and prevalent issues can be identified. In general, the education providers of hospitality and tourism study can be classified as academic education (undergraduate and postgraduate degrees) and vocational education (e.g. vocational school, higher vocational education, vocational education and training, technical/vocational system, continuing vocational training and education). Tourism Management, Hotel Management, Hospitality Management, Hospitality and Tourism, and Tourism and Travel are the most common programs being offered. It

is common to find that a wide range of hospitality and tourism programs are operated under a faculty of business. Therefore, courses or subjects are often relatively powerful in business (Oktadiana & Chon, 2014b).

Issues identified in this review include a concern with curriculum and the core body of knowledge/content, the housing of the programs, the need for collaboration with industry, a lack of support from the industry and government, the shortage of qualified lecturers, a lack of quality textbook and facilities, the strong vocational and business oriented curriculum, and Western oriented programs. These issues are particularly apparent in the developing countries. A significance divergence was found on the research performance. Research in the developed countries/regions such as the UK, USA, Hong Kong, Australia, and New Zealand demonstrate a level of maturity and greatly contribute to the hospitality and tourism research and study. Hospitality and tourism programs in the developed countries/regions also have highly qualified lecturers and substantial resources (Oktadiana & Chon, 2014b).

The advantages and disadvantages are less well distributed in developing countries. A key implication from this broad review of international activity in hospitality and tourism education lies in understanding and exploring the basic topic of curriculum. The topic emerges as pivotal in the international review and is considered in detail in the following section.

2.3. The Curriculum

Curriculum is an essential component of the business of educational institutions. The design and development of curriculum should accentuate what to

offer or deliver as part of the educational experiences (Dredge et al., 2012a). The idea of curriculum may not be new, however, dispute and refinement on its meaning still remains (Dredge et al., 2012a; M. Smith, 1996, 2000). There are many debates on the purpose, content and structure of undergraduate curriculum (Ratcliff, 1997). Curriculum is purposeful. It is intended to address a wide range of purposes and the needs of society. It can be viewed differently by educators, students, and industry (Barnett & Coate, 2005; Dredge et al., 2012a; Ratcliff, 1997). Educators may regard curriculum as what knowledge students need to know. Students see it as an assessment, what one needs to know to pass a certain study unit. Employers often define curriculum in an instrumental way; the essential skills and attributes that should be possessed by graduates to accomplish a task (Dredge et al., 2012a).

There are various definition of curriculum which has its root in the Latin word *currere* (to run) which refers to "race-course/racing chariot/running-track" (Connelly & Lantz, 1991; Hussain et al., 2011; Marsh & Willis, 2003; Morris & Adamson, 2010). The numerous definitions of curriculum and no agreement of the term made it arduous to come up with a specific definition (Connelly & Lantz, 1991). One of the curriculum definitions used by John Kerr was as planned and guided learnings administered by a school which can be carried out inside or outside the school, in groups or individual (Smith, 1996, 2000). Tribe (2005b, p. 48) identifies curriculum as "a whole programme of educational experiences that is packaged as a degree programme". Curriculum as a pathway of study and viewed as a person's life experience was a perspective offered by Connelly and Clandinin in their 1988 study (Bloom, 2006). Cooper (2002) proposes that curriculum is "a set of practical educational proposals" (p. 21). Hirst in his 1980's work determines curriculum as a designed program of activities that enable students to achieve

particular educational aims or objectives (Cooper, 2002). Curriculum can also be classified as the academic or educational plan of a program/department/college/school/institution (Ratcliff, 1997). Jenkins and Shipman (1976) assert that curriculum is the creation and delivery of an educational proposal on what is to be taught and learned. An institution is in control of its rationale, actual implementation and effects. Marsh and Willis (2003) studied various definitions of curriculum. Based on their reviews, they propose a description of curriculum as an "interrelated set of plans and experience that a student undertakes under the guidance of the school" (p. 13).

Numerous curriculum definitions stress, to different degrees, two major dimensions: the means-ends and existential-personal. The curriculum ends or intended learning outcomes can be announced in terms of aims, goals and objectives. The content, therefore, can be behavioural content (be able to do), expressive content (to have rich but undefined potential), or substantive content (to know this or that). The subject matters of this curriculum are selected to achieve the learning outcomes. The existential-personal depends on whether the focus is on what being studied or on who is doing the studying (i.e. students). The existentially defined curriculum refers to the textbooks and instruction and emphasizes the teaching methodology, whereas the personal defined curriculum signifies the students' experiences (Connelly & Lantz, 1991). Musgrave (1998 as cited in Cooper, 2002) argued that curriculum (even in the twentieth century) is perceived as a written document that mainly describes the academic subjects instead subjects of schools rather than subjects at tertiary education institutions.

Kelting-Gibson (2013) conducted a historical review of curriculum from 1900 (100 years of curriculum design). It included historical and contemporary

curriculum theory and design. It was noted in Kelting-Gibson's study that the history of curriculum can be traced back before the year 1900. At that time curriculum was just a simple list of information containing the subjects, time and years of study. An example was Harvard Curriculum of Harvard College in 1642. This study shows that the key components of curriculum design largely comprises the objectives, activities and experience, subject matter (content selection), evaluation/assessment and outcomes. Those components are specified in the historical curriculum (the exponents include Franklin Bobbit, William Kilpatrick, Harold Rugg, Werrett Charters, Hollis Caswell and Doak Campbell, Ralph Tyler, Hilda Taba) and contemporary curriculum (the proponents comprise Jerome Bruner, Francis Hunkins, Madeline Hunter, Howard Gardner, David Perkins, Fred Newmann & Gary Wehlage, Grant Wiggins & Jay McTighe, Isman, Caglar, Dabaj, and Ersozlu) (Kelting-Gibson, 2013).

The concept and development of curriculum can be viewed in a number of ways. Davies (1976) asserts that there are three curriculum perspectives: classical (systematic) approach, romantic (humanistic) approach, and a classical-romantic (modern) approach. Advocates of the classical approach (1911-1962) presume that students or leaners are passive instruments and regarded as a "given". They are willing to accept directions given by the teachers who perform a role as custodians and munificent autocrats. This classical approach is characterized by teacher domination, task centred, subject oriented, conservative, autocratic, discipline, skills, competitive, class teaching, and doing things to students. The works of Franklin Bobbitt, an American educationist who wrote the first book on curriculum "The Curriculum" in 1918, and later "How to Make a Curriculum" in 1924, was an example of the classical approach. Bobbitt states that the basis of curriculum

objectives lies within the tasks or activities and the ability to perform these activities. A more modern classical approach was Tyler's curriculum theory (1949). In his book, "Basic Principles of Curriculum and Instruction", Tyler outlines four fundamental issues in a curriculum: objectives, learning experience, organization of the experience, and evaluation. He points out the importance of clear-defined objectives as the selection criteria for determining materials, content and instructional procedures development, and examinations preparations (Davies, 1976; R. Tyler, 1949).

The second category, the romantic or humanistic approach is a learner-centred. The advocates of this approach believed in the individualized learning, *laissez-faire*, method-emphasis, student-centered, discovery, cooperation, freedom, cooperative, and doing things for students. A well-known proponent of this approach is Maria Montessori. Abraham Maslow and Carl Rogers are also exponents of this style. They recommend that curriculum is aimed to develop people with a positive self-image, open to experience, and able to relate to other people. The classical-romantic or modern approach is a process oriented curriculum that views students as natural decision-makers and problem solvers. The key concepts and perspectives of the modern approach include flexible-groupings, participative, liberal, process oriented, inquiry-centered, experience, creativity, growth, responsibility, and doing things with students. The modern approach sees the merging of the classical view's content focus and the romantic view's permissiveness. John Dewey and Charity James are known as proponents of this modern view (Davies, 1976).

Curriculum approaches can also be classified as content and process approach. Content approach focuses on the skills and knowledge in which the means of delivery and planning is defined by the tutor/teacher. In the process approach,

students or learners and their needs are the central. The process oriented curriculum provides students with a more flexible curriculum that allows students to tailor-make their study (Cooper et al., 1996; Smith & Cooper, 2000). Cooper et al. further state that in the process approach it is beneficial to understand the learning situation for students, and then use that knowledge for designing a course and curriculum to meet the students' needs. Student-centered education values students' motivation and interests, as well as their learning environment (Jayawardena, 2001).

In practice, many courses are probably employing both content and process approaches (Smith & Cooper, 2000). However, there has been a movement to transfer from the instructional paradigm (teaching and instructional focus) to the learning paradigm. This movement is advocated by Barr and Tagg in their 1995 significant paper "From Teaching to Learning: A New Paradigm for Undergraduate Education" (Maher, 2004). The concept of a content approach may be similar to the classical or systematic view, whereas the process approach may well be related to the romantic of humanistic view. Another approach, the outcome-oriented, emphasizes the results of learning outcomes/processes and competences. This approach is used in various institutions (Awwad, 2010; Eaton, 2010; European Centre for the Development of Vocational Training, 2010).

The concept of curriculum typically can also be classified into four domains: the designed curriculum, the expectational curriculum, the delivered curriculum, and the experienced curriculum. The designed curriculum recognizes the explicit learning outcomes but it is relatively more focused on the content and course sequence. It consists of a catalog and syllabus descriptions. The expectational curriculum lies on the level of performance and specific assignment that is expected to be achieved by the students. It accentuates the certain requirements that need to be

met. The delivered curriculum is behavioral, in which content and teaching methods may vary across classrooms or from the original design. It consists what faculty actually teach. The experienced curriculum is also behavioral; it considers what students actually do (Ewell, 1997).

For the continuing purposes of this thesis, the concept of curriculum will be principally considered as an educational plan and associated experiences, including course aims and objectives, content, learning and instructions, and assessment. If there is a further variation or specification of meaning needed in a particular context, that detailed approach will be provided.

2.3.1. Curriculum Components and Models

Curriculum Components

The components of curriculum do vary as advocated by various scholars. Some scholars proposed four elements (e.g. Beauchamp, 1983), others identified seven (e.g. Eisner, 1985) (Klein, 1991). In general, however, the main curriculum components refer to the objectives, content, learning activities, and evaluation procedures (Klein, 1991; Zais, 1976). Nicholls and Nicholls (1978) assert that the four elements of a curriculum (objectives, content, methods, and evaluation/assessment and feedback) are interrelated and a change to one element may affect the other elements. The objectives, therefore, should be set and aligned with the aims or the general direction of a program or school (Nicholls & Nicholls, 1978).

Morris and Adamson (2010) contend that "educational aims and other curriculum components reflect a set of images, orientations, conceptions,

characterizations or value systems which involve beliefs and assumptions about the learner, knowledge, schooling and society" (p. 46). There are five conceptions/images/ideologies that direct or influence people's perspectives on what educational institutions are expected to accomplish. They include social and economic efficiency, academic rationalism, child-centered, social reconstructionism, and orthodoxy/ideological transfer.

Schools with a social and economic efficiency focus aim to prepare students for employment and be economically productive as well as to ensure that students fit into their society. The curriculum is designed to meet the needs of the society and is relatively well grounded with strong vocational elements. The academic rationalism emphasizes the intellectual and rational development of students. Concepts from established academic disciplines are used to promote critical thinking and problem solving ability, and understanding of basic concepts and information. The child-centered image stresses the students' individual needs and growth. The child-centred curriculum is based on how students learn and develop. Its pedagogy attends to the needs, interests and problems of the students. Schools that adopt social reconstructionism concerns on the improvement and transformation of society. The curriculum generally relates to the environment and distribution of wealth, justice, appreciation of diversity and peace, and caring about other people. Orthodoxy/ideological transfer image stresses the sense of national identity and patriotism. Schools play strong role in passing values, beliefs, and culture of a society. What should be learned by students is usually regulated by the government (Morris & Adamson, 2010). Morris and Adamson illustrates the relationship between the curriculum conceptions/ideologies and curriculum components (Table 2.5).

Table 2.5 Curriculum Conceptions and Curriculum Components

	Curriculum Component			
Image	**Intention**	**Content Focus**	**Methods**	**Assessment**
Social and economic efficiency	Current and future human resources needs of a society	Knowledge and skills that are expedient and relevant for employment	Accentuate skill mastery and application	Assessing students' ability to apply their knowledge and skills
Academic rationalism	Enhancement of students' intellectual abilities and cognitive skills; to teach students how to learn	Knowledge, skills and values drawing on the academic disciplines	Emphasize teacher exposition and didactic teaching, promote inquiry skills	Testing students' knowledge and skills; focus on academic rigor
Child-centred	Provide opportunities for students to enhance their personal and intellectual development	Knowledge as an integrated holistic entity; the learning process	Accentuate students' activity and self-learning; teachers act as facilitators	Qualitative measures to analyse the learning process
Social reconstructionism	The school as an agent for social reform, changes and criticism	Social needs, issues and ideas	Interaction, group work and students' involvement in community activities	Involving students in their own assessment
Orthodoxy/ ideological transfer	School passes on the fundamental values and beliefs of the society/culture	Patriotic events, religious and/or political events	Teachers' exposition to ensure that students master the chosen values and beliefs	Assessing students' ability to reproduce what they have learned

Source: Morris & Adamson (2010, p. 51)

Several other key terms are frequently employed in discussing curriculum. Aims are likely to be broadly philosophical and limit the selection of objectives. They convey an aspiration, epitome, and a starting point that provide a future direction. Aims are generally at the end of the means-end model and more long-term and implicit than the objectives. Objectives are short-term, more explicit in character, and serve as the means to achieve the ends (Davies, 1976). Both aims and objectives are essentials. Aims convey what will be achieved by a course or a program or through a curriculum, whereas objectives tell us what the students be

able to do at the end of a course or a period of study (Nicholls & Nicholls, 1978; Davies, 1976; Morris & Adamson, 2010).

More specifically, objectives can be defined as explicit statements of learning outcomes that draw on the aims (Brady & Kennedy, 2003). An objective is an educational ends that results from learning experiences (R. Tyler, 1949). Brady and Kennedy (2003) maintain that the terms "behavioural, performance, and instructional" have been used interchangeably in curriculum literature to refer to an objective that precisely measures the desired outcomes of student performance or behaviour. It has been a perennial debate, however, as to how precise and predictable the objectives can be. The work by Eisner in 1969 separated the terms instructional (behavioural objectives) and expressive objectives. He modified the term expressive objectives to expressive outcomes, claiming that this type of outcomes cannot be accurately measured as it is more reflecting an individual purpose and experiences (Brady & Kennedy, 2003).

Behavioural objectives indicate what students be able to do or perform. The statements of behavioural outcomes usually begin with "upon completion/at the end of this program/course/lesson, students should be able to…". There are arguments that behavioural outcomes should follow the A B C D rule (the audience, the behaviour, the context or materials being used, and degree of completion). The expressive objectives/outcomes are generally applied for arts and creative subjects (e.g. music). The statements of these outcomes are open-ended that reflect the consequences of curriculum activities. An example of expressive outcomes is "students will develop interests in making patisseries" (Morris & Adamson, 2010).

A clear objective contains two facets: the behaviour and the content. The former implies a certain desired behaviour to be developed in students, and the latter

refers to area of life or area of content in which the behaviour is applied (R. Tyler, 1949). For example, "to write well-organized essay of tourism destination study" include both the behaviour and the content aspects. The behaviour is expressed in "to write well-organized essay", and the content is "tourism destination study". A well-written and defined objectives are useful in planning and selecting instructions, in guiding teaching, and in assessing students (Oliva, 2005; R. Tyler, 1949). Clear objectives will act as a guide to the proper selection of content and methods. Indubitably, the choice of content is dependent on the stated objectives. Content denotes what knowledge, skills, attitudes and values should be learned (Nicholls & Nicholls, 1978). Choosing and deciding curriculum content may not be easy as it requires some criteria. The first criteria is validity, in which content should be adapted to the changing of knowledge and as a mean to achieve the objectives. The second criteria is the significance that relates to the balance of breadth of coverage and depth of understanding. The third criteria is the interest level of the students, and the forth is the "learnability" (the content is accessible to the students) (Nicholls & Nicholls, 1978).

Other influential system/structure for writing objectives was advocated by Robert Mager in 1975. He proposes three principles: performance or behaviour of students, conditions of performance, and criterion/performance criteria. The central questions of those principles can be described subsequently as: what do students have to do?, under what conditions students need to perform?, and how well do students do?. The classification of objectives is commonly derived from the work of Benjamin Bloom in 1956, "A Taxonomy of Cognitive Objectives". Bloom's taxonomy is a cognitive-based learning system comprises six cognitive levels: knowledge, comprehension, application, analysis, synthesis and evaluation. The

classifications of Bloom's cognitive domain is hierarchical in nature. The objectives of one level will include the lower levels. The lowest level, knowledge, denotes a product, whereas the other upper levels attend to the intellectual processes (Brady & Kennedy, 2003; Davies, 1976; Oliva, 2005). It can be maintained that the cognitive domain has been the highest concern for educators (Parsons, Hinson, & Sardo-Brown, 2001). The other taxonomies are known as affective and psychomotor domains. Affective domain that emphasizes feeling and emotion, was coined by David Krathwohl, Benjamin Bloom, and Bertram Masia. Five levels of affective domain from the lowest to the highest include receiving, responding, valuing, organization, and characterization by value or value complex. The third domain, psychomotor, stresses physical skills or dexterity, with seven level of classification namely perception, set, guided response, mechanism, complex overt response, adaptation, and origination. This domain was advocated by Robert Armstrong, Terry Cornell, Robert Kraner, and Wayne Roberson (Brady & Kennedy, 2003; Oliva, 2005). Oliva (2005) contends that it is common to have those three domain overlap. The verbs used for writing the objectives in three domains of learning are presented in Table 2.6.

Table 2.6 Verbs Defining Objectives in Domains of Learning

Domain	Level	Verbs
Cognitive	Knowledge	Define, describe, identify, label, list, name, recite, specify, state
	Comprehension	Delineate, explain, interpret, rephrase, restate, translate
	Application	Apply, arrange, calculate, classify, complete, construct, examine, illustrate, show, solve, use
	Analysis	Analyze, apply, categorize, compare, compile, contrast, isolate
	Synthesis	Compose, create, design, develop, formulate, invent, plan, propose
	Evaluation	Appraise, assess, criticize, evaluate, judge, justify, rate, recommend
Affective	Receiving	Accept, acquire, demonstrate awareness, listen to, share, select
	Responding	Appreciate, comply with, engage in, follow, praise, volunteer
	Valuing	Challenge, deny, endorse, express a preference for, show appreciation by stating, show concern by stating, support
	Organization	Adhere to, compare, defend, define, discuss, synthesize
	Characterization by value or value complex	Demonstrate empathy, display, express willingness to be ethical, modify behavior
Psychomotor	Perception	Distinguish, identify, select
	Set	Assume a position, demonstrate, show
	Guided response	Attempt, imitate, try
	Mechanism	Make habitual, practice, repeat
	Complex overt response	Carry out, operate, perform
	Adaption	Adapt, change, revise
	Origination	Create, design, originate

Sources: Brady & Kennedy (2003); Davies (1976); Oliva (2005)

Bloom's taxonomy, first proposed in 1956, was revised by Anderson and Krathwohl in 2001. The revised taxonomy has two dimensions: the knowledge dimension and the cognitive process dimension. The knowledge dimension consists of factual knowledge, conceptual knowledge, procedural knowledge, and metacognitive knowledge. The first three categories were a part of the original taxonomy. The cognitive process dimension comprises six levels: remember, understand, apply, analyse, evaluate, and create (Krathwohl, 2002).

Table 2.7 The Revised Bloom's Taxonomy

Knowledge Dimension	Cognitive Process Dimension
1. **Factual knowledge** Knowledge of basic elements/fundamental knowledge (terminology, specific details and elements). 2. **Conceptual knowledge** Interrelationships among the basic elements (classification and categories, principles and generalizations, theories, models, and structures). 3. **Procedural knowledge** Knowledge on how to do something (subject-specific skills algorithms, subject-specific techniques and methods, criteria for determining when to use appropriate procedures). 4. **Metacognitive knowledge** Cognition in general and one's own cognition (strategic knowledge, cognitive tasks, self-knowledge).	1. **Remember:** recognizing, recalling 2. **Understand:** interpreting, exemplifying, classifying, summarizing, inferring, comparing, explaining 3. **Apply:** executing, implementing 4. **Analyze:** differentiating, organizing, attributing 5. **Evaluate:** checking, critiquing 6. **Create:** generating, planning, producing

Source: Krathwohl (2002, p. 214-215)

Another key concept in considering educational offering is the topic of methods of teaching. Methods or instructions are influenced by various factors such as objectives, content, the teachers, the students, school facilities and the environment. A teaching method involves relations between teachers and the materials being used, teachers and students, organization of the content, activities, and presentations to students (Nicholls & Nicholls, 1978). Instruction/delivery of curriculum has dominated curriculum studies and projects (Johnson, 1967, as cited in Cooper, 2002). Joyce, Weil and Calhoun (2004, as cited in Morris and Adamson, 2010) proposed four groups of teaching methods: information processing models, social interaction models, personal models, and behavioural models, which are illustrated in the following passage.

The information processing model concerns students' capabilities to process information and refine their capacities. Academic rationalism that accentuates students' intellectual and rational development can be associated with these models. Some examples of information processing models are cognitive growth (Piaget,

1963), concept attainment (Bruner, 1967), inductive thinking (Taba, 1966), and scientific inquiry (Schwab, 1965). Social interaction models underline the concept of people to people relations: how to understand other people and appreciate their point of view, such as group investigation (Thelen, 1960), role play (Shaftel, 1967), and social inquiry (Massialas, 1966). Personal models emphasize individual development and the person's relationship with the environment. Examples of personal model teaching approaches include awareness training (Perls, 1951) and non-directive teaching (Rogers, 1971). Social efficiency and child-centred conceptions are related to the social interaction and personal development models. Behavioural models correspond to the changing of students' behaviour by reinforcement techniques. These models can be employed to teach knowledge and concepts, skills, and social attitudes. Some of these approaches include direct training (Gagne, 1962), contingency management (Skinner, 1953), and assertiveness training (Wolpe, 1958). Behavioural models can corresponds to all conceptions, specifically for skills training and development as well as the orthodoxy/ideological transfer (Morris & Adamson, 2010).

To measure the achievement of any set of objectives, assessment and evaluation are required. Assessment can be defined as the process to define, select, design, gather, examine, construe, and use information to enhance learning and development of students. Assessment takes place when measurement of outcomes predominate, while evaluation exists when judgements are administered to the assessment efforts (Ratcliff, 1997). Assessment and evaluation perform as a yardstick for the curriculum success and as a guide for the improvement of student learning and educational program (R. Tyler, 1949; Ratcliff, 1997). Morris and Adamson (2010) assert that curriculum evaluation is "the collection and provision of

evidence on the basis of which informed decisions can be made about curriculum" (p. 163). Evaluation is valuable in understanding and knowing about students' background and achievements (R. Tyler, 1949). Delivery and assessment are essential parts in a curriculum due to their relevancy to the aims, objectives and content of the curriculum (Cooper, 2002),

As cited in Morris and Adamson (2010), Kirkpatrick's 1994 study recommends four levels of evaluation: students' reaction, students' learning, students' behaviour and results. Students' reaction as the level one of evaluation signifies that students evaluate the courses they have studied through a survey, questionnaire, or focus groups. The level two of evaluation (students' learning) implies the forms of assessment. Evaluation of students' behaviour (level three) relies on the reflections of students, teachers and parents and it may be more difficult to assess. The last level (results) refers to the whole set of curriculum outcomes.

A diagram of curriculum components that consists of the aforesaid main elements, objectives, content, methods, and assessment/evaluation is presented in Figure 2.3.

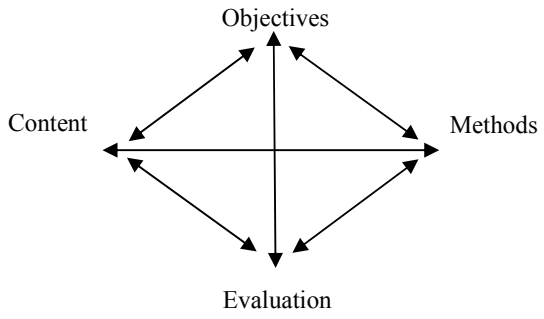


Figure 2.3 Curriculum Components
(Source: Nicholls & Nicholls, 1978, p. 16)

Curriculum Models

A model or framework is essential in designing a curriculum to provide better direction and planned educational experiences (Dopson & Tas, 2004). It describes and spells out how the curriculum functions (Ratcliff, 1997). Various models of curriculum have been developed, but one of the first to do so in a scientific manner was R. Tyler (1949), known as the Tyler's model (Cooper et al., 1996). Tyler's model was initially published as the syllabus for Education 360 at the university where he taught, the University of Chicago, in 1949. His work was then officially published by the university press, titled "Basic Principles of Curriculum and Instruction (Lincoln, 1992). Tyler's constructs or principles that form a paradigm for curriculum work is well-known, widely employed, and considered as the most influential (Lincoln, 1992; L. Tyler, 1991; W. Schubert & A. Schubert, 1991). Furthermore, Tyler's rational model uses an ends-means approach, and is viewed as a preeminent model to answer serious questions about the aims of education, selection and organization of education experiences, and evaluation (McNeil, 1996). Tyler's model is linear and is comprised of four critical elements that need to be answered in any curriculum and instructional plan development:

- What educational purposes should the school seek to attain?
- What educational experiences can be provided that are likely to attain this purposes?
- How can these educational experiences be effectively organized?
- How can we determine whether these purposes are being attained? (R. Tyler, 1949, p. 1)

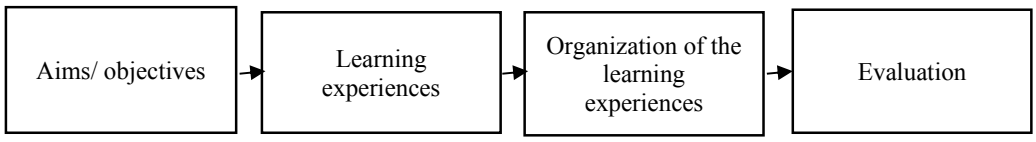


Figure 2.4 Tyler's Model
(Source: Cooper et al., 1996; R. Tyler, 1949)

R. Tyler (1949) believed that educational objectives are crucial in the education repertoire as an educational ends. They serve as the means for selecting and defining teaching materials and content, developing the instructions, and constructing the assessment methods. The sources of objectives, observed Tyler, are various and no single source of information can serve as the sole basis of the creation of the objectives. In defining the objectives, he suggests that the objectives can be derived from a study of the learners to specify the required change of behaviour of students, an observation and analysis of contemporary life outside the schools, a subject specialist, philosophy of education, and the psychology of learning.

Morris and Adamson (2010) argue that Tyler's first question relates to the curriculum development based on goals and the intended outcomes. They maintain that the goals can be described as academic goals (focus on intellectual ability), vocational goals (emphasis on preparing students for employment), social goals (students' moral and character development), personal goals (enhancement of self-awareness, physical growth and creativity), and cultural goals (focus on understanding the cultural heritage and/ or religion).

Learner experiences, the second topic of interest in Tyler's model, refers to the students' interaction with the external conditions/environment to which they can respond. It emphasizes active behaviour of students, that is what they do. There are five principles suggested by Tyler: opportunity to experience and practice the sort of

behaviour that is implied by the objectives, satisfaction obtained by students in performing the behaviour, appropriateness of the experience (within the range of students' capabilities), the use of various experiences to achieve the same objectives, and multiple outcomes that can be generated from the same objectives. Tyler's model accentuates the behavioural objectives and what should be considered when analysing or developing curriculum and selecting the instructions (Lincoln, 1992).

The third concern, organization of the learning experience, concentrate on the criteria for effective organization, the elements to be organized, and the organizing principles and structure. In developing effective learning experiences, there are three criteria that should be considered, namely continuity, sequence, and integration. The elements serve as the threads to use in the organization, such as concepts, skills, and values. To broaden or deepen the elements, organizing principles are used as the groundwork. Some common organizing principles include chronological, increasing range of activities and breadth of application, and development of certain principle to the broader principle. The other factor that is deemed important is the structure in which learning experiences are planned. The structure can be formulated as specific subjects, broad fields, and core curriculum.

The last level of interest in Tyler's model is the evaluation that is aimed to ensure that the organized learning experiences are generating desired results. The evaluation process should contemplate two major aspects. First, evaluation assess students' behaviour in terms of the changes intended through education. Second, evaluation needs to utilize more than one single appraisal. In addition, follow up evaluation for alumni is employed to gain evidence about the changes of behaviour after the instruction or learning have been accomplished. Evaluation can be administered is various ways, such as paper and pencil tests, observation, interview,

questionnaire, collection of actual products, and sampling. It is important to note that the evaluation process should be based on the educational program objectives.

In the context of tourism education, Dopson and Tas (2004) assert that the first question of Tyler's model can attend to competencies and values (knowledge, skills and values) of students. The second and third questions are more related to the curriculum issues such as what should be provided in the hospitality and tourism curriculum.

Cooper et al. (1996) observed several curriculum models as provided in the following discussion. Hirst (1978) developed a model based on Tyler's by replacing some elements with other terms such as content for learning experience and method for organization. Bligh (1975) argues that curriculum process could not merely be a one-way relationship as one element of a curriculum could impact the other elements. Drawing on Bligh, Eraut (1975) proposed an inter-relationship curriculum process and course design model as shown in Figure 2.5. Eraut maintains that each element is strongly correlated (double arrow) and any decisions taken on each element should reflect the aims of the course (dotted lines) (Cooper et al., 1996).

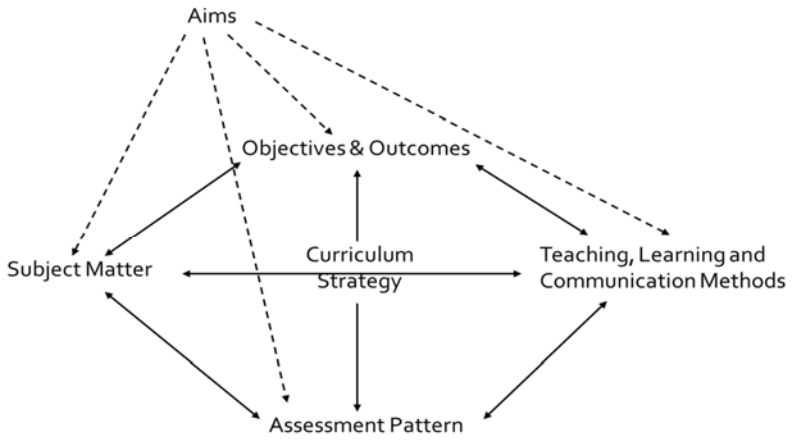


Figure 2.5 Eraut's Model
(Source: Cooper et al., 1996, p. 65)

A model constructed by Rowntree (1982) indicates the sequence of four elements (purposes, design of learning, evaluation and improvement) and constraints factor in the curriculum and course design (Figure 2.6) (Cooper et al., 1996).

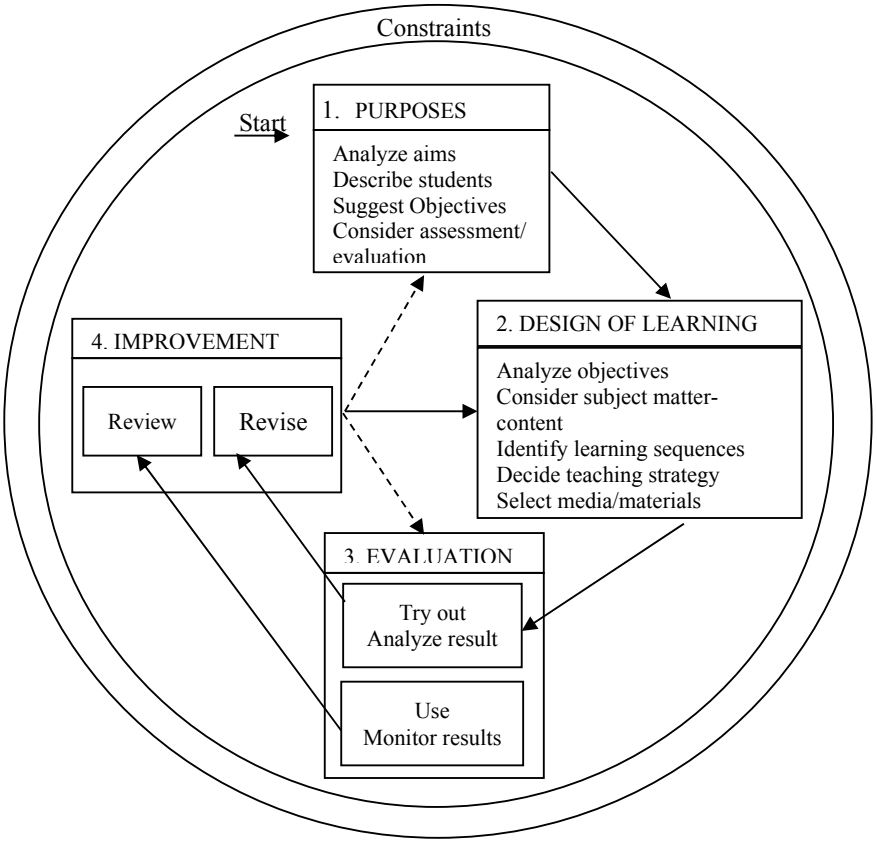


Figure 2.6 Rowntree's Model
(Source: Cooper et al., 1996, p. 66)

Manwaring and Elton's (1984) model combine several frameworks. Apart from the inter-connection between the fundamental factors in a curriculum and course design (aims, objectives, content, methods, assessment and evaluation), they also identify four types of constraint that may influence the curriculum and course design, namely costs, politics, attitudes of members and staff, and resources (Figure 2.7) (Cooper, 2002; Cooper et al., 1996).

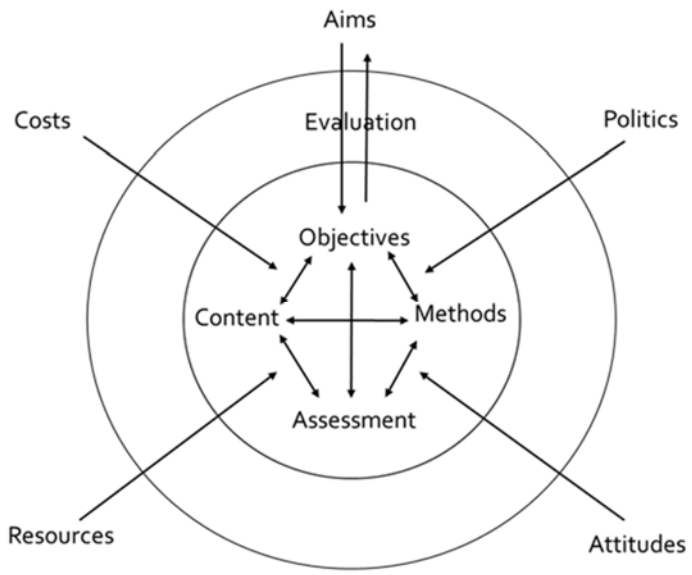


Figure 2.7 Manwaring and Elton's Model
(Source: Cooper et al., 1996, p. 67)

Building on Tyler's model, Kerr (1968) formulated the interconnections of the basic elements of a curriculum (objectives, knowledge, learning experiences and evaluation). His model is presented in Figure 2.8 (Cooper, 2002; Smith & Cooper, 2000).

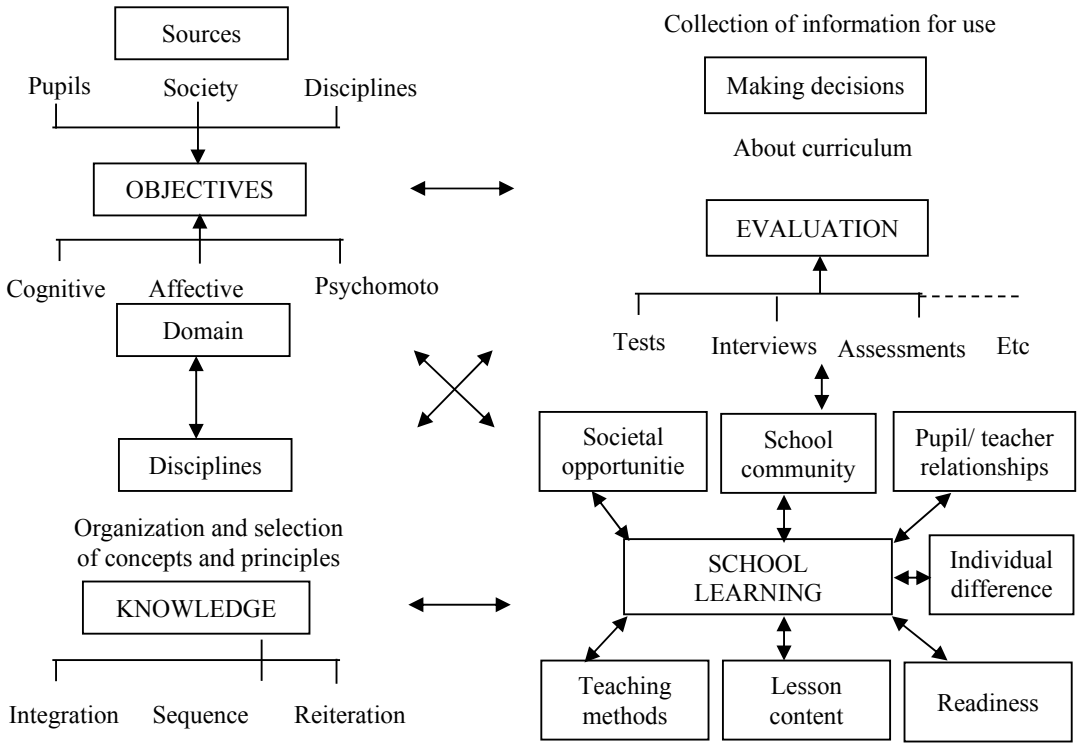


Figure 2.8 Kerr's Model
(Source: Smith & Cooper, 2000, p. 92)

It can be maintained from the figures that a curriculum comprises four key elements: the aims and objectives, the content, the methods of instruction and learning, and assessment/evaluation.

Eash (1991) advocates five components of a curriculum: framework of assumptions about the learner and society, aims and objectives, content or subject matter, modes of transaction, and evaluation. The first component, the framework of assumptions about the learner and society, is what to begin with in a curriculum construct. It concerns whether the curriculum should be based on: a) the students' needs, interest and ability, b) the needs of society (how the selection of a curriculum such as liberal arts, science, or vocational reflects the orientation to society in which

students will become a member), or c) reconciliation of the needs of students and society.

Aims and objectives as the second component are a critical dimension in the development of a curriculum. They provide direction to the subject matter selection, student experiences, and methods of delivery. They can be global or specific, directed towards specific behaviour development. Aims and objectives also reflect philosophical assumptions and positions, and may evolve as the culture and society change (Eash, 1991).

Subject matter as the third component may be designated on the basis of general education or specialized development. Subject matter can be defined as the content that has been carefully selected, prepared, and packaged to be used by the teachers and learners (Eash, 1991). In a curriculum, it is expedient to classify subject matter into general and specialized. General subject matter serves as the basis of liberal education, constituting a body of knowledge that is applicable for all society. Specialized subject matter refers to the specific knowledge needed for a particular occupation, and is designed for vocational, technical, and professional competencies (Ben-Peretz & Connelly, 1991). Phenix (1964, as cited in Ben-Peretz & Connelly, 1991) suggested four principles in selecting subject matter or curriculum content: content should be "drawn from the organized scholarly disciplines, chosen to exemplify the representative ideas of the disciplines, selected to exemplify the methods of inquiry in the disciplines, and appeal to the imagination of students" (p. 159).

The fourth component, the modes of transaction or methodology to teach subject matter, is regarded as the key determining factor in student outcomes due to their influence on students' attitude and content mastery. The modes of transaction

have a tendency to change from teacher-centric to student-centric focus. Wittrock (1986, in Eash, 1991) argued that most studies in curriculum construction are conducted in this area. Evaluation as the fifth component provides feedback and serves as a guide to student and teacher (Eash, 1991).

In the tourism education setting, Tribe (2002b) advocates a curriculum framework that seeks to satisfy the demands of business sectors, tourism, the society and the world (Figure 2.9). The framework, known as the philosophic practitioner curriculum has two dimensions, the ends and the stance. The ends dimension denotes the purpose of the curriculum and the stance refers to different modes of study, derives from the engagement with the ends. This model constitutes four main areas: liberal reflection, liberal action, vocational reflection, and vocational action. The curriculum of the philosophic practitioner incorporates all the four facets which promote a balance between employment and understanding the tourism phenomenon and demonstrating the stewardship role (Tribe 2002b; Tribe, 2005b).

Liberal reflection emphasizes the understanding of phenomenon and critical evaluation of tourism within society, and promotes creativity of thinking. Liberal action focuses on the notion of world-making, liberation, emancipation, and represents transforming action (from an understanding of the tourism world). Vocational reflection endorses transferable skills (problem solving and flexible thinking) and work placement, and encourages individual development from which knowledge is obtained through experiences and action. Vocational action advocates preparation for work (technical knowledge and skills intended to prepare students as potential manager) (Tribe 2002b; Tribe, 2005b). Tribe emphasizes that a tourism curriculum should convey the balance of the four components to strive for employability as well as practical ideology (Tribe, 2015).

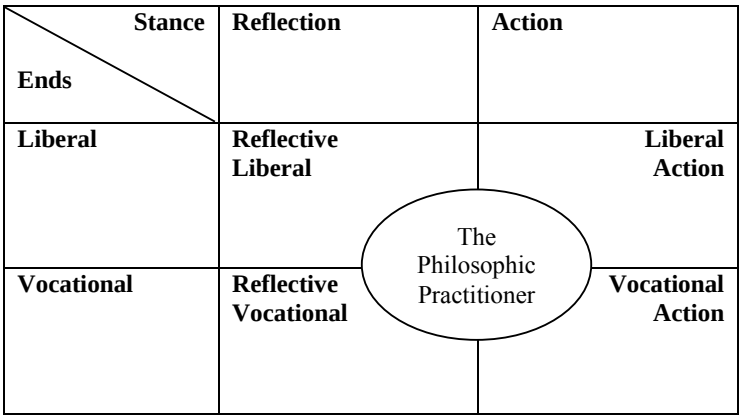


Figure 2.9 The Philosophic Practitioner
(Source: Tribe, 2002b, p. 348)

Emanating from Tribe's Philosophic Practitioner, Dredge et al. (2012c) propose a curriculum space that promotes the balance of liberal and vocational education. The structure contains three elements: knowledge *(episteme)*, capabilities *(techne)*, and practical wisdom *(phronesis)* of the life-long learning. Arguably, knowledge and capabilities (the first two elements under consideration) can be developed and coexist in both vocational and liberal education. The knowledge and skill dimension ranges from simple to complex knowledge. For the capabilities dimension the range is from basic skills to expert practice. The third attribute, phronesis, will be learned and practiced during the whole study program regardless of the focus of the educational paradigm (liberal or vocational). Dredge et al. recommend different curriculum spaces that can be adopted by an institution depending upon the purpose and programs of an institution or other influencing factors. The curriculum space "A" is designated to an institution that primarily aims for higher order knowledge within social science and humanities. The curriculum space "B" is intended for an institution that mainly attends to graduates capabilities, in which knowledge to some extent supports the capabilities.

2.3.2. Curriculum Design and Development

Curriculum design is the structure or pattern of a curriculum that is highly important for the quality enhancement of a higher education (Deghani, Pakmehr, & Jafari-sani, 2011; Klein, 1991). Curriculum design can be specified into two large families, namely curriculum design and curriculum development. Curriculum design identifies and defines the forming elements of a curriculum, while curriculum development describes the quality in implementing those elements (Ghourchian, 1993 as quoted in Deghani, et al., 2011). Curriculum development is a revision or enhancement that occurs for the existing educational program (Primrose & Alexander, 2013).

Designing a curriculum is intricate. It can be lengthy, challenging, and time consuming (Diamond, 2008; Dopson & Tas, 2004). Curriculum design and development are concerned with the students' learning experiences (Dredge et al., 2012a). Cooper (2002) asserts that the balancing issue between forces affects curriculum content, and stakeholders' demands are pressures that are continuously faced by the curriculum planner. A careful curriculum design therefore, is essential to address those issues. Diamond (2008) recommends that the basic sequence of a curriculum design should start with an assessment of needs and goals/objectives as they provide direction on where we are going. Clear definitions on the goals/objectives will lead to the proper design of content and instruction, implementation and assessment. His basic design sequence is presented in Figure 2.10.

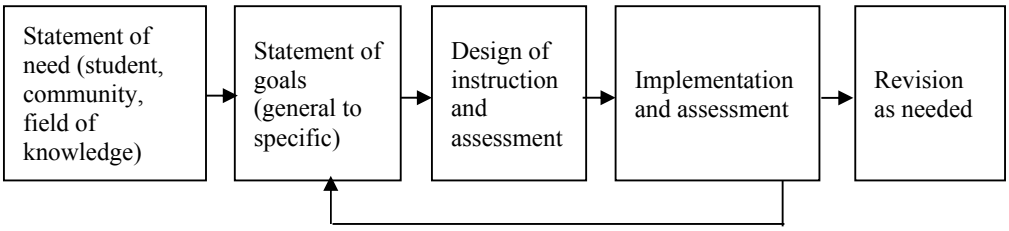


Figure 2.10 Sequence of Basic Design
(Source: Diamond, 2008, p. 10)

Various models of curriculum design suggest that the aims and objectives of the course should be paramount concerns (Tribe, 2005b). Tribe (2005b) specifies a typical sequence of curriculum design as follows:

> Establish rationale; conduct market research/consultation; define aims and objectives; establish modular structure; choose modules; establish learning outcomes for modules; determine assessment strategy; determine teaching and learning strategy; develop a system for validation, evaluation, review and improvement (pp. 52-53).

Morris and Adamson (2010) maintain that aims, goals and outcomes inform the purpose or meaning of a curriculum. They suggest that educational aims should reflect what to be attained through a curriculum and be derived from what is considered as most importance for the students. Clear aims are the ground for the selection of proper method which will match the stakeholders' needs. Objectives on the other hand, provide the basis of what students should learn (Cooper, 2002; Smith & Cooper, 2000). Cooper and Westlake (1989) call for a tourism course-planning that should be established by taking into account several major constituents. They include the definition of tourism (what tourism is) and its position in the course programs, course objectives (knowledge, skills, and behavior), delivery methods, materials, and assessment/evaluation.

Deriving from Barnett and Coate's (2005) curriculum design scheme (Figure 2.11), curriculum may well incorporate the concept of knowing, acting and being in which each domain has different weight according to the focus and values of a discipline (Dregde et al., 2012a). Knowledge correlates to cognitive (thinking) domain in Bloom's Taxonomy and ascribes capability to students to engage in an array of thinking abilities (Morris & Adamson, 2010). The knowledge domain is not static as it undergoes transformation. It is often viewed as a fundamental element in a curriculum where curriculum serves as the vehicle of the knowledge selection, organization of knowledge and delivery of knowledge. One of the changes in the knowledge domain is a performative shift which include repackaging knowledge through modularization or modular courses (offering courses in bite-size portions), and the use of technology to obtain knowledge in a more convenient and faster way. There is also a shift from propositional knowledge to an experiential knowing which encourages students to develop knowledge through practical tasks, problem solving, case study or on site experiences (Barnett & Coate, 2005).

The other domain, action, can be reflected in the practice or skills that students need to develop. Skills refer to an ability to perform a task and resembles psychomotor (physical action) domain. It provides an opportunity for students to apply their knowledge in practice. In a broader sense however, the action domain in a curriculum may be determined by the demand of a subject area or a task required for employment (Barnett & Coate, 2005; Morris & Adamson, 2010). Knowledge and skills themselves are probably not sufficient to develop students' capabilities. Students should not only excel in terms of intellectual and know-how, they should also be able to achieve personal development as a person and make a contribution to the society. These facets correspond to the attitude or affective domain. It reflects

how students demonstrate their attitudes to themselves, friends, family and society. Some examples of attitudes include honesty, tolerance, patience, and teamwork (Barnett & Coate, 2005; Morris & Adamson, 2010). Therefore, it is deemed necessary to have a certain level of integration between those three domains; knowing, acting and being (Barnett & Coate, 2005).

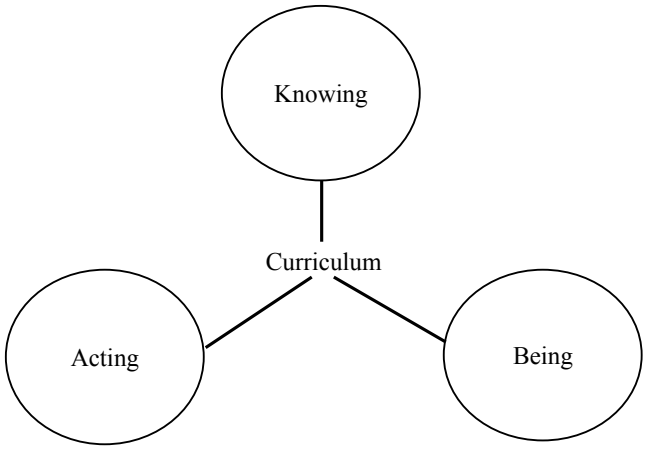


Figure 2.11 General Scheme of Curriculum
(Source: Dredge et al., 2012a, p. 15 as adapted from Barnett & Coate, 2005)

Klein (1991) argues that curriculum design is determined by a decision of two development levels: a broad level (basic value choices) and specific level (technical planning and implementation of curriculum components). At a broad level, curriculum design is influenced by a selection and use of three primary data sources, namely organized subject matter, students, and society/industry experts (Dopson & Tas, 2004; Klein, 1991 as cited from Tyler, 1950). Based on the studies of Beauchamp (1983) and Ornstein and Hunkins (1988), Klein (1991) asserts that the organized subject matter is the most frequently used data source in a decision of curriculum design.

There are four approaches in organizing subject matter in curriculum design: separate subjects, multidisciplinary, interdisciplinary, and broad fields. The separate subject treats each subject as a distinct area of the curriculum and no interrelation is included. For example are geology, physics and biology that are offered in the science curriculum. The multidisciplinary approach is the coordination of several subjects but the subjects are taught separately. For instance, a country's literature is taught in conjunction with geography and history. In the interdisciplinary approach, several separate subjects are related in teaching a topic. For example, the concept of energy is studied from the integrations of physical science, history and economics. Here, the concept can only be understood by studying the contribution of each subject. In the broad fields, the distinctions among different subjects are blurring. To understand a social world for an instance, it requires a combination of courses such as geography, history, sociology and economy (Klein, 1991).

The characteristics of organized subject matter as Klein further maintains appear in seven forms. First, the objectives appraise direction for learning and its achievement. Second, content and materials are selected and prepared by teachers/curriculum developer prior to instruction. Third, learning activities relate to the objectives and are designed to foster the behavioural changes of the students as determined in the objectives. Fourth, activities and teaching strategies are planned. Fifth, evaluation procedures are planned and aimed to define the students' achievement. The report is usually in the form of grades such as A, B, C. Sixth, instructions are mostly in a group setting and classrooms, and seventh, time is viewed as limited and should be used maximally.

A curriculum design that advocates the student as a data source relies on the students' needs, interests, abilities and experiences as a base of decision making in

determining the purpose of learning, content and materials selection, and the activities. This type of curriculum is often called experience-based curriculum, and is commonly adopted by free schools, alternative schools and open education. It emphasizes the individual development and interest. The characteristics of this student-based approach include non-predetermined outcomes or objectives, organization of content on the basis of students' active involvement and interest, a broad variety of materials, activities selected and planned by students that are not intended to meet the specified predetermined objectives, self-evaluation, flexible and spontaneous grouping depending on the need and for a short term, and unstructured space in which learning can take place in various settings such as classrooms or other areas in the school and community.

Society as a data source in a curriculum decision making has several characteristics: a) objectives do not serve as a main role, b) content focuses on the activities of social life, c) there is an emphasis on human relations and social skills as well as problem-solving process, d) there is a great diversity of materials, e) active participation of the students is required, f) use of various space within the school and community which relate to the problem under study are employed, and g) evaluation centres on problem resolution (Klein, 1991).

Klein also points out other sources in a curriculum design, namely competency approach, process skills, the humanistic of the person, and core curriculum. The competency approach is derived from any data source and stresses the clear-cut behavioural objectives and skills (what students need to learn). The behavioural objectives expound the specific competencies that should be acquired by students to function in a society. The process-based approach draws attention to the affective domain of human behaviour and personal development. It is similar to

the student centered style as a key source for curriculum design. The humanistic orientation is also compatible with the student as a data source approach but less clearly defined. The core curriculum (the most often cited approach in the literature) stresses the common learning that students are expected to achieve. It can employ the components of organized subject matter or be a society centred design.

Ratcliff (1997) recommends good practices in curriculum design. First, the aims, design, and evaluation should be coherent and built on a set philosophy. What should be taught, how it is being taught and how learning is evaluated must be well connected. Second, it should encourage the cognitive skill development.

As curriculum have different purposes and functions, the design must be the result of deliberate decision making which is compatible with the curriculum purpose. Creativity and adaptability are the essential elements of a curriculum design since continuous improvement according to the changing of society, knowledge and students is required (Klein, 1991). It can be maintained that we should not rely on a single curriculum model since the entire curriculum of a school cannot rely only on one single design (Gunn, 1998; Klein, 1991).

To generate broader perspective of curriculum design, Table 2.8 presents the structures of some hospitality and tourism curriculum design and development.

Table 2.8 Examples of Hospitality and Tourism Curriculum Design and Development Practice

Source	Context	Process/ Principles of Good Practice
Smith & Cooper (2000)	International School of Tourism and Hotel Management (ISTHM), Colegio Universitario del Este (CUE), Ana G. Mendez university System, Carolina,	1. Determine the mission, aims and objectives 2. Identify the skills and knowledge areas and ensure that the delivery of skills and knowledge are linked to all other elements of the curriculum - Intellectual abilities/core skills - Technical skills - Industry knowledge - Interpersonal skills - Professional skills 3. Develop the knowledge and skill matrix - Technical/ interpersonal skills - Technical/ intellectual skills

	Perto Rico	- Professional/ interpersonal skills - Professional/ Intellectual skills 4. Develop the course content - Prerequisite - Links (knowledge and skills that can be learned at the same time) - Timing - Rank of importance - Depth of knowledge and skills - Breadth of knowledge and skills that reinforces learning experiences 5. Evaluation techniques - Formative evaluation (to evaluate elements of the curriculum and for improvement) – performed by the institution - Summative evaluation (quality and output assessment) – performed by external parties such as accreditation agency
Dopson & Tas (2004)	University of Texas Hospitality Management Program, USA	Critical elements: - Committed and devoted faculty - Support from university administrator/ management - Industry board (if necessary) - Effective leader of the curriculum development process - Viability of financial and human resources 1. What should be in the curriculum? (competencies development) Obtain information through competency study (input from industry, faculty, students, alumni, literature) 2. Develop competency grid and match the course content to the program outcomes 3. Review the curricula from top 10 to 25 hospitality programs similar to own program 4. Identify the structure of the curriculum (percentage of upper and lower division courses, laboratory courses, courses offered by other departments, emphasis areas, capstone courses, internships) 5. Identify content areas (e.g. hospitality business content) 6. Identify any resources that may be needed (e.g. new laboratories, new facilities, new faculty) 7. Develop specific course outline based on program outcomes 8. Sequence and number new courses 9. Documentation and submission of new curriculum for university approval
Dredge et al (2012a p. 17) as adapted from Martinez & Rodger, 2012	Tourism, Hospitality and Event undergraduate programs in Australia	1. Curriculum by design, not by default - Curriculum should be guided a program's vision - Curriculum leaders should have knowledge on the content/discipline specific knowledge, program context and trends in higher education, university strategic plans, policies, priorities, and quality, faculty and school strategic plans and priorities, external accreditation process, and employment/ study pathway of students 2. Learning focused - Should be student centred-learning - Needs to know students and their resources and needs 3. Consultative and collaborative - Consultation with all staff involved with design and review - Include academics, sessional staff, professional and technical staff

	- Engage industry, professional associations and advisory committee 4. Aligned backwards from learner outcomes Backward mapping from program and course level learning outcomes and graduate attributes - Align outcomes with assessment items, resources, teaching and learning activities, learning environment - Deliberate horizontal and vertical integration of professional competencies throughout the curriculum 5. Explicit Designed should be explicit and communicated to stakeholders (via student handbook, course outline, marketing materials) 6. Accountable - Comply with government and university regulations/ requirements - Mapping of graduate attributes, assessment types, dates and competencies 7. Creative

From the existing practices, three lessons can be learned. These lessons are helpful in developing the curriculum framework for this study. Firstly, it is valuable to obtain perspectives from various stakeholders such as the faculty, industry, and students. Secondly, the development of graduate profiles/attributes should be considered. As a third pathway, purpose of an education program (aims and objectives) should be reviewed. From this third component it is then possible to address the required knowledge and skills, the development of the course content, the teaching and learning approaches, and linked assessment techniques.

2.3.3. Educational Philosophies and the Contemporary Approaches in Curriculum

The term philosophy can be defined as "the critical evaluation of assumptions and argument and as the clarification of concepts crucial to the ideas subjected to such critical evaluation" (Hultsman, 1995, as cited from Raphael, 1981, p. 554). It can be further classified into the philosophy of knowledge and the

philosophy of practice. The former attends to epistemology, logic, psychology, science and metaphysics, while the latter addresses ethics, law, social policy, and politics (Hultsman, 1995, as quoted from Raphael, 1981).

Philosophy in education plays significant roles for the theory and practice of education. Philosophical awareness and understanding, however, are still often viewed as superfluous or trivial aspect in education repetoire (Wilson, 2003). Furthermore, philosophy is often overlooked in a curriculum design although it is a fundamental element in developing and designing a curriculum. Philosophy serves as a groundwork in defining an institution's aims, goals, ideology and key concepts, subjects matters, teaching and learning approaches, and assessment methods (Ornstein & Hunkins, 2009; Tribe, 2015). R. Tyler (1949) asserts that a philosophy endorsed by an institution can function as an initial screen and may affect the selection of educational objectives. Philosophical inquiry provides guidance and direction for teachers to decide what activities should be done based upon a critical question on why should we teach this way. Teachers will be able to discern values, knowledge and actions they believe in order to define their own practice (e.g. make a plan, establish methods of delivery and classroom management, evaluate outcomes) (Dunn, 2005).

With this regards, Wilson (2003) pointed out the importance of understanding philosophy of education for educators. Richard Peters, a British professor of educational philosophy argued that teachers should be given a training on educational philosophy as its absence may deprive teachers of critically thinking about complex issues such as implementation of new practices in schools or introduction of policy decision. Being able to think philosophically about education will aid teachers to gain profound understanding of educational policies and may

enhance the efficacy of the rules and practices of a school (Clark, 2013). As noted in Clark (2013), Peters acknowledged three key features that should be taught to teachers. First is the philosophy of mind (clarification of concepts such as education, interests, and needs). Second is the ethics and social philosophy (e.g. purpose of education, content, and methods of delivery). Third is the theory of knowledge (such as philosophical issues about curriculum and certain subjects). Moreover, educators should have their own philosophy of education as a personal credo that is built upon an understanding of philosophical positions, and not merely based on their intuition. As noted, philosophy proceeds by reasons or facts rather than by for instance, personal discernment.

Four major educational philosophies have been broadly recognized: perennialism, essentialism, progressivism, and reconstructionism. Perennialism and essentialism originated from Aristotle's realism and Plato's idealism. They are aimed at intellectual development and viewed as traditional and conservative philosophies. Curriculum using those approaches are generally subject- and teacher-centered; they accentuate knowledge and information, favor classical learning, and promote traditional instruction methods. Essentialism, however, does not give too much emphasis to the past and permanent studies (Dunn, 2005; Oliva, 2005; Ornstein & Hunkins, 2009).

Perennialism, the most conservative and oldest educational philosophy, urges that the truth is perpetual, static, and universal (Dunn, 2005; Oliva, 2005; Ornstein & Hunkins, 2009). A perennialism based curriculum is planned and intended for all students. The subjects offered in this curriculum place heavy emphasis on rationality, aesthetics, spiritual concerns, ethics and moral topics (e.g. philosophy, language, mathematics, science, art, history). Mortimer Adler is renowned as the

proponent of perennialism with his prominent book "The Paideia Proposal: An Educational Manifesto", published in 1982 (Dunn, 2005; Kauchak & Eggen, 2011; Ornstein & Hunkins, 2009; Ornstein, Levine, Gutek, & Voche, 2014). Essentialism philosophy supports conceptual thoughts, facts, knowledge, and problem solving skills deemed essential in today's world. Its curriculum calls for academic excellence and cognitive and intellectual development. The content, therefore, stresses academic subjects, mastery of concepts, and essential skills such as math, science and technology, and liberal arts. Essentialism curriculum is more adaptive than the perennialist's due to its applied knowledge (Kauchak & Eggen, 2011; Oliva, 2005; Ornstein & Hunkins, 2009).

Progressivism and reconstructionism are viewed as contemporary and liberal philosophies that are rooted in a pragmatism approach. This approach promotes human experience as a basis for the process of knowing (Oliva, 2005; Ornstein & Hunkins, 2009; Zais, 1976). Mosier (1952) asserted that progressivism is a point of departure for understanding the types of contemporary educational philosophy as this ideology was formed by a number of predispositions of pragmatism, experimentalism, and instrumentalism. Progressivism suggests practical and theoretical methods in education or learning, learner-centered style, discovery learning, and the personal growth and creativity of students (Darling & Nordenbo, 2003; Moore, 2000). An opponent of progressivist philosophy, John Dewey (1923, 1938), encouraged active learning, real-world based problem solving and knowledge leading to growth. Dewey (1986) argued that the means and goal of education (both for individual learner and society) lies in the experience. The other prominent figures who promoted learner-centered concepts have included Johan Amos Comenius, Jean Jacques Rousseau, Johann Heinrich Pestalozzi, and Friedrich

Froebel. Comenius is the Czech philosopher and pedagogue that believed in natural education as expressed in his influential book *Didactica Magna* or Great Didactic. Progressivism is a mode of psychologism (Moore, 2000). Curriculum using the progressivism approach is an activity oriented curriculum that is intended for individual development. Its curriculum content combines liberal arts, practical and vocational subjects and it is formed to stimulate students' thinking and active involvement (Darling & Nordenbo, 2003; Kauchak & Eggen, 2011; Ornstein & Hunkins, 2009; Zais, 1976).

A standpoint of reconstructionism is on social issues in today's society. This society-centered education endorse a curriculum that promotes active learning associated with common problems in society and how they are addressed and resolved. Topics for study accentuate issues in socio-economic, ethics, gender, labor, and political power (Kauchak & Eggen, 2011; Ornstein & Hunkins, 2009).

In choosing a philosophy, it is common and generally accepted to employ an eclectic approach that combines two or more philosophies such as essentialism and progressivism. The incorporation of such an approach can be in the form of progressive essentialist (essentialists who promote progressive thinking) or essentialist progressivitist (progressivists who endorse essentialist ideas) (Dunn, 2005; Oliva, 2005).

Kauchak and Eggen (2011) observe that philosophical discourse is derived predominantly from the Western perspectives (America and Europe) with an emphasis on individual and rational thinking. The perennialism and essentialism philosophies concern with individual development is reflected in the individual's growth of knowledge. The concept of individualism is also favored by progressivism that portrays the interaction of an individual with the environment. Rationale

thinking is viewed in both essentialism and progressivism as a way of knowing (epistemology). Critics of Western oriented philosophy indicate that epistemology or knowledge seeking also appears in the philosophies of other cultures and at time in other ways (Kauchak & Eggen, 2011). This issue of cross cultural world views and philosophies will be considered further in later sections of this review.

In the course of developing an epistemological stance, Young (2013, 2014) and Young and Muller (2013) advocate a concept of "powerful knowledge" that is instigated from the notion of student's entitlement to knowledge or the epistemic access. The concept of powerful knowledge is derived from the French sociologist, Emile Durkheim, as well as the work of Vygostky and Basil Bernstein. It is believed that the purpose of a curriculum in a more contemporary society is to utilize knowledge to create new knowledge, and not just to transmit knowledge. He insists that curriculum must start from a student's entitlement to knowledge rather than from student as learner. Young segregates concepts into two types: theoretical concept and the everyday or common sense concept. The powerful knowledge is differentiated and specialized knowledge that is developed by specialist communities/disciplinary specialist. It is distinct from everyday knowledge and experiences that students bring to school. As noted by Young (2013, p. 245), "… they are located in specialist communities that define their concepts, rules and practices, and the boundaries that distinguish them, define their objects and provide constraints that can be source of innovation and creativity". The knowledge is also systematically interrelated with one another and shared in the groups of subjects.

Powerful knowledge applies to the theoretical concepts associated with the academic subjects or disciplines with certain rules, constraints, and boundaries. Subjects are formed by the re-contextualization of the knowledge of the disciplines

and serve as a device and resources for students to attain the powerful knowledge. Some examples of powerful knowledge subjects are science, technology, engineering, and mathematics. Those subjects are viewed as powerful because they provide generalization, explanation and prediction beyond the everyday, non-specialized knowledge. In other words, knowledge can be called powerful if it explains, predicts, and enables people to foresee and contemplate in different way and take us beyond a certain context. Other subjects or concepts that have generalizing capacities are ethics (universal principle of how people should treat others), social sciences (generalization to specific contexts), and arts and humanities (Young, 2013, 2015; Young & Muller, 2013)

Schön (1983) endorses the epistemology of practice that seeks the kind of knowing in which a practitioner should engage. His notion, known as the reflective practitioner, goes beyond the ordinary practical knowledge of knowing-in-action. Reflection in practice means that "we can think about doing something while doing it" and not just thinking about doing (p. 54). The reflection should embrace the reflecting "on" action along with reflecting "in" action to reinforce continuous learning. The concept of reflective practice lies in the dialectic process of thought and action which emphasizes personal experiences, theory and ideas, openness to a discovery of phenomenon, and reflection. It contributes to professional growth that leads to a skillful and effective practitioners (Osterman, 1990). Conceptualizing the reflective practice in an education context, it can be suggested that the aims of learning are not only to seek knowledge, but also to gain understanding and meaning through experiences for the creation of new knowledge. In this way, learners are encouraged to take an active role in knowledge development. The reflective practice values collaboration and communication or dialogues for learning (Osterman, 1990).

Postmodernism exponents believe that there is no universal/absolute truth. The approach promotes diversity, innovation, change, and openness. Reality can be seen as an integration between ideas and experience, although it has cultural restrictions. Michael Foucault is one of the most eminent postmodernism philosophers (Dunn, 2005).

Doll (1993) proposes a post-modern perspective on curriculum in which he suggests that education is an open system and the curriculum, therefore, should be rich, recursive, relational, and rigorous. The richness of curriculum means that curriculum provides multiple interpretations or meaning through "dialogue, interpretations, hypothesis generation and proving, and pattern playing" (p. 177). Being recursive is a reflection on our own work. "Recursion aims at developing competence - the ability to organize, combine, inquire, use of something heuristically" (p. 178). It is deemed a vital element in a curriculum as knowledge is built upon reflection (Varbelow, 2012). The relational dimension has two foci, pedagogical and cultural, in which there should be interrelatedness in all facets. Rigor denotes the process of becoming reflective learners who are constantly searching and exploring new motifs/patterns, arrangements, and meaning (Doll, 1993). Doll's model promotes transformation of knowledge and exploration of what is unknown in the process of teaching through learner interaction and reflective action. It fosters higher order thinking skills, creativity, and reflectivity.

The previously mentioned philosophical approaches are important considerations for building the curriculum framework. They serve as the starting-point for curriculum development.

2.3.4. Curriculum in Hospitality and Tourism Education

The growth of tourism worldwide has resulted in the expansion of the hospitality and tourism education and training programs and the need of preparing the curricula (Gunn, 1998). Curriculum issues, however, have been a perennial topic of discourse in hospitality education (Dopson & Nelson 2003). Curriculum development processes and the standardization of the curriculum are rather difficult tasks for hospitality and tourism educators, which is probably due to several factors such as the relative youth of tourism as a subject area, various approaches and models of hospitality and tourism education, and the philosophies being embraced (Cooper, 2002; Cooper et al., 1996; Gunn, 1998; William, 2005). Another concern is the structure of hospitality and tourism management curricula that had shifted from home-economics based to the business-related programs since the early eighties (Chathoth & Sharma, 2007). As advocated by various scholars (such as Cooper & Westlake, 1998; Tribe, 1997; Gee, 1999; Evans, 2001), a wide range of courses offered in business management curriculum are in favour of vocational and managerial objectives (Morgan, 2004). Another perspective suggests that hospitality curriculum should compel the current needs of the industry to content with its primary aim to provide competent managers (Dopson & Nelson 2003).

Tribe (2015) argues that the immaturity and epistemology (what knowledge should be incorporated into the curriculum) are some pivotal issues in today's tourism curriculum. Tribe further notes that in the tourism education context, it is probably rather customary that curriculum is unintentional and path-dependent. He asserts that curriculum might be formed and decided on the basis of 12Ps (power, pals, patronage, precedent, pragmatism, pleading, parochialism, parsimony,

prospects, popularity, politicians, path dependency). Tourism curriculum, either by design or accident, can be distinguished into vocational/commercial and non-vocational/non-commercial curriculum. The prominence of vocational/commercial curriculum is on employability, operational competencies, and academic business subjects, whereas the underlining of non-vocational/non-commercial curriculum is the academic critical subjects and tourism analysis (Tribe, 2015). In practice, some institutions may favour academic emphasis, while others are purely vocational and offer for example a culinary focus, or a combination of academic and vocational approach or as an enrichment of traditional discipline (Christou, 2002; Cooper et al., 1996; Cooper & Westlake, 1989; R. Lewis, 1993; Williams, 2005).

Building on the broad discussion of curriculum in the educational literature, a curriculum structure should therefore take into account a proper learning objectives, what students need to learn in every level of their study, and the duration required to study a particular course (R. Lewis, 1993; Rainsford, 1997). It is important for hospitality and tourism educators to review key variables in planning a curriculum for hospitality and tourism study as presented below.

Tourism Scope

Tourism field is very broad and constitutes many more components than simply the business sector. They may include attractions, transportation, services, information, promotion, travel agent, convention, music festivals, sports, airlines, parks, historic sites, accommodation, and many others. Hence, a careful decision should be made regarding the scope of curriculum. The curriculum may focus on specific element or encompass the broad sphere of whole sector (Gunn, 1998).

Level of Education and Training and Purposes

Howell and Uysal (1987) classifies tourism training and education into two key areas: vocational training and professional education. Vocational training is the provision of skills for a particular job level such as front-line services and maintenance personnel. Professional education is designed for managers, planners, researchers, and marketers. Morgan (2004) contends that vocational courses should be designed on the ground of the needs of specific industry. Both education and training are required for tourism. They should have an equivalent level of prestige and priority. Hence, curriculum for education and training should be developed at various levels, as the levels of education and training would influence the content of curricula (Gunn, 1984, 1998).

In regards to the purpose, Ritchie, Sheehan and Timur (2008) propose two mainstreams of tourism programs, the science stream and the management stream. The former is intended to teach students about tourism and science of tourism, and to prepare them to become academics, researchers and consultant. Tourism science programs should provide an in-depth knowledge and understanding of tourism principles. The management stream provides learning on how to manage tourism destination effectively.

"The Home" of the Programs

Where do hospitality and tourism study belong? This question has often been discussed and debated. Eder and Umbreit (1988) maintained that the home of hospitality management program in a university was unclear as the programs could be found in many settings. The programs can be located within business studies, geography, social sciences, anthropology, recreation and sports, leisure, hotel and

restaurant administration, or as an independent department (Gunn 1998; Jafari & Ritchie, 1981; Smith & Cooper, 2000). It is also common to find hospitality and tourism programs attached within the home economics or business administration (Fenich, 1999; Jafari & Ritchie, 1981; Olsson & Martinsson, 2007). It can be observed that the focus of tourism study has been on the economic facets (Olsson & Martinsson, 2007). Based upon Gunn and Johnson's 1998 study, Airey (2004) contends that tourism degree courses are mainly located in business and management, followed by environmental/geography/social science, and then leisure and sport, hospitality and tourism. The location of tourism programs will affect the development of tourism curriculum and research.

The Philosophy

Philosophy is expedient for its methods and content that implanted in the quest of finding answers and solutions to life's big questions (Caton, 2015). To develop a solid ground for the coursework and competencies development, a philosophical position should be constructed. Although courses may change following current trends, a philosophy underpinning a curriculum remains the same. A philosophical position is the tool to define purposes and directions of a program (Chen & Groves, 1999). Mayo and Thomas-Haysbert (2005) argue that a program's philosophy must be clearly identified before determining competencies. Philosophy addresses the "why" question on something that you do (why you want to do it), while goals and objectives refers to what you want to do (Chen & Groves, 1999). Howell and Uysal (1987) suggest that philosophy should serve as a groundwork for tourism academic education. The aims of tourism education should go beyond producing students for employability. A philosophical foundation is valuable in

providing students with knowledge and critical thinking skills on the impact of tourism to the society and economy (Inui & Wheeler, 2006). Philosophy can aid students to deal with the complex issues of tourism, providing the skills in making ethical judgement, critique, and independent reasoning. It also helps students to think and create a link between tourism practices, social issues, and inquest on meaning and value in social/human life (Caton, 2015).

Following John Dewey (Logic: A theory of inquiry, 1938), philosophy is the general principle of education that has a critical role in the determination of educational aims, content, and organization (Primrose & Alexander, 2013). Dewey (1986) argued that philosophy is the initial stage and choice in a curriculum design that will influence a program decision and the component of any curriculum, as well as the whole educational experience (Fidgeon, 2010; Scotland, 2006; Tribe, 2002a). Statements of educational philosophy can attend to such queries as follows:

> Should the educated man adjust to society, or should he attempt to improve the society in which he lives?; Should the school develop young people to fit into the present society as it is or does the school have a revolutionary mission to develop young people who will seek to improve the society? (R. Tyler, 1949, p. 35).

If an educational institution or program puts emphasis on the former question (teach people to adjust to the society), thus it will focus on the "loyalty to the present forms and traditions" and "skills in carrying on the present techniques of life". Whereas the latter question is concerned with "critical analysis, ability to meet new problems, independence and self-direction, freedom, and self-discipline" (R. Tyler, 1949, p. 36). Another question deals with the primary aim of a school: general education or specific vocational preparation. Hence, the philosophy of a school can affect the

educational objectives (R. Tyler, 1949). It can be noted that despite the importance of philosophy in a curriculum design, the discussion on aims and values of the curriculum is still limited in the tourism literature (Fidgeon, 2010). This account is aligned with Siegel's (2016) assertion that such discussion is hardly addressed in the educational plan/strategy albeit the importance of educational aims as the guidelines of educational activities.

Barrows (1999) asserted that the major philosophies of hospitality education can be articulated in the consolidation of formal education and the real-world experience/practical experience. Yet questions regarding the curriculum structure, the future of the graduates, the purpose and missions of hospitality programs, and how hospitality programs should be managed remain a perennial debate.

Chen and Groves (1999) suggest three models of tourism and hospitality education based on the philosophical relationships between hospitality and tourism curricula (Figure 2.11). Their models are drawn from Elfrink and Anthony's 1995 studies and McIntosh's 1992 study. Model 1 shows an independency between hospitality and tourism courses which can be regarded as the content-specific. Some subjects overlap in this model. The course content may include geography, language, information systems, marketing, general business management, and economics. In Model 2, hospitality is more dominant than tourism. The layers (one to four) indicates the scope of tourism role in relation to the hospitality. In this model, hospitality tends to emphasize business management and has areas of specialization such as hotels, restaurants, casino, clubs, convention, and catering. Tourism is viewed as a travel sector and a service that relates to the hospitality industry (e.g. travel agency and tour organization). The programs within this model are typically professionally based, and using job and skill training approach and

applied research. In Model 3, tourism is in the dominant position and viewed as an important aspect of the economic sector and development. It focuses on the influence of cultural, social and ecological development. Courses usually relate to tourism planning, tourism impact, tourism geography, and tourism economics. Hospitality in this model is established to support the tourism industry and often covers the area that relates to hotels, food service and guest relations. Generally, a tourism four-year program is designed with a focus on liberal arts and general tourism courses, plus specialization subjects. The relationships presented in the models may inform the basic philosophical positions that influence the curriculum development.

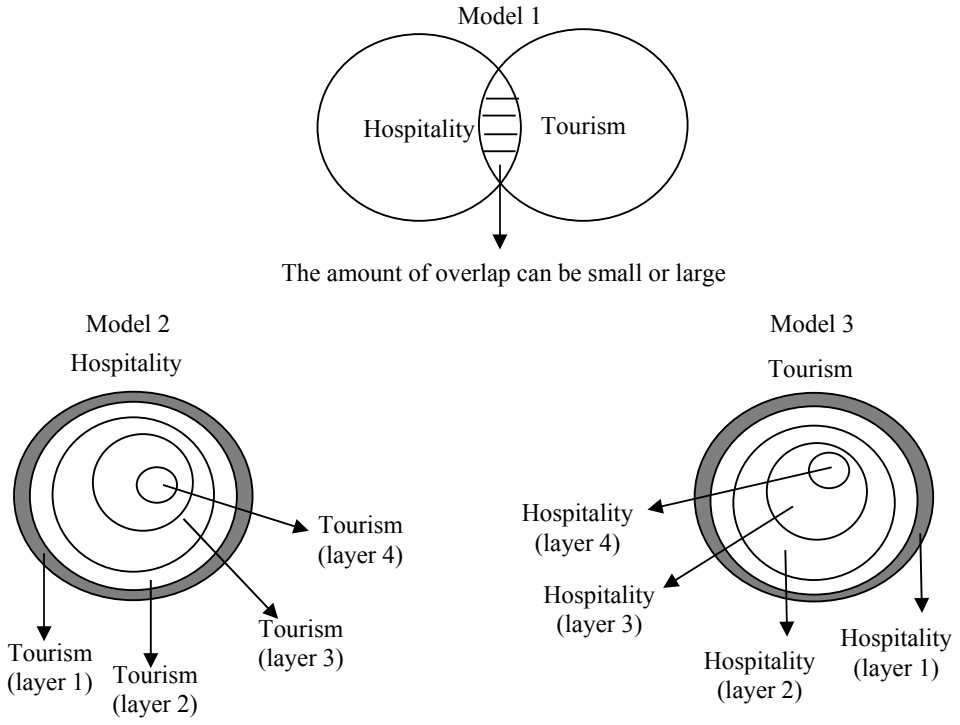


Figure 2.12 Tourism and Hospitality Education Models
(Source: Chen & Groves, 1999)

In regards to a philosophy of teaching, Bosselman (1999) noted three certain approaches; cognitive, behaviourist, and humanistic. Cognitive approach promotes students' ability to explore information and skills to solve problems and to make decisions. Students are viewed as active leaners or active seekers. Behaviorist endorses the use of reinforcement in learning to create a particular learning environment. Humanistic approach emphasizes student-centered learning where the role of the lecturers are to facilitate the learning process. Bosselman maintained that the best approach for hospitality education is probably the one that stimulates and motivates students to attain knowledge and awareness concerning social, cultural, political, and ecological issues.

Another perspective was asserted by Paris (2011) who proposed social constructivism position for tourism education and learning. He argued that this approach is seen as coherent with tourism study as it stresses social activity in the global and diverse environment. Constructivism approach suggests that through a reflection of our experience we can understand the world and revamp our experience (Chicoine, 2004). Using this approach, knowledge was created by the learners and can be gained through active, creative, and self-directed learning such as interactivity, collaboration, problem-based learning, discussion, and presentation (Chicoine, 2004; Paris, 2011).

Chicoince (2004) suggested nine approaches that can be applied in social constructivism learning. Paris (2011) adopted his methods for tourism education. The first strategy of this approach is to create an active and creative learning environment where students can learn from projects (e.g. research and experimentation) to deal with the challenging tourism issues. Second, lecturers should be able to make the projects and issues stimulating and relevant with the real-

world. The third strategy is to share the ownership of a curriculum with the students so that they know what they learn, how they learn, and how they will be assessed. Fourth, intensive and constant feeback is required to enhance a productive reflection which will lead to a better and more profound understanding (e.g. portfolio assessment, peer assessment, student conferences). Fifth, lecturers should play a role as a mentor and facilitator to the students and empower the students to think and solve problems. The sixth method is the development of metacognitive skills and self regulation. Seventh, lecturers need to create strategies to challenge the students' ability to think critically and to appreciate different perspectives. Eight, lecturers should be able to enhance discussion of ideas and feelings in an open and innocuous environment where intellectual risk is fortified. Ninth, lecturers should provide diverse opportunities for collaborative works through for instances, small group discussions, debates, and projects (Chicoine, 2004; Paris, 2011).

Multi- and Inter- Disciplinary Approaches

The terms multidisciplinary and interdisciplinary are commonly used interchangeably although they are not equivalent (Leiper, 1981). A multidisciplinary approach refers to a combination and involvement of more than one discipline that contribute to a topic of study. It takes place when two or more disciplines deal with a topic/problem based from their own perspectives without any interaction. An interdisciplinary approach on the other hand, requires a blending and integration between two or more disciplines to understand a certain phenomenon. Such an approach fosters the coproduction of knowledge by the contributing research partners (Darbellay & Stock, 2011; Leiper, 1981). Davis (1995) asserts that multidisciplinary denotes "several disciplinary specialists working side by side in an

additive way" (p. 4). It can also be defined as knowledge that derives from a various range of discipline (Airey, 2004). The multidisciplinary approach may contribute to the knowledge advancement of hospitality and tourism even though it may also prevent the development of indigenous hospitality and tourism theory (Weaver & Lawton, 2010). In the multidisciplinary courses, several faculties share their perspectives and ideas to the students, and it is up to the students to interpret and integrate the underlying assumptions (Klein & Newell, 1997).

Interdisciplinary is the integrated works of scholars in two or more disciplines, sub-disciplines or professions, with the aim to gain and present new understanding or perspectives. The interdisciplinary courses involve the subject matter and faculty expertise of two or more disciplines/professional specializations. The creation of an interdisciplinary course begins with a topic. Several disciplines then will be applied to explore the topic. Thus, the subject is a new subject that is invented by the faculty from some disciplines (Davis, 1995). The starting point of an interdisciplinary course begins with the particular topic, themes, issues, competencies, or problems, instead of a discipline (Davis, 1995; Klein & Newell, 1997). In short, interdisciplinary courses organize their approach through unified subject matter (Batts, 1991). Klein and Newell (1997) maintain that the general and liberal education is viewed as the most prominent sites of interdisciplinary studies due to their substantial growth in subject-matter areas such as international studies and multicultural and gender studies.

In the interdisciplinary courses (individual or team teaching), faculties cooperate in designing a course by exploring the underlying assumptions and transforming their points of view in the process (Klein & Newell, 1997). A combination of disciplinary courses, multidisciplinary and interdisciplinary

approaches, is common in the interdisciplinary programs. Once the purpose of curriculum is well set, the organization of the course should be defined, concerning the knowledge that will be delivered and the text that will be used. Finally, the sequence of the course should be specified. Interdisciplinary pedagogy encourages dialogue, problem-solving, and an integrative habit of mind, such as collaborative work in a group project (Klein & Newell, 1997). Some of the mechanisms include:

> Capstone seminars, thesis, essays and projects; coordinated alignment of parallel disciplinary courses; clustering of disciplinary courses around a common integrative seminar or discussion groups; organizational structure based on a topic, theme, issue, problem or question; specific integrative approaches, theories, or concepts; course learning portfolios and academic career portfolios; a specific learning model; common living arrangements, shared facilities and equipment; field work, work experience, travel study (Klein & Newell, 1997, p. 405).

An example of interdisciplinary learning is study through travel at Eastern Michigan University: the theme is Cultural History Tours. A number of faculties from history, literature, art and political science work together and provide learning in the form of a dialogue which takes place in the museum sites, monuments and ruins throughout Europe and Asia (Klein & Newell, 1997).

Tribe (1997) contends that the main methods of inquiry used in how the tourism field is presented encompass multidisciplinarity, interdisciplinarity, business interdisciplinarity, and extradisciplinarity. In the higher education context, tourism studies are relatively crystallized within business interdisciplinarity. The epistemology of multidisciplinarity is informed by the application of the fields to the new topic (e.g. the Tourism multiplier is a concept results from the economics and

tourism fields) (Tribe, 1997). Epistemology of general interdisciplinarity comes from an agreement among disciplines being adopted. Typically the researchers involved use their disciplines to work out mutually agreeable ways to understand and view the topic. (e.g. Tourism mobilities is a concept, with a hybrid epistemological underpinning, resulting from the merging of ideas across the sociology, leisure and geography research fields; destination carrying capacity brings together economics, sociology, and biology) (E. Cohen & S. Cohen, 2015, Tribe, 1997). The epistemology of business interdisciplinarity can be derived from either disciplines or the world of practice (e.g. Marketing of tourism), while the epistemology of extradisciplinary comes from the problem-solving capability (e.g. Yield management) (Tribe, 1997). In short, it can be defined that multidisciplinary knowledge derives from several discrete disciplines, interdisciplinary knowledge originates from the authentic new knowledge as a result of an integration of two or more disciplines, and extradisciplinary knowledge arises from outside the academic domains (Airey, 2004).

Airey (2004) suggests that tourism knowledge should be derived from the interdisciplinary knowledge if it is intended to become an area of academic endeavour. Yet multidisciplinary concept still heavily drives how tourism is being studied due to the nature of the study as pre-paradigmatic course. The research object is disintegrated into various dimensions but juxtaposed without any interface (Darbellay & Stock, 2011; Pearce, 1993). Gunn (1998) argues that tourism may adopt a multidisciplinary approach as tourism is not a distinct discipline and thus relies on information from other disciplines. For instance, tourism economics study may need a curriculum that comprises management, finance, business, entrepreneurship and political science as in economics.

As an applied area of study, Jafari and Ritchie (1981) contended that different types of disciplinary approaches were needed to study tourism, such as cross-disciplinary studies (examining one discipline from other discipline's perspectives), multidisciplinary studies (observing a topic or issue from several disciplines without an integration of idea), interdisciplinary studies (integrating concepts of ideas to solve a problem), and transdisciplinary studies (beyond the disciplines). Of those four disciplinary, the transdisciplinary model is deemed to be ideal in learning tourism, however, multidisciplinary or interdisciplinary approaches are easier to be employed due to some constraints (Jafari & Ritchie, 1981).

Stakeholders' Perspectives on the Employment Competencies

Hospitality education is often driven by industry requirements as its emergence was a result of the demand for competent managers (Nelson & Dopson, 2001). Meeting the industry's current and future needs have been widely addressed and discussed in designing many hospitality and tourism curricula (Felisitas et al., 2012; Gursoy et al., 2012; Jayawardena, 2001; Mills et al., 2009; Nelson & Dopson, 2001; Williams, 2005). Consultation with the industry's stakeholders on curriculum have appeared in a number of papers (cf. Bovill et al., 2008). Industry professionals have been involved as advisors who provide information for the development of program objectives, competencies, and courses (Mayo & Thomas-Haysbert, 2005). As noted by Kay and Russette (2000), it is necessary for educators to constantly identify essential competencies for successful managers in order to provide high-quality hospitality and tourism education. Indeed, meeting the industry's needs and expectation is viewed as the top objective for hospitality and tourism education (Smith & Cooper, 2000). No agreement, however, is achieved on how to do this. For

instance, to what extent can managerial goals be combined with the liberal education? Should the courses prepare the graduates for working in the industry simply today or aim for the likely future development? (Morgan, 2004).

The gaps between industry and education are still extensively in many cases (Yeung, 2004; Zehrer & Mössenlechner, 2009). As an example, hospitality and tourism employers in China have argued that the workforce supplied from the hospitality and tourism schools does not meet the need of high quality service providers due to a lack of service attitude, skills and language capability (Lam & Xiao, 2000). Baum (2002) has argued that a shortage of generic skills has been higher than the specific technical competencies in hospitality. Citing from a study conducted by Hospitality Training Foundation in 2000, Baum further asserts that the skills gap are commonly found in the area of communication, problem solving, and customer service. Smith and Cooper (2000) suggest that there should be a balance in hospitality and tourism curriculum between general managerial competencies and hospitality and tourism specific knowledge. There is little question that skills and knowledge should be taught in tourism programs considering that tourism is an applied field of study (Jafari & Ritchie, 1981).

Competencies can be defined as skills, abilities or attitudes required for performing a job (Tas, 1988). Searching for the right competencies for the hospitality and tourism graduates has been an on-going task since the 1980s (Millar et al., 2010). One of the first studies in competency for hospitality was that of by Buergermeister (1983) who identified the importance of human relations skills and attitudes (Gursoy et al., 2012). To prepare qualified graduates, hospitality curriculum and courses must stress strong practical skills and people management skills (Connolly & McGing, 2006). In regards to essential competencies for industry

employment, the industry generally calls for leadership skills, communication skills (including writing and presentation skills), foreign language proficiency, interpersonal skills, negotiation skills, teamwork, ability to adapt with culturally diverse environment, problem solving and decision making skills, flexibility, computer literacy, hospitality and tourism knowledge, staffing (managing and motivating employees), and financial/revenue/accounting management (Christou, 2002; Cooper & Westlake, 1989; Gursoy et al., 2012; Jayawardena, 2001; Mayo & Thomas-Haysbert, 2005; McIntosh, 1983; Nelson & Dopson, 2001).

Morgan (2004) argues that creativity and innovation are other essential skills that should be acquired by graduates to become successful in the era of "experience tourism". He explained that the future of service industry will be based on the creation of the unique and memorable experiences. This strategy had been adopted by several companies such as Starbucks and Disney. Millar et al. (2010) classify the competencies domain into five areas: administrative, conceptual, interpersonal, technical, and leadership. Their study found that there was an agreement on conceptual domains and leadership between educators and industry professionals. Some differences in the opinion were identified on the technical skills of lodging management and food and beverage management. Mouzakitis (2010) proposed that technology, creativity, communication skills, and independence are contributing factors to employment escalation.

Tourism Education Futures Initiatives (TEFI) outlined five important categories of skills that need to be attained by students for their future life. They are destination stewardship skills, political skills, ethical skills, enhanced human resources skills and dynamic business skills (Sheldon, et al., 2008). TEFI also identifies values as a framework for value-based tourism curriculum. The values

includes stewardship (sustainability, responsibility, and service to the community), knowledge (critical thinking, creativity, networking), professionalism (teamwork, leadership, reflexivity, pro-activity, timeliness, relevance, services), ethics (good action/conduct), and mutuality (equity, diversity, inclusion, collaboration) (Sheldon, Fesenmaier, & Tribe, 2011).

Table 2.9 summarizes some studies concerning essential competencies from the stakeholders' point of view.

Table 2.9 Employment Competencies for Hospitality and Tourism Graduates

Author	Year	Desired Employment Competencies	Perspective
Okeiyi, Finely, and Postel (as cited in Lin, 2002; Mayo & Thomas-Haysbert, 2005)	1994	Food and beverage management competencies: Human relation and managerial skills	Educator, Industry, Student
Kay and Russette	2000	1. Leadership 2. Technical (working-knowledge of product-service) 3. Interpersonal (oral communication, listening, conflict resolution) 4. Administrative (e.g. working knowledge of operational budgets, forecasting and financial reports) 5. Conceptual-creative (adapting creatively to change)	Industry practitioners (USA)
Nelson and Dopson	2001	Skills and abilities that are viewed as extremely important 1. Leadership abilities 2. Effective cost control 3. Positive customer relationships 4. Managerial problem solving 5. Crisis management 6. Customer problem solving	Hotel executives, human resources specialists, alumni of the Collins School
Christou	2002	Thirty six competencies for management trainees which are classified as essential competencies, considerably importance competencies and moderate importance competencies. Essential competencies are: 1. Managing guest problems 2. Customer relations 3. Professional appearance and poise 4. Effective communication 5. Positive working relationship with employees 6. Identifying operational problems 7. Professional and ethical standards 8. Leadership quality to achieve organizational	Hotel managers and graduates (Greece)

		objectives 9. Motivating employees 10. Legal responsibilities 11. Following hygiene and safety regulations	
Lin	2002	1. Communication skills and adaptation to environmental changes is the most important competency for the career success in hotel industry. 2. Other important competencies but have no significant relationship with career success are: Operational knowledge and analytical techniques; Problem identification and management of employees; Management of jobs	Managers of tourist hotels (Taiwan)
Kay and Moncarz	2004	1. Basic skills for managers at the lodging industry are human resources management, financial management, marketing and information technology 2. Financial management knowledge found to be the most strongest drive for the top-level success	Industry executives (members of the American Hotel & Lodging Association/ AH&LA) and alumni of Florida International University's School of Hospitality and Tourism (USA)
Mayo and Thomas-Haysbert	2005	1. Financial/revenue management 2. Communication skills 3. Leadership (managing people, managing change, motivation) 4. Interpersonal skills 5. Marketing and operations skills	Educators and industry professionals (USA)
Tesone and Ricci	2005	Competencies for the entry-level workers (highly important knowledge, skills and ability and attitude) 1. Knowledge: professional image (grooming, attire and demeanor), comprehension of performance standard, realistic career expectation 2. Skills and abilities: teamwork, communication (listening, verbal and writing skills), empathy, customer service 3. Attitude: pride of service, prioritize others' needs over self-needs and achievement	Industry practitioners, members of Central Florida Hotel Lodging Association (CFHLA)
Sheldon, Fesenmaier, Woeber, Cooper, Antonioli	2008	1. Destination stewardship skills Management of real and virtual networks; Knowledge sharing skills; Ability to respect and work with all; Stakeholders; Managing complex adaptive systems; Environmental management skills 2. Political and ethical skills Ethical behavior: demonstration and motivation; Integration of basic human values into the workplace; Lobbying and the ability to influence the political process 3. Enhanced human resources skills Team building; Effective listening and	Senior tourism educators and industry experts

		negotiation; Motivation and leadership; Working with distributed; virtual project teams; Emotional intelligence 4. Dynamic business skills Flexibility; Multitasking; Critical thinking; Optimal use of common sense; Innovation/entrepreneurship; Communication skills using new multimedia technologies; Cross-cultural competencies; Risk identification, estimation, and control; Avoiding problems rather than solving them (p. 66-67)	
Zehrer and Mössenlechner	2009	1. Professional and methodological competencies: language, problem solving and conceptual skills 2. Social and communication competencies: overall communication competencies, active listening, social and team skills 3. Personal competencies: self-motivation and the willingness to learn, willingness and personal commitment, ability to work under pressure 4. Activity and action oriented competencies: initiative, proactive and creative	Employers' perception
Millar, Mao and Moreo	2010	Important competencies for employees of food and beverage (F&B) and lodging industry: 1. Administrative: food laws/ safety/ sanitation law 2. Conceptual: critical thinking, analysis, decision making, problem solving, general knowledge 3. Interpersonal: teamwork, communication (verbal, written, presentation), customer service, motivation, leadership, time management, multiple language skills 4. Leadership: ethics 5. Technical skills for F&B: product knowledge, purchasing, human resources, marketing, finance, technology, F&B cost, menu planning 6. Technical skills for lodging: finance, technology, revenue management, human resources, marketing, real estate, franchising, cost control, preventive management	Educators and industry professionals
Stanciulescu and Bulin	2012	1. Technical/work specific skills (specialized skills) 2. Functional/transferable skills (e.g. analytical skills, problem solving, communication, planning, organization and managing skills) 3. Self-management skills/ personality traits	Based on occupational trend on skills and demand in Europe

Content and Structure

The natures of the hospitality and tourism subject areas, that is, that are applied, young, diverse in institutional origin, and multidisciplinary, make hospitality and tourism programs unique. This has led to continuing debates on the

issues of content and balance of courses, as well as the development of the core curriculum (Belhassen & Caton, 2011; Busby & Huang, 2012; Cooper, 2002; Gursoy et al., 2012; Olsson & Martinsson, 2007; Scotland, 2006; Smith & Cooper, 2000).

Chathoth and Sharma (2007) note that core curriculum across institutions should be developed which would follow the same framework. For example, if the mission, goals and objectives of a hospitality and tourism management program are business oriented, then all the institutions that offer those programs should have basic core course requirement such as those in the business schools. Business schools in all region of the United States offer similar core courses such as Accounting, Finance, Managerial Accounting, Strategic Management, Organizational Behavior, and marketing. They further maintain that a core curriculum will bring consistency in the principal courses offering in order to develop consistent outcomes and common knowledge of the students. In their study, Chathoth and Sharma investigated core curricular models of 44 hospitality and tourism management undergraduate programs in the United States based on the forces driving change perspective (capacity control, assets and capital, technology and new management). They proposed a business oriented core curriculum model for hospitality and tourism management programs. At sophomore or junior level, the core course stresses business-related subjects, whereas fundamental subjects at the junior and senior level highlight hospitality and tourism management.

Leiper (1981) suggested three core subjects in general tourism theory: the travel and tourist industry, international tourism, and tourism development and promotion planning. McIntosh (1983) recommended "a model university curriculum in tourism" that defines general content of a curriculum. He indicated eleven

components that are designed to prepare students for a management career and ownership within the tourism industry. In addition, McIntosh also maintained the importance of work experience to support a future career. According to Koh (1995), tourism education in undergraduate programs should be general or broadly-based instead of focusing on a specialization. The curriculum therefore, must include general education areas, business education areas, tourism education areas, and experiential education. In Riegel and Dallas' 1993 study, it was observed that hospitality and tourism subjects can be divided into a major or true core component, general education, electives, and work experience (Williams, 2005).

Rainsford (1997) suggested a restructuring of hospitality curricula into four learning strategies: learning modules at the freshmen year, core competencies development for the sophomore year, study abroad/ internship for the junior year, and integrative project and specialty enhancement for the senior year. Gursoy and Swanger (2005) pointed out essential subjects that should be embedded in all course subjects for the programs housed in an accredited colleges of business. They include communication, leadership, ethics, critical thinking, and transferable skills. Gursoy et al. (2012) also argued that subject areas in a hospitality curriculum should prioritize what perceived as importance by the industry. Ring et al. (2009) identified eight importance subject areas in hospitality and tourism education: internship, foreign language, management subjects, generic skills, economics and laws, capstone elements, methodology, and tourism domain. Their study found that the internship was viewed as the most critical attribute. Industrial work placement or internship was considered as an integral part in a hospitality and tourism degree program as it provided a balance between the needs of theoretical and practical

aspects, as well as boosting the quality of students as future employees (cf. Felisitas et al., 2012; Shariff, 2013; Su et al., 1997; Tesone & Ricci, 2005).

Dale and Robinson (2001) advocated a three-domain approach of tourism education to form the body of knowledge of tourism. The first domain was generic degrees that address general understanding of the tourism industry through the studies of tourism management and international tourism. The second domain, functional degrees, emphasized an expertise in a specific area. The subjects offered in this domain include tourism marketing, tourism information systems and tourism planning. The last scope, market/product-based degrees, attended to specialist knowledge in niche products and market development. The subjects consisted of heritage/cultural tourism, urban/rural tourism, and eco/adventure tourism. A study on hospitality curriculum in a university in Malaysia (based on the experts' opinion), suggested that hospitality curriculum components should consist of business functional skills, hospitality functional skills, personal skills, and analytical skills (Shariff, 2013).

Table 2.10 presents hospitality and tourism curriculum content advocated by a number of scholars. It can be seen from the table that many subjects offered in hospitality and tourism programs comprise of management and business topics, hospitality/hotel management issues, internship, and generic skills/employability skills.

Table 2.10 Overview of Hospitality and Tourism Curriculum Content and Structure

Author	Year	Curriculum Content
Leiper	1981	General tourism theory: - The travel and tourist industry (introductory/overview of the tourism industry) - International tourism (patterns and characteristics of global tourism) - Tourism development and promotion planning (understanding and knowledge on philosophies, techniques and implications for a destination development and promotion)

McIntosh	1983	- **Arts and letters:** humanities studies, English - **Communication arts:** business writing and communication - **Natural science** - **Social sciences:** psychology, sociology, anthropology, geography, economics - **Business core courses:** mathematics, computer, statistics, accounting and finance, quantitative research and operations research - Planning and design - **Marketing:** marketing principles, public hospitality marketing, sales management, personal selling, market research - **Management:** supervisory management, lodging management, food and beverage management - **Business law** - **Foreign language** - **Tourism courses (specialized course in tourism)** - **Electives:** courses in tourism marketing and promotion management, travel agency management, tour company management, public carrier management, or tourism research, development, management advisory services
Umbreit	1992	Six major content areas of hospitality curriculum: leadership, human resources, services marketing, financial analysis, total quality management and communication skills
Riegel and Dallas (as cited in William, 2005)	1993	- Major (true core of a study) - General education (e.g. humanities, social science, arts and the physical science) - Electives (advance or specific learning related to major areas of study) - Work experience
Koh	1995	- **General education:** *Written communication skills*, *interpersonal relations skills*, *microcomputer literacy*, *ethics/social responsibility*, natural resource use/issues, societies/culture of the world, government/ citizenship, foreign language - **Business education:** *Theories of human resource management*, *managing service quality*, *theories of marketing*, *managerial accounting*, *entrepreneurship/ innovation*, marketing research, management information systems, theories of economics, principles of business finance - **Tourism education:** *Hotel/ restaurant operations*, *the travel/ tourism industry*, *principles of tourism development*, laws and the tourism industry, planning special events, tourism geography - **Experiential education:** *Practicum after year 1, practicum after year 2, practicum after year 3* (Note: words in Italic indicate "very important" elements)
Rainsford	1997	- **Learning modules (freshmen year)** Applying various types of block modes for all introductory subjects such as introduction to food and beverage management and introduction to rooms management - **Core competencies development (sophomore year)** General management and hospitality management core competencies subjects, general education requirements, electives - **Study abroad/ internship (junior year)** - **Integrative project and specialty development (senior year)**
Su, Miller, and Shanklin.	1997a	- The most important subjects for hospitality programs: Interpersonal communication, marketing, management of personnel, management information system, financial management, ethical consideration
Lin	2002	- Food and beverage management subjects - Finance/marketing/personnel management subjects - Hotel management subjects

		- Foreign language subjects - Communication and quality management subjects - Front office and room division management subjects
Dopson and Nelson	2003	- Top ten very important hospitality subjects: Ethics, human resources, accounting, laboratory experiences, TQM, employability, food and beverage management, property computer systems, internships, operations analysis
Gursoy and Swanger	2005	- Course subjects in hospitality curriculum for programs housed in accredited colleges of business should include: oral and written communication skills, leadership skills, good work habits, customer service skills, ethics, team building skills, time management skills, thinking outside the box, appreciation of differences in personality traits, professional presentation skills, critical thinking skills, public speaking skills, creativity, diversity, industry networking
Chathoth and Sharma	2007	- **Sophomore/junior level: Business-related core courses** Micro- and macro- economics, business statistics, financial accounting, financial management, operations management, strategic management, marketing, information systems, human resources management - **Junior/ senior level: Hospitality and Tourism Management-related core courses** Tourism management, hospitality and tourism management accounting, hospitality and tourism financial management, hospitality and tourism operations, hospitality and tourism operations management, revenue management in hospitality organizations, strategic service management, service marketing/ advanced marketing, technology in service organizations, hospitality and tourism human resources management
Ring, Dickinger and Wöber	2009	- Important subject areas in hospitality and tourism education: Internship, foreign language, management subjects, generic skills, economics and laws, capstone elements, methodology, and tourism domain
Belhassen and Caton	2011	- The inclusion of Critical Management Studies (CMS) in tourism curriculum to reinforce students' critical understanding on the social system. This method brings more added value to the pedagogical, intellectual, ethical and professional development - Example: to expose students to Marcuse (1964) marketing study on compulsive consumption, McCabe's study (2009) on social justice and Wheeler's study (2003) on environmental sustainability
Gursoy, Rahman and Swanger	2012	- Highly important subject areas in hospitality as perceived by the industry professionals are leadership, internships/ industry experience, industry employment preparation, ethics, overview of hospitality industry, food service and controls, and computer or information technology
Shariff	2013	- **Business function skills** (e.g. principles of economics, accounting, finance, introduction to management, human resources, strategic management, hospitality and tourism law) - **Hospitality functional skills** (e.g. introduction to hospitality, food preparation, food sanitation, front office management, hospitality information system, hotel sales and marketing, food and beverage service, hotel operation management, F&B cost control, housekeeping, banquet and convention) - **Personal skills**(e.g. English, English for hospitality purposes, business and professional communication, foreign language, business report writing, interpersonal skills) - **Analytical skills** (e.g. thinking science and ethics, statistics, tourism and hospitality research, Islamic and Asian civilization)

The overview of curriculum content and structure provides information concerning the subjects offered in hospitality and tourism courses. The issue of the classification of the course content is also a part of any thorough curriculum review.

Other Constraints

Industry, society, political condition and environmental issues continue to change and evolve. It is therefore, imperative for hospitality and tourism educators to understand the effects of the changes on education and be aware of what we teach. We need to continuously reevaluate and develop all programs (Barrows, 1999; Christou, 2002). The professional and political forces are deemed the major influences on curriculum design (Cherryholmes, 1987 as quoted in Cooper, 2002). Some of the issues include available staffing, students, resources, premises, practical facilities, balancing between tourism/hospitality application and generic discipline, ideological, political and economic aims, as well as the government power and its influence on curriculum (Lin, 2002; Primrose & Alexander, 2013; Smith & Cooper, 2000; Wattanacharoensil, 2014). Another major consideration is the ability and competencies of management in the higher education (Deghani et al., 2011). Cooper (2002) provided an example concerning a tourism curriculum planning in Jordan. Some constraints emerged at the macro and micro levels. The macro level included the context of political agendas, industry needs, and funding, while the micro comprised resources, premises, staffing, students, and access to practical training facilities. In a curriculum design/development, therefore, it is suggested to consider other influencing factors such as cultural, social, political, and economical situations to foresee the most applicable and best approach to be employed (Brady & Kennedy, 2003).

2.4. Academic Disciplines and Vocational and Professional Education

Academic Disciplines

Academic study and intellectual progress have been manifested by a growing number of specialization within the fields and formation of sub-disciplines and specialties (Gaff & Ratcliff, 1997). There are many varieties of what constitute academic disciplines based on the scope/traditions/status adopted to classify the disciplines (Gimenez, 2012; Jones, 2011). For examples, Hagstrom (1964) proposes a model that draws on the notion of disciplinary consensus, Lodahl and Gordon (1972) develop the classification based upon the levels of paradigm development, Biglan's model (1973) is based on the hard/soft, pure/applied, and life/non-life distinction, Hargens's model (1975) consists of normative and functional integration, and Zuckerman and Merton's model is derived from disciplinary codification (Jones, 2011 as cited from Braxton & Hargens, 1996).

The Holland's 1973 framework categorizes academic disciplines based on the personality career development. The framework defines the academic disciplines for artistic people include architecture, fine arts, foreign languages, English, music, theatre, speech and environmental design. Investigative type will tend to study biology and life sciences, economics, geography, maths, physical sciences, finance, engineering, astronomy, pharmacy, anthropology, and sociology. People with social type will study humanities, physical and health education, psychology, social sciences, education, and ethnic studies. Those who favor enterprise may choose business, communications, computer/information science, law, public affairs, journalism, marketing or industrial engineering (Jones, 2011).

McCrimmon (2013) states four main categories of disciplines and their

branches. They are classified as: a) Business (economics, finance, accounting, management, marketing), b) humanities (language, art, history, literature, philosophy, religion, theater, music), c) natural and applied science (biology, chemistry, mathematics, physics, medicine, computer science, engineering, geology), and d) social sciences (psychology, sociology, anthropology, education, geography, law, political science). Gaff and Ratcliff (1997) in their "Handbook of Undergraduate Curriculum" list the academic disciplines as the arts and sciences major, the humanities, the natural science and mathematics, the social sciences, and the arts.

Another version of academic disciplines include: a) the arts and humanities (fine and applied arts, language and literature, history, journalism, music, philosophy, speech, theatre/drama, theology/religion), b) social sciences (anthropology, economics, ethnic studies, geography, political science, psychology, social work, sociology, gender studies, other social science), c) physical sciences (astronomy, atmospheric, chemistry, earth science, mathematics, physics, statistics and other physical science, d) business (accounting, business administration, finance, international business, marketing, management), e) education (business education, elementary/middle school education, music or arts education, physical education or recreation, secondary education, special education, other education), f) engineering (civil engineering, chemical engineering, electrical engineering, aero/astronautical engineering, industrial engineering, materials engineering, mechanical engineering, general engineering), g) biological sciences (biology, biochemistry, botany, environmental science, marine science, microbiology or bacteriology, zoology), h) professional (architecture, law, medicine, dentistry, veterinarian, nursing, pharmacy, allied health/other medical, occupational, physical,

speech therapy, urban planning, health technology, library/archival science and other profession), and i) other (communications, public administration, computer science, kinesiology, criminal justice, military science, family studies, agriculture, natural resources and conservation, parks, recreation, leisure studies, sports management, technical/vocational, other field) (FSSE, 2012).

Facets of diverse academic disciplines inform the content of hospitality and tourism courses. The knowledge in these disciplines offers not only course content but also shapes the way to view data and conduct research.

Vocational and Professional Education

Vocational education in many countries emerged as a response to the needs for educated and skilled personnel and a flexible workforce in the light of economic and social factors. Vocational education is an occupational/employment based education, characterized as experientially based in its content and teaching methods, core skills focus, and directly pertinent to the student needs (Marsh, 1997). Vocational education, however, has always been a "poor second to general/academic education" and lacking status compared with the academic subjects (Marsh, 1997, p. 195). This mode of education emphasizes extensive practical training and experiences and may have few requirements for the theory, technical knowledge or liberal arts education (Curry & Wergin, 1997).

Due to an employment oriented concept, the curriculum orientation of vocational education is relatively different. Vocational education has very explicit statements of intended outcomes using the competency standards and performance criteria. The major component of the content lies in the core skills and is established based on various stakeholders' inputs such as those from the industry, government,

educators and community. Courses are often delivered in small units or modules following a student-centered learning concept. The modules warrant credit recognition (recognized prior learning) and cross-transfer. Assessment can be quite flexible as it allows different types of evidence at the workplace (real-life situation) and can be set up according to accountability purposes and summative/certification (Marsh, 1997). In the arena of tourism education, vocational means preparing students for their future career (Airey, 2008). Jafari and Ritchie (1981) claim that tourism is often viewed as a vocational training/education or from a commercial perspective.

Professional education can be defined as a formal education that is intended to produce highly skilled graduates. This type of education combines theories and practices that culminate with an award of formal credential such as certification and licenses. Professional education is generally placed in the research universities. Medical school, law school, and nursing school are some of the examples. Professional education emphasizes the use of knowledge/theory and practice in an application of the theory. Theories in professional education refer to the specialized technical material specific to one profession. For instance, students of law schools must understand about torts, engineering students about mechanics and medical students about human anatomy. Another key component of professional education is the apprenticeships training (Curry & Wergin, 1997).

The main difference between vocational and professional education is at the level of theory and practice. Vocational education is high on practice and low on theory. On the other hand, professional education is high on theory and low on practice. Vocational education is primarily aimed for preparation for jobs, whereas professional education is for preparation for works. Thus, students of professional

education require certification or license (Curry & Wergin, 1997).

2.5. The Research Setting

2.5.1. Profile of Indonesia

Indonesia is the biggest archipelago and the fourth most populated country in the world, comprising 17,500 islands (6,000 are inhabited) and around 247 million people. Sumatra, Java, Kalimantan, Sulawesi, and Papua are the five biggest islands of the archipelago that stretches approximately 5,000 km from West to East and 1,875 km from North to South. The country is situated on a crossroad between the Pacific and the Indian oceans and links two continents, Asia and Australia. Indonesia is a multicultural country with more than 300 ethnic groups and around 300 local languages that spread out in its 34 provinces and 500 regencies.The population is very diverse in language, traditions, culture and religions. Bahasa Indonesia as the national and official language is widely spoken in all regions. The majority of the population are Muslim (87%), followed by Protestant (6%), Catholic (3%), Hindu (2%) and Buddhist (1%) (2010 census). The high number of Muslims means the country has the world's largest Muslim population. Many distinctive heritage sites, cultural landscapes and historic monuments and buildings can be found in Indonesia (BBC, 2014; UNESCO, 2009).

Having proclaimed its independence from the Netherlands on August 17, 1945, Indonesia becomes an independent republic, led by a president. The country is categorized as a middle-income country with Gross National Income (GNI) per capita of $2,940 and GDP $878.0 billion in 2012. The economic growth has been

recorded as more than 6% per year after 2004 (Kortschak, 2013; The World Bank, 2014). The summary of social and economic conditions of Indonesia in the period 2008-2012 are presented in Tables 2.11 and 2.12.

Figure 2.13 Map of Indonesia
Source: http://www.worldatlas.com/webimage/countrys/asia/lgcolor/idcolor.htm

Table 2.11 General Profile of Indonesia

General Statistics	Remarks
Region	Southeast Asia
Surface area (in square kilometres)	1,910,931
Forested area (% of land area)	52%
Water area	4,85%
Climate	Tropical; hot and humid
Natural resources	Petroleum, natural gas, tin, copper, timer, nickel, coal, gold, silver, fertile soils
Natural hazards	Volcanoes eruptions, earthquakes, forest fires, floods
Border countries	Malaysia, Papua New Guinea, Timor-Leste
Population (2012)	244.2 million
Population density (in 2011, per square kilometer)	126.8
Age structure	0-14 years (26.6%); 15-24 years (17.1%); 25-54 years (42.2%); 55-64 years (7.6%); over 65 years (6.4%)
Ethnic groups	Javanese, Sundanese, Madurese, Minangkabau, Betawi, Bugis, Banjar and others
Religions	Islam, Protestant, Catholic, Hindu, Budha
Capital	Jakarta
Currency	Rupiah (IDR)
Official language	Bahasa Indonesia
Independence	August 17, 1945 (declared), December 27, 1949 (acknowledged)
Government	Republic/ democratic
Head of state	President
National ideology	Pancasila
State emblem	Garuda Pancasila 
Motto	Unity in Diversity (Bhinneka Tunggal Ika)
National flag	Red (courage) and white (purity) 
National anthem	Indonesia Raya (Great Indonesia)
Political system	Trias Politica: - Legislative power (People's Consultative Assembly/ MPR) • House of Representatives (DPR): representatives of political parties • Regional Representative Council (DPD: representatives of each province (four representative for each province) - Executive (president, vice president, the cabinet of ministers) - Judicial power (supreme court, the judicial commission and the constitutional court)
Industries	Petroleum and natural gas, textiles, electrical appliances, apparel, footwear, automotive, mining, cement, medical instruments and appliances, chemical fertilizer, plywood, rubber, processed food, jewellery, handicrafts, tourism
GDP growth (2012)	6.2%
Inflation growth (2013)	6.4%
Time zone	WIB, WITA, WIT (UTC +7, +8, +9)

Source: Index Mundi (2013); Portal Nasional Republik Indonesia/ Indonesia Government Portal (n.d.); The World Bank (2014); UN Data (2013)

Table 2.12 Social and Economic Profile of Indonesia, 2008-2012

Social and Economy	Measurement Unit	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
Population	Million	228.5	231.4	238.5	241.0	244.2
Population growth	%	1.25	1.22	1.32	1.32	1.31
Literacy rate aged 15+	%	92.2	92.6	92.9	92,8	93.4
Labour force participation rate	%	67.2	67.2	67.7	68.3	67.9
Unemployment rate	%	8.4	7.9	7.1	6.6	6.1
Poverty	%	15.42	14.15	13.3	12.5	12.0
Human development index		71.2	71.8	72.3	72.8	-
GDP at current price	Trillion Rp	4,948.7	5,606.2	6,446.9	7,422.8	8,241.9
Economic growth	%	6	4.6	6.2	6.5	6.2
Rate to US$1	Rupiah (Rp)	10,950	9,400	8,991	9,068	9,670

Source: Badan Pusat Statistik – Statistics Indonesia (2013b)

2.5.2. Indonesia's Tourism Industry

The importance of tourism has been recognized by Asian countries as a major economic and social development tool to create jobs, elevate earnings of foreign exchange, and support the cultural and social exchanges (Chaisawat, 2005). Tourism has been used as a vehicle for the economic development of many developing countries due to its advantages. The international tourist arrival generate revenue that is beneficial to improve the local residents' quality of life and standard of living (Chon & Maier, 2010; Dredge et al., 2012b; Howell & Uysal, 1987).

Similar to any other developing countries, Indonesia also uses tourism as the sector for its economic welfare (Oktadiana & Chon, 2014a). Indonesia's tourism contributed 8.9% of the total GDP and 8% of the total employment. In term of tourism growth per annum, Indonesia's tourism is relatively higher than that for the rest of the world. The economic impact of travel and tourism in Indonesia in 2012 is described in Table 2.13 and the comparison of the long term growth of travel and tourism in Indonesia versus the world (2013-2023) is specified in Table 2.14.

Table 2.13 Travel and Tourism Economic Impact in Indonesia, 2012

Factors	Contributions	
Direct contribution to GDP	IDR 245,939.0 bn	3% of total GDP
Total contribution to GDP	IDR 736,259.0 bn	8.9% of GDP
Direct contribution to the employment	2,931,500 jobs	2.6% of total employment
Total contribution to the employment	8,909,500 jobs	8% of total employment
Visitor exports	IDR 90,271.1 bn	4.4% of total exports
Investment	IDR 140,683.0 bn	5.2% of total investment

Source: World Travel & Tourism Council (2013)

Table 2.14 Travel and Tourism Long Term Growth of Indonesia and the World, 2013-2023

Factors	Indonesia (growth pa)	The World (growth pa)
Direct contribution to GDP	5.9%	4.2%
Total contribution to GDP	6.1%	4.2%
Direct contribution to the employment	2.2%	2.0%
Total contribution to the employment	2.3%	2.5%
Visitor exports	7.8%	4.0%
Investment	7.2%	5.0%

Source: World Travel & Tourism Council (2013)

It can be observed that Indonesian tourism sector and foreign visitor arrivals are greater than three to four percent of the global growth, with five percent increase in 2012 (Antara 2013). There was a surge (up to 1.2%) in the arrival of domestic tourists from 245 million trips in 2012 to 248 million trips during 2013 (IndoSurfLife, 2014). The top five source markets for Indonesia tourism are Malaysia, Singapore, Australia, China, and Japan. Indonesian tourism has also enjoyed recent sharp increases in the number of visitors from China, the Middle East and West European countries (eTN Global Travel Industry News, 2014). The rising number of foreign tourist arrivals has resulted in the increased revenue from the tourism sector. The revenue, however, suffered in 2009 due to the global economic crisis. Tourists tended to stay for shorter periods and spent less during their visit. It was recorded that the length of stay declined from 8.6 days in 2008 to 7.7 days in

2009, while the spending was reduced by 15.5% (Figure 2.14 and Table 2.15) (Thiono, 2010).

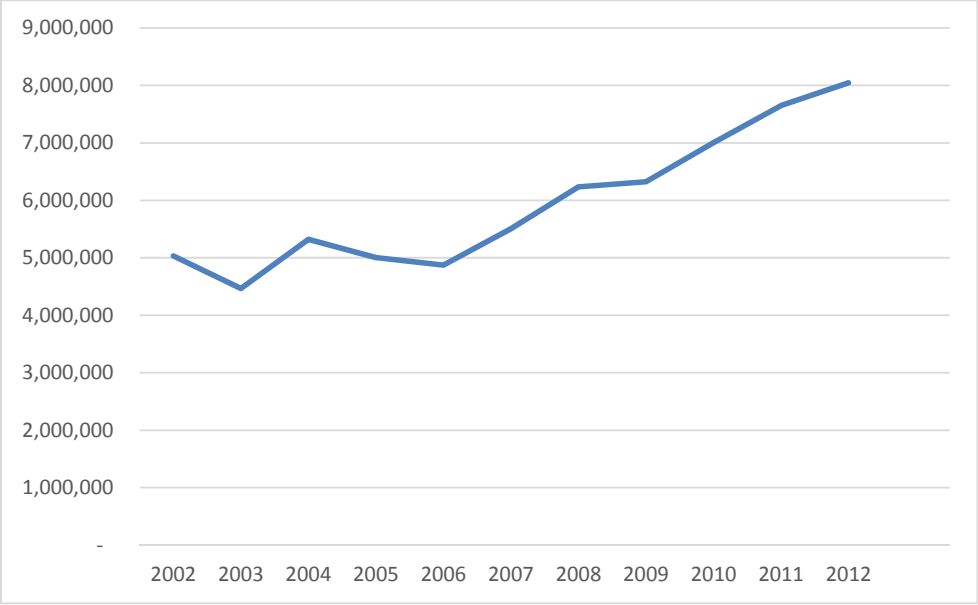


Figure 2.14 Foreign Visitor Arrivals to Indonesia, 2002-2012
Sources: Badan Pusat Statistik – Statistic Indonesia (n.d.); World Tourism Organization (2014)

Table 2.15 Foreign Visitor Arrivals to Indonesia and Tourism Revenue, 2002-2012

Year	Total Arrivals	Revenue (in million US$)
2002	5,033,400	4,305.55
2003	4,467,021	4,037.02
2004	5,321,165	4,797.88
2005	5,002,101	4,521.90
2006	4,871,351	4,447.98
2007	5,505,759	5,345.98
2008	6,234,497	7,347.60
2009	6,323,730	6,297.99
2010	7,002,944	7,603.45
2011	7,649,731	8,554.39
2012	8,044,462	9,120.89

Sources: Badan Pusat Statistik – Statistic Indonesia (n.d.); World Tourism Organization (2014)

The growth of tourism sector described in the previous Tables and Figures reveal that tourism has the potential to become an important contributor to the country's economy. The development of Indonesia's tourism can be seen in Table 2.16, generated from the World Economic Forum's Travel and Tourism Competitiveness Report. Based on the report, the ranking of Indonesia increased from 74 in 2011 to 70 in 2013 and finally to rank 50 in 2015 out of 141 countries. Nonetheless, the country's competitiveness is still far behind the other ASEAN countries such as Singapore (rank 11), Malaysia (rank 25) and Thailand (rank 35). In comparison with the other five ASEAN countries listed in the table, Indonesia excels in the natural and cultural resources. By way of contrast, the number of international tourists visiting Indonesia is only one third of Malaysia and Thailand and two third of Singapore. The country is till striving to boost its international visitors' arrival. The report issued by the World Economic Forum 2015 indicates that Indonesia's human resources and labour market ranks 53, whereas Singapore, the leading country for tourism amongst the ASEAN countries ranks 3. Indubitably, human resources proficiency has placed Singapore as one of the top world's destination.

Table 2.16 Travel & Tourism Competitiveness Index of Selected ASEAN Countries

Ranking	Indonesia	Malaysia	Philippines	Singapore	Thailand	Vietnam
2015	**50**	**25**	**74**	**11**	**35**	**75**
2013	70	34	82	10	43	80
2011	74	35	94	10	41	80
2009	81	32	86	10	39	89
Enabling environment	80	40	90	5	74	73
T&T policy and enabling conditions	9	24	17	1	49	112
Infrastructure	75	41	82	5	37	94
Natural and cultural resources	17	24	56	40	21	33
Travel & Tourism Key Indicators and Economic Impact						
Int'l tourist arrivals 2013 (in thousands)	8,802	25,715	4,681	11,898	26,547	7,572
Int'l tourism receipts 2013 (US$ millions)	9,119.2	21,496.3	4,691.0	19,056.9	42,080.2	7,502.8
T&T industry GDP (US$ millions) 2014 est.	27,059.7	22,389.6	11,104.4	15,307.4	34,928.0	7,135.0
T&T industry employment (1,000 jobs) 2014 est.	3,042.5	880.8	1,226.7	147.2	2,562.9	1,899.2

Source: World Economic Forum (2013, 2015)

In relations to the country's GDP, it is noted that trade, hotel and restaurant industry is the third biggest contributor of the total GDP in Indonesia. The GDP generated from this industry has grown substantially in the last four years (2010-2013) (Table 2.17).

Table 2.17 Share of GDP by Industrial Origin (in %), 2010-2012

Industry	2010	2011	2012	2013
Agriculture, livestock, forestry and fishery	15.29	14.71	14.50	14.43
Mining and quarrying	11.16	11.82	11.80	11.24
Manufacturing Industry	24.80	24.34	23.97	23.70
Electricity, Gas & Water Supply	0.76	0.75	0.76	0.77
Construction	10.25	10.16	10.26	9.99
Trade, Hotel & Restaurants	**13.69**	**13.80**	**13.96**	**14.33**
Transport and Communication	6.56	6.62	6.67	7.01
Finance, Real Estate and Business Services	7.24	7.21	7.27	7.52
Services	10.24	10.58	10.81	11.02
Gross Domestic Product	100	100	100	100
Gross Domestic Product Without Oil and Gas	92.17	91.60	92.21	92.65

Source: Badan Pusat Statistik – Statistics Indonesia (2014)

The high GDP contribution from the hotel sector is probably a result of the increase in the number of accommodation and rooms in the last five years. There were 1,240 establishments recorded in 2009. By 2013 the number increased by 45% to 1,778 establishments (Table 2.18).

Table 2.18 Number of Accommodation Establishments and Rooms, 2009-2013

Social & Economy	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013
Number of accommodation	1,240	1,306	1,489	1,623	1,778
Number of rooms	118,716	124,789	142,481	155,740	171,432

Source: Badan Pusat Statistik – Statistics Indonesia (2014)

The employment absorption in the accommodation sector (star-rated and non-star rated hotels) also escalated by 4.87%, or 14,277 workers from 2012 to 2013. It was noted that the workforce was 307,468 in this sector in 2013. Out of the total workers, 59.75% are employed in the star-rated hotels. The education levels of the workers are mainly senior high school graduates (46.39%), followed by Diploma graduates (Diploma I, Diploma II, Diploma III) 44.94%, and university graduates 8.67%. However, only 22.67% (81,993) workers have an educational background in hotel/tourism. The top three cities for the employment absorption are Bali (20.29%), Jakarta (12.68%) and West Java (11.92%) (Badan Pusat Statistik – Statistics Indonesia, 2013a).

Table 2.19 Education and Job Level in the Accommodation Sector, 2013

Education and Job Level at Accommodation Sector	Percentage (%)
Education level of the workers	
Senior high school	46.39
Diploma, I, II, III	44.94
University	8.67
Job Level	
Director/ General Manager	2.67
Manager	6.12
Assistant Manager	3.12
Supervisor	9.26
Operator	23.68
Administration	9.62
Others	45.20

Source: Badan Pusat Statistik – Statistics Indonesia (2013a)

The data provided affirm the value of a complete and thorough consideration of the basis for hospitality and tourism education in Indonesia. The links to the country's competitiveness and growth are important justification for this thesis.

2.5.3. The Education System in Indonesia

The following section builds on the broad context of appreciating the role of tourism in Indonesian society which was presented in Chapter One.

The Education Structure

As stipulated in the Law on National Education System No. 20/2003 (Undang-Undang Republik Indonesia No. 20/2003), Indonesian education system is made up of formal, non-formal, and informal education. The description of the education types is presented in the following.

Formal education

Formal education consists of primary or basic education, secondary education and higher education. The basic education starts from the elementary or primary schools (grade one to six) which should be completed within six years of study. General primary schools are known as SD *(Sekolah Dasar)* and the Islamic primary school named MI *(Madrasah Ibtidaiyah).* Upon completion of the primary school or equivalent, students may enrol for the three-year lower secondary school or junior high school (SMP or *Sekolah Menengah Pertama* for the general education and MT or *Madrasah Tsanawiyah* for the Islamic school). Students who have junior high school certificate may continue their study to secondary education. Students may choose the general secondary education (SMA or *Sekolah Menengah Atas*), vocational secondary school (SMK or *Sekolah Menengah Kejuruan*), Islamic secondary school (MA or *Madrasah Aliyah*), or Islamic vocational secondary school (MAK or *Madrasah Aliyah Kejuruan*). Graduates of secondary schools can later pursue their higher education at one of higher institutions, namely an academy, polytechnic, institute, university or an advanced school.

An academy (college) provides vocational education in one field or some fields of applied science, technology, or arts. The graduates will earn certificates or a diploma. Polytechnic or institutes of technology offer various types of degree (can be vocational) in the fields of science, engineering, technology or other technical studies. Institute provides academic and/ or vocational studies in a particular discipline of science, technology, and arts. Universities offer academic education in various disciplines at undergraduate and postgraduate levels. Advanced schools deliver academic and professional education in one particular discipline.

Non-formal education

Non-formal education delivers educational options for the members of community and function as a replacement, complement, and/or supplement to the formal education. The forms include life-skills education, youth education, women empowerment education, literacy education, vocational education and training, equivalency program and other types of education designed for developing learners' ability. Non-formal education can be classified as non-formal primary, junior secondary and senior secondary equivalent programs known as Package A, Package B and Package C (*Paket A, Paket B and Paket C*). This system allows students who do not have or lack of access to formal education to obtain formal qualifications by passing an examination according to the Package level.

Informal education

Informal education can be defined as an independent learning or self-learning that is provided by the family and the community. The outcomes of the informal education can be recognized as equivalent to those of formal education after passing the government assessment.

Table 2.20 The Indonesian Education System

Age	Grade	Level	Formal Education (academic)		Formal Education (vocational)	Non-formal Education	Informal Education
≥19	13-16	Higher Education	Islamic Doctorate Program (S3)	Doctorate Program (S3)	Specialist Program 2	Open University	Courses or Family Education
			Islamic Master Program (S2)	Master Program (S2)	Specialist Program 1		
			Islamic Bachelor Program (S1)	Bachelor Program (S1)	Diploma IV Program (D IV)		
					Diploma III Program (D III)		
					Diploma II Program (D II)		
					Diploma I Program (D I)		
16-18	10-12	Secondary Education	Islamic Upper Secondary Education (MA)	General Upper Secondary Education (SMA)	Vocational Secondary Education (SMK) or Islamic Vocational Secondary Education (MAK)	Paket C (Package "C")	
7-15	1-9	Basic Education	Islamic Lower Secondary Education (MT)	Lower Secondary Education (SMP)		Paket B (Package "B")	
			Islamic Primary Education (MI)	Primary Education (SD)		Paket A (Package "A")	
4-6		Pre-School Education	Islamic Pre-School	Kindergarten (TK)		Play group, child care	

Sources: Undang-Undang Republik Indonesia/The Education Law No. 20/2003; UNESCO-UNEVOC (2011, 2013)
Notes: S1, S2, S3 are *Strata 1, Strata 2 and Strata* 3 or equivalent to Bachelor, Master and Doctor; MA is Madrasah Aliyah, MAK is Madrasah Aliyah Kejuruan, MT is Madrasah Tsanawiyah, MI is Madrasah Ibtidaiyah

As noted by the World Bank (2010-2011), Indonesia's education system is the fourth largest in the world after China, India and the United States, encompassing more than 250,000 schools, 46 million students and 2.7 million teachers. The schools are primarily operated under the Ministry of Education (84%) and the Ministry of Religious Affairs (16%). The Indonesian schools are classified into public and private institutions. Education in heavily populated Indonesia is

facing significant challenges. These difficulties include low teaching quality and weak quality assurance systems (The World Bank, n.d.). At the higher education level, there are disparities in qualifications and outcomes between the same study programs or levels of education. It is hard to distinguish the capabilities of the graduates from the academically oriented programs from those with a vocational and professional education (Sailah et al., 2014). In broad terms, the educational issues are related to the attainment and access, quality, and governance and finance (The World Bank, n.d.), as presented in Table 2.21.

Table 2.21 Issues in Indonesia's Education

Issues	Remarks
Attainment and access	• The basic education is still behind the neighbouring middle-income countries (56% senior secondary enrolment in 2007). • The education system is still unable to produce a highly productive labour force and sizeable middle class (only seven percent of population aged between 25 and 64 obtain post-secondary education, and one-in-five received upper secondary education). • High education cost in the senior- and tertiary- level. • Indonesia is on track to providing the basic nine-year education with gross enrolment rates more than 80% in 2007.
Quality	• Low ranks in international standardized tests for the basic education (e.g. Program for International Student Assessment and Trends in International Mathematics and Science Study. • Deficiencies in the school system are the primary contributors to the lower performance. • Low qualification of the teachers (only 18% and 67% of teachers at the primary and junior secondary level have bachelor degree). • The government issued Teacher Law (UU 19/2005) that requires teachers to have at least Bachelor degree.
Governance and finance	• Low public and private spending on tertiary education (around 0.3% of GDP for the public spending and 0.9% for the private spending). • Huge disproportions between the rich and the poor in attending tertiary education (less than 2% from the poor family and 60% from the rich family). • Oversupply and uneven distribution of teachers (most of the teachers teach at the urban school (68%) and rural schools (52%), while two-thirds of schools in remote areas are lacking of teachers). • With decentralization system, minimum service standards for quality education should be well established and informed to the community (strong school management).

Source: The World Bank (n.d.)

To shape and boost its education system, Indonesia needs to focus on two key areas (as suggested by the World Bank): quality and service delivery enhancement for the nine-year basic education, and the development of a solid secondary and tertiary education system in order to produce highly educated, skilled labour force, and to provide top-quality teachers.

The Curriculum

In the early development, curriculum of the Indonesian education was formed on the basis of National Education System of "Pancasila" or the Nations Philosophy (Law no. 22/1961) and the Presidential decrees No. 19/1965 and no. 14/ 1965. Stipulated in the Government Acts (UU no. 2/1989 and PP no. 60/1990), the curriculum is controlled by the government. In 1994, the curriculum emphasized the mastery of information and technology. This emphasis was mandated in the decree of the Ministry of Education and Culture no. 056/U/1994 (Sailah et al., 2014).

The paradigm was then shifted towards competency-based curriculum which could be developed by the individual institution referring to the national education standards (Law no. 20/2003 article 38 and the Ministry of Education Acts no. 232/U/2000 and no. 045/U/2002). The development of competency-based curriculum was administrated in the Government Act PP no. 17/2010. The act required minimum five element of competencies to be included in the curriculum.

Referring to the Law of National Education System No. 20/ 2003, the basic framework and the curriculum structure for the elementary and secondary education is set by the Government of the Republic Indonesia. At the higher education level, the curriculum is developed by the institutions, taking into account the national education standards. The elementary and secondary curriculum should encompass

religion, civics or citizenship education, Indonesian language, mathematics, science, social science, arts and culture, physical education, vocational/skills-based training, and the local content. Religion, the Indonesian language and civics are the compulsory subjects that should be incorporated into the higher education curriculum (Undang-Undang Republik Indonesia No. 20/2003).

Mandated by the government (Regulation no. 17/2010 Article 97), higher education curriculum should be developed and applied according to the competency-based curriculum (CBC). The implementation of CBC also reaffirms the Ministry of Education decree (Kepmendiknas No.232/U/2000) on Guidelines for Curriculum Development and Assessment of Learning Outcomes in Higher Education. In 2012, the Indonesian Government issued the Presidential Decree No. 08/2012 regarding the Indonesian National Qualifications Framework (KKNI). The framework is the standard and sole reference for all education and training providers in the country in order to prepare and produce qualified human resources (Directorate General of Higher Education Ministry of Education and Culture Republic of Indonesia, 2012).

In summary, the transformation of the higher education curriculum in Indonesia was in three major phases. The first phase was the development of a National Curriculum in 1994 that focused on information and technology. The second stage was the Competency Based Curriculum in 2000-2002. The last stage and the current one is the Higher Education Curriculum approach that stresses the quality of learning outcomes which value knowledge, skills/capabilities, attitudes, and ethics (Sailah et al., 2014).

The issue of the decree, as well as the Higher Education Act No. 12/2012 Article 29 have impacted the curriculum of a study program and its management. A curriculum that initially is based on the achieved competency, gradually moves to

the learning outcomes based. The learning outcomes (grounded on IQF and the education national standard) will reflect the competencies and quality of graduates (Sugiharto, 2013). The graduate competencies/profiles are derived from the SWOT analysis, mission and values of a study program/institution and tracer study, and then defined by all programs offering similar studies such as hospitality and tourism study programs (Directorate of Higher Education, the Ministry of Education and Culture of Republic of Indonesia, 2011; Sugiharto, 2013). In general, a curriculum should comprise the learning outcomes/graduate competencies, teaching methods/delivery, assessment/evaluation (Sugiharto, 2013). The scheme is shown in Figure 2.15.

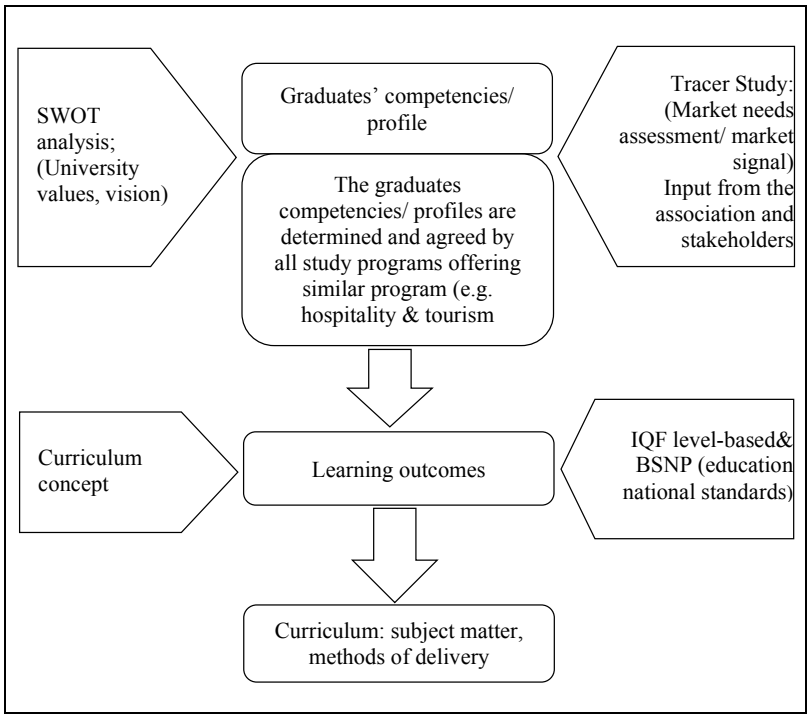


Figure 2.15 Curriculum Design and Development Based on IQF
Sources/ adapted from: Directorate of Higher Education, the Ministry of Education and Culture of Republic of Indonesia (2011), Sailah et al. (2014), Sugiharto (2013), Sugiharto (2013) as cited in Oktadiana & Chon (2014a).

The next two sub-sections (2.5.4. and 2.5.5.) describe the current circumstances/regulations that may impact the curriculum of undergraduate

hospitality and tourism study in Indonesia to some extent. They are the ASEAN Mutual Recognition Agreement for Tourism Professionals (MRA-TP) and the implementation of Indonesia Qualification Framework. Although MRA-TP may not considerably effect the overall curriculum, yet it should be considered for the practical courses in a vocational program.

2.5.4. Mutual Recognition Agreement for Tourism Professionals

The Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN) was established on August 8, 1967 in Bangkok, Thailand, by five founding countries: Indonesia, Malaysia, Thailand, the Philippines and Singapore. Brunei Darussalam joined the association in 1984, Vietnam in 1995, Lao PDR and Myanmar in 1997, and Cambodia in 1999. The additional five members made up the total number of ASEAN country members to ten associates. At the 12th ASEAN Summit in 2007, all ASEAN members agreed to establish ASEAN Community by 2015, marked by the signing of Cebu Declaration on the Acceleration of the Establishment of an ASEAN Community by 2015. The ASEAN Community comprises three pillars: ASEAN Political-Security Community, ASEAN Economic Community, and ASEAN Socio-Cultural Community. The ASEAN Economic Community (AEC) has four key interrelated desired characteristics: a single market and production base, a highly competitive economic region, a region of equitable economic development, and a region fully integrated into the global economy. The single market and production base characteristic consist of five core elements on the free flow of goods, services, investment, capital, and skilled labors (Association of Southeast Asian Nations, 2014).

To prepare for the launch of the ASEAN Economic Community, all ASEAN country members signed a Mutual Recognition Agreement for Tourism Professionals

(MRA-TP) on November 9, 2012 in Bangkok, Thailand (Guide to ASEAN MRA on Tourism Professionals, n.d.; Hefner, 2013). MRA-TP is aimed to "facilitate mobility of tourism professionals within ASEAN based on competence-based tourism qualification/ certification and to improve the quality of services delivered by tourism professionals" (Guide to ASEAN MRA on Tourism Professionals, n.d., para 1). Under MRA-TP, all members agree to recognize the qualification of tourism certification across ASEAN countries. It means tourism professionals of the ASEAN countries will be able to work within the ASEAN countries if they have a valid tourism certification on a certain tourism occupation as indicated in the Common ASEAN Tourism Curriculum (CATC), issued by the Tourism Professional Certification Board (TPCB) of an ASEAN country. CATC covers 32 job titles from six labour divisions in hotel and travel services that is listed in Table 2.22 (Association of Southeast Asian Nations, 2012; Guide to ASEAN MRA on Tourism Professionals, n.d.).

Table 2.22 Six Labor Divisions and 32 Job Titles

Sector	**Hotel Services**				**Travel Services**	
Division	**Front Office**	**Housekeeping**	**Food Production**	**Food and Beverage Service**	**Travel Agencies**	**Tour Operation**
Job Titles	Front Office Manager	Executive Housekeeper	Executive Chef	F&B Director	General Manager	Product Manager
	Front Office Supervisor	Laundry Manager	Demi Chef	F&B Outlet Manager	Assistant General Manager	Sales & Marketing Manager
	Receptionist	Floor Supervisor	Commis Chef	Head Waiter	Senior Travel Consultant	Credit Manager
	Telephone Operator	Laundry Attendant	Chef de Partie	Bartender	Travel Consultant	Ticketing Manager
	Bell Boy	Room Attendant	Commis Pastry	Waiter		Tour Manager
		Public Area Cleaner	Baker			
			Butcher			

Source: Association of Southeast Asian Nations (2012)

CATC, the approved common curriculum for the ASEAN tourism professionals, was designed based on the competencies granted by all ASEAN country members. The curriculum is industry-based, well-structured and offers flexibility to suit the need of the local requirements of each ASEAN country. The Competency Based Training (CBT) approach is used to develop CATC due to its effectiveness as the mean of delivering vocational training. The concept of CBT is to provide learners with essential skills, knowledge and attitudes to demonstrate competency. Table 2.23 shows qualification and description of the competencies of every level, starting from level one up to the level five (Association of Southeast Asian Nations, 2012).

Table 2.23 Qualification and Description of the Competencies

Framework Level		Level Indicator	Job Level
Level 5	**Advanced Diploma**	**Sophisticated, broad and specialized competence with senior management skills** Technical, creative, conceptual or managerial applications built around competencies of either a broad or specialized base and related to a broader organizational focus.	**Managers and Senior Managers**
Level 4	**Diploma**	**Specialized competence with managerial skills** Greater theoretical base and consists of specialized, technical or managerial competencies used to plan, carry out and evaluate work of self and/or team.	
Level 3	**Certificate IV**	**Greater technical competence with supervisory skills** More sophisticated technical applications involving competencies requiring increased theoretical knowledge, applied in a non-routine environment and which may involve team leadership and management and increased responsibility for outcomes.	**Supervisors**
Level 2	**Certificate III**	**Broad range of skills in more varied context and team leader responsibilities** Skilled operator who applies a broad range of competencies within a more varied work context, possibly providing technical advice and support to a team including having team leader responsibilities.	
Level 1	**Certificate II (incorporating certificate I)**	**Basic, routine skills in a defined context** A base operational qualification that encompasses a range of functions/activities requiring fundamental operational knowledge and limited practical skills in a defined context.	**Line Staff**

Source: Association of Southeast Asian Nations (2012, p. 22); Crosbie (2012)

The competency-based qualifications are reflected in the unit of competency which comprises unit code and unit title, unit descriptor, element, performance criteria, range of variable and key competency. The elements of competency define the outcomes of a unit of competency and act as the basic building block of a unit of competency. The standard performance (industry skills need) required to achieve the elements of competency is indicated in the performance criteria. Performance criteria is composed of specific skills, knowledge and attitude to perform a particular job. The comparison of competency standards with curriculum is presented in Figure 2.16.

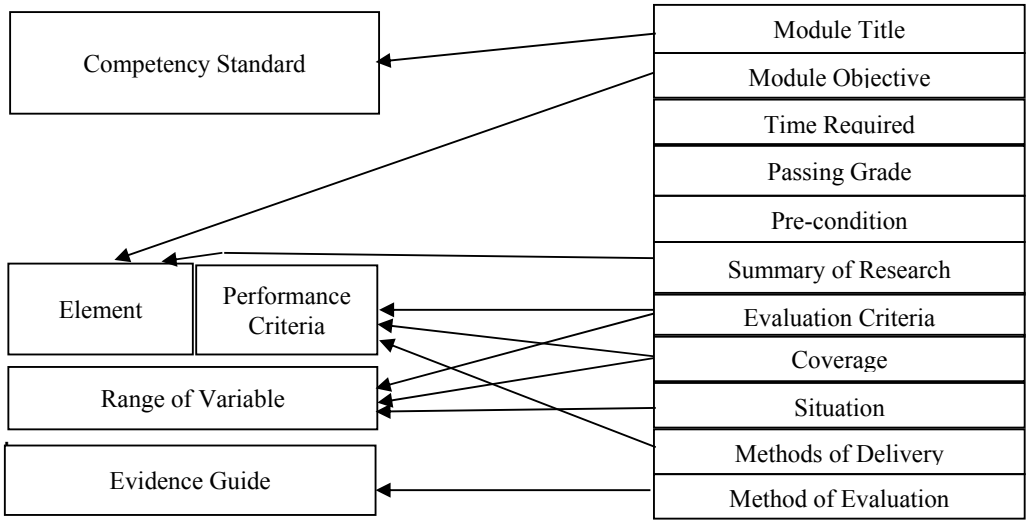


Figure 2.16 Linkage of Competency Standards and the Curriculum
Source: Association of Southeast Asian Nations (2012, p. 30)

2.5.5. The Indonesia Qualification Framework

The Indonesia Qualification Framework (IQF) is designed as a response to the Indonesian agreement on the International Convention of the Recognition of Studies, Diplomas and Degrees in Higher Education in Asia Pacific that was initially

signed on December 16, 1983 (later renewed on January 30, 2008), and the free flow of professionals and skilled labors under the ASEAN Economic Community 2015. A legal endorsement of IQF was noted in the Presidential Decree no. 8/2012. The qualification framework is an instrument in standardizing qualifications and competencies for Indonesian human resources, starting from level one as the lowest and level nine as the highest (Directorate General of Higher Education, Ministry of Education and Culture Republic of Indonesia, 2012). The benefits of IQF are four fold:

1. Increasing the quantity of Indonesian human resources with high quality and internationally competitive capabilities thus granting greater access into national and international job markets,
2. Increasing contribution of learning outcomes achieved through formal, non-formal, informal education or job experiences for the national economic growth,
3. Increasing academic mobility for improving mutual understanding, solidarity and collaboration between universities across countries in the world,
4. Increasing other countries' recognition of Indonesia, both regionally and internationally, without abandoning national identity and personality (Directorate General of Higher Education, Ministry of Education and Culture Republic of Indonesia, 2012, p. 9).

Within the framework, there are four pathways to obtain a certain qualification level: education pathway, occupational pathway in industry to work place, individual experience or self-learning, and professional certification (Figure 2.17) (DIKTI, 2012; KKNI, 2012; Penyelarasan Pendidikan dengan Dunia Kerja Republik Indonesia, 2012; Silitonga, 2013).

Education Level

Professional Certification	JHS	HS	D1	D2	D3	D4 S1	Pro	S2 Sp1	S3 Sp2	Self-learning/ Experience
									9	Individual experience or self-learning
L3								8		
L2							7			
L1						6				
					5					
				4						
			3							
		2								
	1									
	Operator			**Technician/ Analysis**			**Expert**			

Occupational Pathways in Industry or Workplace

Note: JHS: Junior High School, HS: High School, D1-D4: Diploma 1-4, Pro: Professional, S2: Master, S3: Doctor, Sp1: Specialist 1, Sp2: Specialist 2

Figure 2.17 Pathways to Obtain Qualification Level in the IQF System
Source: Directorate General of Higher Education, Ministry of Education and Culture Republic of Indonesia (2012); Penyelarasan Pendidikan dengan Dunia Kerja Republik Indonesia (2012)

Education pathway comprises two streams: academic stream and professional/vocational education stream. The academic stream consists of general high school, Bachelor degree, Master degree and doctoral degree. The vocational/professional education stream consists of vocational high schools, Diploma I, Diploma II, Diploma III, Diploma IV, Master applied, Doctor applied and specialist (Directorate General of Higher Education, Ministry of Education and Culture Republic of Indonesia, 2012). The Diploma IV (D IV) and Bachelor degree (S1) are both positioned at the same level of qualification, level six. Diploma IV is a vocational program that emphasizes the development of practical skills, while the Bachelor course is an academic program that attends to knowledge and science (DIKTI, 2012; Kerangka Kualifikasi Nasional Indonesia, 2012; Silitonga, 2013).

Figure 2.18 and 2.19 show the scheme of IQF and transfer scheme across different educational streams respectively.

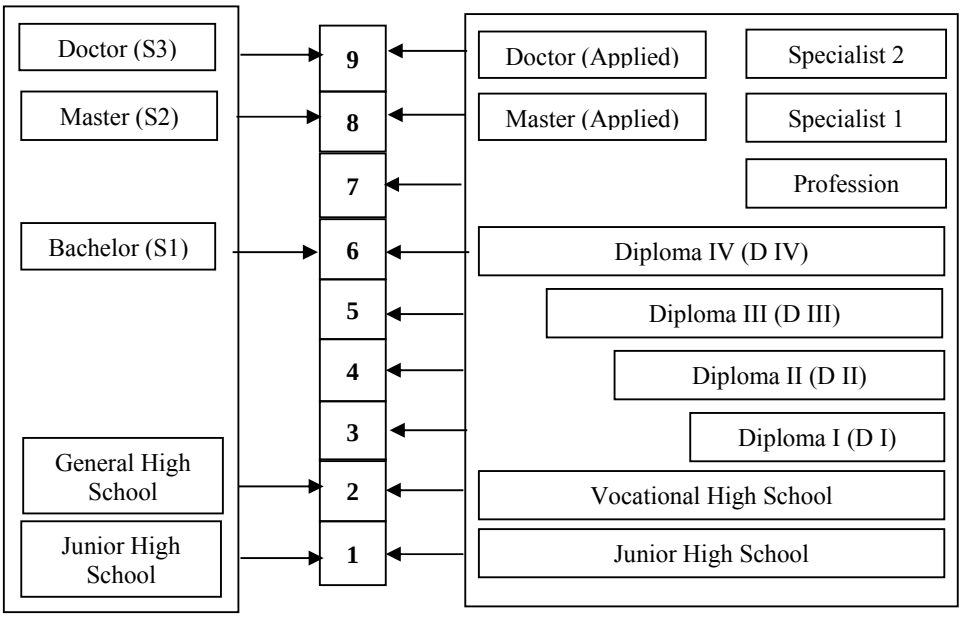


Figure 2.18 The Indonesian Qualification Framework
Source: Directorate General of Higher Education, Ministry of Education and Culture Republic of Indonesia (2012, p. 15)

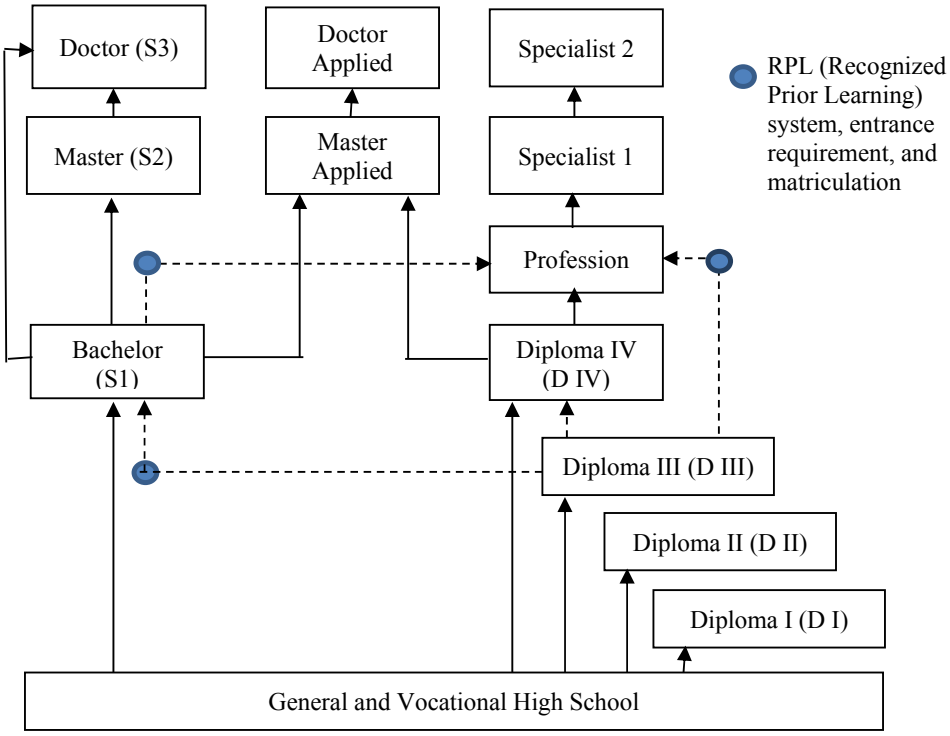


Figure 2.19 Transfer Scheme Across Different Education Streams
Source: Directorate General of Higher Education, Ministry of Education and Culture Republic of Indonesia (2012, p. 17)

IQF governed the moral and ethics elements that should be embedded in all levels. The moral and ethics are coherent with the Indonesia's state ideology "Pancasila" and the culture, character and identity of Indonesian people (Santoso, n.d.; Sugiharto, 2013). These elements encompass:

- Devotion to One Mighty God
- Excellent moral, ethics and personal identity in carrying out one's jobs
- Proud to be an Indonesian citizen, and to love the nation and support the world peace
- Capable of working in teams and show concern to the social, community and environmental issues
- Value diversity in culture, vision, beliefs and religion as well as to appreciate patent and property rights
- Respects the law enforcement and put priority to the national and public needs (Santoso, n.d.; Sugiharto, 2013)

2.5.6. Hospitality and Tourism Education in Indonesia

Hospitality and tourism education in Indonesia started with the establishment of a government-run institution, Akademi Perhotelan Nasional (APN) in Bandung, West Java in 1965. APN was formed from a vocational high school, Sekolah Kejuruan Perhotelan (SKP) in 1959, which later renamed as Sekolah Kejuruan Perhotelan and Perestoranan (SKPP) in 1962. SKKP was transformed into a Hotel and Restaurant Academy (Akademi Perhotelan dan Perestoranan or APP) in 1963. After several changes in the education structure and name, APN became the National Hotel Institute (NHI) in 1973. The institute offered diploma programs

(Diploma I, II, and III) and was financially supported by Switzerland. NHI changed its name to National Hotel & Tourism Institute (NHTI) in 1979 and introduced new programs, Tours and Travel and Tourism Management. Two years later in 1981, NHTI was renamed Balai Pendidikan dan Latihan Pariwisata Bandung (BPLP Bandung) and operated under the Ministry of Tourism, Post and Telecommunication (now the Ministry of Tourism). There are now four higher institutions operated by the Ministry of Tourism: Makassar Tourism Academy, Medan Tourism Academy, Bali Institute of Tourism and Bandung Institute of Tourism. As noted in the Presidential decree No. 101/1993, BLPB Bandung was transformed into an institute known as Sekolah Tinggi Pariwisata Bandung or STP Bandung. STP Bandung currently offers Bachelor and Master degrees in hospitality and tourism administration and management (Oktadiana & Chon, 2014a; STP Bandung, n.d.).

The establishment of STP Bandung had fostered the formation of hospitality and tourism study in other institutions, such as Trisakti Hotel and Tourism Academy (now Trisakti Institute of Tourism) in 1969, Sahid Tourism Academy (now Sahid Institute of Tourism) in 1983, Udayana Bali in 1989, and Pelita Harapan Tourism Academy (now Pelita Harapan School of Hospitality & Tourism) in 1994, just to name a few. At those times, all the Indonesian hospitality and tourism institutions could only provide diploma certificates with Diploma III as the highest qualification. The first Diploma IV (Bachelor of applied science) was introduced by a public university in Bali, Udayana University, in 1989. The first private institution to offer such degree was Trisakti Institute of Tourism in 1999. Many tourism schools followed suit to offer a Diploma IV in hotel management or travel and tourism management (Oktadiana & Chon, 2014a).

The milestone of the Indonesian's hospitality and tourism education took

place on March 31, 2008, marked by the letters from Directorate General of Higher Education No. 947/D/T/2008 and 948/D/T/2008 that were addressed to the Ministry of Culture and Tourism. The letter stated that the Directorate had approved the opening of tourism Bachelor programs at Bandung Institute of Tourism (STP Bandung) and Bali Nusa Dua Institute of Tourism (STP Bali Nusa Dua) starting the academic year 2008/2009. STP Bandung offered three study programs: Tourism Destination, Travel Industry, and Accommodation and Catering (Sodikin, n.d.). Trisakti Institute of Tourism is the first tertiary education that launched Master in Hospitality and Tourism and Master of Science in Hospitality and Tourism in 2010. The institution also offers a joint Master degree program (International Master of Tourism) with Burapha University of Thailand (Pascasarjana STP Trisakti, 2014). Udayana University, Bali, introduced the Faculty of Tourism in 2009. The faculty currently delivers tourism Bachelor programs in Tourism Destination and Travel Industry (Fakultas Pariwisata Universitas Udayana, 2009).

Hospitality and tourism had finally received its recognition by the government as an independent field of study after more than twenty years of struggle from the Indonesian hospitality and tourism educators. Following the recognition, tertiary educational institutions are now officially permitted to offer hospitality and tourism programs at various degree levels: diplomas, undergraduates, and postgraduates (Andriani, 2014; Bali Post, 2008; Hernasari, 2014; Oktadiana & Chon, 2014a; Sokidin, n,d).

Referring to the history, dialogues on tourism as a study was coined by Nyoman S. Pendit through his publication at the Bali Post, dated March 23, 1983. A seminar concerning tourism study was held at the Udayana University, Bali in 1985. The event was attended by scholars from various disciplines. At that time, tourism

was still considered as an enrichment of other disciplines (Sodikin, n.d.). In the same year, on May 1, 1985, a Tourism Study Program (Program Studi Ilmu Kepariwisataan) was established in Udayana University. The program was changed to Tourism Program in 1988, housed in the Faculty of Letters. In July 1997, the Association of the Indonesian Tourism Tertiary Education Institutions or known as HILDIKTIPARI organized a National Workshop V (Rakernas V) in Merdeka Malang University to have a preliminary discourse on tourism curriculum.

A year later, on July 3-4, 1998, HILDIKTIPARI, ITB (Bandung Institute of Technology), and the Education and Training Centre of the Department of Tourism, Arts and Culture, held a workshop on tourism education, conferring the prospect of tourism education and its status as an independent field of study. It was subsequent with the National Workshop VI (Rakernas VI) of HILDIKTIPARI in Solo on November 19-21, 1999 and National Discussion IV HILDIKTIPARI on Augusts 6-9, 2000 in Lampung. The former reviewed a curriculum of tourism Bachelor degree, and the latter discussed a proposal of tourism as an independent field of study (Badan Pengembangan Sumberdaya Kebudayaan dan Pariwisata Departement Kebudayaan dan Pariwisata/Human Resources Development Agency on Culture and Tourism, Department of Culture and Tourism, 2007).

A national seminar on the topic of "The Future of Tourism Education in Indonesia", held in Bali Institute of Tourism on November 16, 2005, suggested that tourism should become a field of study on its own on the basis of multidisciplinary approach. The proposal was fortified at the National Discussion V HILDIKTIPARI at Trisakti Institute of Tourism in Jakarta on April 6, 2006. The proposal recommended tourism programs to be delivered as a vocational education and an academic education. On August 24, 2006, a declaration of tourism as an independent

field of study was prompted by approximately 250 participants. The second declaration (Yogyakarta Declaration) took place in Yogyakarta at the National Workshop HILDIKTIPARI on August 9, 2007.

Succeeding the declarations, the Department of Culture and Tourism organized a workshop in Jakarta (November 12-13, 2007) to further examine the development of tourism as an independent study. The workshop outlined four key points. First point, tourism study was categorized into three divisions: Tourism Service Development *(Pengembangan Jasa Pariwisata),* Travel Organization *(Organisasi Perjalanan),* and Tourism Development Policy *(Kebijakan Pembangunan Pariwisata).* Second, the graduates would be awarded a degree titled S.Par (*Sarjana Pariwisata*/Bachelor of Tourism) for the undergraduate programs, M.Par (*Magister Pariwisata*/Master of Tourism) for the Master programs, and Dr. (*Doktor Pariwisata*/Doctor of Tourism) for the doctoral programs. The needs to define competencies of graduates and the curriculum were the third and the fourth key points (Badan Pengembangan Sumberdaya Kebudayaan dan Pariwisata Departement Kebudayaan dan Pariwisata/Human Resources Development Agency on Culture and Tourism, Department of Culture and Tourism, 2007). Figure 2.20 shows the roadmap of Indonesia tourism towards a recognition as an independent field of study.

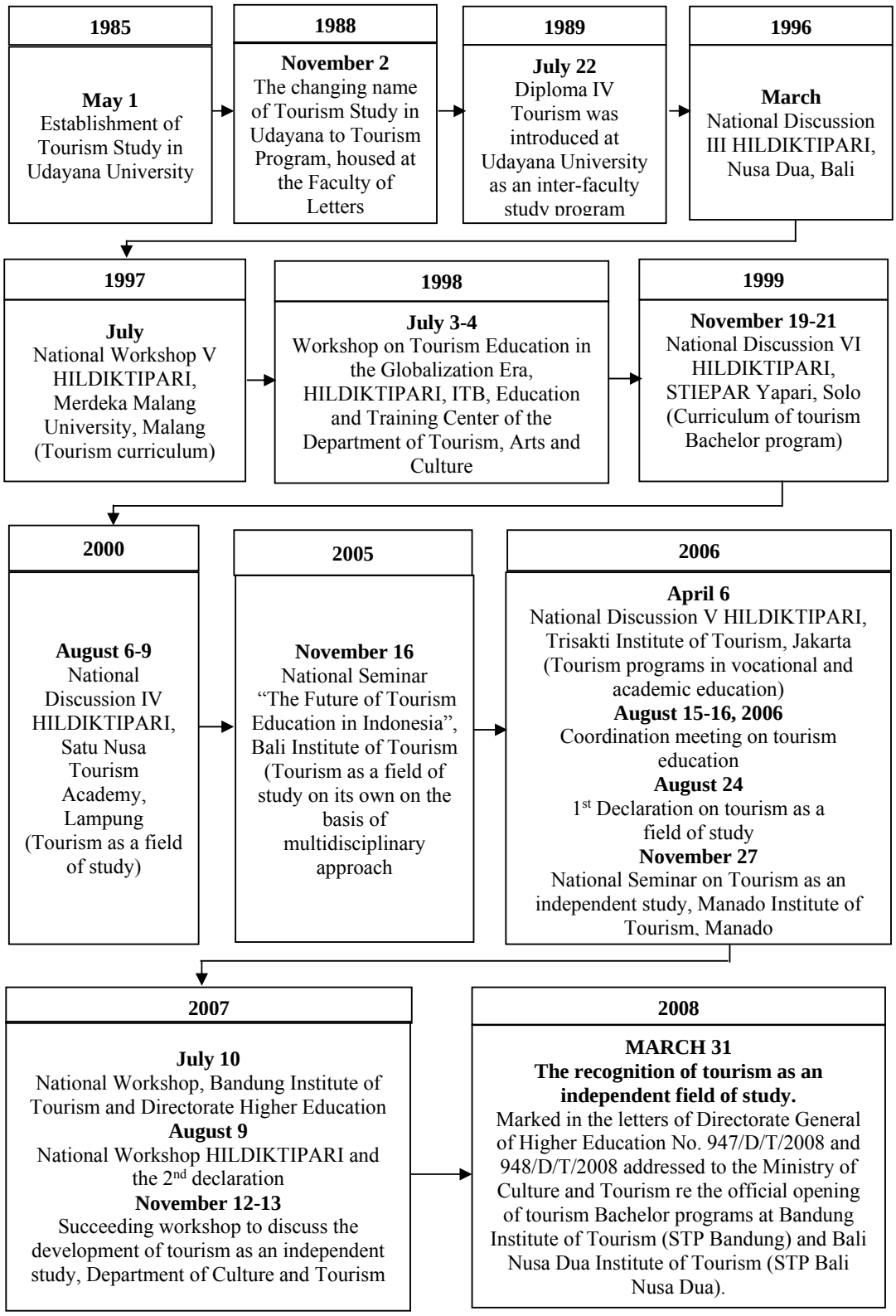


Figure 2.20 Roadmap of Tourism as an Independent Field of Study in Indonesia
Source: Badan Pengembangan Sumberdaya Kebudayaan dan Pariwisata Departemen Kebudayaan dan Pariwisata/Human Resources Development Agency on Culture and Tourism, Department of Culture and Tourism (2007)

In 1995, there were 75 private and public tourism education and training institutions in Indonesia. The number increased to 89 institution in 1999, with 149 programs on offer (Ernawati & Pearce, 2003). As noted in the higher education database of the Directorate General of Higher Education of the Republic of Indonesia, the number of tourism institutions remained the same at the point when this study was conducted. The number of study program however, have escalated (Pangkalan Data Pendidikan Tinggi [PDPT], n.d.). The majority of the institutions (around 70%) are located in Java and Bali (Figure 2.21). The database (Table 2.24) shows that the hospitality and tourism study programs offered in various institutions are classified into three main categories: Tourism, Travel and Hotel. There are 206 study programs at all levels of education with the total number of students amounting 23,469 students. Hotel study program is the largest program with 15,379 students from 118 programs available. Overall, there are two doctoral programs, five Master programs, nine Bachelor programs, 38 Diploma IV, 140 Diploma III, one Diploma II, and 11 Diploma I. Doctoral program is only offered in a tourism study program, whereas the Master is delivered in tourism and hotel study programs. Table 2.25 presents hospitality and tourism programs at D IV and Bachelor levels offered by various higher institutions in Indonesia.

Oktadiana and Chon (2014a) studied 25 of Indonesia's hospitality and tourism higher education institutions that provide vocational and academic Bachelor degree programs. The results indicated that Hotel Management/Administration and Travel Management/Business are the common programs offered at the vocational Bachelor (D IV), whereas Hospitality Management, Tourism Management, Hotel and Tourism/Hospitality and Tourism, and Tourism Destination are relatively delivered in the academic Bachelor program.

Observation on the vision, missions and program objectives of the two Bachelor programs revealed that the statements were relatively closely aligned. The majority of the institutions stated their visions in terms such as “becoming a leading institution”, “center of excellence” and “center of tourism education”. The missions tend to focus on producing qualified human resources, quality education, community development program, partnership, research, and academic and professional education. The objectives are supported by the statements related to producing professional, qualified and skilful (competence) graduates as well as producing top managers. The ambiguity of these program directions may obscure the programs’ main characteristics and uniqueness (Oktadiana & Chon, 2014a).

The researcher’s previous study (Oktadiana, 2013) noted that the curriculum of the vocational and academic Bachelor programs generally contains similar subjects in the area of management, computer and mathematics, language and communication, marketing, economics and business studies, law and psychology. Although content-specific subjects are indicated in Hospitality and Tourism subjects, a number of topics do overlap. It can be argued that knowledge and skills obtained by students of both programs would be comparable due to the analogous of the programs.

Table 2.24 Number of Study Programs and Students in Hospitality and Tourism Higher Education

Classification of Study Program	Level	Number of Study Program	Number of Students
TOURISM			
Tourism	Doctor	2	59
Total		**2**	**59**
Tourism	Master	1	163
Tourism Studies	Master	2	90
Tourism Planning	Master	1	20
Total		**4**	**273**
Tourism	Bachelor	1	356
Tourism Destination	Bachelor	3	286
Tourism Marketing Management	Bachelor	1	454
Hospitality & Tourism/ Hotel & Tourism	Bachelor	2	63
Total		**7**	**1,159**
Tourism	Diploma IV	2	497
Tourism Destination	Diploma IV	1	n/a
Tourism Management	Diploma IV	7	392
Tourism Service Business	Diploma IV	2	150
Tourism Business Management	Diploma IV	2	271
Total		**14**	**1,310**
Tourism	Diploma III	8	1,411
Tourism Planning & Marketing Management	Diploma III	1	n/a
Hotel & Tourism Management	Diploma III	1	206
Tourism Service Business	Diploma III	1	112
Tourism & Sport Education	Diploma III	1	20
Total		**12**	**1,749**
Tourism	Diploma I	1	38
Total		**1**	**38**
Grand total for Tourism study program		**40**	**4,588**
TRAVEL			
Travel Business	Bachelor	1	78
Travel Business	Diploma IV	6	1,004
Travel Business	Diploma III	40	2,412
Travel Business	Diploma I	1	8
Grand total for Travel study program		**48**	**3,502**
HOTEL			
Hotel Management	Master	1	n/a
Total		**1**	
Hotel Management & Tourism	Bachelor	1	63
Total		**1**	**63**
Hotel/ Hotel Management	Diploma IV	15	4,115
Hotel Business	Diploma IV	1	n/a
Hotel Administration	Diploma IV	2	n/a
Total		**18**	**4,115**
Hotel/ Hotel Management	Diploma III	87	10,207
Tourism & Hotel Industry	Diploma III	1	206
Total		**88**	**10,413**
Hotel	Diploma II	**1**	**61**
Hotel	Diploma I	**9**	**727**
Grand total for Hotel study program		**118**	**15,379**
Grand total for all study programs		**206**	**23,469**

Sources: (PDPT, n.d.) (The data presented in the table is based on the institutions with the active status)

Table 2.25 Indonesia's Hospitality and Tourism Higher Education Offering Undergraduate Programs

Inception*	Name of Institution	Location	Programs Offered	Qualification	
				D IV	Bachelor
1962	Bandung Institute of Tourism (STP Bandung)	Bandung, West Java	- Hospitality:		
			• Hotel Administration	√	
			• Accommodation and Catering		√
			- Tourism:		
			• Tourism Destination Management	√	
			• Tourism Business Management	√	
			• Tourism Destination Study		√
			- Travel:		
			• Travel Business Management	√	
			• Convention and Event Business Management	√	
			• Travel Organization Management	√	
			• Travel Industry Study		√
1962	Yapari-Aktripa Institute of Tourism Economic (STIE Pariwisata Yapari-Aktripa)	Bandung, West Java	- Management (concentration in Tourism Management)		√
1968	Satya Widya Institute of Tourism	Surabaya, East Java	- Hotel Management - Tourism Management	√	
1969	Trisakti Institute of Tourism (STP Trisakti)	Jakarta	- Hotel Management - Travel Management - International Program Hotel and Tourism Management	√ √ √	 √
1970	Semarang Institute of Tourism Economic (STIE Pariwisata Indonesia Semarang)	Semarang, Central Java	- Hotel Management - Tourism Management		√ √
1978	Bali Institute of Tourism Nusa Dua (STP Bali Nusa Dua)	Nusa Dua, Bali	- Hotel Administration - Tourism Management - Hospitality Accounting Management - Travel Business Management - MICE and Event Management - Hospitality Business - Tourism Destination	√ √ √ √ √	 √ √
1983	Sahid Institute of Tourism (STP Sahid)	Jakarta	- Hotel Management - Travel Business	√ √	
1986	Petra Christian University (Faculty of Economics, Management	Surabaya, East Java	- Hotel Management - Tourism and Leisure Management		√ √

	Program)				
1987	AMPTA Yogyakarta Institute of Tourism (STP AMPTA)	Yogyakarta	- Travel Business Management - Hotel Administration - Hospitality	√ √ 	 √
1989	Udayana University (Faculty of Tourism)	Denpasar, Bali	- Tourism - Tourism Destination - Travel Tourism Industry	√ 	 √ √
1989	Merdeka University of Malang	Malang, East Java	Tourism Management	√	
1994	Pelita Harapan Institute of Tourism (STP Pelita Harapan)	Tangerang, West Java	- Hospitality Management - Travel Industry Management	√ √	
1999	Sahid Institute of Tourism	Solo, Central Java	- Hotel Management - Travel Business	√ √	
2000	Swiss German University (Faculty of Business Administration & Humanities)	Tangerang, West Java	Hotel and Tourism Management		√
2000	STEIN (STIE Pariwisata International)	Jakarta	Management (concentration in Hotel and Travel)		√
2000	API Institute of Tourism Economic (STIE Pariwisata API Yogyakarta)	Yogyakarta	Tourism Management		√
2001	Ambarrukmo Tourism Institute (STP Ambarrukmo)	Yogyakarta	Hospitality		√
2003	Manado Institute of Tourism (STP Manado)	Manado, North Sulawesi	- Hotel Management - Travel Business	√ 	
2003	Riau Institute of Tourism Economic (STIEPAR RIAU)	Pakanbaru, Riau	- Hotel Management - Travel Business	√ √	
2005	University of Indonesia (UPI) (Faculty of Social Science Education, Tourism Study Program)	Bandung, West Java	- Resort and Leisure Management - Tourism Marketing Management - Catering Industry Management		√ √ √
2006	Ciputra University	Surabaya, East Java	- International Hospitality and Tourism Business - Culinary Business		√
2008	BINUS University (Faculty of Economics and Communication/ Faculty of Business)	Jakarta	- Hotel Management - Hospitality and Tourism Management (Hospitality and Tourism; Leisure and Event)	√ 	 √
2008	Pancasila University (Faculty of Tourism)	Depok, West Java	- Tourism Destination		√
2008	The International Bali Tourism Institute	Denpasar, Bali	- Hotel Management - Tourism Management	√ √	

	(STP Bali International)			
2010	Atma Jaya University (Faculty of Business Administration and Communication)	Jakarta	Hospitality	√
2014	Podomoro University (Faculty of Social)	Jakarta	Hotel Business	√

Note: *Inception presented in Table 2.25 indicates the commencement of hospitality/tourism program in an institution
Sources: HILDIKTIPARI/Association of the Indonesian Tourism Tertiary Education Institutions (2014); PDPT (n.d.); the institutions' websites

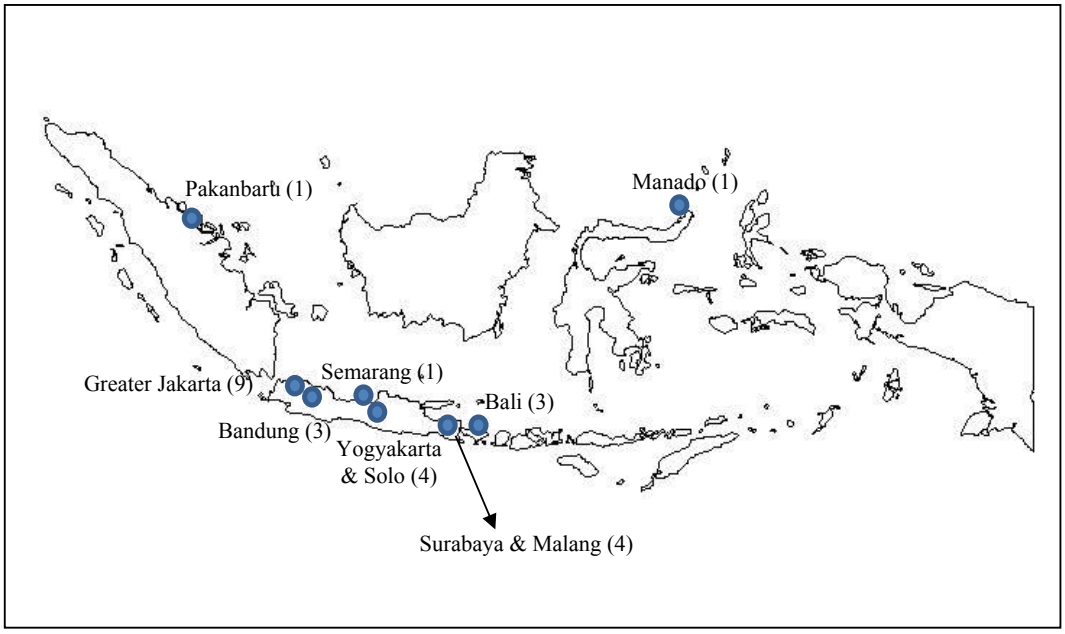


Figure 2.21 Location of Indonesia's Hospitality and Tourism Higher Education Offering Undergraduate Programs
Source of map: http://fin6.com/2014/01/blank-maps/

2.6. The Conceptual Framework

Reviews of the literature indicated that global debates on hospitality and tourism higher education address various topics, such as the distinct purpose of hospitality and tourism program, the approach to knowledge (e.g. multidisciplinary versus interdisciplinary), the skills gap between what the industries required and

what the schools taught, the housing of programs, curriculum content, delivery methods, strong vocational focus and how vocational and liberal education should be balanced, and quality assurance (e.g. Airey, 2004; Borchgrevink & Sciarini, 1999; Busby & Fiedel, 2001; Cooper & Westlake, 1989; Cooper et al., 1996; Dopson & Tas, 2004; Dredge et al., 2012b; Eder & Umbreit, 1998; Fenich, 1999; Fidgeon, 2010; Goldner, 2001; Goeldner & Ricthie, 2012; Gunn, 1991; Inui et al., 2006; Jennings, 2010; Leiper, 1981, 2000; Lo, 2005; Lockwood, 1995; Mayaka & Akama, 2007; Pearce, 1993; Robbins, 2005; Sripun & Ladkin, 2001; Stanciulescu & Bulin, 2001; Tribe, 1997, 2002; 2010; Weaver & Lawton, 2010). Unquestionably, such issues may influence the development of hospitality and tourism study and its educational process, resulting in a confused curriculum structure. As an academic plan, the curriculum reflects the educational experiences of the students. What is in the curriculum therefore, will affect the outcomes/output (Dredge et al., 2012a; Mayaka & Akama, 2007).

Reverting to the Indonesian context, the advancement and growth of Indonesia's tourism requires well-trained and well-educated human resources in all types of hospitality and tourism job occupations (Kompas, 2015; Shortt, 1994; Sugiyarto, et al., 2003). This needs have been recognized and expressed by the Indonesian government and Indonesia tourism stakeholders (c.f. Andriani, 2014; Hernasari, 2014; Indopos, 2014). In general, Indonesia needs two categories of human resources to fill in various occupations and positions in the hospitality and tourism field. The first type is the people who are capable to implement strategies and day-to-day operations (e.g. operational managers, front liners, operators, administrators). The second type is the people who can develop concept, create planning and strategies for tourism (e.g. tourism planner & developer, policy

makers, educators/ scholars, researchers). This can only be attained through a well-defined education system incorporating both academic education and the vocational education (Andriani, 2014; Hernasari, 2014; Indopos, 2014). However, observation on the current hospitality and tourism programs, supported with the preliminary study described in Chapter 1 (Background to the research, p. 7) revealed that the purpose and content of the curriculum between the vocational Bachelor style and the academic Bachelor mode are still perplexed and unsettled. There is, therefore, an urgent need to develop a curriculum that will fit each type of education to produce well round graduates who are capable of serving the industry and the community. The curriculum should be designed to produce desired outcomes in meeting the demands of the two types of human resources. It is expected that the focus of vocational Bachelor program is to produce graduates who can serve the hospitality and tourism industry, whereas the emphasis of academic Bachelor mode is to produce graduates who can see the "big picture", develop, and maintain the tourism sector.

The search for the vocational and academic Bachelor curriculum in this thesis focuses on four vital elements: aims and objectives, course content, learning and instruction, and assessment. The development of such a curriculum framework takes into account the ASEAN MRA-TP (Mutual Recognition Agreement for Tourism Professionals), Indonesian Qualification Framework (IQF), and the global issues facing hospitality and tourism education. Indonesia hospitality and tourism education needs to learn from and reflect upon the global trends and issues of hospitality and tourism education in the international setting. The conceptual framework of this thesis is presented in Figure 2.22.

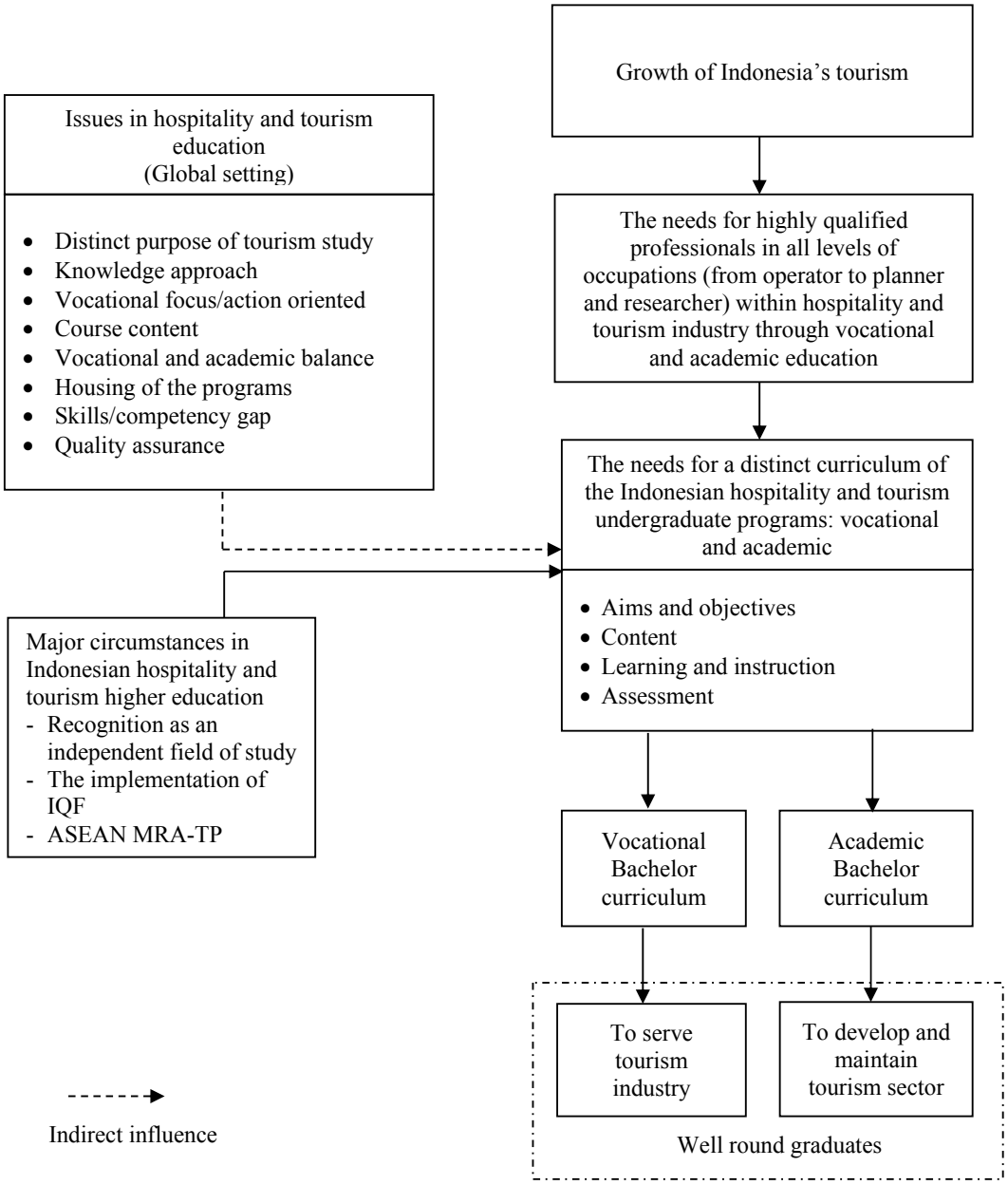


Figure 2.22 The Conceptual Framework of the Research

2.7. Summary

The material reported in Chapter Two considered hospitality and tourism education development in the global context as well as raising issues specific to Indonesia. The global tourism industry, hospitality and tourism education in the developed and developing countries, hospitality and tourism issues, hospitality and tourism research, issues in curriculum planning, and the research setting were all discussed. Discourse on the curriculum concerned with the curriculum models and components, design and development, and historical issues in Indonesian hospitality and tourism education were presented. Given various curriculum models, it was noted that the critical components of a curriculum should include the aims and objectives, content or subject matter, learning and instruction approaches, and assessment/evaluation. The construction of a curriculum should be built on an educational philosophy as its core guidelines. The discussion revealed the importance of having a distinctive curriculum for the vocational and academic undergraduate programs for the Indonesia's hospitality and tourism higher institutions as the centre of this study. The approach to this task and the aims of this thesis lie in the specification of such a framework built on the key stakeholders' and informants' views on four topics: aims and objectives, course content, learning and instruction, and assessment

In the next chapter, methods employed for this research is explained. This includes the research paradigm, flow of the research, instrument development, respondent, data collection and analysis, trustworthiness, and ethical considerations.

Chapter 3

METHODOLOGY

In this chapter the research methods adopted for this study are described. The presentation of information commences with an overview of the research paradigm and the flow of the research. Next, the development of the research instrument and the selection and sampling of respondents are explained. The ways in which the researcher collected the data and analysed the material are discussed. The concepts of trustworthiness and ethical considerations are then reviewed before offering a summary of the chapter.

3.1. The Research Paradigm

A research paradigm or research philosophy helps to shape how people study their world. A paradigm shapes the way people look at the world and what they see, as well as specifies how and by whom a research should be carried out (Rubin & Rubin, 2005). Positivist and interpretive approaches are two major research paradigms that are widely known. The positivist approach seeks and obtains information through survey, experiments, and statistical analysis. The interpretive approach looks for evidence from different perspectives and experiences of people and tries to represent the various differences into a single account (Rubin & Rubin, 2005). The qualitative approach is closely associated with the emic perspective of the epistemological view. The interpretive social science paradigm asserts that the insider's view is important (Jennings, 2010). Jennings contends that qualitative approach that is linked with the holistic-inductive paradigm has several traits. In an

ontological view, the research uses an inductive approach based on the real world that allows multiple realities. An epistemological position is subjective/intersubjective where the information is based on the perspectives of the participants. An axiological view is propositional, transactional, intrinsic, and experiential. The research design maybe study-specific, unstructured and grows from the research setting. The sampling is non-random in which not all population has an equal opportunity to be selected for the study. Empirical materials are in the forms of textual units (written or visual) and interpreted or analysed by drawing out the themes or motifs. The findings are presented in narrative written format.

Tribe (2001) proposed three types of research paradigm in the study of tourism curriculum design, namely scientific positivist, the interpretive, and the critical. The scientific positivist is technically oriented in general, and may have limited implication for the curriculum design. This approach mainly emphasizes the measurable facts or data, low attention on meaning and values, and less focus on the human aspect. The positivist position tends to seek a solution to a problem based on hypothesis formulation and testing and probabilities. Quantitative measurement and experiments that identify means, patterns, and test theory are the key practices of this approach. An example of curriculum study using a scientific positivist paradigm can be found in Koh (2005). He sought clarification on the indispensable components of the US curriculum from the industry's point of view. Koh used a combination of survey and Delphi technique to find the solution. Koh's work tend to favour business/industry interest, rather than the whole tourism society. His study resulted in a partial curriculum rather than the comprehensive one (Tribe, 2001).

The other alternatives, interpretive and the critical paradigms, bring the aspect of human being to the foreground of the research activity. Tribe (2001)

further states that “curriculum is a product of human thoughts and is socially constructed” (p. 447). Hence, the starting point of the curriculum design within the interpretive approach comes from the participant as the subjects. The participants (referred to as the stakeholders in the tourism environment) may provide their opinion and seek agreement and understanding of the tourism world and purpose in a curriculum design. The general outcomes of the interpretive method is enlightenment and understanding (Tribe, 2001).

Critical theory is initially used to pin down the influence of certain ideology (Tribe, 2001). A particular ideology or common sense background can lead to a specific action in research and disregard other factors. Critical theorists strive for a fresh way to view topics using an open mind to all possible factors, and not being governed by the operation of certain ideology. The approach emphasizes the emancipatory interest: emancipation from ideology and control by technical interest, as well as emancipation to create changing for a better world. The general outcome of critical theory is liberation (Tribe, 2001).

Another interesting set of interests about the researchers’ position and purpose is offered by Flyvbjerg’s (2001) phronetic social science draws on Aristotle’s concept of the phronesis or intellectual virtue. Phronesis epitomizes values and interest as the basis of praxis. The four rational value questions for researchers proposed by Flyvbjerg comprise: where are we going, who gains and who loses, is it desirable, and what should be done. Flyvbjerg asserts that phronetic social science aims to contribute to practical rationality of the society based on the values and interests within a certain context. Thus the phronetic approach does not intend to develop a theory. It holds an interpretive view where the researchers seek the perspectives of people in the community or organization related to the study. The

interpretation is made from the dialogues (i.e. interviews) to produce results as an input to the continuing social dialogue.

The research in this thesis adopts an interpretive approach using qualitative means due to several reasons. First, the qualitative method is beneficial for collecting rich data and offers a voice to participants in the study. This study is also grounded in the real situation/context/case which is the nature of truth in a qualitative approach. Second, the interpretive approach guides the in-depth interviewing process in order to seek and understand the social world through people's perspectives. This approach also allows the researcher to observe and look for specific and detailed information and interpretation. A qualitative interview is built on interpretive paradigm. Third, this study is an exploratory study emphasizing the "what" research questions to discover the nature of a phenomena/themes and patterns and build an initial model. The framework (curriculum) will serve as an input to the Indonesia's hospitality and tourism education for the development of the academic and the vocational Bachelor programs. Fourth, the participants/stakeholders act as the starting point of the curriculum design by asking their point of view/judgment. Employment of different perspectives will strengthen the objectivity of the study and interpretations. Fifth, human action/activity can be seen and treated as a text for analysis in interpretive orientation through interviews and observations (Ayikoru, 2004; Bernard & Ryan, 2010; Creswell, 1998; Flyvbjerg, 2001; Guba, 1990; Jennings, 2010; Minichiello, Aroni, Timewell, & Alexander, 1995; Rubin & Rubin, 2005; Tribe, 2001; Tribe, 2010).

3.2. Flow of the Research

This research was triggered and motivated by the condition of hospitality and tourism higher education in Indonesia. As noted in Chapter Two, there is confusion in the offerings after the areas gained recognition. Intrigued by the emergence of academic undergraduate program in hospitality and tourism (in addition to the existing vocational program), the researcher is interested in exploring in more in-depth the curriculum of the academic and the vocational Bachelor programs. The initial act taken by the researcher was to interview 21 senior level educators and industry professionals in hospitality and tourism sector in May and June 2013. The results of the interviews and literature review serve as the groundwork for the conceptual development of the framework for clarifying issue in this area.

The next stage was to formulate suitable research questions to achieve the purpose of the research, and to select the sites and participants. Primary data were obtained from four groups of stakeholders (hospitality and tourism educators, students, industry professionals, government representatives) through an in-depth semi structured interview. Secondary data are were also obtained from various documents, articles, and textbooks related to curriculum and education study. The collected data were organized using NVivo 10 software to code and categorize the material. Content analysis was employed as it is a useful technique to observe themes, patterns and trends from the data. Results or findings generated from this study were presented to the selected respondents to obtain feedback and confirmation on the curriculum framework. Credibility and trustworthiness were gained through various means to strengthen the study. Other vital issues such ethical

concern and generalization are also included in this study. The flow of research is presented in Figure 3.1.

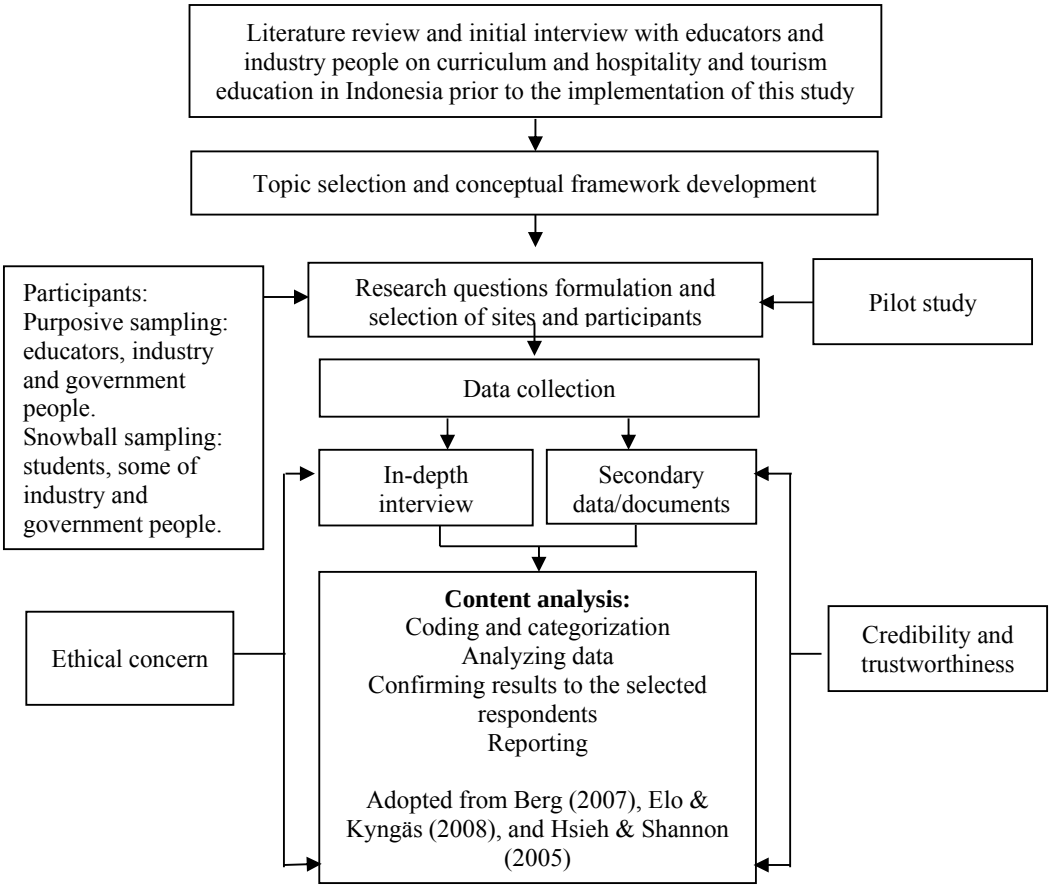


Figure 3.1 Flow of Research

3.3. Developing the Instruments

The main purpose of this study was to explore and develop a curriculum framework for two types of undergraduate programs of Indonesia's hospitality and tourism higher education (vocational and academic Bachelors). To meet the specified aim, data had to be obtained from several important stakeholders from

hospitality and tourism institutions, hospitality and tourism industry/associations and government body that is closely related to this field of study. In this regard, a semi-structured in-depth interview was preferred to gain a deep, rich, nuance, and detail information to develop a curriculum framework. This was supported with a close examination of the existing curriculum documents of various hospitality and tourism institutions as well as articles related to Indonesia's tourism industry and its tertiary hospitality and tourism education. A logic of the methods decisions in connection to the research questions and objectives of this study is disclosed in Table 3.1.

Table 3.1 provides information on potential respondents, data collection and data analysis. This serves as a basis for developing interview questions in order to achieve the research objectives. The construction of interview questions involved pilot studies which tested the efficacy of the questions. Detail explanations regarding respondents, data collection and data analysis are presented following this section.

Table 3.1 Linkage of Research Questions and Objectives and Research Methods

Research Questions and Objectives	Where Will I Find the Data?	Data Collection Methods	Whom Do I Contact for Access of Data?	Data Analysis
RQ1: What is the desired graduate profiles of the academic and the vocational Bachelor programs? O1: To determine graduate profiles of Indonesia's hospitality and tourism undergraduate programs that suit the occupational needs of Indonesia's tourism industry.	- Hospitality and tourism higher education that delivers vocational (D IV) and academic Bachelor programs - Hospitality and tourism industry and associations - Government	- Interviews - Examine articles/news related to Indonesia's tourism industry	- Educators (top management with experience and knowledge in curriculum) - Senior students/ student with industry experiences - Professional from various sectors of hospitality and tourism industry/ associations - Government representatives from the Ministry of Tourism and Directorate General Higher Education	Content analysis: Interview transcription; re-reading; coding and categorization; abstraction; formulation of curriculum framework; finalization of the framework with selected respondents
RQ2: What constitute the curriculum of the academic and the vocational Bachelor programs? O2: To generate aims and objectives for the academic and vocational Bachelor programs in Indonesia's hospitality and tourism higher education. O3: To develop the content of the curriculum for the academic and vocational Bachelor programs in Indonesia's hospitality and tourism higher education. O4: To develop the prevailing learning and instruction for the academic and vocational Bachelor programs in Indonesia's hospitality and tourism higher education. O5: To develop the classification of assessment for the academic and vocational Bachelor programs in Indonesia's hospitality and tourism higher education.	- Hospitality and tourism higher education that delivers vocational (D IV) and academic Bachelor programs - Hospitality and tourism industry and associations - Government	- Interviews - Review of curriculum documents from the selected institution participant		

Adopted from Maxwell (2013, p. 117)

3.3.1. Pilot Study

A pilot study was conducted to check the clarity of the interview questions. There were two steps in the pilot study. In the first step, the researcher distributed the interview questions guideline list to ten participants for their examination. Nine participants were hospitality and tourism educators and one participant was from the industry, who was at that time undertaking a doctoral program. The educators came from hospitality and tourism higher institutions in Indonesia, Malaysia, Thailand, Hong Kong, and Australia. The participants were selected through personal network by taking into account their considerable knowledge and experiences in hospitality and tourism education and/or industry. The multiplicity of participants from various institutions in several countries is deemed beneficial to enrich and heighten the interview questions. Comments and feedback were provided through direct communication and non-direct communication such as e-mail. This examination aids assisted the identification of poorly worded questions or blind spots. The researcher then modified the questions based on the pilot results.

In the second step, the researcher conducted an interview with two Indonesian hospitality and tourism educators to assess whether all the required information can be attained and the interview is effective (Berg, 2007). Based on that interview, it was found that there were some redundancies and overlap in some questions. The questions were again rephrased to gain clear and rich answers from the respondents. The researcher modified the interview questions to ensure a direct alignment between the questions and the research objectives with the assistance of a lecturer who has a pedagogy background. The revised questions were also reviewed by two hospitality and tourism educators from hospitality and tourism institutions in

Indonesia and Hong Kong. The edited version of interview question was then re-tested to a hospitality and tourism educator from Indonesia to confirm its clarity and effectiveness.

The participants were six males and four females with at least five years working experiences in hospitality and/or tourism sector. Seven of them were taking doctoral degree in hospitality/tourism when the pilot study was conducted. Their ages ranged between 27 to 54 years old. The profile of participants involved in the pilot study is presented in Table 3.2.

Table 3.2 Profile of Participants in the Pilot Study

Code	Location of Institution	Nationality	Age	Gender	Education	Work Experiences
P1	Australia	Australian	54	Male	PhD	35 years
P2	Hong Kong	Hong Kong	45	Female	Master*	11 years
P3	Hong Kong	Russian	28	Male	PhD	5 years
P4	Indonesia	Indonesian	27	Female	Master*	5 years
P5	Indonesia	Indonesian	35	Male	Master*	12 years
P6	Indonesia	Iranian	35	Male	PhD	5 years
P7	Indonesia	Indonesian	41	Female	Master*	20 years
P8	Malaysia	Malaysian	44	Male	Master*	22 years
P9	Malaysia	Indian	38	Male	Master*	14 years
P10	Thailand	Thai	37	Female	Master*	13 years

Note: * The participants were taking doctoral degree at the point of involvement

3.3.2. The Structure of Interview Questions

The final questions are shown in Table 3.3 as well as in the appendix which offers further details.

Table 3.3 Linkage of Interview Questions with the Research Questions and Objectives

Research Questions	Objectives	Main Interview Questions
RQ1: What is the desired graduate profiles of the academic and the vocational Bachelor programs?	O1: To determine graduate profiles of Indonesia's hospitality and tourism undergraduate programs that suit the occupational needs of Indonesia's tourism industry.	1. What do you think of the current situation of Indonesia's tourism and hospitality industry and education? 2. What do you think the major challenges confronting Indonesia's tourism and hospitality industry and education in the next 10 years or so? 3. What kind of occupations does Indonesia need to promote its tourism industry? 4. How do graduates from vocational D IV and academic Bachelor programs fill in the desired occupational needs?
RQ2: What constitute the curriculum of the academic and the vocational Bachelor programs?	O2: To generate aims and objectives for the academic and vocational Bachelor programs in Indonesia's hospitality and tourism higher education.	5. What aims and objectives of vocational D IV and/or academic Bachelor programs do you recommend? 6. To achieve the aims and objectives, what knowledge and skills should the graduates of vocational D IV and/or academic Bachelor have?
	O3: To develop the content of the curriculum for the academic and vocational Bachelor programs in Indonesia's hospitality and tourism higher education.	7. Given the aims and objectives, what would be the emphasis of content or subject area of vocational D IV and/or academic Bachelor programs?
	O4: To develop the prevailing learning and instruction for the academic and vocational Bachelor programs in Indonesia's hospitality and tourism higher education.	8. What range of learning and teaching approaches are appropriate for vocational D IV and/or academic Bachelor? 9. What kind of activities do you propose to enhance students' soft skills? 10. How do lecturers' educational background and work experiences influence the learning and teaching? 11. What is your suggestion regarding the characteristics of vocational D IV lecturers and/or academic Bachelor lecturers?
	O5: To develop the classification of assessment for the academic and vocational Bachelor programs in Indonesia's hospitality and tourism higher education.	12. What are the range of assessment approaches suitable for vocational D IV and/or academic Bachelor that you recommend? 13. How do you explain the characteristics of vocational D IV's final project and/or the Bachelor's thesis? 14. How do you typify the internship programs of vocational D IV and/or the academic Bachelor? Questions related to curriculum evaluation were only addressed to educators: 15. How do you evaluate curriculum to ensure that it has met the aims and objectives? 16. How often do you evaluate the curriculum?

3.4. Respondents

The selection of respondents in this study considered sample adequacy or appropriateness of the sample through a careful selection of respondents who have knowledge and best represent the study (Bowen, 2008). As the purpose of this study is to explore diverse perspectives, ideas and opinions, the focus therefore, is on the quality of data and the richness of the information obtained from the respondents (Bowen, 2008; O'Reilly & Parker, 2012). One may argue that the sample size should be large enough to disclose any important information and perceptions. However, if the sample size is too large, data may become repetitive, tedious, and unnecessary (Mason, 2010). Naturally, the number of interviews in the field for the qualitative study depends on the data saturation, which is to find information until no more new insights can be found (Bernard & Ryan, 2010; Creswell, 1998; Creswell, 2014; Minichiello et al., 1995). The sample adequacy in this research can be evidenced by the saturation of data where sufficient information is obtained to explain the phenomenon under study. Moreover, constant comparative method was also applied to review the interviews to identify and decide the most fitted code related to the concept of this study (Bowen, 2008). Darlington and Scott (2002) argued that it is sensible to limit the number of respondents particularly if there are several groups of participants. It is also not unusual to have a small sample size in qualitative research (e.g. one to twenty or thirty) such as in an in-depth interview because it is a time-intensive research with complex social interaction (Creswell, 2014; Minichiello et al., 1995).

Purposive sampling (judgmental sampling) was primarily chosen for the interview. The researcher made a mindful decision based on her knowledge as to

which participant selections and tourism schools site would best provide the required information for the study (Berg, 2007; Jennings, 2010). Purposive sampling is customarily employed in content analysis studies (Kyngäs, Elo, Pölkki, Kääriäinen, & Kanste, 2011 as cited in Elo et al., 2014). A snowball sampling or respondent-driven sampling was used in the selection of students as the researcher did not know about the students and also another five respondents from the industry (3), education (1), and the government (1). Thus, the judgement simply relied on accessing those referred by key other people (Berg, 2007; Minichiello et al., 1995). Rubin and Rubin (2005) argued that one approach to find the right respondent is by asking people who work and are involved in a certain setting and have appropriate knowledge about that scene.

This study involved 36 respondents consisting 14 educators, 12 students, eight industry professionals, and two government officials. The educational institutions as well as the number of educators and students chosen for the interview were carefully considered and deemed to represent both academic and vocational undergraduate programs. A careful plan in choosing the respondents was followed to ensure credible results by finding and picking interviewees who were knowledgeable and experienced in the area being studied. Furthermore, appropriate sampling aids in extending the results of the study and in building convincing evidence (Rubin & Rubin, 2005).

The designated hospitality and tourism institutions were the prominent hospitality and tourism education providers listed in the Association of the Indonesian Tourism Tertiary Education Institutions (known as HILDIKTIPARI in Indonesia) and the database of Directorate Higher Education of Republic Indonesia that offer vocational (D IV) and Bachelor programs. There were 12 institutions

selected for this study. They are located in Java and Bali: six in Greater Jakarta, two in Bandung-West Java, two in Bali, and one each in Yogyakarta and Surabaya.

The educators were selected based on their knowledge and experiences in curriculum design and development, and their job position/roles (holding a managerial position or had served in a school's management team). To depend solely on a job position may not be a good proxy for what they know and understand in a specific case or context (Rubin & Rubin, 2005). Students were chosen according to their level or study and their work experiences in hospitality/tourism industry. The third or fourth year students who have industry experiences and taken most of the courses were invited for an interview based on the recommendation from the head of program/head of department/dean/chairman of the participating institutions. The pool of students composed six academic Bachelor students and six vocational Bachelor students.

Respondents from the industry were selected on the grounds of their senior position and working experiences, as well as their interest and involvement in hospitality and tourism education. To represent the broad and various sectors of hospitality and tourism industry, the respondents were professionals in hotel associations, the food and beverage service industry, a culinary association, the MICE industry, a travel agent association, the catering and airline sector, and a tourism organization.

The interviews with two government representatives were carefully planned and thought out by considering a couple of major aspects. Firstly, these two representatives have broad and sufficient knowledge and experiences in hospitality and tourism education. They have been involved in various hospitality and tourism education programs such as in the development of Indonesia Qualification Framework for this field of study. Secondly, they are senior level staff holding key positions. They are very

well-known and respected among the Indonesian hospitality and tourism educators. Moreover, in determining the involvement of the government representatives in this study, suggestions from the author's colleagues at the Association of the Indonesian Tourism Tertiary Education Institutions were also taken into account.

Kanji and Tambi (1999, as cited in Yeung, 2004) and Morgan (2004) suggest that stakeholders such as employers, students and funding bodies should be taken into account in a curriculum design. There are several reasons for the students' partaking in a curriculum decision making. First, students are engaged with the curriculum and they will work together with the teachers in a number of situations. Second, students are clients that have rights and expectations. Third, they already have experiences in decision making through extracurricular activities (Marsh, 1997). Allen (1995, as cited in Marsh, 1997) proposed that students should be encouraged to express their concerns and make decision in the context of empowerment in education. Ernawati (2002) concurred that there were needs to involve stakeholders concerning the core body of knowledge in the curriculum. The importance of industry involvement in the process of curriculum or developing objectives and competencies have been advocated by various scholars (e.g. Gursoy et al., 2012; Mayo & Thomas-Haysbert, 2005; Primrose & Alexander, 2013; Yeung, 2004). Another value of having different background and site characteristics of respondents is to support the extension and generalization of the study. The results of study can be held more generally when they produce the same themes from those dissimilar setting (Rubin & Rubin, 2005). The characteristics of respondents in this study is shown in Table 3.4, while the profile of respondents is presented in Table 3.5. Further explanation about the respondents is provided in the Chapter Four, Results and Discussion section.

Table 3.4 Characteristics of Respondents

Background Characteristics	Specifications	Site Characteristics
Educators	- Top management of the school (head of program/academic, dean, deputy dean, vice president of academic affairs, president, director) - Senior lecturer/assistant professor/associate professor/professor - Having experience in designing/developing curriculum or part of the curriculum committee	- Reputable and well-known institutions (preferably A or B accredited) plus one new study program to enrich the perspectives - Derived from the database of Association of the Indonesian Tourism Tertiary Education Institutions (HILDIKTIPARI) and Directorate Higher Education of Republic Indonesia - Twelve institutions that offer vocational Bachelor and academic Bachelor programs located in Greater Jakarta (6), Bandung (2), Yogyakarta (1), Surabaya (1), Bali (2)
Industry professionals	- Top management (e.g. general manager, director, department head/division, managers) - Owner - Chairman/board members of hospitality and tourism association - Having involvement and concern on hospitality and tourism education	- ASITA (Association of the Indonesian Tours & Travel Agencies) - HHRMA (Hotel Human Resources Managers Association) - HMPPI (Association of Indonesian Hotel Training Managers) - ICA (Indonesian Chef Association) - PATA Indonesia Chapter - MICE industry - Food and beverage services - Airline and catering business
Students	- Third and fourth year students - Having completed industrial placement/internship/have been working in the industry	Twelve institutions located in Greater Jakarta that offer vocational Bachelor and academic Bachelor programs (6), Bandung (2), Yogyakarta (1), Surabaya (1), Bali (2)
Government officials	- Senior/key position - Having experience in hospitality and tourism endeavors	1. Ministry of Tourism 2. Directorate General of Higher Education

Table 3.5 Respondents' Profile

Code	Category	Age	Gender	Education	Work Experiences
Edu1	Educator	42	Female	Master *	16 years
Edu2	Educator	50	Male	Master	24 years
Edu3	Educator	40	Female	Master	7 years
Edu4	Educator	47	Female	Master	21 years
Edu5	Educator	39	Female	PhD	10 years
Edu6	Educator	47	Male	Master	23 years
Edu7	Educator	33	Female	Master	14 years
Edu8	Educator	49	Male	Master *	26 years
Edu9	Educator	40	Female	PhD	17 years
Edu10	Educator	64	Male	Master	41 years
Edu11	Educator	33	Female	Master	15 years
Edu12	Educator	43	Female	PhD Candidate	15 years
Edu13	Educator	68	Male	PhD	45 years
Edu14	Educator	44	Female	Master *	17 years
Stu1	Student	20	Male	DIV year 3	8 times doing field projects in tourism
Stu2	Student	20	Female	Bachelor year 4	Field study; basic and integrated research projects in several tourist attractions
Stu3	Student	23	Female	Bachelor year 4	4 months internship and field project to 3 tourism destinations
Stu4	Student	23	Male	Bachelor year 5 **	3.5 months internship
Stu5	Student	20	Female	DIV year 4	12 months internship
Stu6	Student	20	Female	DIV year 3	6 months internship
Stu7	Student	21	Male	DIV year 4	6 months internship
Stu8	Student	22	Female	DIV year 5 **	12 months internship
Stu9	Student	23	Female	DIV year 4	3 months internship
Stu10	Student	21	Male	Bachelor year 4	3 months internship
Stu11	Student	22	Female	Bachelor year 4	6 months internship
Stu12	Student	22	Male	Bachelor year 4	3 months internship; 10 months casual work
Ind1	Industry	41	Male	Diploma III (3-year diploma)	17 years
Ind2	Industry	40	Female	Master	18 years
Ind3	Industry	40	Female	Master	20 years
Ind4	Industry	53	Female	Master	31 years
Ind5	Industry	27	Female	Master	6 years
Ind6	Industry	54	Female	Master	23 years
Ind7	Industry	47	Male	Master	22 years
Ind8	Industry	53	Male	Master	28 years
Gov1	Government	54	Male	PhD	29 years
Gov2	Government	53	Female	PhD	27 years

Note: * denotes that the person was taking PhD program at the time of the interview
** denotes that the students had completed their Bachelor thesis but not yet having the oral defence

3.5. Data Collection

3.5.1. Sources and Techniques of Data Collection

Data were collected from various resources that include interview results, documents from preliminary and previous studies, curriculum of hospitality and tourism higher education, and journal articles, textbooks, and other relevant materials.

Primary data were obtained from the interviews with the four groups of stakeholders. The interview was selected as it is considered the most powerful and effective way to understand people and obtaining information about people's opinions and knowledge (Fontana & Frey, 2005; Patton, 2002; Thomas, 2003). Interviews also offer a personal relationship in which respondents might be more willing to participate (Thomas, 2003). The interviews were conducted twice. The first interview took place from the end of October 2014 to mid-February 2015 in five major cities in Indonesia, Greater Jakarta, Bandung, Yogyakarta, Surabaya, and Denpasar-Bali. The purpose of the first interview was to search information from the stakeholders that would be used as a basis to develop the curriculum framework. All interviews were scheduled to be completed by January 2015. However, one of the government respondents changed the interview appointment a number of times due to her hectic schedule. This resulted in adjournment of data collection for about one month. The interview was finally occurred in mid-February at her residence in Bandung, West Java. This kind of issue is quite common in interviews with economic and political elites as those groups are viewed as the toughest personnel to access (Rubin & Rubin, 2005).

The second interview was conducted at the end of June and July 2015 in Greater Jakarta. This interview sought to confirm the findings and seek participants' agreement on the curriculum framework. Not all respondents were involved in this second interview. There were nine selected interviewees comprises seven existing respondents and two new respondents, five females and four males. The seven respondents consist of three educators and two students (represent the vocational and the academic Bachelor programs), one industry practitioner and one government official. They were thoughtfully chosen given their knowledge, experience, and availability. The decision to have the interviews only in Greater Jakarta area was due to the budget and time constraints. Those limitations made it rather difficult for the researcher to revisit all respondents in the five cities. The two new respondents taking part in this research were the senior hospitality and tourism educators with many years of experiences in leading and managing hospitality/tourism schools. One female and one male were involved. The new female respondent was 43 years old and had worked in the hospitality and tourism industry and education sector for 15 years. She was undertaking a doctoral degree concerning hospitality. The male respondent was 57, had a PhD degree, and had worked in the hospitality and tourism industry and education field for 31 years. Both of them held managerial position in the prominent hospitality/tourism schools. The consideration to include new respondents was to gain fresh opinion and feedback on the research results as they did not involve in this study earlier.

An in-depth interview was employed due to a number of reasons. First, it is a useful tool to gain deep information and to fully explore the participants' opinions, perspective, feelings, reasons and beliefs, as well as to offer an opportunity for the respondents to elaborate their answers (Darlington & Scott, 2002; Johnson, 2002 as

quoted in Hesse-Biber & Leavy, 2011; Legard, Keegan, & Ward, 2003). Second, in-depth interviews allow the researcher to ask probing questions of the respondents about the issues under study (Legard et al., 2003; Millar et al., 2010). Third, an in-depth interview is usually selected for an exploratory study (which is the nature of this study) where the researcher attempts to understand the field of study and to develop a theory rather than testing it (Bernard & Ryan, 2010 as cited from Charmaz, 2002; Minichiello et al., 1995). Fourth, the nature of interview is interactive where data are obtained through researcher-participant interactions. Fifth, it is an admirable means to discuss with respondents the past and future events of a certain topic (Darlington & Scott, 2002). Six, it allows the creation of new knowledge/thought as participants may be invited to provide suggestions or solutions during the interview (Legard et al., 2003).

In relations to the context of Indonesia in this study, interview was considered as the most viable option to obtain information due to a couple of reasons. Firstly, the location of the hospitality and tourism institutions (the research sites) are quite spread out. It was, therefore, easier to meet the participants individually rather than having a discussion with a group of participants. Secondly, personal experiences of the researcher suggest that one-on-one interview is the best approach for Indonesians in order to avoid domination, power, and control in a group discussion. It can be noted that Indonesians usually are more open with people at their level or just slightly higher (W&S Indonesia, n. d.). Thirdly, a high rate of cancellation in conducting a focus group discussion is quite common in Indonesia. This cancellation often happen before or on the date of the event. Moreover, in a group discussion, Indonesian respondents are likely to be easily influenced by their peers, co-mates or associates in particular the smarter ones, and they tend to provide

answers although they may not have sufficient knowledge about a certain topic (W&S Indonesia, n. d.).

The in-depth semi structured interview was conducted face-to-face/one-to-one interview in the Indonesian language, mixed with English. The use of a native language is to gain rich, nuanced, in-depth and detailed data as it becomes easier for respondents to express their opinions and share their experiences. Face-to-face interactions are useful to observe the participants' behavior, to hear the people's language through direct interaction, to notice any inconsistencies or incongruities, and to clarify meanings throughout the process (Bernard & Ryan, 2010; Darlington & Scott, 2002; Minichiello et al., 1995). Face-to-face interviews also allow researchers to investigate intensely the complexities of the research arena (Tribe, 2010).

Interviews in semi structured form offer flexibility where the order of questions can be modified to suit the participants. In conducting a semi-structured interview, a set of similar questions were asked to all respondents on the basis of interview guide (Bernard & Ryan, 2010; Legard et al., 2003). At the time the interview was taken place, the researcher asked a question in a random order, depending on the condition or the flow of conversation with a respondent. For instance, when a respondent started to talk about a current state of hospitality and tourism education in Indonesia, thus the interview might begin with that specific topic. The next questions would then follow the flow of the discussion. Semi structured is perceived to be beneficial in generating numerous qualitative data rapidly (Bernard & Ryan, 2010). In principle, questions addressed to all the four group of stakeholders were similar. However, questions related to the evaluation of curriculum were only directed to the educators as the emphasis was on the academic

issue. A question in regards to the occupation/employment was also adjusted to suit the interest of the stakeholders.

A tape recorder was used to record the conversation during the interview with the consent of the participant. A tape recorder is beneficial to record data since note taking may change the form of data and distract the researcher's attention to listen attentively and to observe. Moreover, tape recording can enhance the validity of the study given the fullness and accuracy of data recorded (Berg, 2007; Legard et al., 2003; Minichiello et al., 1995; Patton, 2002). Having the tape recorder for the interview does not mean that the note taking is completely eliminated from the process. The note taking was a focus for the key words or phrases and vital points.

During the interview process, the researcher played the role as a facilitator. Respondents were encouraged to express their opinion, perspectives and experiences. The researcher controlled the process of interview by asking questions that were related to the objectives of the study, listening carefully to assess the relevance of participants' responses, and giving appropriate but non-comital feedback to the participants. The role of the respondents was to provide information or answers to the questions being asked as well as to raise issues that they deemed relevant but which not directly asked (Legard et al., 2003; Patton, 2002).

The second data collection method was through the observation and comparison of hospitality and tourism higher education curriculum at undergraduate level in Indonesia and other Asian countries/regions such as Hong Kong, China, South Korea, and Malaysia. Secondary data were obtained from the academic literature (printed and online) such as textbooks and journals related to hospitality and tourism education and the curriculum, and the researcher's previous studies (Oktadiana, 2010, 2011, 2012, 2013; Oktadiana & Chon, 2014a, 2014b).

During the study, an iterative process in the data collection took place. The researcher went to the field for data collection, analyzed it, then went back to obtain more information from the participants via e-mails, phone calls or text messages. This kind of process, which Creswell (1998) calls a zigzag process, is possible and potentially fruitful in this type of qualitative research.

3.5.2. Entering the Field

Conducting an in-depth interview involves more than just an interview interaction (Darlington & Scott, 2002). There are several stages that need to be considered. The first stage prior to the interview was to make an initial contact with the chosen respondents. It was important to consider that people were willing to participate in a study and able to provide the required information if they know you and trust you. For that reason, developing a good rapport with respondents is essential (Darlington & Scott, 2002; Rubin & Rubin, 2005).

Over one month prior to the interview, the researcher contacted the potential respondents (i.e. educators and industry and government people) via e-mails and provided an explanation of the research's topic and the aims, and why they had been chosen to participate in this study. Since the students were not known by the researcher, e-mails to educators included a request for having students take part in the research. There were two types of invitation letters distributed to the potential respondents. The first type of invitation was addressed to the researcher's colleagues/friends in the academic, industry, and government. The second letter was intended for those with whom the researcher did not have any previous contact. They were recommended by the researcher's friends and colleagues. Interestingly,

although friends and colleagues as respondents had agreed to participate in the study based on an informal talk before a formal invitation was sent out, they were quite reluctant to respond to e-mails. Most of them acknowledged that they did not check e-mails, were occupied with the work, or simply forgot to respond. The researcher found that contacting and confirming the respondents via other communication means such as WhatsApp, Line, text messages, and phone calls were more effective and faster in gaining responses.

Having the agreement from the respondents did not indicate a confirmed appointment date. Based on the researcher's experiences, the respondents were likely to give a confirmation close to their availability. There were three processes in setting up an interview appointment. The first was the smooth appointment process. This means the date, time and venue were scheduled and confirmed, and the interview took place following the agreed schedule. The second condition was last minute cancellation and appointment reschedules. The third one was an ad-hoc meeting request. In this case, the respondents had not yet given a confirmation and unexpectedly they contacted the researcher for a meeting (which was often the next day). In this kind of situation, it was indispensable to be flexible and open minded, patient, and highly determine.

Another important issue concerning the interview was to plan the interview logistics. This may include access, quiet space, comfort and perceived safety (e.g. well lighted room, temperatures, chairs), privacy, availability of electricity (e.g. for laptop), and equipment used for the interview (e.g. tape recorder or video recorder) (Minichiello et al., 1995; Tracy, 2013). Ideally, an interview should take place in an inaudible and private place to avoid any undesirable noises or disturbances. In practice, however, it may not be easily arranged. On some occasions, the researcher

had to wait for an adequate room to conduct the interview. This usually happened at the school's premises. One interview was conducted in a room that was located close to the students' area. Noise from outside was a minor inconvenient. In the use of tape recorder, it is important to always check the battery and to ensure that the recorder has enough space to cover a long conversation (Minichiello et al., 1995). The researcher used a small good quality tape recorder in doing an interview. A small recorder is viewed less intimidating than the large one (Minichiello et al., 1995). Every interview recorded on the tape recorder was labelled with the code and respondents' name for easy access in searching the data.

Before starting an interview, the researcher described the purpose and importance of the study to the respondent and why his/her opinion matter. The respondent was also given an explanation about confidentiality/anonymity of their personal information, their right to withdraw from the interview, and the recording and note taking of the conversation during the interview. To build and maintain a good rapport, the researcher had brief conversations before and after the interview with the respondents. A longer and more personal tête-à-tête was used for the student respondents to establish mutual trust and relationship. This was seen as necessary as the researcher had no contact with the students prior the interview. Some students were a little shy and nervous. Therefore an "ice break" conversation helped to make them more relaxed and open.

One might think that interviewing friends or colleagues would be easier. It was actually not. Seidman (2006) argues that an easy access does not mean an easy interview. He further asserts that we better do not assume to know what they would like to say when interviewing friends or colleagues. We need to always seek clarity and have enough distance. In one interview, a respondent said to the researcher,

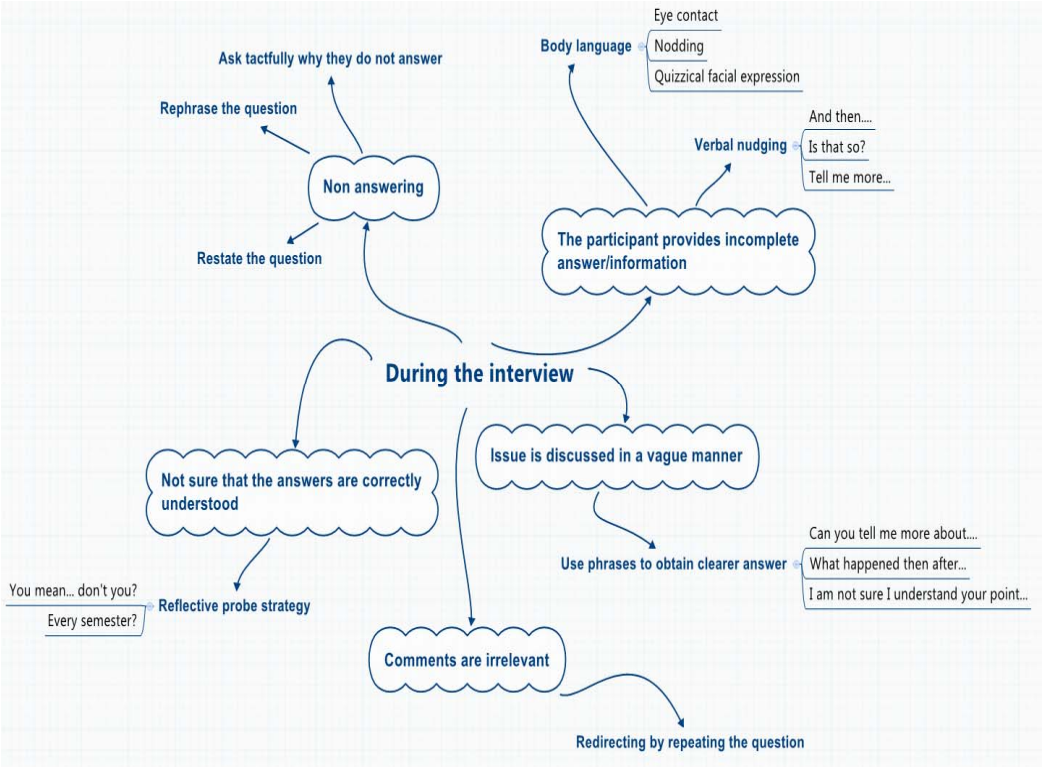
“you already know me and my view points of this issue (curriculum), don’t you?”. The respondent thought as we had had several discussions in a number of occasions before, he simply assumed that the researcher knew his answer and what on his mind. The researcher replied to his remark, “I probably do, but I would like to know more about your perspective on the hospitality and tourism’s curriculum components”. The response indicates the researcher’s interest to further seek the respondent’s ideas and perception. The respondent was then said, “Okay then. What do you want to know? Maybe I can start with….”. To conclude, interviewing someone that we know is not easier than interviewing someone new. Precautions needs to be taken into account and do not take anything for granted.

Cultural context is one serious issue in the interview endeavours. Indonesians are relatively indirect communicators. They are generally friendly and concerned about other people’s feeling. They do not like to upset others and make someone lose face. Harmony is one important value for the Indonesians. Therefore, it is imperative to pay attention to the gestures and body language to gain the real message as they may not always say what they mean (Guinto, 1994; Irawanto, 2009; Kwintessential, 2015; Suutari, Raharjo, & Riikkilä, 2002). Moreover, as a collectivist country, Indonesians like to be social (Suutari et al., 2002). It is rather a common practice for the Indonesians to offer their hospitality. At the interview, they would offer you tea or coffee and foods. It is viewed as appropriate and polite to sample the foods being offered (Guinto, 1994).

The interview was administered using a guidelines that listed all the questions to be asked to the respondents. Due to the nature of a semi-structured interview, the questions did not necessarily follow a particular order. The questions were descriptive questions, emphasizing “what” and “how”. Descriptive questions

are beneficial and favourable to encourage people in telling their experiences and ideas (Darlington & Scott, 2002). Overall, the interviews lasted about an hour, and more than one hour in several cases. As a structured conversation, interview questions can be categorized as *main questions, follow-up questions*, and *probes* (Rubin & Rubin, 2005, italics are emphasized in origin). Rubin and Rubin contend that the main questions are all questions that have been prepared in advance to answer the research inquiries, whereas follow-up questions and probes help to obtain more information or explanation on themes, events or concepts, and to keep the interviews stay on the topic. These last two questions are useful to gain depth, detail, nuance, and rich answers.

During the interviews, some ambiguities, misunderstanding, or non-answering questions are likely to happen. The researcher found the most common problems in the interview process include the unclear answers, irrelevant remarks, incorrectly understanding the answers, non-answering, and incomplete information. Those issues were encountered by using clarifying questions or follow up questions and probes (Minichiello et al., 1995; Rubin & Rubin, 2005; Seidman, 2006). Figure 3.2 exhibits common issues in an interview activities and strategies to overcome the problems. Follow up questions can occur not only during the interview, but also at the end of the interview and even after the interview was completed. This means we might ask the respondents to clarify meanings that we were not sure in other time after we went through the interview conversations (Rubin & Rubin, 2005).



(Adapted from Minichiello et al., 1995 and Seidman, 2006)

Figure 3.2 The Interview: Tactics for Reducing Inadequate Responses

There were two ways in closing the interview: verbal techniques and non-verbal techniques. In this study, verbal techniques include summarizing the interview and making personal inquiries and comments (showing interest in the respondents' life), whereas non-verbal techniques were demonstrated by closing a notebook or looking at the time (Minichiello et al., 1995). Before leaving the site, the respondent was given a souvenir as a token of appreciation. It was customary for Indonesians to refuse the souvenir initially to show politeness before they accept it. They also would not open the souvenir in front of the giver's presence. A thank you note to respondents was sent via e-mails or other means of communication within one or two days after the interview. This was aimed to acknowledge the

respondents' support in the study as well as a way to maintain relationship with them.

3.6. Data Analysis

3.6.1. The Use of Content Analysis

Content analysis can be defined as a technique for making interpretations of particular messages or body of materials through systematic examination. It attempts to identify patterns, themes and meanings. Content analysis has been applied in a variety of studies such as in sociology, psychology, education, business, political science, art, and journalism. (Berg, 2007). It is normally performed on any type of human communications (Berg, 2007). This approach is used to analyze text data that can be obtained from the interviews, focus groups, survey questions, observations, books, manuals, photographs, articles, and video in the forms of printing, verbal, or electronic/recording (Berg, 2007; Hsieh & Shannon, 2005; Patton, 2002; Thomas, 2003).

The analysis seeks to consider a phenomenon and to generate concepts or categories as the outcomes to create a model, conceptual map or conceptual system (Elo & Kyngäs, 2008; Hsieh & Shannon, 2005). It is a flexible method for the text data analysis and a useful technique to learn and portray the focus of individuals, groups, institutional, or social attention, as well as to observe patterns and trends in documents (Hsieh & Shannon, 2005 as quoted from Cavanagh, 1997; Stemler, 2001). Another advantages of using content analysis compared with other techniques includes its ability to utilize qualitative and quantitative operations on the text, and

its procedure which is directly applies to the transcripts of social communication (Weber, 1985). The qualitative based form of content analysis allows a researcher to capture the rich concepts in the data, while at the same time it can be dispensed for quantitative analysis (Stepchenkova, Kirilenko, & Morrison, 2008). Quantification of data can be attained by counting the number of items of block of data in a category to indicate the patterns of data by describing its magnitude (Berg, 2007; Brotherton, 2008). The emphasis of studies employing qualitative content analysis is on the contextual meaning or content of the text (Hsieh & Shannon, 2005 as cited from Budd, Thorp, & Donohew, 1967, Lindkvist, 1981, McTavish & Pirro, 1990, and Tesch, 1990).

Hsieh and Shannon (2005) contend that there are three types of approaches in the content analysis: conventional content analysis, directed content analysis, and summative content analysis. The purpose of all approaches are similar; that is to construe meaning from the content of text data although they are some differences in terms of "origins of codes, coding schemes, and threats to trustworthiness" (Hsieh & Shannon, 2005, p. 1277). The conventional analysis approach is commonly used to describe a phenomenon when there is limited literature or a lack of theory to support the study. Data will be obtained from the respondents without using predetermined categories. Codes are derived from data and determined during the analysis. The directed content analysis aims to validate or extend a theory/framework. It is more structured, by using the existing study to develop the initial coding categories. All the text is highlighted based on the predetermined codes/categories. A new code will be created if there is any text that not fit the category of initial coding. Summative content analysis tends to explore and understanding the usage of the words or content by quantifying particular words. Keywords are used according to the

researcher's interest and defined before and during the data analysis (Hsieh & Shannon, 2005).

This study adopts conventional content analysis as the characteristics of this style of content analysis are more relevant to the context of this study. First, the researcher aims to gain new insight on the graduate profiles, aims and objectives, content, learning and instruction, and assessment/evaluation without using preconceived categories. Although various studies have probably mentioned that graduates of Bachelor degree are generally intended to become managers or holding managerial positions in the industry, the researcher was interested to identify specifically the graduate profiles of the vocational Bachelor (D IV) and the academic Bachelor of hospitality and tourism. Are there any differences on the level of position for the graduates from those two programs? How about other occupational positions? A number of studies may have identified the content of hospitality and tourism curriculum. However, they have not explicitly distinguished the subjects required for vocational education and academic education which is of interest in this study. Most of the current studies are probably more focused on the curriculum contents for hospitality programs and/or hospitality and tourism curriculum with a business-focus. The conventional approach was also applied as it could create model building or concept development (Hsieh & Shannon, 2005 as cited from Lindkvist, 1981). Furthermore, data that are directly obtained from the participants without imposing any predetermined categories suits conventional content analysis (Hsieh & Shannon, 2005).

3.6.2. The Analysis Process

The key idea of content analysis is to classify many words of text into smaller number of content categories. There are no systematic rules/guidelines for the data analysis. The methods can be flexible (Darlington & Scott, 2005; Elo & Kyngäs, 2008 as cited from Weber, 1990 and Burnard, 1996; Weber, 1985). This study adopts the models of Berg (2007), Hsieh and Shannon (2005), and Elo and Kyngäs (2008). Overall, the analysis comes in three stages: the preparation stage, the organizing stage, and the reporting stage (Elo, et al., 2014; Elo & Kyngäs, 2008)

Preparation stage

An initial phases in data analysis of this study was transcribing the recorded interview conversations for coding and categorization process. The interviews were transcribed in the Indonesian language but coded, categorized, and analyzed in English. The full written version was applied in this study when transcribing the interview conversations, although it is plausible to just write notes from the recorder (Rubin & Rubin, 2005). The transcriptions were typed according to what were said in the recorder, including the silence, pause, laugh, hindering words (e.g. oh, ah, um), and events that disturbed the interview. Native language was maintained in the transcription to retain the original meanings. An attempt to translate the transcription in English had lessened the significance of words/ discussions. This was probably due to communication style of Indonesians that is more indirect and may convey manifold meanings. Therefore, it was easier to do a transcription in the native language and then conduct the analysis in English. All transcriptions of the interviews were done by the researcher herself. The benefits of doing one's own

transcriptions, as suggested by Rubin and Rubin (2005), are to help in preparing for the next interview and this process enables the researcher to fill in inaudible information from the memory. Another valuable advantage of doing one's own transcription was to build familiarity and engagement with the data (Minichiello et al., 1995). Transcribing took approximately four hours for every one hour interview. In total, it took more than one month to do all the transcriptions. All written materials/data were read thoroughly several times in order to become immersed and familiar with the data and to make sense of the data (Elo & Kyngäs, 2008).

In addition to the transcription, a summary of content of the interview was also written down. The summary consists of information of an interview. This includes name of the respondent, respondent coding number (for pseudonym), category of respondents (e.g. student, educator), gender, age, institution name, position, year and level of study and study program (for student respondents), work experiences, mobile number and e-mail address, day, date and time of the interview, duration of the interview, location of the interview, the use of consent letter and recording agreement, and other essential information such as lunch or dinner before or after the interview with respondents, informal talks, and any other events that happened during the interviews.

Field notes are the record of a researcher's observation and reflection that describe but are not limited to people/participants, conversation, activities or actions that occurred in the field, time and place of the activities, logistics being used, and examination of research questions and ideas (Minichiello et al., 1995; Tracy, 2013). There are no specific rules in writing field notes. Given that most of field notes are merely intended for the researchers' own work, they could be written loosely, rapidly, and in an informal way. It is not necessary to spend a long time editing the

field notes unless it is meant for inclusion in the final report (Minichiello et al., 1995; Tracy, 2013). As argued by Tracy (2013), analytic reflections are loose interpretations and not definite/final judgement. Referring to Minichiello et al. (1995) and Tracy (2013), an analytic reflection in the form of field notes for this study comprised a description of respondents and the settings, emergent ideas during the study, personal opinion and feelings, and reviews of research questions. Two samples of some part of the researcher's field notes are presented in Figure 3.3 and Figure 3.4.

Sarah (pseudonym name) was recommended by the Vice President of Academic Affairs of XYZ hotel & tourism institution. The Vice President told me that Sarah could be a good source of a student respondent representing vocational program.

As I did not know Sarah, the meeting with her was arranged by the Vice President's secretary, Ms. D. On the date of our appointment, I arrived at the school at 9 am, an hour earlier than the schedule, because I would like to have ample time to meet and talk to Sarah before to the interview.

I went to the Vice President's office and met his secretary. She called Sarah to come to see me. When she turned up, I noticed that Sarah is a well-mannered, friendly, confident, and cheerful person. She wore her blue school uniform and put a light make-up on. Her hair was neatly pulled up. She kept smiling most of the time. Sarah looked like a smart student. The interview later confirmed the assessment. She could answer almost all the questions well and had not much difficulty in understanding them.

The Vice President's secretary told me that I could use a small meeting room on the second floor as it was more private. She asked someone to escort us to the room. Unfortunately when we got there, the room was still locked. So the person who accompanied us had to find the room key. We waited for about 10 minutes before we could use the room. I started to develop a conversation with Sarah to develop a good rapport and gain her trust. I asked her about her study, her family, and her personal interests such as hobbies. The conversation continued in the meeting room after it was opened. The room was quite small and could only accommodate 5 to 6 persons. There was one square table in the middle of the room and 5 chairs. On one side of the wall was whiteboard and a clock. There were many piles of boxes on the floor in one corner. However, the room was suitable for an interview as it was quiet and located in a corner of the hallway. In the middle of our conversation, an office boy entered the room and brought some tea and breads. We continued our talk while having the tea and the bread. After spending around 25 minutes talking, I began to tell her about the background and purpose of my study and why I would like to interview her.
I explained to her that her participant is voluntarily and she could withdraw from the interview anytime. I also told her that I would use the tape recorder to record our conversation and asked her if she would mind. She said that it was fine by her and she agreed. After signing a consent letter, the interview started.
Sarah was able to answer the questions well except a question in regards to aims and objectives of vocational Bachelor program (D IV). She looked puzzled and paused for a while to think. I then rephrased the questions. After rephrasing the question, she was able to answer it. At half of the interview, someone entered the room. He was my colleague who heard that I was in the school doing an interview. He just dropped by to say hello and we chatted about a couple of minutes.

Figure 3.3 Example of Researcher's Field notes (Respondent and the Setting)

When I first developed my research questions, I wrote 44 questions to answer the research objectives based on comments from eight hospitality and tourism educators and one doctoral student with tourism industry background. Initially, I thought the questions were fine and reasonable. But then, when I tested them to a hospitality and tourism educator, I realized that there were some overlapping questions. I revised the questions and asked feedback from a couple of my colleagues who have experiences in hospitality and tourism education and educational field. One of them has strong pedagogical knowledge. They gave me valuable inputs. Finally, the questions were reduced to 24. I tested the questions again and it seemed ok. I felt more confident this time and ready to begin my data collection.
I started my interview in Jakarta on October 27, 2014. My respondent is a top executive in an international five star hotel. He is also a board member of 'abc' association. I had prepared the list of questions, tape recorder, notebook, consent letter, souvenir, and a set of stationery before I met my respondent. I was quite certain that questions were already acceptable. To my surprise, during the interview I found that the questions could be simplified further. There were still some redundancies in the questions. After the interview, I modified the questions again and waited for the next interview to retest them.
Finally I ended up with fourteen main questions for all groups of respondents and sixteen for the educators, since the latter need to provide information about curriculum evaluation. Questions related to occupational needs were adjusted to suit the characteristics of each group of respondent.

Figure 3.4 Example of Researcher's Field notes (Review of Research Questions)

Organization stage

The analysis begins with reading all the data thoroughly word by word to build the codes by highlighting the words that appear to capture the key concepts. Coding is an important factor for data organization and interpretation. The more organized the coding, the easier data can be interpreted. (Berg, 2007; Elo & Kyngäs, 2008). Coding an interview is a process of ordering, organizing and categorizing data to retrieve what respondents have said in the interview about the identified concepts and themes. Such codes will later be used to identify categories (Brotherton, 2008; Rubin & Rubin, 2005). Minichiello et al., (1995) recommend that codes should be conceptually based and related to the research questions.

After the initial coding schemes are formed, codes are sorted into categories according to the linkage/relations between the codes (Hsieh & Shannon, 2005).

Categories must be empirical and conceptual based (Elo & Kyngäs, 2008). The categories are used to organize/classify the codes into clusters. They also useful to specify to which coding scheme the unit of analysis belongs to. After the open coding and categorization, then the abstraction is developed. Abstraction means formulating a general description of research topic through generating categories (Minichiello et al., 1995; Robson, 1993 as stated in Elo & Kyngäs, 2008). Several sub-category will create generic category. Several generic categories will build a main category. An example of abstraction referring to Elo and Kyngäs (2008) is written as follow: statistics and research methodology and tourism and event courses (sub-category) will lead to courses variation (generic category), and finally the main category will come as the emphasis/focus of Bachelor's content (Figure 3.5). A number in the interview transcript as shown in Figure 3.5 was created as a mean for easy identification to allocate the data/information when the researcher needs to go back to the original source. The result generated from this abstraction would answer the second research question (what constitutes the curriculum components of the academic and the vocational Bachelor programs?) and meet the third research objective (to develop the content for the academic and the vocational Bachelor programs of Indonesia's hospitality and tourism higher education).

The first issue in coding the transcripts and other documents being studied is what is to be coded or gets coded. In order to create the codes, units of analysis should be determined. This is called unitizing. Units of analysis may consists of a number of elements such as words, phrases, sentences, ideas, events, images, paragraphs, items (whole unit of message/whole text), concepts, and themes (Berg, 2007; Brotherton, 2008; Minichiello et al., 1995; Weber, 1985). A combination of

several units of analysis was applied in this research as it is a common practice in many content analysis studies (Berg, 2007; Weber, 1985).

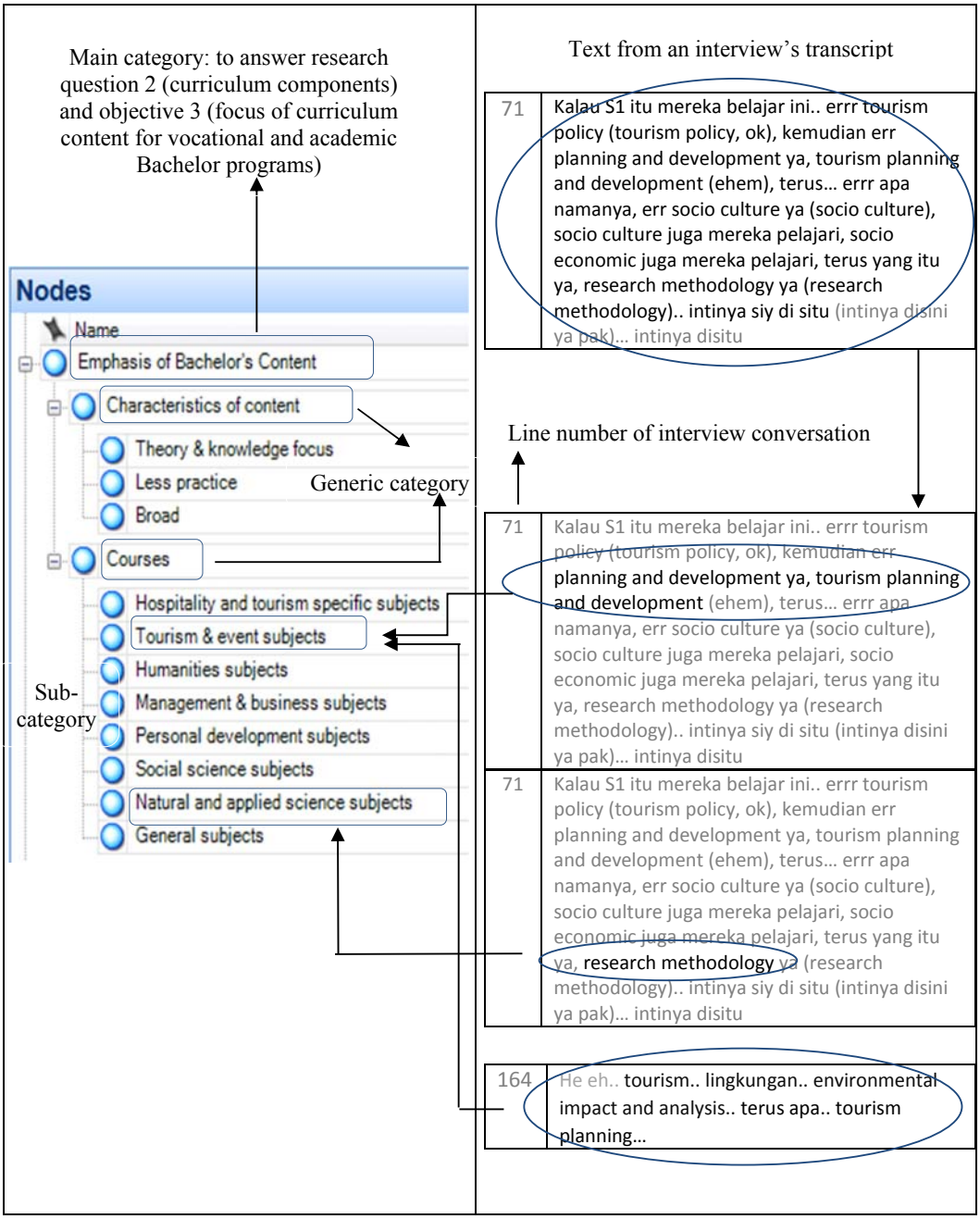


Figure 3.5 Example of Coding, Categorization, Abstraction

In some cases, the same unit of analysis or data set fell into different code categories. This double coding is viewed as applicable in the analysis process (Minichiello et al., 1995). Figure 3.6 shows a double coding in the teaching delivery for both vocational (D IV) and Bachelor undergraduate programs. The respondent argued that a case study could be applied in both programs.

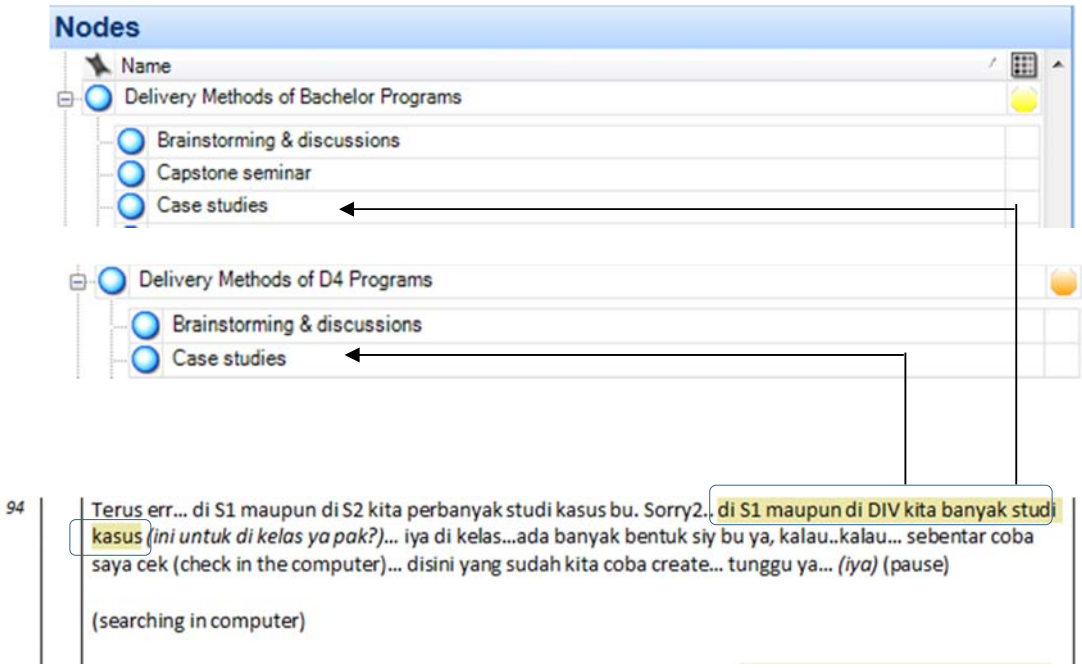


Figure 3.6 Example of Double Coding

To aid the data coding process, NVIVO software (NVivo 10) was used. The interview transcripts were labelled and exported to NVivo. The next step was to highlight a certain units of analysis (e.g. sentence) that related to an identified code. The highlighted units of analysis was transferred to the nodes that contain list of codes (Figure 3.7). An advantage of using NVivo is the convenient it provides to view all the text that have been marked and to locate the original source.

The data analysis was accomplished by the researcher with cooperation from the practitioners and academia to improve the reliability and validity of this study.

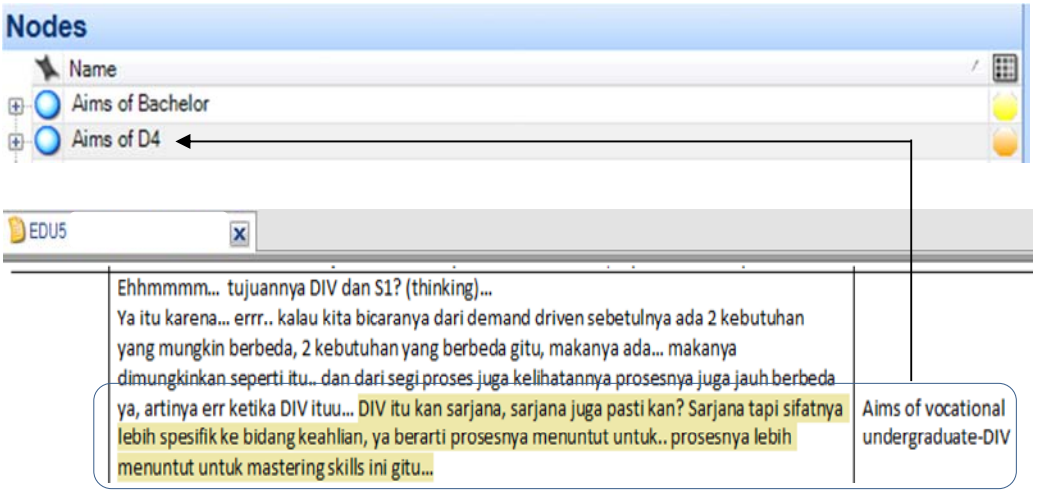


Figure 3.7 Example of Marking-up Coding

Reporting stage

Reporting stage provides the explanation of results of the study by showing the links to theories or existing literature (Berg, 2007; Elo & Kyngäs, 2008). Drawn from Hsieh and Shannon (2005), relevant theories for the studies are addressed in the discussion part for the conventional approach of content analysis. To strengthen the credibility of the analysis, the researcher checked the representativeness of data by returning to the work and through members checking for ensuring the meanings (Elo et al., 2014).

The process of analysis concludes by visually portraying the process of this study as presented in Figure 3.8.

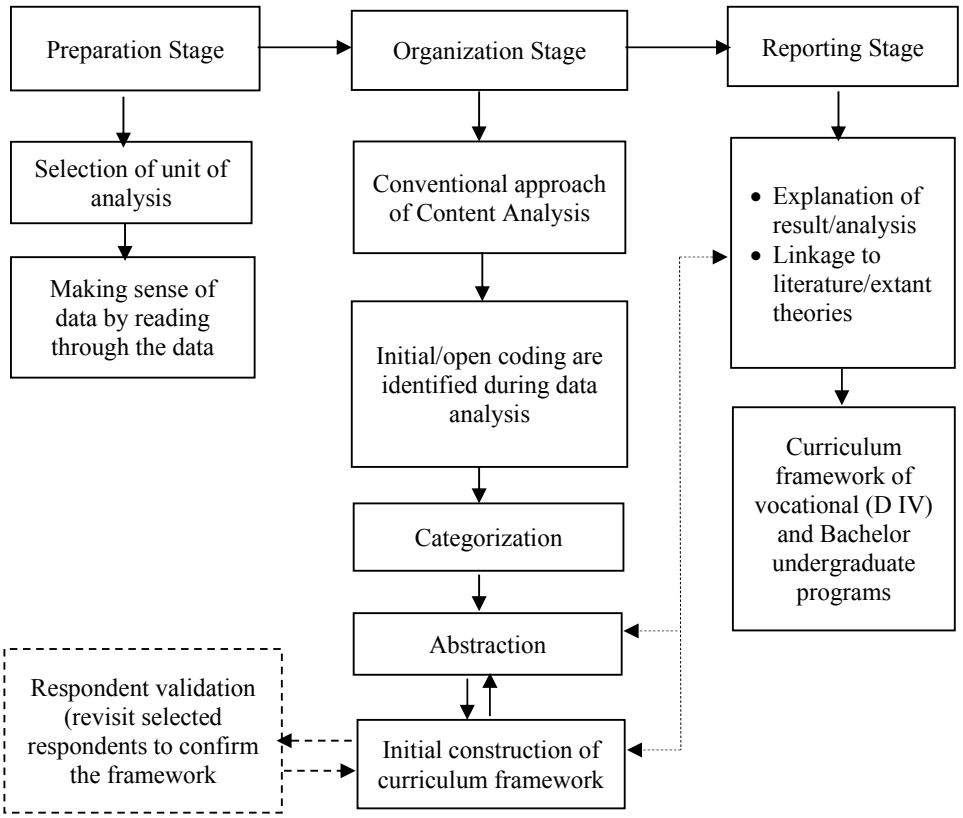


Figure 3.8 Analytical Processes of the Study

Adopted from Berg (2007), Elo & Kyngäs (2008), and Hsieh & Shannon (2005)

3.7. Trustworthiness of the Study

Validity and reliability are important components in any research. Validity is gained through a correct interpretation of findings, while reliability can be achieved when the same answers are obtained through a certain measurement procedure (Kirk & Miller, 1986 as cited in Minichiello, et al., 1995). Applied social science research or phronetic research that is built on interpretation should be constructed with high validity (Flyvbjerg, 2001). Rooted in a positivism paradigm, the concepts of validity and reliability in quantitative study disclose two facets: accurate tools of measurement (validity) and replicability (reliability). These concepts, as argued by

various qualitative researchers, are inadequate for naturalistic approach that strive for understanding a phenomenon in a real setting. Validity in qualitative research relates to representation, understanding, and interpretation or explanation (Flyvbjerg, 2001; Lewis & Ritchie, 2003). In view of that, approaches to validity and reliability in a naturalistic work of qualitative inquiry should be redefined (Golafshani, 2003; Maxwell, 2013).

One of the validity and reliability constructs in qualitative inquiry was formed by Guba (Shenton, 2004). His constructs address four components that can be employed by qualitative researchers to ensure the trustworthiness of their studies. They consist of credibility (internal validity), transferability (external validity/generalizability), dependability (reliability), and confirmability (objectivity) (Shenton, 2004). This study addressed the concept of validity and reliability following the Guba's constructs.

Credibility

There are various ways to promote trustworthiness and confidence in a qualitative research. A number of provisions were met to enhance credibility of this study. First, several triangulations were drawn from data sources and site triangulations. Data sources triangulation involved the use of variety of respondents (i.e. educators, students, and industry and government people) and documents (e.g. interview transcripts, field notes, and curriculum of hospitality and tourism higher education). Site triangulation involved different institutions/organizations located in five major cities in Indonesia. Diversity of respondents is believed as a good approach to enhance confidence of the research's results and to deliver convincing evidence (Rubin & Rubin, 2005). The use of data sources triangulation was not only

lending credibility to the findings, but also minimized the level of subjectivity (Lewis & Ritchie, 2003; Patton, 2002; Shenton, 2004; Stemler, 2001; Weaver & Lawton, 2010).

Second, early familiarity was developed with the most of participating respondents to establish a trusted relationship (Maxwell, 2013; Shenton, 2004). It was achieved by preliminary visits to the premises of participating respondents, and informal and formal discussions through some events related to hospitality and tourism higher education (e.g. seminars, meetings).

The third approach was to provide clear information about the study's purpose and give the opportunity for respondents to withdraw at any time. This was done to ensure that only those who were willing to participate would be involved in the data collection. Hence, ideas and experiences shared by the respondents were truthful and not caused by external influence (Shenton, 2004).

The fourth strategy to build credibility was by iterative questioning; that is using the probes and rephrased questions during the interview to detect any emerging discrepancies or contradictions (Shenton, 2004).

The fifth approach to ensure credibility was through members' checking. Members' checking is aimed to verify the interviews, provide rich and detail interview data, and identify the discrepant data (Maxwell, 2013; Shenton, 2004). This was accomplished by verifying data or any information provided by the respondents either on the spot (during the interview), at the end of the interview, or after the interview, and even revisiting selected respondents to confirm the findings (i.e. the curriculum framework). Threats to credibility may include researcher bias and reactivity, the two common plausible threats in a qualitative research (Maxwell, 2013). Researcher bias may occur due to the researcher's subjectivity and

presumption toward the theories that support the study. Researchers may also have a strong influence on the participants in the interview process that may affect the response of the interviewees. To overcome these issues, some strategies were performed by the researcher such as respecting all views offered, developing good rapport and trust with the respondents, not interrupting and redirecting the respondents, and avoiding leading questions during the interview (Maxwell, 2013; Seidman, 2006).

The sixth tactic was to obtain feedback or reviews from peers/colleagues and academics (Shenton, 2004). This was achieved by giving a presentation at a conference about the study and gaining comments from colleagues and respondents on the initial findings. In a few cases, the educator participant/gatekeeper was present at the interview with students since the interview took place in the educator's/gatekeeper's office. Their presence may dissuade students from providing an open and honest opinion. It was not easy to ask them to leave the room as it might cause embarrassment. One strategy was to talk to the educator/gatekeeper about this issue in a very polite manner and asked him/her to provide another room.

The seventh approach, providing a detailed description of the study and implementing continuous evaluation was employed to enhance credibility (e.g. using reflective commentary) (Maxwell, 2013; Shenton, 2004).

Moreover, descriptive validity and interpretation validity were applied. The former is aimed to ensure accuracy of data, whereas the latter is to obtain a full perspective of the participants. Descriptive validity includes recording and transcribing the interview accurately and completely and providing detail description about the environment and actions that were not captured by the recording. Interpretation validity encompasses the use of open-ended questions to allow

participant to elaborate their answers, listen more, and not lead the respondents (Legard et al, 2003; Thomas, 2011). The authentic citation was also provided to increase validity (Elo et al., 2014; Elo & Kyngäs, 2008).

Transferability

Transferability or external validity in quantitative inquiry is concerned with to what extent the results can be applied to other settings and broader population. Due to the nature of the qualitative study which merely involved a small number of participants and a single setting, it is challenging to meet this criterion. The extension of results for qualitative studies however, can be achieved through sufficient information about the process applied in the studied case which enables other researchers to consider the study's transferability. This means that although different outcomes and situations may occur, that would still have relevance and a link to this context (Maxwell, 2013; Shenton, 2004). Maxwell (2013) contends that transferability or what he called generalizability in qualitative research has two strands: the internal generalizability and the external generalizability. The former refers to "the generalizability of a conclusion *within* the case, setting, or group studied, to person, events, times, and settings that were not directly observed, interviewed, or otherwise represented in the data collected". The later denotes "generalizability *beyond* that case, setting, or group, to other persons, times, and settings" (p. 137, italics are emphasized in origin). He further maintains that the main issue in qualitative studies is the internal generalizability. Provided the circumstance, this study employed different types of respondents that were carefully chosen due to a couple of reasons. First, the variation of sampling involved in the phenomena of interest is deemed as the key issue in internal generalization

(Maxwell, 2013); second, different people/respondents would better reflect perspectives multiplicity; and third, selection of respondents heighten the confidence in extending the results (Rubin & Rubin, 2005). Additionally, to promote transferability (potential for extrapolation), information regarding respondents characteristics and selection, cultural context, methods of data collection and data analysis employed by this study was thoroughly explained (Elo et al., 2014; Elo & Kyngäs, 2008; Shenton, 2014).

Dependability

Dependability or reliability issue in the qualitative studies is shown by a detailed report that can be used as a prototype model. In-depth coverage will allow other researchers to gain understanding of the methods for repeating the study (Shenton, 2014). In an in-depth interview, reliability involves checking the strength of the data. This can be accomplished by a proper documentation of the researcher's procedure such as how the data were collected and analyzed, and why a certain decision was made during the process and what are the impacts (Minichiello et al., 1995). Lewis and Ritchie (2003) assert that information about the research process will improve reliability. The use of computer programs to classify data will also strengthen the reliability because computer will lead to perfect coder reliability (Weber, 1985). Another method to enhance the reliability is by demonstrating a linkage between results/findings and the data (e.g. using tables or appendices) (Elo & Kyngäs, 2008). In this study, reliability was obtain by several means which include justifications for respondents' selection and characteristics, explanations about data collection and data analysis, and the use of NVivo computer software in create the coding, tables, and schemes.

Confirmability

Confirmability or objectivity concerns with results that are derived from the respondents' ideas and experiences rather than from the researcher's partialities (Flyvbjerg, 2001; Shenton, 2004). Furthermore, as suggested by Shenton, triangulation and detailed description of research methods were strategies applied in this study to promote confirmability and reduce the researcher's bias. Table 3.6 show the summary of trustworthiness strategies adopted in this study.

Table 3.6 Trustworthiness Strategies

Credibility	- Development of early familiarity with participating respondents - Triangulations of respondents, data sources, and sites - Members' checking - Iterative questioning - Peers/academic review/feedback - Assurance of respondents' participation and honesty in providing information - Detailed description of study and continuous evaluation - Descriptive and interpretation validity
Transferability	- Sufficient information of the research process (respondent characteristics and selection, cultural context, data collection, data analysis) - Diversity of respondents
Dependability	- Proper documentation and information of respondent, data collection and analysis - The use of NVivo computer software for data analysis - Showing of linkage of results and data
Confirmability	- Triangulation - Detail explanation of research methods

3.8. Ethical Considerations

People are the objects of inquiry in this study through the interview based activities. Prior to the data collection, an approval for conducting research involving human subject was obtained from the Departmental Research Committee of the Hong Kong Polytechnic University dated September 23, 2015, reference number HSEARS20140917001. The ethical concern in this study draws on Berg (2007),

Creswell (2014), Fontana & Frey (2005), Rubin and Rubin (2005), Jennings (2010), and the Hong Kong Polytechnic's six major ethical principles as presented in the following.

1. **The principle of autonomy**

   The first principle is satisfied by the use of informed consent. The informed consent was obtained after having explained about the purposes and benefits of the study to the respondent. By signing the informed consent, respondents are willing to participate in a study on their own choice. The respondents were also given the right to withdraw anytime from the interview without any consequences.

2. **The principle of non-maleficence**

   The second principle is related to any harm that may occur and affect the respondents. To prevent the physical harm to the respondents, the researcher always ensured that the interview was conducted in an adequate and safe place. The psychological harm was protected by using the appropriate language or words, showing respects, being polite and appreciative, and rewarding the participants for their participations. This were also achieved by not forcing the respondents to provide answers in English although the majority of the respondents have sound English proficiency. The researcher also gave undivided attention to the respondents during the interview and avoided any behaviour that may indicate impatience when the respondent was thinking about an answer.

3. **The principle of beneficence**

   It is believed that any study should have merit and benefits to the knowledge and society. This third principle was met by providing explanations of the value of the study by using the four rational-values of the phronetic social science approach.

4. The principle of fidelity

The principle of fidelity is obtained by being open and giving accurate information to the respondents concerning the purpose and the importance of the study. The research process and the results were presented thoroughly and in detail.

5. The principle of justice

The fifth principle concerns the fairness in conducting a research. This was gained by treating the respondents fairly and respectfully. The researcher respects all the respondents' input for the study despite their status/position, age, race and ethnic, and religion. The researcher also appreciates the meetings and discussions with the respondents following the protocols.

6. The principle of confidentiality

The last principle relates to the privacy protection of the respondent or the right to privacy. Since anonymity is relatively non-existent in a qualitative research where the researcher knows about the respondents, thus a high degree of confidentiality is provided to the respondents. This was done by replacing the respondents' names with a number or pseudonym in data reporting. In addition to ensuring the respondents' confidentiality, the names of the hospitality and tourism higher institutions selected for this research were also not revealed. The research has only cited the names of the cities where the institutions were located. Another approach was by obtaining confirmation from the respondents that their comments were acceptable for quoting includes those that were "off the record". Rubin and Rubin (2005) note that sometimes respondents may disclose private information to the interviewer in more informal/social setting. The researcher, therefore, must be cautious when this possibility occurs.

3.9. Summary

This chapter has provided an insight into the research methodology being employed in this thesis. An in-depth semi structured interview and secondary data related to the curriculum and Indonesia's hospitality and tourism tertiary education were used to generate data. This study involved four essential stakeholders (educators, students, and industry and government people) to gain diverse points of view about the discussed curriculum issues. Purposive and snowball sampling were employed to select knowledgeable and experienced respondents who were capable of providing credible information for developing a curriculum framework. The collected data were scrutinized using content analysis. Trustworthiness of this study was obtained through credibility, transferability, dependability, and confirmability. Since the study involve interviewing people, a consent letter and the assurance of confidentiality were used to conform to the core criteria for ethical and responsible research conduct.

The further fulfilment of the aims of this thesis are considered in the results of the work which are presented in the next chapter, that is, Chapter Four.

Chapter 4

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Chapter Four presents the results obtained from the interviews with the stakeholders. The reviews of the curriculum documents of the selected Indonesia's hospitality and tourism institutions offering the academic and the vocational undergraduate programs are also presented. Patterns, trends, and linkages emerging from the analysis are explained. Findings are discussed by exploring the relationships with the existing literature or theories.

This chapter begins with the description of respondents' profile, followed by the examination and explanation of the current conditions and the challenges of Indonesia's hospitality and tourism industry and hospitality and tourism higher education, as well as the occupational needs assessment. Subsequently, aims and objectives, selection of content, methods of instruction, assessment strategies, and evaluation of curriculum are considered as the basis components for the curriculum framework.

4.1. Profile of the Respondents

Thirty-six respondents from four groups of stakeholders were involved in this study: 14 educators, 12 students, eight industry professionals, and two government representatives. Educators and students were from 12 reputable hospitality and tourism higher institutions located in five major cities in Indonesia; Greater Jakarta, Bandung, Yogyakarta, Surabaya, and Denpasar-Bali. Most of the

educators had a Master degree and their work experience ranged between 11 to 25 years. Four educators had a doctoral degree and another four were undertaking PhD study at the time of the interview. Their ages ranged from 40 to 49 years old. The students represented two types of undergraduate programs being examined in this study and included six students from the vocational Bachelor program and six students from the academic Bachelor program. They were the third and last year students, aged about 20 to 23 years old. The students had taken an internship or completed a tourism field project with a duration of 3.5 months to over a year. Respondents from the industry were generally in their 40s or 50s with more than 15 years of working experience. Of the seven industry participants, only one person had a three year diploma degree (he had just registered for a Bachelor program), while the others had a Master degree. Both government participants had PhD degrees and over 25 years of work experiences.

The second interview that was aimed to confirm the findings involved nine respondents, comprising seven existing respondents (three educators, two students, one industry practitioner and one government official), and two new-respondents. They consisted of five females and four males. The two new respondents, as indicated in Chapter Three, were the senior hospitality and tourism educators from two reputable hospitality/tourism schools in Greater Jakarta who had work experience more than 15 years in the hospitality/tourism sector (industry and academic field). In total, 15 or 40% respondents were male and 23 or 60% were female. Excluding the students, the age of the other three groups of respondents were of their 40s and 50s. Demographic of the respondents is presented in Table 4.1.

Table 4.1 Demographics of the Respondents

	Educator		Student	Industry	Government	Total	Grand Total
Number of Respondents		14	12	8	2	36	
New Respondents	(2)		-	-	-	2	
Age:							
20-29		-	12	1	-	13	13
30-39		3	-	-	-	3	3
40-49	(1)	8	-	4	-	12	13
50-59	(1)	1	-	3	2	6	7
>60		2	-	-	-	2	2
Gender:							
Male	(1)	5	5	3	1	14	15
Female	(1)	9	7	5	1	22	23
Education							
Studying		-	12	-	-	12	12
Diploma		-	-	1	-	1	1
Bachelor		-	-	-	-	-	-
Master		10	-	7	-	17	17
PhD/PhD candidate	(2)	4	-	-	2	6	8
Work Experiences							
< 1 year		-	9	-	-	9	9
1-5 years		-	3	-	-	3	3
6-10 years		2	-	1	-	3	3
11-15 years	(1)	3	-	-	-	3	4
16-20 years		3	-	3	-	6	6
21-25 years		3	-	2	-	5	5
26-30 years		1	-	1	2	4	4
>30 years	(1)	2	-	1	-	3	4

Note: Numbers in the brackets denote the demographic of the new respondent

4.2. Current Issues and Challenges in Indonesia's Hospitality and Tourism Industry

The majority of the stakeholders stated that the hospitality and tourism industry in Indonesia is growing, as evidenced by the vast development of hotels and other lodging sectors, and the increase in the number of tourist arrivals – both domestic and international - to the country. The views are consistent with the statistics on the development of accommodation across the country and the increase in foreign visitors in the last nine years from 2006 up to 2014. New hotels are being opened across the archipelago with a total investment amounting US$602 million in

2013. Bali, the most popular holiday destination has the highest number of properties managed by the domestic and foreign hotel operators. The growth is expected to continue in the next five years to 2020 (Taylor, 2015). In the capital city Jakarta, there are 77 new star-rated hotels being built within 2014-2016. Some of them are the premium hotels such as Raffles Jakarta, St. Regis Jakarta, Waldorf Astoria, and Fairmont Hotel Senayan. At present, hotels in Jakarta are made up of midscale and economy classes (28%), upper midscale class (9%), upscale class (38%), upper upscale class (11%), and luxury class (14%) (Rusyanto, 2014).

The booming of the industry, however, is facing several obstacles. The common barriers indicated by the respondents are related to human resources, planning, research and development, marketing and promotion, stakeholder coordination, infrastructure, and community awareness concerning tourism and its advantages. The topic of human resources was viewed by all groups of respondents as the top issue that requires attention from hospitality and tourism industry players and decision makers. A high number of respondents claimed that there is an inadequate supply of qualified and competent people to fill in various levels of work in the hospitality and tourism industry. This lack of human resources was seen as a major problem. The respondents' opinion are presented in the following transcripts:

> *"The competencies of our human resources are lacking, in particular to manage and create distinctiveness of a tourism destination" (Stu2)*
>
> *"Indonesia still needs people who are capable to develop tourism planning and promotion, especially for our destinations… it seems that our education heavily focuses on meeting the industry's demands for human resources with specific skills to provide the service" (Edu5)*

It can be argued that Indonesia's tourism clearly needs human resources who possess generic skills that incorporate knowledge and conceptual thinking, personal

skills and practical skills. The current condition in Indonesia is probably similar to what Baum (2002) observed in suggesting that specific technical competencies are more widely available than generic skills in the hospitality arena.

A second serious issue in the context of human resources was related to the employment for the hospitality and tourism graduates. It was found in the study that users or employers (e.g. industry and government) tend not to be very concerned about the level and background of education when hiring employees. Industries simply seek job-ready workers. It is a common practice in Indonesia's hospitality and tourism industry to recruit staff from various levels and educational backgrounds. For example, graduates of Bachelor and diplomas (either a three-year or four-year diploma program) may occupy the same job position in a hotel's sales and marketing department. In the government sector, various jobs in tourism ministerial offices at the national and provincial levels are mostly occupied by non-hospitality and tourism graduates. Additionally, large numbers of non-hospitality and tourism graduates fill in various occupations in the hospitality and tourism sectors. By contrast, hospitality and tourism graduates prefer to work in other services sectors such as banks and insurance companies. Educator and student respondents claimed that many hospitality and tourism graduates work in non-tourism and hospitality industry. It was observed that low wages and remuneration and lack of recognition from the industry/users are factors that made the hospitality and tourism industry as unattractive. This condition was voiced by an educator as follows:

> *"According to our students, the payment and the reward from working in the tourism sector is low… the work is hard and requires long hours, no holidays during public holidays…. Those are the reasons why the graduates are not interested to work in tourism industry" (Edu4)*

This result confirmed points made by Connolly and McGing (2006), and Dale and Robinson (2001) who assert that tourism employers often hire graduates from non-tourism backgrounds as long as they can perform the required vocational skills and the people management skills. This is probably due to the industry as one of the key stakeholders in hospitality and tourism education which still greatly drives and determines the requirement of hospitality graduates' capabilities (Connolly & McGing, 2006).

Respondents also acknowledged some other issues concerning human resources; notably the lack of English proficiency, the intention of hospitality and tourism graduates to work outside tourism/hospitality roles, the need for certification for people to work in the sector, unjust treatment and recognition amongst the local and the expatriate workers, and the lack of personal development programs.

Human resources, the current critical issue in Indonesia' tourism can still be regarded as a major challenge in the next five years. Respondents maintained that the competent and qualified workers with good English skills remain a key concern. Indonesian human resources need to be aware of the free flow of labour within the ASEAN countries and the intense job competition. Educators and industry people suggested that certification of standard competencies are necessary to overcome the issue. This suggestion is aligned with the ideas of Deale and Schoffstall (2015) who assert that industry certification is essential to boost employment and careers. Another solid challenge in the future is the development of tourist destinations which include integration among stakeholders (government, industry, education, and community), marketing and promotional strategies, infrastructure advancement, government regulation and support, research and development, and the enhancement of community awareness towards the importance of tourism. These conditions are

reflected in Liu and Wall's (2006) study who commented that the capabilities of human resources in emerging tourism destinations are barely sufficient and primarily just focus on the hospitality sector.

In summary, Indonesia indubitably needs to develop its hospitality and tourism human resources plan. The potentially rich destinations throughout the country will not be well managed and promoted due to the limited of human resources to develop the destinations. Respondents believed that the country needs people who are capable of executing hospitality and tourism plans or programs and dealing with immediate problems, as well as those who are proficient in the planning and concept development. This includes frontline staff, operational managers, strategic level managers, tourism planners, policy makers, educators/scholars, and researchers.

4.3. Current Issues and Challenges in Indonesia's Hospitality and Tourism Education

Perspectives of Respondents

Respondents expressed the view that the prospect for hospitality and tourism education in Indonesia is looking positive as an emergent field of study. However, they also identified several problems in this education sector.

Respondents suggested that the academic and the vocational Bachelor programs were not distinctive as expressed in the aims, objectives and learning outcomes. At the time of the interview, the nomenclature of the degree was in the process of verification by the Directorate General of Higher Education in order to amend the Decree of the Minister of Education and Culture No. 154/2014, as the

ministry changed its name and structure into the Ministry of Research, Technology, and Higher Education. The final draft of the nomenclature was issued in February 2015 which defined hospitality and tourism into five categories: seven study programs of three-year diploma or Diploma III (Hospitality, Rooms Division Operations, Culinary Arts, Baking and Pastry Arts, Food and Beverage Service, Tour and Travel Business, and Ecotourism), five study programs of the vocational Bachelor/Diploma IV (Tourism Business, Tourism Destination, Hotel Management, Travel Management, and Convention and Event Management), three study programs of the academic Bachelor (Tourism, Hospitality Studies, and Travel Industries), one Master program (Tourism), and one doctoral program (Tourism). Although the draft for the nomenclature has been determined and dispensed, the learning outcomes remain unclassified. Furthermore, the regulation concerning this new nomenclature is now postponed until further notice as stated in the letter of the Ministry of Research, Technology, and Higher Education No. 01/M/SE/V/2015.

The ambiguity of programs may lead to several problems concerning content and instructional strategies (teaching and learning) and the lecturers' credentials. Respondents confirmed that subjects being taught and methods of teaching at both undergraduate programs were still largely emphasizing a vocational approach and technical skills. This is expressed by an industry respondent as written in the following script:

> *"The academic Bachelor is an academic and scientific strand. However, the implementation of this concept in Indonesia's hospitality and tourism education is still elusive. The academic Bachelor is relatively applied and vocational oriented, which is no different from the vocational Bachelor of Diploma IV program" (Ind7)*
>
> *"At present, it is still a blur and confused between the vocational and the academic Bachelor" (Edu7)*

The other concerns that deserve careful attention were the lack recognition from the industry regarding the output of the vocational and the academic Bachelor programs, the inequities of teaching and learning resources, and the low image of hospitality and tourism study. Respondents maintained that industry generally was inclined to offer the same types of jobs and positions when recruiting students either for internship or work regardless their education modes (i.e. vocational or academic). The evidence also indicated that hospitality and tourism institutions outside Java and Bali have limited resources and access concerning practical facilities, capital, lecturers, textbooks, and international networking. It is widely known that the vast majority of renowned hospitality and tourism institutions are located in the main cities of Java (Jakarta, Bandung, Yogyakarta, Surabaya) and Bali. These schools are likely to enjoy more support from the stakeholders and are able to attract superior academic staff. Educator, student and industry respondents claimed that hospitality and tourism education is still being perceived as a low image study topic. The study is strongly associated with travelling activities, and seen as industry driven. In summary, all four groups of respondents agreed on the three common problems in Indonesia's hospitality and tourism education: indistinguishable content of the vocational and the academic undergraduate programs, teaching and learning related issues, and lack of industry recognition specifically towards the academic Bachelor program.

Respondents believed that the aforementioned issues will continue as immense challenges to be faced by the education sector in the near future. Concerns include the lecturers' qualifications, certification and competency standards, curriculum, teaching and learning facilities, and incorporation between the government, industry and education. Educators, students, and the government

specified that issues concerning the fitness of the lecturers and learning outcomes need to be seriously addressed.

Results from the interviews can be perceived as the following. First, the vocational-action oriented curriculum that appear in the current Indonesian academic and vocational curriculum indicates that hospitality and tourism education is still largely driven by the industry's needs (Airey, 2004; Cooper, 1996; Dredge et al., 2012b; Inui et al., 2006). Second, the confusion of tourism employers on the nature and content of hospitality and tourism programs brings constraints to employment, principally because the same recognition is given towards the output of the graduates of the vocational and the academic Bachelor programs. This issue may discourage hospitality and tourism students pursuing their career in the industry (Haven-Tang & Jones, 2006).

Observations of the Curriculum

An analysis of the curriculum documents of twelve selected hospitality and tourism institutions for this study revealed that the content or subject matters are comparable between the academic and the vocational Bachelor programs. As presented in Table 4.2, the curriculum content could be categorized into seven subject areas: business, humanities, natural and applied science, social science and tourism, hotel operation and management, tours and travel, general subjects, and integrated subjects (internship and thesis). The first four categories were principally derived from McCrimmon's (2013). He asserted that four key disciplines are business (economics, finance, accounting, management, marketing), humanities (language, art, history, literature, philosophy, religion, theater, music), natural and applied science (biology, chemistry, mathematics, physics, medicine, computer

science, engineering, geology), and social sciences (psychology, sociology, anthropology, education, geography, law, political science).

A thorough inspection found that a resemblance was also apparent in the institutions' mission statements (i.e. vision, mission, and objectives) as shown in Table 4.2. Reviews of vision statements identified that "centre of excellence', "competitive advantages", competent and professional graduates", and "prominent and leading institutions" were the most common assertions to describe the future aspirations of hospitality and tourism institutions. Mission statements generally attended to quality of education, research advancement, community services programs, networking expansion, and graduates' competencies. Commonalities were also identified among the two undergraduate programs' objectives as the main goals of the institution: "students' development" and "organization advancement". The former goal is to equip students with essential knowledge and skills, managerial competencies, and entrepreneurial skills. The latter put more emphasis on the research development, networking expansion, faculty, student and alumni development, community services programs, and accountability and sustainability of the organization. This result confirms Oktadiana and Chon's (2014a) study who found similarity of the programs' directions amongst the academic and the vocational Bachelor programs of Indonesia's hospitality and tourism education.

Table 4.2 Current Mission Statements and Curriculum Content of Indonesia's Hospitality and Tourism Undergraduate Programs

Vision	Centre of excellence; competitive advantages; competent and professional graduates; prominent and leading institutions".
Mission	Eligible education; research advancement; community services programs; networking expansion; graduates' competencies.
Objectives	**Students' development** that emphasizes knowledge, skills and personal development, managerial competencies, and entrepreneurial skills. **Organization advancement** that focuses on research development, networking expansion, faculty, student and alumni development, community services programs, accountability and sustainability of the organization.
Curriculum content	1. **Business subjects:** Accounting, Feasibility Study, Entrepreneurship, Basic Management, Marketing Management, Financial Management, Human Resources Management, Strategic Management 2. **Humanities:** English (Basic English, English for Tourism, Professional English), Foreign Languages (Mandarin, French, Japan, German) 3. **Natural and Applied Science:** Statistics, Tourism Statistics, Research Methodology, Field Research, Computer/IT for hotel and tourism 4. **Social Science and Tourism:** Introduction to Tourism, Tourism Geography, Tourism Law, Eco Tourism, Tourism Attraction Management, MICE and Events Management 5. **Hotel Operation and Management:** Sanitation, Hygiene and Safety, Rooms Division (Front Office and Housekeeping), Food & Beverage Service, Kitchen and Pastry 6. **Tours & Travel:** Ticketing 7. **General Studies:** Pancasila (National Philosophy) and Civics, Indonesian Language, Religion, Seminar (Stadium Generale), Sports and Arts, Ethics, Personal Development, Creative and Critical Thinking 8. **Integrated Studies:** Work placement/internship, thesis.

Some excerpts from the six institutions' mission statements are presented in Table 4.3. They reveal discernible patterns of "becoming the leading" in the account of vision and "eligible education, research, community services, and cooperation" in the set of missions. It is obvious that the triad of academic responsibilities (teaching, research and community services) were replicated in the mission statements.

Table 4.3 Examples of Mission Statements

Institutions and Programs Offered		Visions	Facets of Missions Statements
A	Academic Bachelor	"To become the leading tourism institution in Indonesia…."	Eligible tourism program; competent graduates; research and publications; community service
D	Academic Bachelor	"To become the leading tourism…. in the field of…."	Highly eligible Bachelor program; applied research; research and community service; cooperation
F	Vocational and academic Bachelors (vocational is the primary program)	"To become the leading tourism institution in the world…. "	Eligible tourism education; research; community service; cooperation/networking
J	Academic and vocational Bachelors (academic is the main program)	"To become a leading, self-contained, cultivated and international tourism institution….."	Eligible tourism education; human resources development; research and community service; research publication and intellectual property; cooperation
G	Vocational Bachelor	"To become the leading hotel and tourism higher institution, self-contained, highly competitive…. "	Competent human resources; highly competitive; research; community service; cooperation; quality and sustainability
H	Vocational Bachelor	"….. as the trend setter of leading tourism institution, cultivated, ….. "	International class concept; teaching and learning; research; students development; leadership and entrepreneurship; cooperation/networking

Bart and Baetz (1998) contend that performance of an organization's members is closely correlated with the organization's value and the mission statements. Mission statements explain why an organization exists (Horn, 2013). Vision is regarded as the organization's insight and future aspiration, whereas mission is intended to portray the purpose and distinctiveness of an organization (Miller & Dess, 1996 as cited in Bart & Baetz, 1998). Mission serves as a communication mean to the external stakeholders about the organization's values and characteristics, and as an inspiration for the members of the organization (Morphew & Hartley, 2006). Another integral part of education process, the objectives, depicts how students perform and what they think, feel, and behave (Herring III & Williams, 2000; Kelting-Gibson, 2013; Nicholls & Nicholls, 1978). A clear and well-defined objective assists in the planning, selecting, and designing

of instructional methods to assess the learning outcomes – the importance of what is taught (Herring III & William, 2000; Nicholls & Nicholls, 1980). Vision, mission, and objectives have been viewed as integral parts of the quality standard measurement (ACPHA, 2014; Horng et al., 2009). It is common to find a question about how well vision and mission are defined in an accreditation process to examine the purposes and effectiveness of an institution (ACPHA, 2014; Diamond, 2008).

Given the patterns found in the vision and mission statements, it could be assumed that the visions were construed as a symbol of the institutions' kudos, while the mission statements were associated more with the importance of the internal and external stakeholders. The mission statements of Indonesia's hospitality and tourism higher education seemed to be broad and did not provide the focal point of the institutions. While mission statements are crucial, their purposes are rather to serve as the official documents required by accrediting bodies and board members, and not to provide directions as they intended to be. Their presence is merely because they are expected to exist (Morphew & Hartley, 2006). The findings also fit with Morphew and Hartley's (2006) study on the US universities which specified the use of mission statements as the means of informing the stakeholders about an institution's efforts to meet their expectations rather than to provide direction for the institutions' strategic planning.

To conclude, there is a strong need to re-examine the mission statements of Indonesia's hospitality and tourism education programs to properly position the vocational and academic Bachelor programs as well as to better utilize the resources. As noted by Pauze (1993), re-examination of the mission statement is important. It can be argued that the mission statements should inform why those two types of

Bachelor programs exist. Vocational education should have immensely different mission statements than those of the academic education/research universities (Barrows, 1999).

4.4. The Occupational Needs

The analysis results of the interviews revealed that diverse types of occupations are needed in various parts of Indonesia's hospitality and tourism industry such as accommodation, food services, tours and travel, Destination Marketing Organization (DMO), Meetings, Incentives, Conferences and Exhibitions (MICE) and events, government tourism office, and training and education. As shown in Table 4.4, the pool of respondents called for people who are capable of front-line work/ providing service and who can solve immediate problems (e.g. front-line staff, operational level managers) as well as those who are proficient in research, concept building, planning, and development (e.g. scholars/researchers, tourism planners and developers, strategic level managers). Although the importance of the aforesaid occupations were proposed by all groups of participants, the industry respondents stressed the demand for managers/professionals and front-line staff, whereas the government emphasized the necessity of tourism planners and developers, scholars and researchers, and then the front-line people.

Table 4.4 also shows that the demands for those various occupations can be satisfied by both types of programs as indiated by the respondents. The academic Bachelor graduates are expected to meet the demands of scholars/researchers, strategic level managers, tourism planners, and policy makers. The scope of working area for those occupations would cover a broad range of tourism and hospitality

sectors and include the tourism government offices. The vocational Bachelor graduates are intended to fill in the needs of operational managers and front-line staff in the whole hospitality and tourism industry. It is also expected that vocational Bachelor graduates would be able to perform particular operational tasks.

Table 4.4 Fulfillment of the Occupational Needs by the Vocational and Academic Education

Occupational needs	Expected output	Scope of work	Endorsed by
Tourism planner and developer (for concept development, planning and strategy for tourism)	Academic Bachelor graduates	Hospitality and tourism sector (back of the house), Tourism government	Mainly educators, students, and government
Researcher and educators (for research and teaching, theory and concept development)	Academic Bachelor graduates	Hospitality and tourism sector (education and training institutions)	Mainly educators, students, and government
Managerial (for service/operation and management strategic)	Graduates from both educational modes	• Operational: Vocational style • Strategic management: Academic mode	Mainly industry, educators, students
Operational/front liners (for service and (immediate) problem solving)	Vocational Bachelorgraduates	Hospitality and tourism sectors (emphasis on specific/service area)	Majority of respondent (all categories of respondents)

The necessities of human resources to boost Indonesia tourism is revealed in the following excerpt:

> *"Firstly, we need front-line people to directly interact with the visitors, those who will determine the quality of service. Vocational education plays an important role in this provisions….. Thus, direct interaction with customers, services provided to them, require skilled people from vocational education. Secondly, we need people who are capable to think of the macro development of tourism. The planning, research, evaluation, and so on. The products that they create may not be instantly enjoyed by the visitors. This is where the academic approach is necessary to educate these people…. When we develop our tourism, we do not only need people who are excel in providing service to the guests, but those who are competent in cultivating and promoting sustainable tourism destination"(Gov1)*

Again here, the educators acknowledged and reaffirmed that currently many of their alumni are working in the non-hospitality and tourism sector such as

banking and insurance, besides hospitality and tourism industry and government's tourism office. As mentioned earlier, the industry has been inclined to offer the same type of jobs or positions to students of the vocational and the academic Bachelor as both programs are deemed equivalent. The industry respondents argued however, that administrative work at the back office would probably be offered to the academic Bachelor graduates and the operational jobs for the vocational graduates depending on the individuals' capabilities. Below are some quotes from the interviews with educators and industry people:

> *"Many of our alumni do not work in a hotel and restaurant, instead they work in a bank, insurance company, and also manufacture" (Edu1)*
>
> *"Bank is the most common workplace… then real estate, becoming a developer, then… television media" (Edu3)*
>
> *"I think we will offer both types of graduates the same job. Why? Because as I told you earlier, both programs are still indistinct" (Ind7)*

Interviews with students disclosed that nearly all student sought-after managerial job and around half of them preferred to work in the government's tourism office upon graduation, specifically those from the academic Bachelor program. The students' working preference in the government's tourism office was also articulated by an educator from the academic Bachelor program. The other interests are to work as tourism consultants, entrepreneurs, and teachers, as expressed by a small number of students. An educator who teaches in the tourism academic Bachelor program stated that many students voiced their keenness to be airline stewardess in the foreign airlines.

It is apparent that the current career path of hospitality and tourism Bachelor graduates in Indonesia is not yet well established. There is no clear direction on what they should become upon the completion of their studies. Furthermore, hospitality

and tourism employers are still keen to recruit and hire people with insufficient hospitality/tourism qualifications. This may dissuade students' incitement to pursue a tourism career. Students may choose to work in the banking and retail sectors where their talent is more recognized, and they can earn better remuneration and have a clear career pathway (Haven-Tang & Jones, 2006; Walker, 2014).

Inferring from Gunn (1998), the academic Bachelor graduates are more likely to become policymakers, planner and developers, educators, and those who work in the action and constituency groups (e.g. convention and visitor bureaus, tourism associations). While for the vocational Bachelor graduates, it is more relevant to work as providers of direct traveller activities (e.g. sport centres, night clubs, theme parks) and providers of traveller support products-services (e.g. hotels, restaurants, travel agencies). Pearce (2005) contends that there are three major employment sectors: the commercial sector, the public and facility management sector, and the education and training sector. Following Pearce, the academic Bachelor students seem more inclined to work in the education and training area, and the public and facility management sector. The vocational students tend to have a career in the commercial sector and some areas in the public and facility sector. This does not mean that the vocational students are restricted to work in the education and training sector. They are entitled to pursue an academic career but probably it is not the main determinant of the vocational mode.

Having examined the issues facing the hospitality and tourism industry and the education sector, some intriguing questions arise: "What are the purposes of hospitality and tourism undergraduate programs in Indonesia?", "Have we have taught the right things to our students?".

Figure 4.1 presents a framework to illustrate the needs of human resources for Indonesia's tourism and the linkage with the hospitality and tourism education.

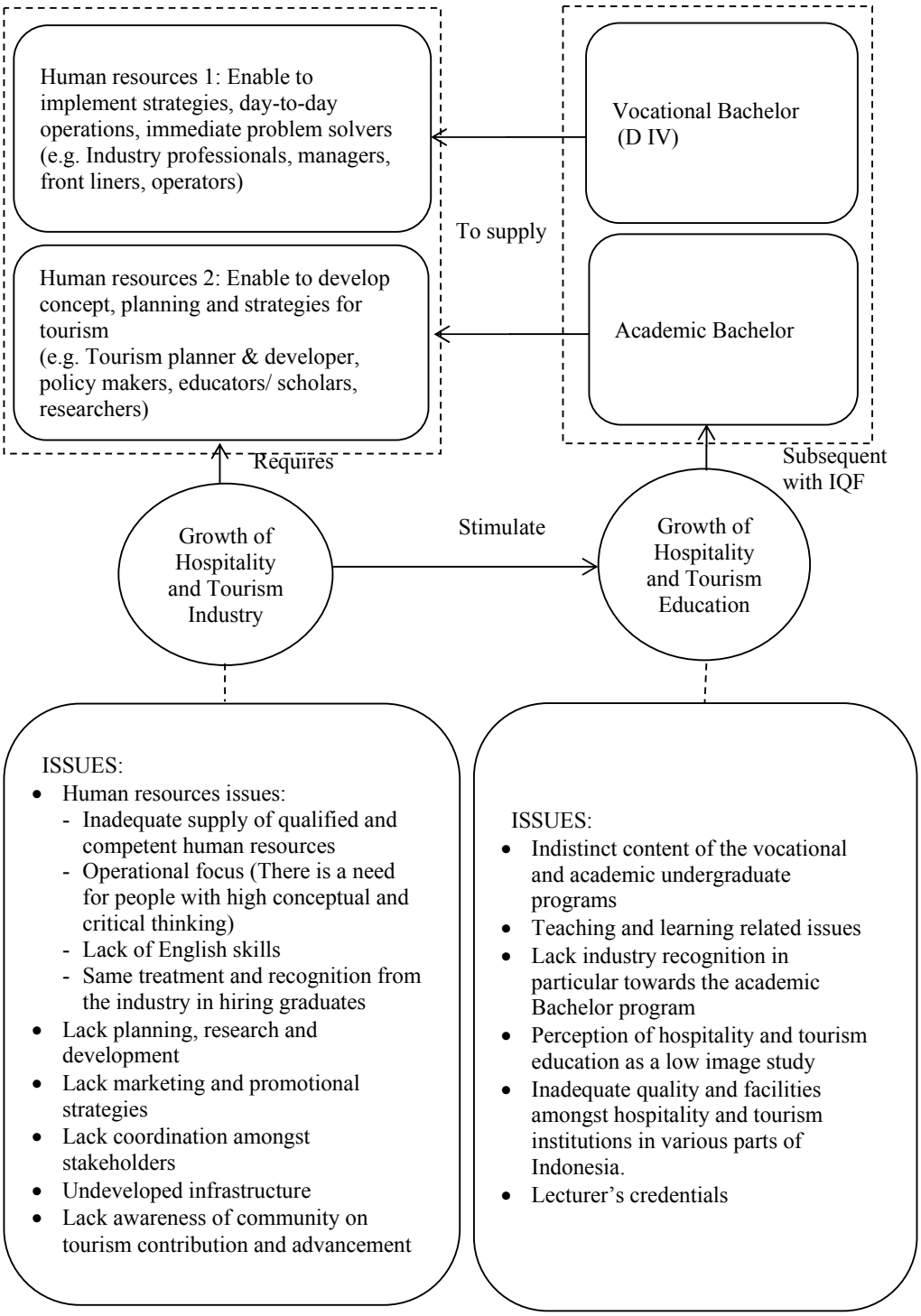


Figure 4.1 Tourism Industry, Hospitality and Tourism Education, and the Needs of Human Resources

Referring to the first research question, that is to determine the desired graduate profiles of the academic and the vocational Bachelor programs, it can be maintained that the academic Bachelor graduates should be proficient in undertaking research, concept building, planning, and development (e.g. scholars/researchers, tourism planners and developers, strategic level managers). The vocational Bachelor graduates, on the other hand, should be capable in performing front-line works and solving immediate problems (e.g. front-line staff, operational level managers).

4.5. Stakeholders' Perspectives of the Curriculum Components

Results of the interviews regarding the second research question "what constitute the curriculum of the academic and the vocational Bachelor programs" are shown in Table 4.5. It can be seen from the Table that some facets are integrated. Further explanations of the findings and the link to the literature are explained in the next four sub chapters (4.6 to 4.9).

Table 4.5 Respondents' Views about the Key Curriculum Components

	Academic	Vocational	Endorsed by
Aims	• Promote tourism knowledge & Indonesia's tourism development • Research, concept, theory focus	• Applied, practical, technical, operational • Industry career (work-ready)	Majority of respondents (all categories of respondents)
Objectives	Relate to: analysis, plan, problem solving, concept, create, propose ideas, strategic thinking, strategic management, holistic tourism knowledge, apply theory to concept	Relate to: operational & technical work at specific areas, immediate problem solving, operational managerial job	Majority of respondents (all categories of respondents)
Emphasis of content	Theory and knowledge focus, less applied/ practical	Practical, applied and skilled based	Majority of respondents (all categories of respondents)

Subjects	• Management and business • Tourism and event • Social science • Hospitality and tourism specific subjects • Natural and applied science • Humanities • Personal development • General subjects	• Management and business • Hospitality and tourism specific subjects (applied) • Hospitality and tourism (general knowledge) • Personal development • Humanities • Social science • General subjects	Majority of respondents, although for Humanities subjects and Personal development were mainly proposed by educators and industry respondents
Delivery	• Case study • Simulation and demonstration • Internship	• Simulation and demonstration • Case study • Internship	Majority of respondent (all categories of respondents)
	• Field trip/field study • Discussions, brainstorm • Project • Presentation • Lecture • Guest lecture • PBL • Other (seminar, workshop, essay)	• Field trip/field study • Project • Discussions, brainstorm • Lecture • Presentation • Others (guest lecture, seminar, PBL)	Mainly by educators, students, and industry respondents
Assessment	• Complex knowledge (concept and theories) and essential skills; Metacognitive knowledge • Process focus • Formative and summative assessment • Varieties of assessment approach can be applied • Written test, quiz, paper/essay, cases (traditional assessment) • Performance assessment: presentation, simulation, problem solving • Product/portfolio assessment: project and report, essay, research-based report • Academic setting: classroom/school • Non-academic setting: work place at the industry, field trip	• Expert (technical) skills and fundamental concept; Procedural knowledge • Product focus • Formative and summative assessment • Varieties of assessment approach can be applied • Written test, quiz, paper/essay, cases (traditional assessment) • Performance assessment: demonstration, role play, presentation, problem solving, practical work performance evaluation • Product/portfolio assessment: sample of product, lab report, project-/experimental- based report • Academic setting: classroom/school • Non-academic setting: work place at the industry, field trip	The group of respondents from all categories

4.6. Aims and Objectives of Hospitality and Tourism Undergraduate Programs

Aims are the education purposes which provide general direction to education. They are derived from studying the needs of students, society, and culture (Oliva, 2005). The pool of respondents specified that purposes of the vocational Bachelor are to prepare students for an industry career that emphasizes the technical/practical aspects. While the aims of the academic Bachelor are to promote tourism knowledge and tourism stewardship (borrowing Tribe's term) with strong theories, concept development and research activities. The academic Bachelor should be able to produce people with higher-order thinking skills; those who are skilful in planning, conceptual building, policy making, analysing, and performing evaluation. Occupations such as tourism planner, policy maker, analyst, scholars/researchers, and strategic level managers should be provided by this academic education. Relevant comments from several respondents in regard to the aims of vocational and academic Bachelor programs are provided in the following remarks:

> *The tourism academic Bachelor is premeditated to endorse tourism stewardship where the graduates are capable of developing a plan and concept of a tourism destination (Edu4)*
>
> *Diploma IV (vocational Bachelor) program should be oriented toward hospitality line of business, whereas the academic Bachelor should be directed toward academic endeavours in order to produce scholars or researchers (Stu9)*
>
> *Diploma IV graduates are trained and prepared for the industry's operations (Ind3)*
>
> *Diploma IV is not designed for the scientific study of tourism. It is intended to train students to be able to solve immediate problems in the tourism fields. The academic Bachelor on the other hand, is formed to enhance a development of tourism knowledge and as a basis of further academic*

studies. Students of this program should have a capability to handle a long-term problem/issue that may occur in a tourism pitch (Gov2)

In view of the aims, all group of respondents proposed several objectives to indicate what students of each Bachelor program should be able to do upon the completion of their four year of studies. It is expected that the academic Bachelor students should have capabilities to make plan, develop concept from theories, respond and handle anticipated problems, make analysis, demonstrate critical thinking, and perform strategic management tasks. The objectives for the vocational Bachelor students include the competencies to perform specific technical/operational works and/or operational management tasks at the workplace, and to respond and solve immediate problems.

To achieve the set of defined objectives, respondents suggested a range of knowledge and skills that should be acquired by students of each Bachelor strand. The academic mode should focus on the knowledge that promote critical thinking with fundamental practical activities. The students are required to understand technical skills, but only at the basic level. The emphasis is on the knowledge, in particular tourism knowledge, management knowledge, hospitality knowledge, and the liberal arts. The vocational style on the other hand, should put emphasis on the applied or concrete actions supported with essential knowledge. The students should acquire knowledge related to the specific jobs (e.g. food and beverage services, food production, tour guiding), management knowledge, and hospitality and tourism knowledge.

Regardless the modes of education, all the group of respondents insisted that students should obtain generic skills that are deemed important for their future career and life. These skills include communication skills, problem solving skills,

interpersonal relationship skills, leadership skills, good attitude, teamwork, courtesy, adaptability, responsibility, computer skills and English language skills. Adding to the aforesaid skills, the respondents recommended that vocational students should pay more attention to their personal appearance and to have a sense of "willingness to serve" as they are likely interact more directly with the guests. The academic Bachelor students are expected to have strong capabilities in analytical skills and critical thinking. The findings of knowledge and skills that are viewed as imperative for hospitality and tourism students and agree with the previous studies conducted by a number of scholars within hospitality and tourism settings (e.g. Kay & Russette, 2000; Kitterlin-Lynch, Williams, & Zheng, 2015; Lin, 2002; Mayo & Thomas-Haysbert, 2005; Millar et al., 2010; Nelson & Dopson, 2001; Pearce, 2005; Sheldon et al., 2008; Stanciulescu & Bulin, 2012; Tesone & Ricci, 2005; Wang & Tsai, 2014; Zehrer & Mössenlechner, 2009).

Tyler's rational model of the general objectives is well regarded and has stood the test of time. His model asserts that behavioural aspect and the condition or content aspect should be included in defining objectives: behaviour and content (Davies, 1976; R. Tyler, 1949; Oliva, 2005). It was observed that the kind of behaviour expected from the Bachelor students are reflected in the statement: "design a concept, make a strategic plan, analyse and provide solutions for projected issues, and perform strategic managerial tasks". The content or condition where the behaviour takes place is in the tourism sector. The sort of behaviour stated in the objectives of the vocational Bachelor are shown in the context "perform specific technical skills and operational managerial tasks for a certain occupation" and "solve (immediate) problems". The conditions of these objectives were expressed in "the hospitality and tourism industry, and the workplace".

The bases of the objectives, according to Tyler, should be obtained from various sources: the learners, social condition or contemporary life outside the school, the subject specialists; the philosophy, and the psychology of learning. The objectives developed through these sources were conciliatory and eclectic. In the interviews with the students of the academic and the vocational Bachelor programs, it was revealed that the academic students sought the notion of tourism stewardship to promote the tourism sector, while the vocational students predominantly simply seek industry employment. Orientation to employment, as noted by Lyu, Li, & Wang (2016), is seen as a defining factor by hospitality students. Social condition as the second source denotes the importance of the tourism industry as the major revenue generator for Indonesia in order to boost the country's economy. Data gained from the respondents showed that Indonesia needs the stewardship constituent to sustain its tourism industry as well as the service delivery facet to provide memorable experience and satisfaction to the visitors/customers.

The third source, subject matter specialist, reflects the content of the documents concerning the development of tourism as a field of study which were obtained from the workshops, seminars, and meetings of the Association of the Indonesian Tourism Education Institutes. Interviews with the educators suggested that hospitality and tourism study should embrace knowledge, skills, and values to promote higher-order thinking skills (creative and critical thinking conceptualization, reasoning and problem solving) and transferable skills (e.g. problem solving and flexible thinking) for employment, through concrete experience, exploration, and self-reflection. Thus, the curriculum should epitomize the reflection and action element, and theories and skills components. Stansbie and Nash (2016) noted that employers prefer to recruit graduates who are proficient in

theoretical knowledge and practical skills as they can learn faster and be able to complete their tasks better and more efficiently. In relations to the philosophy of learning, the stakeholders recommended the learning conditions that could facilitate the theories and practices, and the knowledge and skills, as well as the attitude development. The educational philosophy as a source of influence is explained further as below.

A key link with the cognitive domain of Bloom's taxonomy can be noted for the academic Bachelor's objectives. They mainly fall into the continuum of the complex categories of the intellectual process: analysis and synthesis or evaluation. The vocational Bachelor's objectives predominantly fall within Bloom's range of application and analysis. The inference of the affective domain is that the academic and vocational education should pertain to the value complex (characterization by a value). This highest level of affective domain stresses a philosophy of life, a development of code of conduct grounded in ethical principles (Parsons et al., 2001). In terms of the psychomotor taxonomy, the academic education should probably be set within the levels of guided response (imitation and trial), mechanism (practice and repetition), and complex overt responses (perform, operate). The place of vocational education in this domain would be on complex overt responses, adaptation (to change, to revise), and origination (to create, to design) (Brady & Kennedy, 2003; Davies, 1976; Oliva, 2005). It is important to note, however, although cognitive and behavioural objectives are the purpose of hospitality and tourism curriculum, they should be more open-ended and not designed on restricted parameters (Pearce, 1993).

To address the issues of aims and objectives, perspectives from various concepts and theories were adopted to provide an insight into the dilemma of the

purposes of academic and vocational strands. Deriving from the conception of Ornstein and Hunkins (2009), it can be argued that the academic Bachelor can promote academic subjects with a mastery of concepts and essential skills. The vocational Bachelor on the other hand, is designed to foster knowledge leading to growth and active-concrete learning. In the account of knowledge and action, Jamal (2004) identifies that the notion of knowing how (how to do something) and knowing that (related to the theoretical knowledge). Ryle's (1978) two types of knowledge denote knowing what and knowing how (Posner, 2004). Although such types of knowledge are applicable to the academic and vocational education, the concept of "knowing what" and "knowing that" is probably more inclined to the academic style, while the "knowing how" is possibly more appropriate to the vocational mode. By pursuing ideas from Morgan (2004) and Ritchie et al. (2008), the academic Bachelor program can be seen as a (sound) science stream with its purpose to educate students about tourism principles and science, and to pursue careers as academics, researchers, and consultants. The vocational Bachelor program, which can be ascribed to the management stream, is vocational education that is intended to prepare students for careers in the industry as front-liners and managers in the operational fields.

From the philosophical point of view, the aims and objectives of both education modes, the vocational and academic, seem to be closely connected with the essentialism, progressivism and the reconstructionism positions. Essentialism emphasizes the academic discipline, cognitive development, knowledge and concepts, problem solving skills and the essential skills. The essentialist regards the objectives as the basic learning derived from the large body of knowledge accumulated from the past cultural heritage. The progressivist, by way of contrast, is

concerned with the students' interests and views students as the centre of the education and learning experiences. Progressivism underlines the importance of concrete experiences and problem solving (Kauchak & Eggen, 2011; Oliva, 2005; Ornstein & Hunkins, 2009). Reconstructionism promotes active learning that stresses social issues in today's society and ponders the solutions to address the issues (Kauchak & Eggen, 2011; Ornstein & Hunkins, 2009). The amalgamation of several philosophies that are deemed best practice are commonly employed by an institution. For example, there are progressive essentialists and essentialist progressivists that incorporate essentialism and progressivism approaches in different ways (Dunn, 2005; Oliva, 2005). Based upon the discussions with the participants during the second round of data collection and analysis, it can be maintained that the progressive essentialist view, incorporated with reconstructionism approach, are closely aligned with the academic cohort that is emphasizing the aspects of tourism and its society. The essentialist progressivist position is strongly associated with the vocational Bachelor program that intends to groom students to be ready for the world of work (R. Tyler, 1949).

Further links to the key ideas discussed in Chapter Two can also be made. Based on Tribe's Philosophic Practitioner, both the vocational and the academic Bachelor programs can be seen as falling into the four domains of vocational action, reflective vocational, reflective liberal, and liberal action. This means that although the focus of attention and direction of both programs overlap, the reflective and action approaches can coexist in those two educational contexts. Within this framework, one may further indicate that the main focus of the academic style lies upon the reflective liberal and liberal action, whereas the vocational style is centered on vocational action and reflective vocational ideas. However, the academic camp

also has components of vocational action and reflection, while the vocational strand has some liberal reflection and action. The reflective liberal position encourages creativity of thinking to understand the aspects of tourism phenomenon and to critically evaluate tourism's society. The notion of being reflective and liberal highlights the world of tourism and its ethical issues. Liberal action brings into focus the standing of ethics and fair treatment of people and places affected by tourism. It addresses the improved practices of tourism (not just in the sense of business practice). Vocational action promotes specific skills and knowledge (mainly technical) as well as transferable skills for the preparation of work. The reflective vocational position encourages reflection-on-action, emphasizing evaluation and critiques to improve tourism knowledge and skills. It values personal development and knowledge gained from the experiences.

Using Dredge et al.'s curriculum space that integrates the Aristotelian framework of knowledge *(episteme)*, technical skills/capabilities *(techne)* and the practical wisdom *(phronesis)*, it is evident that the vocational and academic modes incorporate all the three views. *Episteme* or epistemic denotes scientific knowledge; the "theoretical *know why"*. *Techne* refers to the application, technical, or technique which means "application of technical knowledge and skills". Techne that stresses on the "technical *know how"* is production oriented, concrete, pragmatic and context-dependent based. *Phronesis* concerns ethics and rationality of the practical (Flyvbjerg, 2001, p. 56, italics are emphasized in original).

In relations to those three intellectual virtues, the academic mode emphasizes the *episteme* to attend to the high order knowledge or complex knowledge. The vocational mode focuses on the *techne* to attain the expert practice which embraces the modest/simple concepts. The incorporation of concepts (knowing something)

and practice (doing something) will aid students to explain a phenomenon and solve a problem. Moreover, understanding concepts and practice are necessary for the knowledge acquirement (Young, 2014). Young also argues that epistemic enquiry is what define the characteristic of education, vocational or general. The practical wisdom or *phronesis* that cultivates good action and thought based on the moral and intellectual virtues should be integrated with the aims and objectives of both Bachelor strands. *Phronesis* involves the ability to know the best course of action in a certain situation by applying ethical knowledge or tacit knowledge (Jamal, 2004; Tribe, 2002a). Ethical knowledge will lead to the ethical behaviour that strives for good action that values honesty, transparency, and authenticity (Sheldon, et al., 2011). The notion of *phronesis* as the basis of education for ethical tourism will promote good tourism practice and development of tourism students through "disposition, experience, practical knowledge, and an intuitive sense of the good for tourism" as the key aspects of *phronesis* (Tribe, 2002a, p. 323). Hultsman (1995) asserted that ethical issues should be included in a tourism curriculum through case studies and philosophical discussions.

Adopting Young's powerful knowledge concept, the knowledge provided in the curriculum is specialized and differentiated knowledge; a kind of knowledge that can provide explanations, predictions, generalization, and opportunity for the learners to think in a novel way and contemplate another possibility. The knowledge creation should promote critical thinking, creativity, and networking which involves learning, association/connection, communication, application, and reflection (Sheldon et al., 2011). Another interesting insight is contained in Doll's post-modernism model. Deriving from Doll's model, the aims and objectives of the vocational and the academic Bachelor curriculum should foster (to a different

extent) higher-order thinking skills, conceptualization, communication skills, reasoning and problem solving skills through reflective action and interaction of the students.

The synthesis of the aforementioned concepts and ideologies is depicted in Figure 4.2. The Figure informs the position of vocational and academic Bachelor programs within an integrated curriculum framework. The supporting Table 4.6 shows the underpinning ideologies/concepts of the academic and vocational locus.

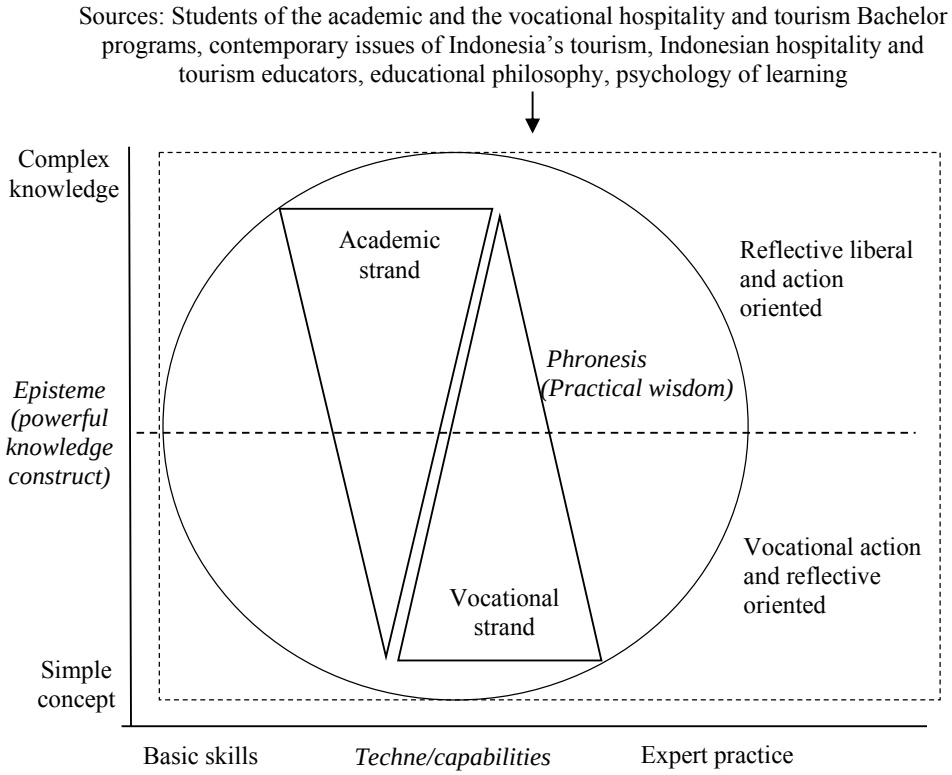


Figure 4.2 Integrated Curriculum Framework: The Positioning of Vocational and Academic Bachelor Programs

Table 4.6 The Locus of Academic and Vocational Modes and the Underpinning Ideologies

Academic Locus	Vocational Locus	Ideologies/Concepts
Progessivist essentialist, supported with social constructionism (Cognitive and intellectual development, essential skills, active learning, understanding of critical social issues)	Essentialist progressivist Knowledge leading to growth, real-world tasks/concrete experiences, active learning	Traditional philosophy
Liberal reflection and action, composed of vocational reflection and action	Vocational reflection and action, composed of liberal reflection and action	Tribe (2002b): philosophic practitioner
Knowledge and action that promotes higher-order thinking skills (creative and critical thinking conceptualization, reasoning and problem solving) through experiences, exploration, and self-reflection	Knowledge and transferable skills (e.g. problem solving and flexible thinking) for employment, concrete experience, and the ability to reflect, evaluate and critique	Doll (1993): post-modernism model; Schön (1983): reflective practitioner; Tribe (2002b): philosophic practitioner; Young (2013): powerful knowledge
Complex knowledge with essential skills that incorporate phronesis (practical wisdom) as the basis of good tourism practice/ethical tourism	Expert practice that embraces simple concept that incorporate phronesis (practical wisdom) as the basis of good tourism practice/ethical tourism	Dredge et al. (2012c): curriculum space; Jamal (2004): Virtue ethics; Tribe (2002a): Ethical tourism action

Having examined the determinant factors in defining the aims and the objectives, the aims and objectives of the academic and the vocational Bachelor programs can be summarized as the following:

- **The aim of the academic Bachelor program:** To promote tourism stewardship and tourism knowledge based on the reflection and action.
- **The objective of the academic Bachelor program:** Graduates who are able to demonstrate higher-order thinking skills, equipped with complex knowledge, essential skills, and practical wisdom.
- **The aim of the vocational Bachelor:** To endorse essential knowledge and skills for employability that built upon the notion of action and reflection.
- **The objective of the vocational Bachelor:** Graduates who are able to demonstrate knowledge and transferable skills for employment, equipped with expert capabilities/skills, essential concept, and practical wisdom.

4.7. Content of the Programs

What should be constituted in a curriculum (content) has been a relentless debate is hospitality and tourism education repertoire. Pearce (1993) argues that content is one of the primary issues in tourism study. Tourism courses are offered in many types of guises with diverse content and descriptions, which underline different perspectives and judgement amongst hospitality and tourism faculty (Dale & Robinson, 2001; Dopson & Nelson, 2003). There are varieties of hospitality and tourism content advocated by various scholars. Content can be classified for example, into business subjects, hospitality functional skills, personal skills, management subjects, tourism subjects, hospitality and tourism management subjects, foreign language subjects, general education, and social science (cf. Chathoth & Sharma, 2007; Koh, 1995; Leiper, 1981; Lin, 2002; McIntosh, 1983; Rainsford, 1997; Ring et al., 2009; Shariff, 2013).

The findings of this study suggested that there are two components underpinning the course content of the vocational and the academic Bachelors. First was the characteristic of the content and second was the subject area. The characteristics of academic Bachelor's content, as asserted the respondents, should emphasize theories and knowledge, contain less practical activities, and not be too specific about local job and occupational skills. The vocational content, regarded as more applied, should stress the hands-on activities, functional skills, and specific to particular competencies.

The subject areas of the academic and the vocational Bachelor programs can be seen as comprised of seven and six categories respectively. The subject areas of the academic mode, as indicated by the respondents, should consist management and

business subjects, tourism and event subjects, social science subjects, hospitality and tourism specific subjects, natural and applied science subjects, language, personal development subjects, and general subjects. The vocational mode should cover management and business subjects, hospitality and tourism specific subjects, hospitality and tourism subjects, personal development subjects, language, social and applied science subjects, and general subjects. Two subject areas, personal development and general subjects concerning Indonesian values are contained in both types of programs to the same extent. Personal development subjects are viewed as an essential factor for students' job placement. This was particularly recognized by most of educators and industry respondents. There has been a growing concern in the students' competencies where they graduate with deficiencies in relevant skills to become work-ready (Dressier, Cedercreutz, & Pacheco, 2011; Kitterlin, et al., 2015). Detailed content is shown in Table 4.7.

Table 4.7 Content of the Academic and Vocational Bachelor Programs

Content of the Academic Bachelor	Content of the Vocational Bachelor
Management and business subjects: Marketing, human resources, finance and accounting, feasibility study, strategic management, operation management, entrepreneurship, international business, principles of business, principles of management, economics, organizational behaviour,	**Management and business subjects:** Marketing, human resources, finance and accounting, feasibility study, strategic management, operation management, entrepreneurship
Tourism and event subjects: Principles of tourism/introduction to tourism and hospitality, tourism trends and issues, tourism sustainability, tourism theories, tourism planning and development, tourism marketing, tourism policy, tourism impact, tourism destination, tourism management, spiritual tourism, rural tourism, ecotourism, leisure, tourism ethics, tourism law, tourism geography, anthropology of tourism, tourism economy, event management, MICE	**Hospitality and tourism specific subjects:** Rooms divisions (operation and management), food production, patisserie, food service (operation and management), bartending, menu planning, MICE, lodging and restaurant, laundry, hotel management, ticketing, reservation, guiding, tours and travel operation management, transportation
Social science subjects: Sociology, socio-cultural/economic studies, economics, geography, psychology, cross cultural communication	**Hospitality and tourism subjects:** Introduction to hospitality and/or tourism, tourism law, transportation management, tourism marketing, tourism planning, introduction to MICE, tourism management, tourism geography, ecotourism, international tourism

Hospitality and tourism specific subjects: Principles of hospitality, rooms division, food production, food service, patisserie, hotel operation and management, lodging and restaurant, ticketing, tours and travel management	**Personal development subjects:** Community service, creative thinking skills, leadership skills, character building, internship
Natural and applied science subjects: Statistics, research methodology, principles of natural science, computer	**Humanities:** Languages **(**English, Japanese, French, German)
Humanities: Languages **(**English, Japanese, French, German, Russia), philosophy	**Social and applied science subjects:** Psychology, anthropology, environment studies, law, socio-cultural studies, computer
Personal development subjects: Creative thinking skills, leadership skills, etiquette and protocol, internship	**General subjects:** Religion, Indonesian civics, national ideology, Indonesian language
General subjects: Religion, Indonesian civics, national ideology, Indonesian language	

Concerning the principles of organization, it is observed that Tyler's thread concept is relevant to the academic stream. The technical skills are relatively basic or simple in this mode (R. Tyler, 1949). By contrast, skills are more substantial and concept is less complex in the vocational style. But still, the vocational study needs to embrace general foundation to promote knowledge and skills for the work life (Hager & Hyland, 2003). In general, it can be maintained that regardless of the mode of the education, theories and practices are necessary. This point aligns with Deale, O'Halloran, Jazques, and Garger's (2010) study who found the needs of having both theories and practice in hospitality and tourism study. This notion is expressed by interview participants in the following points:

> *"The academic Bachelor needs to focus on the concepts and theories; however, it should incorporate the practical activities. For example is by giving assignment to create an event or organizing MICE…." (Ind4)*
>
> *"Vocational concerns the skills… from my point of view, it seems that D4 only focuses on the psychomotor domain and lack of cognitive and affective elements. Vocational should also contain the cognitive aspect" (Edu13)*

An observation of the content disclosed that a number of subjects overlap and can be found in both education modes. It is clear that the management and

business subjects are viewed as important in the academic and Bachelor strands by the majority of the respondents. This may not be too surprising, considering that many hospitality and tourism courses are offered in the economics and/or business programs. As noted by Chathoth and Sharma (2007), hospitality and tourism management curricula have been commonly located within business-related programs since the early eighties. The roots of hospitality education in the hospitality business have shaped the content that brings together industry information, technical and managerial skills with a business principles focus (Deale et al., 2010). General management knowledge and skills are regarded crucial for students to enter a hospitality sector (Su, Miller, & Shanklin, 1997a). A study conducted by Caton (2015) discovered that management/business studies are still prevailing in the undergraduate tourism programs.

Deriving from Chen and Groves's (1999) tourism and hospitality education model (see figure 2.11), the vocational Bachelor is closely relevant to Model 2 of Hospitality that puts hospitality as the core of the curriculum content. In this model, the focus is on business management and specialization subjects in hospitality businesses such as hotels and restaurants, technical skills, job training, and applied research. It can be argued that hospitality program is strongly connected with vocational education where the students are generally seeking for an employment in the industry (Connolly &McGing, 2006; Gross & Manoharan, 2016; Tribe, 2002b). This is aligned with Wang and Tsai's (2014) study who asserted that management subjects, internship or industrial work placement, practical and professional skills are essential subjects to foster employment. Model 3 that positions tourism as the central is more pertinent to the academic Bachelor. The content stresses tourism

subjects (e.g. tourism planning, tourism impact, tourism geography), liberal arts, and specialization subjects.

The findings from the interviews indicate that the content is widely connected with other disciplines and required liberal range of subjects. This makes hospitality and tourism content as soft/unrestricted. It is content-based that is mainly concern with a phenomenon (Pearce, 1993). Hospitality and tourism, therefore, demands a variety of approach such as multidisciplinary and interdisciplinary approaches (Gunn, 1988; Jafari & Ritchie, 1981; Pearce, 1993). As noted in Tribe (1997), the epistemology of multidisciplinarity comes from several distinct disciplines and epistemology of interdisciplinarity derives from the integration of several disciplines. Tribe also contends that epistemology of business interdisciplinarity (where most of tourism study becomes delineated) may come from the disciplines or the world of practice. Numerous hospitality and tourism subjects are formed from the multidisciplinarity and interdisciplinarity epistemologies. Some examples of tourism subjects generated from multidisciplinary epistemology as listed in Table 4.5 are tourism law, tourism geography, and anthropology of tourism. Tourism impact, tourism economic, tourism planning and development, tourism trends and issues, event management, are examples of subjects generated from interdisciplinarity epistemology, whereas tourism marketing is an example of subject from business interdisciplinarity epistemology.

Figure 4.3 displays the proposed framework of the academic and vocational curriculum content in which tourism subjects, hospitality subjects, management and business subjects, and the academic subjects/liberal arts coincide in both programs at different extent. Personal development subjects and subjects related to Indonesian

values and ideology exist in the content of both programs. The former is aimed to promote students' personal development and the latter is to equip students with good virtue that also favors the local values. The ASEAN common curriculum (MRA-TP) of hotel services and travel services (Front Office, Housekeeping, Food Production, Food and Beverage Service, Travel Agencies, and Tour Operation) would have more influence on the hospitality subjects at the vocational mode as they are applied competencies.

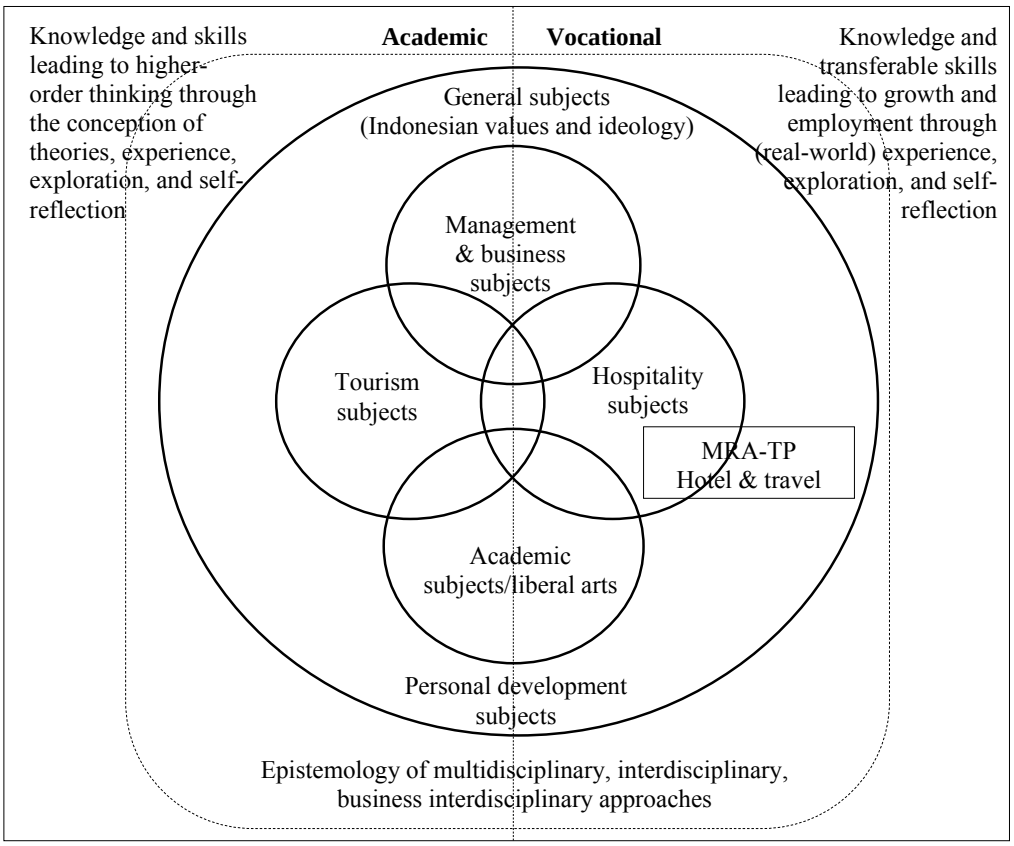


Figure 4.3 Content Framework of the Academic and Vocational Bachelor Programs

4.8. Learning and Instruction

Learning and Teaching Approaches

The findings of this study revealed that the teaching and learning strategies that suit the Bachelor programs, despite their level of education, are field simulations and demonstrations, field studies/field trips, case studies, brainstorming and discussions, projects, lectures, presentations, and work placements. In short, respondents asserted that similar strategies or methods can be employed. The differences primarily lay in the utilization of the strategies and the process of delivery, depending on the content/subject and the learning objectives. Briefly, field trips that contain field research, case studies, and discussions may work well as the learning activities for the academic Bachelor students, while demonstrations and simulations, field trips, and projects can be frequently adopted for the vocational Bachelor students' learning. To illustrate, an activity that takes place in the practical laboratories (e.g. making soup) requires demonstrations by the lecturers, followed by students imitating the procedure. For the vocational students, this kind of activity can be held more frequently and intensively than for the academic students. Here the depth of the learning material is designed in such a way as to accommodate the learning objectives of the subject delivered in the individual program. Hence, in making the soup, the vocational students will be able to demonstrate more complex knowledge and skills regarding, for instance, varieties of soup, the ingredients, and the cooking process. It can be maintained that the activity oriented learning that emphasizes the real-world problems and experiences is accentuated more for the vocational students to support the individuals' development. Here the learning

experience should be able to provide opportunity to perform or practice the behavior inferred by the objectives (R. Tyler, 1949).

Learning theories derived from the general psychology theory explain how our behaviour is changed through our experiences (Parsons et al., 2001). Parsons et al. contend that there are three approaches to learning: cognitivism, behaviourism, and neobehaviorism. The first perspective, cognitivism, is rooted in Gestalt psychology. Gestalt psychology is a part of perceptual psychology which indicates that people's perception is subjective and influenced core cognitive processes. The information processing model theory that describes how learning is influenced by perception and memory has elements of the Gestalt formulation. The expansion of this older Gestalt theory in modern cognitive theories lies in the visual and verbal learning of dual processing theory as well as in the influence of prior knowledge such as in the schema theory. Dual processing theory claims that the engagement of central or peripheral pathways can be involved in types of learning (Pearce & Parker, 2013). The schema theory submits that our past knowledge and experiences can reinforce transfer of learning although they also may inhibit the learning (Parsons et al., 2001).

The cognitive structuralists assert that learning is assisted by the use of schemata (prior knowledge) in linking the new information to material that is already known. In other words, cognitive structuralism refers to how an individual connects the existing information to the new information through a selective organization based on experiences. Some examples of schemata in learning are remembering, understanding or comprehending, and problem solving (as cited from Byrnes, 1996). The cognitive structuralism view can be helpful in promoting expository teaching (e.g. concept mapping, advance organizers, mnemonic devices,

structured overviews and outlines), and discovery learning. The cognitive structuralism is conceptualized in metacognition theory and constructivism theory (Parsons et al., 2001).

Metacognition, a self-regulated learning, stresses the notion of abstract thinking or critical thinking skills and problem solving. It promotes the thoughtfulness, thinking about our own thinking, and problem solving. The learning strategies of metacognition include self-questioning (here cognitive behaviour modification or prediction are implied), KWL strategy (what students Know, what students Want to learn, what students Learned), PQ4R (Preview, Question, Read, Reflect, Recite, Review), and IDEAL (Identify, Define, Explore, Act, and Look) (Parsons et al., 2001). Constructivist perspectives that are rooted from Jean Piaget's works, emphasizes interest of learners and recognizes their level and maturity in their own understanding of knowledge. The Piagetian inheritance is mostly applied to children, although the difference between adults as concrete and formal operational thinkers has some applicability to the vocational-academic distinction. The former is more about concrete operational thought, the latter about formal operational thinking.

This learner-centered conception allows learners to explore ideas and create a meaning to acquire knowledge based on their own point of views that are manifested in the discovery and self-questioning (Cook-Sather, 2007; McNeil, 1996; Parsons et al., 2001; Sigala, 2005). Constructivist teaching is characterized by autonomy of the learners, interactions with peers and lecturers, and exploration. An active, direct, and hands-on exploration is favourable to facilitate higher-order thinking.

A teaching model of a constructivist type was noted by Jermone Bruner in the form of discovery learning or guided discovery. Discover learning stimulates learners to solve problems using their own ways based on incomplete information that they obtain. This type of learning can be facilitated using questioning, discussions, analogies, problem-solving exercises, guided lab practices which lead to hypothesis, guided class demonstrations, independent projects, and short exercises at the beginning of the class (Parsons et al., 2001). Another style of constructivism is collaborative learning that involves a group of students working together to seek information and solve a problem. The students are reinforced to interact with each other to formulate ideas (Sigala, 2005). The role of the lecturer in constructivism practice is to guide the learners as a facilitator (Parsons et al., 2001; Sigala, 2005).

Another view derived from learning theory is behaviorism. This perspective promotes classical and operant conditioning approaches in learning. The classical conditioning or stimulus-substitution learning attends to how an individual responds to a multiple stimuli, in which the response is similar or different, based on the previous experiences. The work of Pavlov, the Russian psychologist, was the most famous in this area. The operant conditioning advocated by Skinner emphasizes contingent reinforcement to strengthen a desired behaviour or punishment to lessen the adverse behavior. Thorndike, another proponent of operant conditioning, supports the law of exercise and law of effect. The former suggests that repetition will strengthen a learned association, while the latter puts forward the influence of satisfaction as a cause of a repetition of any act (Parsons et al., 2001).

Neobehaviorism, the extension of the behaviorism position, is manifested in the social learning theory that promotes observational learning and cognitive behavior modification. Observation learning is learning through observation that

emphasis on modeling and imitation. Albert Bandura, a proponent of social learning theory and observation learning believes that internal conditions (motivation or incentive) is a factor that should also be considered in this learning. There are four interrelated factors influence the observational learning: attention of the learners, retention, production process/motoric reproduction, and motivation/incentive. Production process can take forms in doing a real-task or in the visualization of what it is like when a task is accomplished. Cognitive behavior modification can contain the social learning of neobehaviorist strategy and self-regulation of a metacognitive strategy. Lecturers or instructors provide demonstration or modeling the process and teach self-verbalized instruction to complete a certain task (Parsons et al., 2001).

Another insightful perspective is critical pedagogy that focuses on students' experiences and life-world. The critical perspective triggers the critical consciousness of the learners as an active subjects through students-centered dialogue. Learners are given the opportunities to appraise social criticism. Knowledge is attained and constructed through an interaction between the lecturers/instructors and the learners. This critical pedagogy is also called post-formal, emancipatory, liberatory, progressive, and democratic (Glenn, 2007). Glenn notes that the class size, can inhibit active interaction and participation of the learners. He illustrates three teaching strategies that can be adopted in a large class: sociocultural critique, personal experience and self-disclosure, and participant assignment. In the sociocultural critique, lecturers perform critical rhetorical to spark critical engagement of the students and the process of reflection. Media can aid critical thinking process by building a commitment and sense of contribution of the learners (affective level) to a topic being discussed. A narrative based on personal experiences apprises the importance of feelings, experiences, and beliefs in the

critical process. Participant assignments may consist of in-class exercises or take-home assignments that enable students to engage in a critique.

The manifestation of the aforementioned approaches can be found in the lecturing, questioning, practice and feedback, demonstrations, student thinking and involvement, problem-based and project-based, cooperative learning, guided discovery, off-campus courses, and life experiences (Kauchak & Eggen, 2001; Oliva, 2005; Ornstein & Hunkins, 2009; Parsons et al., 2001).

Results from the interviews revealed that various methods of teaching delivery and learning experiences reviewed in the previous paragraphs can be applied to both types of the Bachelor programs.

It was observed that constructivism, critical pedagogy, neobehaviorism, and cognitive behavior modification can be synergistic to promote learning that is based on the notion of reflection and action. In this study context, the academic Bachelor mode may profoundly emphasize constructivism and critical perspectives that integrates neobehaviorism and cognitive behavior modification perspectives. The vocational style is built in part of neobehaviorism and cognitive behaviour modification perspectives in the concurrence of constructivism. The constructivism position which embeds metacognition is valuable to stimulate higher-order thinking skills through discovery, exploration, and reflection. This type of learning is very relevant to the aim of the academic Bachelor program, although it is also necessary for the vocational Bachelor. The strategies can include a field trip/field study, brainstorm & discussion, project, case study, and presentation. The critical view is also recommended for the academic Bachelor students in studying social issues related to tourism (e.g. impact of tourism to the society), as they are more directed

toward tourism stewardship roles. The critical practice can be in the forms of field trip/field study, brainstorm & discussion, and case study.

Cognitive behavior modification (CBM) that has the dual-system of neobehaviorism and metacognitive approaches is expedient for the skills and personal development of the students, and to foster good and bad feelings or the moral and immoral sensitivity in a social situation. This type of learning can reinforce the practice of good virtue (moral and intellectual). CBM can be manifested in the field trip/field study, project, and internship. The observational learning of neobehaviorism method is pragmatic to enhance functional skills through modelling process and imitation. This type of learning can be applied for hospitality and tourism practical subjects that contain demonstration and simulation exercises such as front office, food and beverage service, food production, reservation and ticketing, and guiding. It is suggested that hands-on-experience or learning by doing should be the focus of learning in hospitality course (Lee & Mao, 2016). The observational and active experiental learning styles for hospitality course have also been advocated by a number of scholars (c.f. Green & Sammons, 2014; Hsu & Wolfe, 2003; Lyu, et al., 2016; Su, 2012; Yan & Cheung, 2012).

The unification of those learning approaches will facilitate the reflection-action concept, students' autonomy in learning, and support transformation of knowledge for both Bachelor programs. As asserted by Joppe and Elliot (2015), tourism education and its pedagogy should promote empowerment and transformational learning. Students should be able to understand themselves and see the world through educational travel experiences; a journey beyond the classrooms and textbooks. These approaches enhance higher order-thinking of the students using various methods such as problem solving, creativity, and knowledge creation

(McNeil, 1996). It can be argued that the structure of tourism courses should be designed to reinforce critical thinking skills (Hultsman, 1995). An example of the amalgamation of learning strategies is the study of ethical tourism knowledge that can be learned through role-play, case study, field study, research project, and work experiences (Jamal, 2004; Tribe, 2002a). Another model is the use of international cooperative learning (ICL) where students can enjoy an international experience virtually via social media or video conferences. This method of learning provides students with the opportunity to collaborate with other students from different countries on a certain case or project (Deale, 2015).

A study conducted by Deale O'Halloran (2003) on multiple intelligences in hospitality education reveals that various activities such as giving presentations, writing papers, analyzing data, solving problems, creating something (e.g. menu, logo), engaging in simulations, working on a group projects, participating in interactive activities, experiencing field trip or internship, and conducting a self-assessment, are constructive methods to enhance multiple intelligences. Deale O'Halloran suggests that naturalist intelligent, the newest type of intelligent, can be useful to develop ability to observe nature for tourism sustainable development. This skill is important to have for a tourism planner and developer.

The learning process, as Hager and Hyland (2003) argue, is a critical aspect shaping the dichotomy of the two Bachelor programs. The notion of the learning and instruction of the academic and the vocational Bachelor programs is exhibited in Figure 4.4.

In essence, as claimed by Stergiou (2005), in teaching tourism subjects that contain cognitive and pragmatic elements, students should be given an autonomy in their learning. The teaching should be less didactic and students should be

encouraged to have more interaction to challenge their creativity and critical thinking. The teaching and learning process should cultivate students' abilities to reflect, to relate, to critique, to question, and to critically think about the status quo and the views of others in this social world (Caton, 2014). Caton suggested that tourism students should learn the Socratic reasoning skills in order to be able to examine their own actions and values as well as to contemplate the complexity of the tourism world and its issues. This learning process will also enhance the multiple intelligence of hospitality and tourism students. After all, learning is about what students do, and not what the teachers do (R. Tyler, 1949).

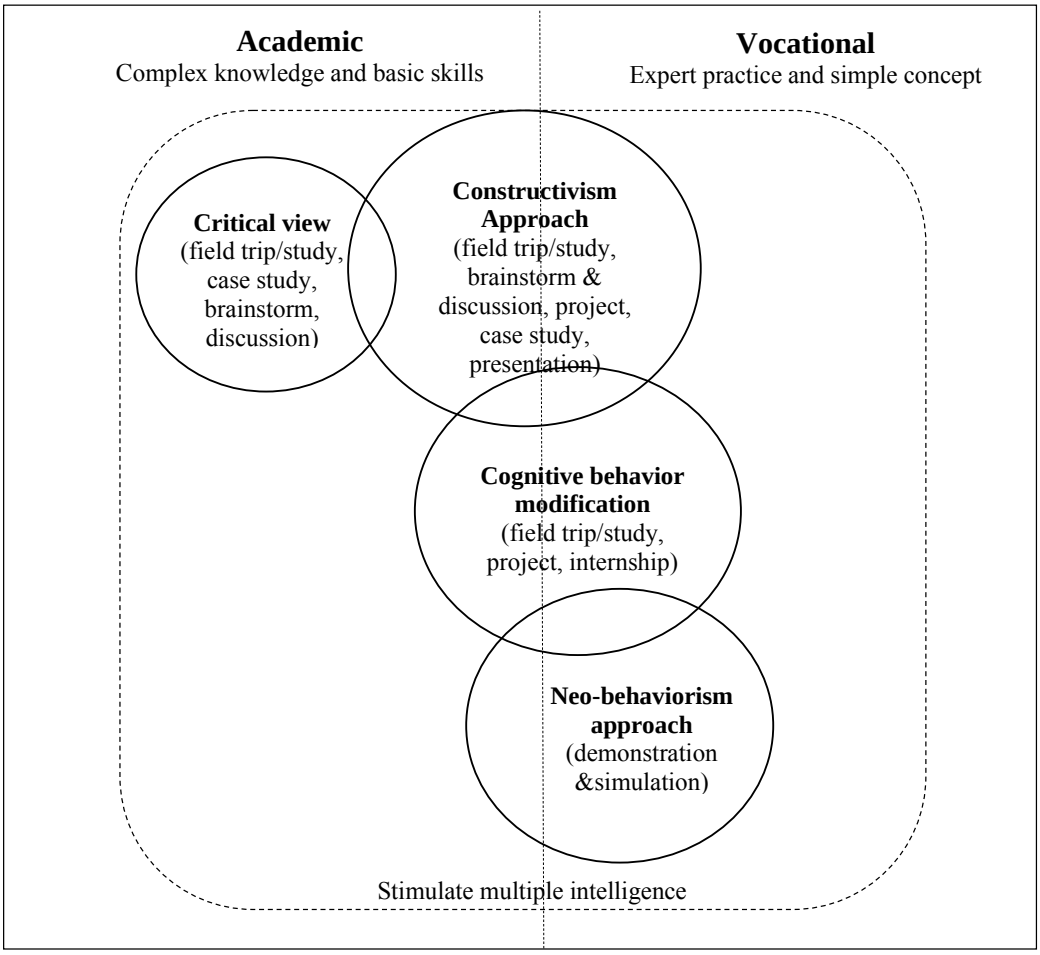


Figure 4.4 Learning Approaches for the Academic and Vocational Bachelor Programs

The Importance of Industry Work Placement

The importance of internship or work experience has been widely recognized in hospitality and tourism education milieu as this practical work experiences enhance the academic learning (Robinson, Ruhanen, & Breakey, 2016). This activity provides an opportunity to build essential skills (e.g. specific technical skills and interpersonal skills) before they enter the work field (Rimmington, 1999; Su et al., 1997a). The real work experience is considered effective for developing interpersonal skills, leadership skills, problem-solving skills, and critical thinking skills. Experiences beyond the classroom also help students to reflect on the academic theories from their study (Stansbie & Nash, 2016). They may also develop a range of additional skills. Additionally, they are often able to develop networks and test out the working environment for their future career (Deale O'Halloran, 2003; Deale et al., 2010; Moscardo & Pearce, 2007). Moreover, work experiences can serve as a means to acquire ethical tourism knowledge (Jamal, 2004; Tribe, 2002a). Workplace learning appears to be associated with the Aristotle's *phronesis*/ practical wisdom (Hager & Hyland, 2003). The inclusion of internship in a curriculum has been largely informed by various scholars such as Deale et al. (2010), Felisitas et al. (2012), Koh (1995), Rimmington (1999), Robinson, et al. (2016).

Given the significance of the internship or the work placement, the pool of respondents asserted that it is necessary for students of both Bachelor programs to undertake internship during their study. It was emerged in this study that the purpose, duration, frequency, and the area of internship should be somewhat distinct between the academic and the vocational camps. This distinction should be well designed and informed by the hospitality and tourism education providers and

industry partners as internship can influence the choice of students' career goals and their perceptions about hospitality and tourism sectors (Robinson, et al., 2016). The current practices, however, show that the internship taken by the academic and the vocational students are comparable in the structure and in the assessment.

The findings implied that a work experience for the academic Bachelor students is aimed as a mean to gain knowledge of basic technical skills as well as to gain life experiences. Students are expected to use the opportunity to learn and demonstrate analytical and problem solving skills. The purpose of internship for the vocational Bachelor students is to provide them with an opportunity to acquire essential skills and knowledge for performing day-to-day tasks in the operation and management levels. Recommendation from respondents specified that six months experience or less is considered adequate for the academic Bachelor's students, while six months up to one year work experience is well fitted for the vocational Bachelor's students. It was suggested that vocational students should have two internships during the four year period of study to enhance their employability skills. Hospitality industry, claimed the respondents, is viewed as the most pertinent working scope for the vocational Bachelor students, in particular at the front-of-the house or in the operational field. Gaining experiences in the tourism government office, tourism organizations/consultation agencies (e.g. DMO or Destination Marketing Organization), and tourism and hospitality sectors, are deemed more relevant for the academic students, assuming that they can perform administrative tasks and strategic level works at various divisions or at the back-of-the house.

Interpersonal Skills Development

In addition to learning, it is also important to pay attention to interpersonal skills development. These kinds of skills are vital for the vocational education and higher education in general (Rimmington, 1999). Soft skills are essential and considered as the key traits that should be acquired by hospitality and tourism students to appear attractive to the employers and to win the job placement competition (Kitterlin-Lynch, et al., 2015). Interpersonal communication, stated Wang, Cai, Yang, and Qu (2015), is the primary source of positive affect as well as negative affect during an internship or a work placement.

The findings revealed that interpersonal skills can be groomed through academic acativities and non-academic activities. The respondents suggested that the attributes of interpersonal skills can be incorporated into various teaching approaches such as group projects, guest lectures, internship, and field trip. The non-academic activities may include participation in a seminar, workshop or training course, involvement in the students' body/organization, lecturer-student interaction and communication, students' orientation, professional development programs, off-campus social activities, and extracurricular. Social/community development activities are perceived beneficial to promote experiental learning and encourage core skills development for students in particular problem solving skills, leadership skills, and empathy (Boluk & Carnicelli, 2015). Furthermore, the institution's rules and regulations, culture and values are also viewed as a mechanism to enhance interpersonal skills. Here lecturers are expected to act as the role models in showing good practices for the students. These results are aligned with Kitterlin-Lynch and et al.,'s (2015) study about the strategy to improve hospitality graduates' competitive advantages in the job market.

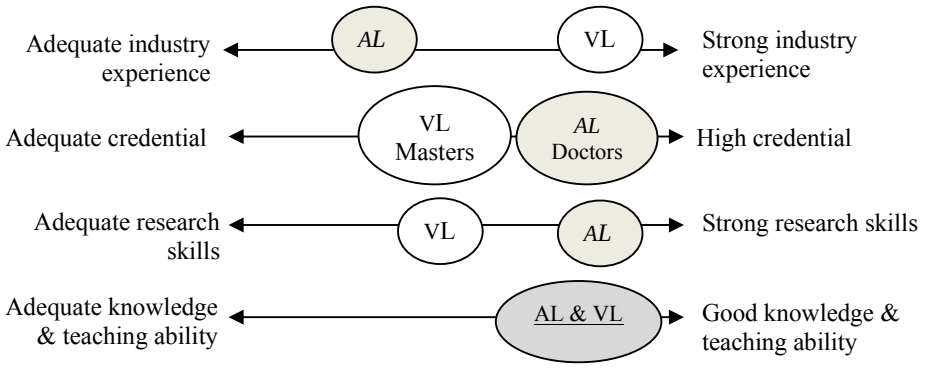
Lecturers' Characteristics

Another profound feature in teaching and learning process is the lecturers. Lecturers play a vital role in the learning situation as their background, life experience, beliefs, and worldview may affect their disposition and view about the role and facet of education (Boyle, Wilson, & Dimmock, 2015). The expansion of tourism industry in the Asia Pacific demands highly skilled hospitality and tourism educators (Ho, 2006 as cited in Pearce, 2007). The respondents acknowledged some essential traits for lecturers teaching in the vocational and the academic programs. The vocational program's lecturers should have strong industrial background (preferably holding managerial positions and having 2-5 years working experiences), Master degree holders or Bachelor degree holders with solid and sound industry experiences. An education background in hospitality and tourism vocational is preferred. As the content of vocational education heavily emphasizes hospitality subjects and practical and experimental learning, extensive industry experience of the lecturers can help students to learn better (Lee & Mao, 2016). The importance of having strong industry experience for the lecturers who teach in the vocational program is expressed by a respondent as follow:

> *"The lecturers of the vocational Bachelor programs should have a solid industrial background, and be capable in delivering the knowledge related to the specific vocational subjects that they teach in order to prepare students for the employment" (Edu14).*

In regards to the lecturers of the academic program, it was strongly advised by the respondents that the lecturers should have a doctoral degree or at minimum a master degree, and be proficient in research. Although industry work experience is favorable for these lecturers, it is not of primary importance. As long as they have been exposed to the industry practices, it is deemed adequate. Two or three years of

industry experience is advantageous. In all of the account, respondents agreed that lecturers who teach in both undergraduate programs must develop and have good knowledge and good quality teaching practices. The respondents, in particular educators, students, and industry practitioners, maintained that lecturers' background of education and their work experiences may vastly impact the teaching and learning process. Those who acquire favorable/adequate qualities will be able to share their valuable experiences more commendably and help students to gain a better understanding of a certain tourism topic or issue. The desired characteristics of the academic and vocational lecturers are exhibited in Figure 4.5.



Note: AL denotes the lecturers teaching in the academic mode and VL refers to the lecturers teaching in the vocational mode

Figure 4.5 Lecturers' Characteristics within the Academic and Vocational Bachelor Programs

The important point concerning the lecturers' traits is the knowledge of the lecturers about the subjects that they teach and how they deliver the knowledge to the students. Stergiou (2005) asserts that the teacher is the major source for students to learn and understand the content/subject matter. Teachers must have an

understanding of "what is to be taught and how it is to be taught" (p. 286). Teachers, therefore, must be able to select the content and resources for students' learning and assist them to acquire knowledge from those content and resources (Stergiou, 2005). It is valuable for the lecturers to have sufficient knowledge about the interest and needs of students before selecting the learning experiences (R. Tyler, 1949).

Parsons et al. (2001) suggest that lecturers play dual roles as a practitioner and a researcher. As a practitioner-researcher, a lecturer should be able to use theory and research as the basis of making a decision in which the decision is "professional judgments based upon knowledge, experience, and constructive reflection about their own situations and the effectiveness of their theory" (p. 18). A lecturer needs to be an active participant and to reflect, question, and evaluate his/her own teaching. Reflective lecturers are those who are thoughtful in planning and developing their lessons and are able to examine the effect that they have on the students' learning, and then adjust the lessons to improve the outcomes. An action oriented research lecturer should be able to observe and systematically gather data about the classrooms and apply the results into practice or for future teaching. To reinforce the teaching and learning activities that reflect liberal/vocational reflection and action, the lecturers should have a profound understanding of the characteristics of the learners, the content of teaching (include the sequence and level of complexity), and the teaching methods or strategies.

While the characteristics of the "desirable" lecturers have been outlined, some special issues concerning hospitality and tourism lecturers can also be acknowledged. The first issue concerns the lack of lecturers who have a doctoral degree to teach the undergraduate programs particularly in the academic mode. More specifically, the government actually requires those who teach in higher

education to obtain a doctoral degree. The second issue was the limitation of teaching resources such as limited textbooks and inadequate practical facilities. The third issue was about research. It was found challenging for lecturers to undertake research due to budget and time constraints. The second and third issues seem to be common problems amongst the Asian tourism teachers as indicated in Pearce's (2007) study on Asian tourism educators.

It is important to note that lecturers' qualifications and availabilities are serious issues in Indonesian higher education. In the hospitality and tourism education setting, the problem is probably more severe. A grave concern expressed by the government respondents was the lecturers' availability and competencies. They asserted that often the same lecturer was assigned to teach in hospitality and tourism vocational program as well as in the academic style program. They inclined to use the same teaching materials and employed the same teaching methods and assessment strategies. Currently there are only a handful of hospitality and tourism lecturers who have doctoral degrees (and it seems none have a full professorship in hospitality/tourism). Recent news published in prominent national printed and online media written by Mart (2015) identifies three critical issues concerning the Indonesian professors: a small number of professors, lack of qualified professors, and unproductive professors. The research and publications produce by the professors, asserts Mart, are deemed low in the quality. Despite the lack of funding to conduct research, publications are primarily viewed as a means to get a promotion.

For the future, it is anticipated that internationally well qualified young Indonesian scholars may slowly change the system and follow their international counterparts in other Asian countries with new and productive publishing careers.

4.9. Approaches to the Assessment

The findings indicated that assessment for the academic and the vocational Bachelor programs were in the forms of written tests, practical assessments and oral assessments. Ideally, the assessment should be conducted during the study (formative assessment) as well as at the end of study or a course (summative assessment). While there was general acceptance among respondents that the focus of assessment would be on the knowledge for the academic mode and on the skills or specific competencies for the vocational style, respondents argued that Bachelor students should also be tested on the practical knowledge and skills and the vocational Bachelor students on the concept and theories. Perspectives from the respondents were varied in terms of the assessment methods. Generally they indicated that the methods may include projects, presentations, case studies, reports, papers, simulations and role plays, quizzes, essays, field research, observations, product creation, seminars, interviews, portfolios, a Bachelor thesis, industry evaluations, internships, and other individual and group work. The first five methods (project, presentation, case study, report, and paper) were considered applicable for both programs. Further, the respondents added that an essay, quiz, field research assignment, and a thesis can be more appropriate for the academic Bachelor students. Observations concerning the assessments from the educators are presented in the following excerpts:

> *The assessment diploma IV (vocational Bachelor) students should be intended toward the skills development through a creation of something… (Edu1)*
>
> *The assessment is to test the ability, knowledge of students, through mid-term and final-term examinations. In addition, soft skills should also be assessed*

by observing students' characteristics in the class. This evaluation is probably more qualitative in description (Edu3)

One of the performance based assessments, the internship, needs to be assessed using different criteria. Examination of the current internship assessment revealed that there were hardly any differences in what was assessed and evaluated between the two Bachelor programs. Respondents asserted that the focal points of the work place assessment for the academic Bachelor lie in the following attributes: knowledge in performing the assigned tasks, responsibility, conceptual undertaking, analytical/critical thinking skills, problem solving skills, and interpersonal skills. The facets of the vocational Bachelor's work place assessment were to attend the technical skills/competencies, knowledge and skills acquired to perform specific tasks, interpersonal skills, and problem solving skills. The internship report is also deemed necessary for the vocational Bachelor and was demanded less often for the academic Bachelor.

The final assessment of the undergraduate programs in Indonesia is known as a Bachelor thesis (for the academic) and final report (for the vocational). These summative assessments are compulsory for the final year Bachelor students in Indonesia. Respondents proposed that the assessment criteria of the academic Bachelor's thesis should strongly stresses theories and concepts, research methodology, problem solving, results and discussion, suggestions and recommendations, contribution or implications, and writing and presentation skills. Some criteria that applied to the academic Bachelor's thesis such as research methodology, problem solving, concept and theory, are also deemed necessary for the vocational Bachelor's thesis assessment. Other assessment criteria for the vocational mode include creativity, product creation, and practical application. It can

be argued that the emphasis of assessment lies in the process for the academic mode and in the product for the vocational although both facets coincide in the assessment.

Assessment, the fourth main component of curriculum, has a vital influence on the teaching and learning (Weiler, 2005). It serves as an imperative evaluation mechanism in ensuring that the set of objectives are met. It should be directed towards the interests of students and the society (e.g. parents, public) as well as used to inform the lecturers about the learning, development, and achievement, and performance of the students (Brady & Kennedy, 2003; Kauchak & Eggen, 2011; R. O'Halloran & C. O'Halloran, 1999; Reich, Collins, & DeFranco, 2016). As asserted by Parsons et al. (2001), content and methods of instruction should be reflected in the assessment. Assessment is an extended process. It is not just a paper and pencil test that occurs at the end of study. It involves collecting, interpreting, and reciting information regarding the performance of students (Brady & Kennedy, 2003; Parsons et al., 2001). In particular, assessment should be aligned with the objectives to ensure its validity (Kauchak & Eggen, 2011). The types of formal assessment can be classified into standardized assessment, teacher-made assessments, performance assessment, and product/portfolio assessment (Brady & Kennedy, 2003; Kauchak & Eggen, 2011; Parsons et al., 2001). While the first two assessments are more traditional, the last two are considered as part of the new movement of authentic assessment that is based on the constructivist perspective. Authentic assessment is intended to measure students' performance through real-life tasks or products (Parsons et al., 2001).

Standardized assessment is the type of assessment that carried out uniformly for all students/classrooms. The lecturers have no control over the assessment as it is not designed by the lecturers. Norm-referenced assessment (comparison of

knowledge and performance of a student with other students), is a kind of standardized assessment. Examples of standardized test are college entrance tests and national examinations. Teacher-designed assessment is that created and controlled by the lecturers. Performance assessment evaluates behaviors against certain criteria by using a checklist, rating scale or rubric (criteria for scoring/grading), or anecdotal records (lecturers' notes that describe events in the classroom). A rubric is one of the tools to enhance assessment reliability (Parsons et al. (2001). There are several advantages in using a rubric. It provides clear expectations of what should be achieved by the students. It serves as guidelines for students to complete a task, to reflect and assess their work based on the preset criteria (C. O'Halloran & R. O'Halloran, 2001). Clarity of assessment criteria will also enhance the feedback process on student learning and provide students with better understanding about the assessment goals and outcomes (Semley, Huang, & Dalron, 2016).

Portfolio assessment refers to the compilation of the collected work done by students and is reviewed by the lecturers against a set of criteria (Parsons et al. (2001). Such assessment can be accomplished through formative or summative efforts. The term formative applies to the assessment that takes place throughout the teaching and learning process, while summative is carried out at the end of the instruction or at the end of a unit or a course (Brady & Kennedy, 2003; Oliva, 2005; Parsons et al., 2001). In regard to the summative assessment, Oliva (2005) argues that assessment of affective and psychomotor domains can be seen from the achievement demonstrated by the learners, rather than by a paper and pencil test.

Drawing on Brady and Kennedy (2003), Kauchak and Eggen (2011), and Parsons et al. (2001), the results revealed that the assessment strategies for both

academic and vocational Bachelor programs are the combination of traditional and constructivist's authentic assessments. These efforts consist of teacher-made assessments, performance assessment, and product/portfolio assessment. As part of the learning process, assessment should be constructed in various forms to accommodate different learning style (R. O'Halloran & C. O'Halloran, 1999). It was perceived that teacher-made assessments, such as written test, quiz, paper/essay, interviews/dialogues, and cases are applicable for the two programs. As noted in Deale et al. (2010), written tests and essays are common evaluation methods in hospitality and tourism education.

Performance and product/portfolio approaches can be implemented in somewhat different ways. The emphasis of the performance assessment for the academic Bachelor students would be in the format of presentation, simulation, and problem solving. Demonstration, role play, presentation, problem solving, and practical work performance evaluation, including external assessment from the industry, are intended more for the vocational Bachelor students. Assessment concerning a student performance that is obtained from the external evaluation (employers/industry), is seen as a useful tool to measure the student learning outcome (Dressier, et al., 2011).

The focus of performance assessment can be on product or process (Parsons et al., 2001). The product may include correct answer to questions, essays, written papers, and performance at work. The process may consist of problem solving that leads to a solution and preparation that produces a product. In hospitality education, performance assessment can be utilized to enhance students' ability that is seen as essential for working in the hospitality industry (Deale O'Halloran, 2003). The third type of assessment, product/portfolio assessment contains projects and reports that

can be applied for students of both Bachelor programs. Busby (2005) argues that a project which relates to the real business problems can be employed as an assessment method for the academic elements. In addition, a sample of products and a "lab report" (e.g. foods that are produced in the kitchen spaces) should be included in the product/portfolio assessment for the vocational Bachelor mode, and possibly as an essay for the academic Bachelor style.

It was identified that authentic assessment is applicable for assessing the academic Bachelor's thesis and the final project of vocational Bachelor degrees. The research-based report/paper is appropriate for the Bachelor strand and the project/experimental based report for the vocational mode. A thesis/final project is a guided-independent learning task where students are able to demonstrate their analytical/problem solving skills using the knowledge that they have acquired during their study (K. Smith, 2005). A thesis/final project is a method to facilitate students' academic and skills development. It also allows students to research a topic largely of their own interest (K. Smith, 2005). The assessment criteria proposed by the respondents for the thesis are similar to what is noted in K. Smith's (2005) study on the undergraduate dissertation criteria: objectives or rationale, literature review, methods, analysis, conclusion and recommendation, creativity/reflection (evidence of critical thinking), coherence, and format and language.

The use of authentic assessment (alternative assessment) has several advantages. It encourages active participation by the students to construct knowledge and to perform or create something, and reinforce higher-order thinking/problem solving skills (Parsons, et al., 2001 as cited from Baxter, Elder, & Glasser, 1995 and Herman et al., 1992).

The types of assessment can also be connected to the three domains of cognitive, affective and psychomotor skills. A written test is claimed as an effective tool to achieve the objectives of the cognitive domain. In the psychomotor domain, the assessment is administered by actual performances of students to test their ability to display particular skills. The evaluation in the affective domain is rather challenging, as often it cannot be easily measured or scored. The appraisal can be performed in part, by encouraging students to share their ideas, feelings, attitudes, and values about a certain topic of discussion (Oliva, 2005). Direct interviews may be another tool to assess attitudes and feelings. Bloom's taxonomy of the cognitive domains is a useful concept to observe behavioral changes as a result of learning, as exemplified in the development of intellectual skills and ability, starting from the simple concepts (knowledge) to the most complex (evaluation) (R. O'Halloran & C. O'Halloran, 1999). The conceptualization of the cognitive domain in the academic education can be attained by emphasizing the higher levels of learning – analysis, synthesis, and evaluation – in subject planning, delivery and assessment. For the vocational education, the cognitive dimension should accentuate application, analysis, and skill based creativity. Referring to the knowledge dimension of the revised taxonomy, it can be argued that although the four types of knowledge (factual, conceptual, procedural, and metacognitive) are essential and can be applied to both Bachelor programs, the assessments, however, should lean towards procedural knowledge for the vocational mode, and metacognitive knowledge for the students in the academic programs.

In regards to the assessment setting, the respondents maintained that assessment can be done in the various ways. An assessment occurs in the classroom or school should involve an interaction between students with other students and

students with the lecturer (constructivist teaching/perspective). In the non-academic setting, suggested by Brady and Kennedy (2003), the assessment should attend to the social and casual interface.

In performing an assessment, lecturers should pay attention to the vital aspects of assessment measurement including the construct validity, content validity and reliability. Construct validity means that the students' performances inform the concept and skills being assessed. A test of student knowledge concerning tourism ethical issues for example, has construct validity if the test actually measures the knowledge related to ethical problems in tourism. Content validity means that questions or tasks that have been developed to assess students reflect the knowledge and skills to be tested. As an illustration, a test that is designed to assess student ability to solve problems for a specific tourism case should have assessment elements relevant to the topic tested. Reliability refers to the consistency of students' performance at different testing times and settings. Reliability can be obtained through a retest (Parsons et al., 2010).

Table 4.8 summarizes the academic and vocational education assessment framework which defines the purpose of assessment, types of assessment and strategies, assessment intervals and settings, and focus of assessment.

Table 4.8 Assessment Framework of the Academic and Vocational Bachelor Programs

Assessments	Academic Bachelor	Vocational Bachelor
Purpose of assessment	To reinforce the acquisition of knowledge and skills leading to the higher-order thinking through the conception of theories, experience, exploration, and self-reflection	To reinforce the acquisition of knowledge and transferable skills leading to growth and employment through (real-world) experience and self-reflection
Types of assessment and strategies (the emphasis)	• Traditional assessment: - Written test, quiz, paper/essay, cases • Authentic/alternative assessment (constructivist perspective): - Performance assessment (presentation, simulation, external assessment from the industry) - Product/portfolio assessment (project, report, thesis or research based final report)	• Traditional assessment: - Written test, quiz, paper/essay, cases • Authentic/alternative assessment (constructivist perspective): - Performance assessment (presentation, demonstration, simulation, role play, rating scale on a work performance evaluation, external assessment from the industry) - Product/portfolio assessment (project, report, samples of products or prototypes, final report based on project/experiment)
Assessment intervals	Formative and summative	Formative and summative
Assessment settings	• In classroom • At the workplace/industry during the internship • Field trip/field study at a tourism site/destination	• In classroom • At the workplace/industry during the internship • Field trip/field study to hospitality/tourism enterprises
Focus of the assessments	• Complex knowledge and essential skills - Metacognitive knowledge • Process focus	• Expert (technical) skills and fundamental concept - Procedural knowledge • Product focus

4.10. Evaluation of Curriculum

Evaluation of curriculum should be constructed based upon a systematic procedure. That it, there should be attention to the purpose of the evaluation, the audience involved, the data collection techniques to be used, information to be collected, the analysis and the reporting. There are various techniques which can be administered for evaluating curriculum, such as questionnaires, interviews, diaries and logs, and ratings. A questionnaire is an effective way to gather information

about what people think and feel. An interview is valuable to elicit prompt answers from the audience. It allows the interviewer to be more responsive to the participant during the interview. Diaries and logs are the written record of the events happening at the school or institution in order to seek emerging patterns. Ratings can be used to appraise a number of aspects such as student performance and teacher effectiveness using the scale (Brady & Kennedy, 2003).

The forms of evaluation can be categorized into product evaluation and process evaluation. Product evaluation utilizes data of students' performance or outcomes to measure the curriculum purpose and objectives. This evaluation primarily focuses on the immediate use and measurable outcomes such as results of examinations. The process evaluation is more complex, as it emphasizes the perspectives of various participants and their interpretation. This evaluation offers multiple realities as different participants or stakeholders may develop diverse meanings of the curriculum. Process evaluation is meaningful to explore curriculum process and related issues as the course, methods of teaching, and learning activities (Preedy, 2001).

In this study, questions on curriculum evaluation were only addressed to educators as this evaluation deals principally with academic matters. The evaluation referred to here as the process evaluation is aimed to obtain perspectives from various stakeholders involved in the teaching and learning process. The educators stated that they need feedback from students, alumni and industry to determine whether the educational objectives had been attained and if a curriculum needed revisions (minor or major) in regards to content and teaching and learning activities. It was suggested that minor revisions can be carried out every semester up to every one or two years. In certain cases, it can be done anytime, in a flexible manner.

Major revisions are preferably performed every two to five years. Information was mostly obtained through a questionnaire distributed to students, alumni, and industry/users using online or print surveys, interviews with industry people when an internship monitoring took place, and feedback from lecturers during the lecturers' meeting. The organization of curriculum evaluation in Indonesia's hospitality and tourism higher institutions was informed from the following interview excerpts:

> *Assessment towards the output would be in the form of tracer study addressed to the industry people, to seek information about the competencies of our alumni… and then we also invite our alumni to provide feedback on the curriculum… (Edu2)*
>
> *Firstly, we distribute the questionnaire to our students when they return from the work placement to discover if what they have learned in school and what they experience in the workplace are in concurrence. Secondly, we invite people from the industry to review if our curriculum is still up to date or out of date (Edu4)*

The educators acknowledged that curriculum evaluation should take into account perspectives from a number of stakeholders: industry/users, students and alumni, lecturers and managerial staff, and relevant auditors. Perspectives obtained from the stakeholders may assist in the evaluation of the curriculum processes and outcomes as it provides multiple realities (Burton, Middlewood, & Blatchford, 2001; Preedy, 2001). The importance of alumni involvement in the process of evaluation is asserted by R. Tyler (1949), where he argues that evidence obtained from students after the instruction has been concluded can be used to indicate what kind of behavioral changes are actually being realized and which are not. It the context of higher education, it is a common practice to obtain student feedback to evaluate courses (Deale et al., 2010). Furthermore, the inclusion of students in the evaluation

also contributes to the students' skills development as they practice their analysis, reflection, and evaluation skills (Preedy, 2001). Information regarding students' attitudes and interests and learning strategies can be obtained through action-research conducted by a lecturer using open-ended questions and a questionnaire (Parsons, et al, 2001). Table 4.8 shows the evaluation scheme indicated by the educators.

Table 4.9 The Curriculum Evaluation Scheme

Focus	• Purpose: to ensure the attainment of the program's objectives and to determine whether a curriculum needs minor or major revisions in regards to content and teaching and learning activities. • Target audience: industry/users, students and alumni, lecturers and managerial staff, and relevant auditors.
Preparation	• Time: annual • Techniques: online or print surveys, interviews, lecturers' feedback
Implementation	The use of computer for the online survey, during the internship monitoring, at the lecturers' meeting
Analysis	Statistical or descriptive analysis
Report	Interpretation of the analysis

Source: adapted from Brady & Kennedy (2013)

4.11. The Curriculum Framework

Having examined the main curriculum components throughout this chapter, this section of this thesis ends with the illustration of the curriculum framework for the vocational and the academic Bachelor programs. The framework shows the ideologies/concepts underpinning the programs' aims and objectives that are reflected in the content, methods of instruction, and assessment. The broken arrows as displayed in the figure indicate the interrelated aspects between the academic and the vocational strands.

As shown in Figure 4.6, the aims and objectives of the two strands of Bachelor programs draw on the eclectic ideologies and concepts (essentialism,

progressivism, constructionism, Tribe's (2002) philosophic practitioner, Dredge et al.'s (2012) curriculum space, Schön's (1983) reflective practitioner, Doll's (1993) post modernism, and Young's (2013) powerful knowledge). Deriving from the Philosophic Practitioner, it was apparent that the curriculum for the academic and the vocational Bachelor programs should encompass the notion of reflection and action to different degrees. The framework also acknowledges the significance of knowledge (episteme) and capabilities/skills (techne) in both curriculum, enriched with the practical wisdom (phronesis). The findings as embedded in Figure 4.6 assert that the content structures, learning and teaching strategies, and assessment methods have been based on the amalgamation of various views and approaches. The content was largely built upon the epistemology of multidisciplinary, interdisciplinary and business interdisciplinary. The selection of learning theories that combined constructivism, critical perspective, neobehaviorism, and cognitive behavior modification, were intended to promote vibrant learning experiences for the students that are embodied in reflection and action. The overall learning and teaching experiences can be enhanced by the use of traditional and authentic/alternative assessment strategies to ensure that the whole teaching and learning processes are tied to the aims and the objectives.

Underpinning ideologies and concepts:
The foundation of philosophies of education: Essentialism, progressivism, constructionism
Tribe's (2002) philosophic practitioner; Dredge et al.'s (2012) curriculum space; Schön's (1983) reflective practitioner; Doll's (1993) post modernism; Young's (2013) powerful knowledge

ACADEMIC BACHELOR	VOCATIONAL BACHELOR
Aims and Objectives • To promote tourism stewardship and tourism knowledge based on the reflection and action. • Graduate who are able to demonstrate higher-order thinking skills, equipped with complex knowledge, essential skills, and practical wisdom.	**Aims and Objectives** • To endorse essential knowledge and skills for employability that built upon the notion of action and reflection. • Graduate who are able to demonstrate knowledge and transferable skills for employment, equipped with expert capabilities/skills, essential concept, and practical wisdom.
Course content Emphasis on the knowledge and skills leading to higher-order thinking skills through the application of theories, experience, exploration, and reflection. **Tourism subjects as the core of the content, assisted by some hospitality subjects**	**Course content** Emphasis on the knowledge and transferable skills leading to growth and employment through (real-world) experience, exploration, and reflection. **Hospitality subjects as the core of the content, fortified by the tourism subjects**
Management and business subjects Academic subjects/liberal arts (more wide ranging ideas for the Academic mode) Personal development subjects General subjects (Indonesian values and ideology.	
Learning and Instruction	**Learning and Instruction**
Amalgamation of constructivism, neobehaviorism, and Cognitive Behavior Modification (CBM)	
Constructivism and critical approaches focus Heavily manifested in self-reflection and self-regulated learning (metacognition), discovery learning, collaborative learning, active and hands-on exploration, social criticism.	**Neobehaviorism and CBM focus** Strongly manifested in collaborative learning, observation learning (modelling and imitation), concrete experiences/ real-tasks learning.
Assessment	**Assessment**
Combination of traditional assessment (teacher-made assessments) and authentic assessment (performance and product/portfolio)	
Stresses the complex knowledge (metacognitive knowledge), essential skills and the process.	**Stresses the expert skills/capabilities (procedural knowledge), essential knowledge, and the product.**

Figure 4.6 Curriculum Framework of the Academic and Vocational Bachelor Programs

4.12. Summary

Chapter Four explained the findings of the study by providing a thorough explanation of the current condition of Indonesia's tourism industry and Indonesia's hospitality and tourism higher education. The problems and the future challenges facing the industry and higher education were also addressed. The expected profiles of the graduates were identified as a basis for defining the purposes of the academic and the vocational education. The curriculum framework was structured on the basis of an eclectic educational philosophy to define the aims and objectives, the content, learning and instruction, and the assessment for the academic and the vocational Bachelor programs.

The following Chapter Five outlines the summary of thesis, conclusion of the findings, implications, the linkage of the study with the phronetic social science, limitations of the work, and the future study.

Chapter 5

CONCLUSION

This last chapter presents the summary and conclusion of the thesis that discusses the key findings of the study. The theoretical implications and the practical implications are considered, and limitations are noted. The rationalities and justifications of this study are explained using Flyvbjerg's phronetic social science approach. Some possible future studies are discussed to provide directions for extending the research.

5.1. Summary of Thesis

This thesis focused on the development of a curriculum framework for the academic and the vocational Bachelor education degrees in hospitality and tourism in Indonesia by taking into account the perspectives of educators, students, the industry, and the government. Curriculum has been a perennial discourse among hospitality and tourism educators (Dopson & Nelson, 2003). Pivotal questions concerning the hospitality and tourism curriculum have included their aims and objectives, content and subject matter, teaching and learning styles, and assessment options (e.g. Cooper & Westlake, 1989; Dopson & Tas, 2004; Dredge et al, 2012c; Ernawati & Pearce, 2003; Fidgeon, 2010; Koh, 1995; Pearce, 1993; Shariff, 2013; Tribe, 2002b). In the case of Indonesia where this study took place, the emergence of two types of hospitality and tourism education, the academic and the vocational, was a response to the growth of Indonesia's tourism and the government recognition for tourism as a field of study in 2008. It was also later influenced by the

implementation of the Indonesia Qualification Framework that divided education into two pathways. Before 2008, hospitality and tourism study programs were only delivered at the vocational level.

Two types of Bachelor programs, the academic and the vocational, were seen as important in order to address the demand of human resources for Indonesia's hospitality and tourism industry. The expansion of the industry required highly competent human resources who could serve the industry and promote tourism stewardship. This need is the driving force for academic and vocational education (Andriani, 2014; Hernasari, 2014; Kompas, 2015; Shortt, 1994; Sugiyarto et al., 2003). As suggested by the pool of stakeholders, in particular from the viewpoints of educators, students and the government, Indonesia tourism urgently needs people who are best in strategic-thinking such as tourism planners and developers, educators and researchers. This can be accommodated by the academic Bachelor mode. At the operational level, majority of the respondents asserted the needs of front liner people to serve the industry, which can be provided by the vocational camp. At managerial level, most of educators, students and industry respondents agreed that both educational modes should be able to produce two types of managers; operational managers (vocational education) and top executives for strategic decision making (academic education). While the establishment of hospitality and tourism academic and vocational Bachelor programs has spread throughout Indonesia, the separate purposes and contents of the two Bachelor programs remains unclear. This lack of distinctiveness perplexes the stakeholders. Clarifying the curriculum was seen as necessary and motivated the researcher.

This study attempted to investigate the graduate profiles of the academic and vocational Bachelor programs and the key components of curriculum which was

seen as consisting of aims and objectives, content, learning and instruction, and the assessment. Evaluation of the overall curriculum was also addressed. The findings suggested that differences in the aims and objectives, content, learning and instructions and assessment for the academic and vocational Bachelor programs could be articulated, although there were some integrated elements found in the curriculum of those two programs. It was apparent that hospitality and tourism curriculum can be viewed through two lenses: reflection and action, and theories and practices.

The development of curriculum framework in this study was based primarily on the educational philosophy underpinning the offerings. As the heart of curriculum, a philosophical position provides a guide for the actions taken by teachers on daily basis such as planning the methods of instruction, managing classrooms, and evaluating the outcomes. Philosophical inquiry can assist educators to answer the important question on why to teach in a particular way (Dunn, 2005). An eclectic philosophical approach was employed as a focal point in defining the aims and objectives of the academic and the vocational Bachelor programs. The amalgamation of several philosophical positions, essentialism, progressivism, constructivism, the philosophic practitioner, the curriculum space, and the post-modern perspective, including the notion of powerful knowledge, all contributed to differentiating the aims and objectives.

The majority of respondents indicated that the academic Bachelor can be oriented to promote tourism stewardship and tourism knowledge based on the reflection and action. The graduates of this program should be able to to demonstrate higher-order thinking skills, equipped with complex knowledge, essential skills, and practical wisdom. The purpose of vocational Bachelor program is to endorse

essential knowledge and skills for employability that build upon the notion of action and reflection. The graduates are expected to be able to demonstrate knowledge and transferable skills for employment, to be equipped with expert capabilities/skills, essential concepts, and practical wisdom.

The results also found that the course content overlapped between the two programs. But it could be maintained that the majority of respondents heavily emphasized concept and theories with less practical skills for the academic Bachelor's content, while more practical and skill-based content for the vocational camp. The group of respondents suggested that the focus of academic Bachelor content should be on the tourism subjects, management and business subjects, the academic subjects/liberal arts, and hospitality functional subjects. The content of vocational Bachelor focuses on the hospitality subjects, management and business subjects, and some fundamental subjects related to tourism and liberal arts.

The learner-centered education that promotes critical thinking and problem solving skills was viewed as the most effective methods of learning and instruction in hospitality and tourism education. The teaching and learning experiences were manifested in the combination of constructivism, cognitive behaviour modification, and neo-behaviorism approaches. The structure and implementation, however, would depend on the programs. In addition to those approaches, the critical view was deemed necessary for the academic Bachelor. As proposed by the group of respondents, learning and delivery methods for both educational styles should be diverse, ranging from case studies, simulation and demonstration, internship, field trip/field study, discussions, project, presentation, lecture, problem based learning, and other active learning methods. Most of the respondents suggested that case

studies, simulation and demonstration, and internship should be vigorously applied in both programs at different degree.

Similar types of assessment and strategies, as the respondents believed, could be applied for both programs, contingent on the purpose and focus of the assessment. Assessment can be conducted in the form of traditional assessment and authentic/alternative assessment (performance assessment and product/portfolio assessment). It was suggested, however, that the assessment for the academic Bachelor should stress the complex knowledge and essential skills to reinforce higher-order thinking skills, while for the vocational Bachelor, the assessment should emphasize the technical skills and fundamental concept necessary to serve the industry.

The emergent issues from the interviews with the respondents revealed that internship, an essential learning experience for students, should be tailored to the individual Bachelor camp with regards to the purpose, duration, frequency, and the area of internship. Another discourse was the concern among the educators regarding certification for the technical competencies (related to the ASEAN common curriculum), in particular for the vocational Bachelor students.

5.2. Conclusion of the Findings

The stated objectives of this study as specified in the Chapter One are accomplished and can be summarized as follow.

The first objective is to determine graduate profiles of Indonesia's hospitality and tourism undergraduate programs that suit the occupational needs of Indonesia's tourism industry. The finding suggests that Indonesia's tourism needs two types of human resources. The first one are people who are proficient in performing front-

line work and are capable in solving immediate problems (e.g. front-line staff, operational level managers). These demands can be fulfilled by the vocational Bachelor program. The second type of human resources are those who excel in research, concept building, planning, and development (e.g. scholars/researchers, tourism planners and developers, strategic level managers). These needs can be satisfied with the academic Bachelor programs.

The second objective concerns the aims and objectives for the vocational and academic Bachelor programs in Indonesia's hospitality and tourism higher education. The aim of the academic Bachelor program can be defined as "to promote tourism stewardship and tourism knowledge based on the reflection and action", and its objective is "to produce graduates who are able to demonstrate higher-order thinking skills, equipped with complex knowledge, essential skills, and practical wisdom". The aim of the vocational Bachelor is "to endorse essential knowledge and skills for employability that are built upon the notion of action and reflection". Its objective is "to produce graduates who are able to demonstrate knowledge and transferable skills for employment, equipped with expert capabilities/skills, essential concept, and practical wisdom".

The third objective deals with the content of the curriculum for the vocational and academic Bachelor programs in Indonesia's hospitality and tourism higher education. In general, the content for the academic strand emphasizes knowledge and skills leading to higher-order thinking skills through the application of theories, experience, exploration, and reflection. The subjects stress tourism subjects as the core of the content, assisted by some hospitality subjects. Those key subjects are supported by the management and business subjects, the academic subjects/liberal arts (more wide ranging ideas), personal development subjects, and

the general subjects (Indonesian values and ideology). The content for the vocational mode highlights knowledge and transferable skills leading to growth and employment through (real-world) experience, exploration, and reflection. The subjects strongly focus on the hospitality subjects as the core of the content fortified by the tourism subjects. Similar to the academic style, the subjects offered in the vocational mode are complemented by the subjects of management and business, academic/liberal arts, personal development, and general study (Indonesian values and ideology).

The fourth objective is to develop the learning and instruction for the vocational and academic Bachelor programs in Indonesia's hospitality and tourism higher education. Both Bachelor programs call for the amalgamation of learning approaches: constructivism, neobehaviorism, and cognitive behavior modification. The emphasis, however, is rather distinct. The academic style should have more focus on the constructivism approach, reinforced with the critical view. The vocational camp should attend to cognitive behaviour modification and neo-behaviorism approaches. These approaches can be manifested in a self-reflection and self-regulated learning (metacognition), discovery learning, collaborative learning, active and hands-on exploration, social criticism, observation learning (modelling and imitation), and concrete experiences/real-tasks learning. The findings suggested that self-reflection and self-regulated learning (metacognition), discovery learning, collaborative learning, active and hands-on exploration, and social criticism should inform the academic style of learning, while collaborative learning, observation learning (modelling and imitation), and concrete experiences/ real-tasks learning should inform the vocational style.

In addition, the fourth objective also addresses the characteristics of lecturers for both programs. The results indicated that lecturers who teach in the academic program should have sound research skills, good knowledge and teaching ability, be highly credentialed, and have at least some industry experience. Those who teach in the vocational program should possess solid industry experience, good knowledge and teaching ability, equipped with adequate research skills and experience.

The fifth objective of this study is concerned with the assessment for the vocational and academic Bachelor programs in Indonesia's hospitality and tourism higher education. The findings showed that the academic and the vocational Bachelor programs need a combination of traditional assessment (teacher-made assessments) and authentic assessment (performance and product/portfolio). The assessment for the academic mode, however, stresses the complex knowledge (metacognitive knowledge), essential skills and the process. The vocational type of assessment emphasizes the expert skills/capabilities (procedural knowledge), essential knowledge, and the product.

In order to ensure the program objectives are achieved, the results of this study indicated the importance of a process of evaluation. This kind of evaluation is useful to examine the course content and learning and teaching activities. The evaluation should take into account the various perspectives of the stakeholders such as students, alumni and the industry. The comments and feedback that are gained from the stakeholders serve as the basis to improve the curriculum.

5.3. Theoretical and Conceptual Implications

In the broad context of literature and research on hospitality and tourism education, this study provides theoretical and conceptual contributions in three ways. First, this study synthesized a number of ideas and incorporated them into a curriculum framework. The framework was constructed from the integration of educational philosophical positions, learning theories, the epistemological approaches in content/subject matter, and assessment methods. To define the aims and objectives as the first and the most essential curriculum component, several philosophical positions and concepts were unified: essentialism, progressivism, constructivism, Tribe's (2002) philosophic practitioner, Dredge et al.'s (2012) curriculum space, Schön's (1983) reflective practitioner, Doll's (1993) post modernism, and Young's (2013) powerful knowledge. The amalgamation of those philosophies as shown in Figure 4.2 indicated that the notion of reflection and action, as well as theories and practices should be reflected in both Bachelor programs as the major drives of the curriculum. As noted by Young (2014), concepts and practical activities are both essential for the epistemic enquiry, considering that these features define general and vocational education. This conceptualization led to the selection and adoption of the course content, learning theories and assessment methods.

The scheme outlining content exhibited in Figure 4.3 revealed that much hospitality and tourism content is established from the epistemology of multidisciplinary, interdisciplinary and business interdisciplinary foundations. The pre-paradigmatic and soft/unrestricted nature of hospitality and tourism study maintains the eclectic epistemological approaches (cf. Pearce, 1993; Tribe, 1997).

To construct the learning and teaching methods, the integration of several learning theories - constructivism, critical pedagogy, cognitive behavior modification, and neobehaviorism - to facilitate the knowledge enquiry, as presented in Figure 4.4 was stressed. It was believed that those learning theories would promote the higher-order thinking skills as well as expert capabilities/skills. The assessment strategies were built upon the traditional assessment view and the authentic/alternative assessment approach (constructivist perspective). The synthesis of theories and philosophies that underpinned the curriculum framework in this study suggested clear and nuance direction for further development of the teaching and learning approaches in hospitality and tourism education.

For the second contribution, this study provides a more holistic exploration and analysis of the main curriculum components (i.e. aims and objectives, content, learning and instruction, and assessment) rather than just emphasizing one single component as many researches on this field have done (Eash, 1991). This holistic approach offers a more comprehensive concept of curriculum framework for the undergraduate programs of hospitality and tourism. Third, this study helps to develop a conceptual contribution of curriculum development for Indonesia's hospitality and tourism education where case studies in Indonesia is currently non-existent. It is possible to suggest that for this third contribution, the thesis also exemplifies a research-led contribution to policy development and evaluation in Indonesia. The examination of evidence and the full incorporation of stakeholder views is a conceptually rich and academic style of contributing to decision making, rather than ad hoc or personal opinions.

5.4. Practical Implications

The practical contribution of this study can be specified into the application for the curriculum development, the application for the teaching and learning process, and human resources planning as explained in the following section.

Implications for hospitality and tourism education

In Indonesia, there are currently very limited studies (probably none) concerning hospitality and tourism higher education and structured analysis of curriculum. It was noted in Ernawati and Pearce (2003) that research studies on hospitality and tourism education in Indonesia are scanty and insufficient. Observation on hospitality and tourism education research in Indonesia only found that the works of Ernawati (2003) and Ernawati and Pearce (2003) that were published in Annals of Tourism Research and Journal of Teaching in Travel & Tourism as the most thoughtful and insightful study. These studies provide information on the condition of tourism education in Indonesia, education and industry relationship, the development of Master program curriculum, and future development of Indonesia's tourism education. The studies, however, did not examine the undergraduate curriculum of hospitality and tourism. Ernawati (2002) suggested a curriculum that could attend to the needs of Indonesia's tourism industry for planners, decision-makers, and researchers. Moreover, curriculum development in Indonesia commonly represents what Tribe (2015) describes as an accidental outcome and is rather based on the 12Ps such as pals, powers, popularity, prospect, pragmatism, and parsimony.

This study, therefore, provides a platform for Indonesia's hospitality and tourism educators when designing an undergraduate curriculum that underpins educational philosophy. It can be maintained that although many curricula outline aims and content, few include a rationale built on an educational philosophy to provide a clear context for the curriculum (Burton et al., 2001; Chen & Groves, 1999; Ornstein & Hunkins, 2009). A curriculum that is grounded on clear philosophies will assist the construction of the programs' aims and objectives, content, teaching and learning, and assessment methods.

The curriculum framework developed in this study may further contribute to the hospitality and tourism education in other ASEAN countries as well as in the developed and developing countries that face similar issues to Indonesia regarding the dualism of tourism education. Although the results of this study may not be exactly applicable due to different types of educational system, regulations, and culture of a country/ region, the process and sequence in developing the curriculum framework for the vocational and academic education can be transferable and applied.

Implications for the teaching and learning

As previously cited, curriculum in Indonesia, similar to other developing countries, is often developed by borrowing and adopting the already well-established curriculum although the content may not be adequate to the local needs and demands (Ernawati & Pearce, 2003 as cited from Blanton, 1981). Given the importance of curriculum as the core of education, the framework established in this thesis can serve as a resource for higher education training in Indonesia. This study provides a fresh input into such a training program. Training topics that can be generated from

this study may include but not limited to: defining and developing curriculum (academic or vocational) based on the educational philosophies, selecting the course content and learning resources for the academic and/or vocational Bachelor program, creating vibrant learning experiences for the academic and/or vocational students, and choosing assessment strategies. The students, one of the main actors in learning and teaching activities, will also benefit from the study as a well-informed curriculum will enhance their whole learning experiences in studying hospitality and tourism.

Implications for the industry, government and the community

This study also serves as a source of information for the industry and government in regards to the purpose of the academic and vocational Bachelor programs and the outputs produced by each program. First, it will be easier for the industry to allocate the graduates of both Bachelor programs according to their talent during job recruitment by knowing clearly the graduates' capabilities. Second, the government, in particular the Ministry of Tourism, may use the results of this study to envisage and develop human resources planning for Indonesia's tourism development. Indirectly, this study may also contribute to the economic welfare of the community. Highly qualified human resources produced by the well-established academic and vocational Bachelor programs will promote the development of Indonesia's tourism, which contributes to the economic well-being of the country.

5.5. Four Rational Values of the Study: The Phronetic Social Science Approach

In social science study, Flyvbjerg (2001) advocates a phronetic approach that is rooted in Aristotle's intellectual virtue to analyse and interpret praxis through four-value rational questions. They are defined as: "where are we going?, who gains and who loses, by which mechanism of power?, is this desirable?, and, what should be done?". His value-rational questions provide directions to any social science research emphasizing a pragmatic approach using the knowledge to solve problems (Pearce & Pabel, 2015). Flyvbjerg (2001, p. 61) notes that "no one is experienced enough and wise enough to give complete answers to the four questions, whatever such answers would be". This study attempted to find partial answers to the above questions concerning hospitality and tourism curriculum, and sought what could be done next by continuously engaged in social dialogue with the hospitality and tourism education community.

5.4.1 Where are we going with curriculum for the academic and vocational Bachelor programs?

The point of departure of this study began with (in Flyvbjerg's term) little questions and interests in the specific phenomenon in hospitality and tourism education in Indonesia. Back in 2008, Indonesian hospitality and tourism educators were elated when hospitality and tourism was finally recognized by the Directorate General of Higher Education of Indonesia as a field of study. That moment was a milestone for the Indonesia's hospitality and tourism education. Two types of

Bachelor programs were established and introduced, the academic and the vocational. It was expected that the output generated from those two Bachelor programs could attend the needs of highly qualified human resources to support the growth of Indonesia's hospitality and tourism industry. The country needs people who are not only skilful in the operational works and in delivering services, but also those who are capable to serve as tourism stewards. Tourism stewardship implies the promotion of better tourism world and its community by stressing the sustainable of tourism development (Tribe, 2002b). The notion was to have academic education as the primary resource for people with higher-order thinking skills to plan, develop, and sustain Indonesia's tourism industry. On the other hand, the vocational education would resource people to provide hospitality and tourism services, those who would deal with the operations of the businesses.

In practice, after seven years since the momentous development, there is still perplexity in the aims, objectives and structures of the academic and vocational Bachelor programs. Observation on the curriculum documents and the interviews with the respondents indicated that the academic Bachelor strand is still strongly influenced by the vocational flavor. Another motif to conduct this study was also triggered by the researcher's study in 2013 concerning the Indonesia's undergraduate hospitality and tourism education and its curriculum from the perspectives of Indonesian hospitality and tourism educators

Empirically, this study attempted to discover what the curriculum of the academic and the vocational Bachelor programs should be, concerning the aims and objectives, content, learning and instruction, and assessment. The rationale for this study was that curriculum as the heart of educational experiences has becoming an on-going discourse not only in Indonesia, but also in the global context of hospitality

and tourism education. Curriculum is not just an academic problem that merely involves academia. It also has a large impact on the rest of society. Interviews with key stakeholders (educators, students, and the industry and government people) were used as a primary source of data to develop interpretations of the studied phenomenon from their perspectives. In connection to the Flyvbjerg's first of the four value-rational questions, it could be stated that the distinctiveness between the academic and the vocational Bachelor curriculum can actually be articulated.

5.4.2 Who gains and who loses, by which mechanism of power?

This second question concerns how the power is exercised and the outcomes; who gains and who loses. Drawing on Foucault' conceptualisation, it is the use of power which is central to this second question. This can be positive or negative (Dunn, 2005; Flyvbjerg, 2001). An answer to the question should begin with an understanding of who governs the curriculum and how their power influences its design. Within the institutions, curriculum is generally decided by the educators and the management, taking into account the external factors that may influence the activity. These external influencing factors include the government's policies, community/public interests, and the industry's needs and demand. In other words, the government, the industry, and the community also shape the development and implementation of the curriculum. These attributes and the qualities of powers are addressed in the following sections.

Educators as the curriculum determinants

It was noted in Chapter 1, 2, and 4 that curriculum design and development in hospitality and tourism is often not well-established, commonly based on what Tribe (2015) defines as the 12Ps (e.g. pals, power, parsimony, popularity). Educators and the school management do not always involve the students, alumni or other relevant stakeholders in the curriculum design and development. It is probably not unusual to find hospitality and tourism curriculum that is cut and pasted from the other reputable institutions or designed on the basis of the availability of the lecturers or the learning capacities, according to management's preferences. Educators who play critical role in curriculum decision, have the authority of what kind of content should be taught to students, what materials and resources should be used, what activities and assessment strategies should be applied (McNeil, 1996). In brief, the power of this group is considerable.

Students as the curriculum determinant

In a formal way, students probably do not have great influence on the curriculum content. They do, however, have immense informal influence. They can leave a course or refuse to register to a course that they think insufficient or does not meet their interests (McNeil, 1996). Additionally, in those circumstances where institutions depend on enrolments for their income, unpopular courses face an uncertain future. In brief, the power of the students is indirect and potentially long term in its applications.

Government as the curriculum determinants

The power of the government lies in its preeminent role in constructing education policy. Such policies provide core information on how schools should be managed and operated. On the other hand, certain rules may restrict the teaching and learning process. This can be illustrated in the following context. It is stipulated by the Indonesian government that lecturers who teach in the undergraduate programs should have Master level qualifications, while those who teach in the Master programs should have doctoral qualifications. On the one hand, this policy is positive to enhance the quality of education in Indonesia. On the other hand, this system is rather challenging for some study programs such as hospitality and tourism, and in particular for the vocational education.

In the Hotel Management course for example, finding lecturers with Master or doctoral degrees to teach specific skills such as cooking, ice carving, bartending, and food service is not easy. Generally, those lecturers have a strong industry background and while they maybe highly competent in their fields, they lack academic qualification. If the institutions strictly follow the government's policy, then it may sacrifice the quality of the course. The practical subjects will be taught by lecturers who are unable to build skills well although they hold the right formal qualifications. Here the students will become the martyrs. On the other hand, if the institution disregards the rules and keep using those lecturers in order to maintain the (effective) quality, it may result in the low performance appraisal scores during accreditation. This continuing problem is an immense dilemma in Indonesia's hospitality and tourism education. The exercise of power by the government in this policy space needs to be tempered with a model of human resource development for tourism and hospitality educators.

Industry as the curriculum determinants

As stated in Chapter 1, 2, and 4, it has been acknowledged by various scholars (e.g. Airey, 2004; Cooper, 1996; Dredge et al., 2012b; Nelson & Dopson, 2001) that hospitality and tourism curriculum is largely driven by the industry's needs. Indeed, meeting the demand of the industry is viewed as the main objective of hospitality and tourism education (Smith & Cooper, 2000). Arguably, the power of the industry may appear in two forms. In one model, programs may have industry advisers, councils, or panels to commentate on the academic offerings. Alternatively, educators and managers may implicitly consider what the industry want, by incorporating their views of industry needs into the curriculum planning.

Community as the curriculum determinants

The community's role in creating curriculum is usually "minimal, perfunctory, reactive, and superficial" (McNeil, 1996, p. 303). They often know little about the curriculum content. Here, the community can be defined as parents or potential students and their parents. The findings asserted that hospitality and tourism study in Indonesia is still perceived as a low image study area related to traveling, cooking, serving, and the like. By way of contrast, the content of hospitality and tourism study that has strong links with business and economics is viewed as more prestige. Clearly one way to gain public acceptance, for the hospitality and tourism curriculum is to strengthen the business and economics related subjects in the degrees. This direction may not be desirable, however, if it means reducing the effectiveness and time available for practical skills development in the vocational program. Instead, a careful marketing program by institutions of

how their hospitality and tourism degrees fit particular employment options may be more precise and build community support.

The synthesis of various philosophies, concepts and approaches adopted in constructing the curriculum framework that also acknowledge the multiple perspectives from various stakeholders, suggests that much can actually be gained by all the stakeholders of hospitality and tourism education if these programs are well formulated.

What educators and institution can gain from the curriculum framework?

The framework in this thesis also serves as a precedent for the educators and the school management in designing curriculum for their institution. The clarity of the programs' purposes that are grounded in the educational philosophies will aid the full development and support subject matter, learning and instruction, and assessments methods. Having well-established curriculum helps the institutions to plan for the necessary human resources (e.g. lecturers, staff, students), physical resources (e.g. practical laboratories, classrooms, textbooks), and the capital. Moreover, they will be able to attend to the government policy concerning teaching and learning. For example, clear aims and objectives will assist the school management in assigning the right lecturers for teaching a certain subject. At present, a common practice to overcome the lecturers' inadequate qualifications is to assign the same lecturers (in one institution) to teach both in the vocational and the academic Bachelor programs.

The ambiguity of the objectives, content, and learning outcomes, causes the lecturer to utilize the same teaching materials, employ the same teaching methods, give the same activities and assignments to the students, and apply the same

assessments strategies. And they have power to do so. In this case, students are the ones who suffer if the curriculum is undefined and ill-informed. For the lecturer, the elements of the curriculum framework provide a guideline for the educators to plan, select, and implement the teaching and learning strategies and activities that will promote an active learning. This includes the content to be taught and how it would be taught. A well-articulated direction and purposes for the two Bachelor programs will also enhance the image of hospitality and tourism education in the community. The community will have a better understanding about hospitality and tourism study and the significance of this field of education towards the country's economy development.

What students can gain from the curriculum framework?

A sound curriculum for the students will enhance their learning experiences and may lead to their overall satisfaction in studying hospitality/tourism course. They can then know what they learn and understand, and what they can do upon the completion of the study. The students will be well-equipped with knowledge and skills that are beneficial for their personal development and future employment. As Tribe (2002) noted, how tourism curriculum is framed will affect the competencies and perspectives of the students and their overall learning experiences. Moreover, students will also be able to monitor and evaluate the teaching and learning process as imposed in the curriculum.

What government can gain from the curriculum framework?

For the government, the mapping of human resources and the challenges facing Indonesia's tourism as exhibited in Figure 4.1 provides information about

what kind of human resources are needed to promote Indonesia's tourism and what should be done to address the challenges. This specific knowledge can assist in the creation of the human resources mapping to develop the industry, destinations, and Indonesia's tourism as a whole. The outcomes from the distinct Bachelor programs can be allocated according to their competencies. Another gain is that it would be easier for the government to provide funding for the hospitality and tourism institutions based on the purposes of education. This will lead to the benefits for the institutions.

What industry can gain from the curriculum framework?

The industry gains benefits from the distinct curriculum framework as they will be able to easily recognize the competencies of the academic and the vocational students/graduates. This will make their task less stressful in assigning students to the internships or hiring graduates to do a job that matches their capabilities. The clear aims and objectives of the Bachelor programs will create a smooth bridge to minimize the gaps between what the education produces and what the industry needs. By knowing and understanding the purposes and outcomes, the industry can also provide better supports that adequate for the individual program. The institutions will certainly receive the advantages from such support.

What the community can gain from the curriculum framework?

The curriculum framework that promotes tourism stewardship can be manifested in the community development program or service learning. For example, students and educators are assigned to do a project to help the local government or local community to develop a tourism destination. This can be done

through consultation, training, and other approaches. These kinds of activities are not only beneficial for the local community, but also for the students' learning. They will learn how to apply their knowledge and skills to address issues, and practice their analytical and critical thinking skills. The notion of reflection-action will be embodied in the project that the students do.

5.4.3 Is it desirable?

Interviews with the respondents suggested that a distinct curriculum for the individual Bachelor program (academic and vocational) is strongly needed, as curriculum greatly impacts the educators, students, and members of society (Ornstein & Hunkins, 2009; Zais, 1976). One of the values developed in this study was the adoption of educational philosophy as the ground of curriculum development.

The second interviews with some of the participants confirmed that this study is valued and appreciated. A comment from a government respondent specified that the framework is a "good model". Another value of this study is that it informs the industry, the government, and the community concerning the competencies of the vocational and the academic Bachelor graduates and what they can contribute to Indonesia's hospitality and tourism industry. The advancement of Indonesia's tourism industry will be supported by human resources with a sound knowledge and skills to serve hospitality and tourism industry as well as to promote a better world of Indonesia's tourism. To conclude, for Indonesian students, educators and employers, the clarification of the philosophy underlying the curriculum can be a powerful step in developing the country's human resources.

5.4.4 What should be done?

Returning to the purpose and motivation of this study in hospitality and tourism undergraduate curriculum, the dialogical approach is employed for this analysis. The main aim of this approach is to inform the results of this study to the hospitality and tourism education stakeholders. The findings will provide an input to the continuing curriculum discourse. An effective communication with the stakeholders can take place in various forms. First is by active participation in the dialogues with hospitality and tourism educators in the academic forums such as seminars, meetings, forum group discussions, and conferences.

Here the researcher has partially presented work of the thesis concerning hospitality and tourism education and curriculum in a number of international conferences such as the APacCHRIE (Oktadiana & Chon, 2014a, 2015a), Asian Tourism Forum/ATF (Oktadiana & Chon, 2014b), and the Tropical Tourism Outlook Conference (Oktadiana & Chon, 2015b). Second, to present the results in the meetings of the Association of the Indonesian Tourism Education Institute (HILDIKTIPARI). A third approach is to publish the results in the credible academic journals. The researcher has written two papers for the publications. The first paper (research note) titled "Educational Philosophy: Grounding the Tourism Curriculum" has been published online in Annals of Tourism Research volume 57 in February 2016 (Oktadiana & Chon). The second paper, "Vocational vs. Academic Debate on Undegraduate Education in Hospitality and Tourism: The Case of Indonesia" received a favourable recommendation from the reviewers for publication in the Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Education and has been

accepted for 2017 publication. A fourth method is to engage the industry in the academic endeavours to gain their feedback.

5.6. Limitations of the Study

The limitations of this study are explained as the following. First, that the curriculum framework which developed for the vocational (Diploma IV) program may not be applicable for the other levels of vocational programs (i.e. Diploma I, Diploma II and Diploma III) as their levels are lower than the diploma IV program. This is referred to the Directorate General of Indonesian Higher Education which positions Diploma IV equal to the Bachelor degree that requires a similar number of credit units and study duration (DIKTI, 2000; 2011).

Second, the respondents involved in this study were limited to the educators and students from reputable hospitality and tourism institutions in Java and Bali. Although the majority of the institutions are located in Java and Bali, there are two other institutions in Riau, Sumatra and Manado, North Sulawesi that could be involved. Due to the time and budget constraint, it was rather difficult to conduct interviews in those regions.

Third, a different approach could be applied to address some degrees of unfamiliarity in discussing curriculum with the students. The students were not selected by the researcher. They were chosen based on the judgment of their school management staff such as head of department or the dean. Therefore, extra effort was necessary to develop a good rapport with the students and to introduce the students with the concept of the study.

Fourth, the cultural style of the Indonesian people who are reluctant to give

direct answer required constant follow up in scheduling an interview although they were willing to participate in the study. The respondents rarely responded to e-mails. Another means of communication such as telephone, text messages and WhatsApp were used to foster the responses as respondents tended to reply faster in this way. This issue caused long delays in the data collection process.

5.7. Recommendations for Future Study

This study established the curriculum framework for the academic and the vocational Bachelor programs of Indonesia's hospitality and tourism education. The framework provides a platform for the Indonesian hospitality and tourism educators to develop their curriculum. There are several opportunities in the future to further enhance this study.

This study can be expanded by involving a larger number of respondents/stakeholders using a survey, to obtain more specific data on the curriculum elements such as content, learning and teaching process, and assessment strategies. A larger number of respondents will also allow flexibility in doing data comparison between respondents. The respondents may include local government of the tourism office, alumni (in this study alumni was incorporated with the industry since most of them were the alumni of the studied institutions), educators and students from other regions (non-Java and Bali), and the industry people from the transportation sector, theme parks, recreation, and other hospitality and tourism organizations and associations.

This study took place in five major cities in Java and Bali (Greater Jakarta, Bandung, Yogyakarta, Surabaya, and Denpasar). Those cities are already well-

developed, both as tourism destinations and as the points for hospitality and tourism education. Future study, therefore, should include hospitality and tourism institutions beyond Java and Bali that offer the academic and vocational Bachelor programs, such as in Riau, Sumatera and Manado, North Sulawesi. There is also another possibility to include hospitality and tourism institutions in Java and Bali that are located in the rural area. The perspectives obtained from those who live in the rural area and other provinces may enrich the future study.

Another prospect is to scale the study to the ASEAN countries such as Singapore, Malaysia and Thailand to seek any similarity or differentiation of the pattern. This can be achieved by having a collaborative research with hospitality and tourism educators in those countries.

5.8. Summary

Chapter five is the last part of this thesis. It has provided a conclusion to the findings generated from the study. This chapter defined the theoretical and conceptual implications and practical implications generated from this study. Four rational-values of the phronesis of social science were explained, reflecting the question of "where are we going?, who gains and who loses, by which mechanism of power?, is this desirable?, and, what should be done?. The limitations of this study were identified, followed by a direction for the future research concerning hospitality and tourism curriculum.

Final thoughts about curriculum:

Curriculum is the heart of education. "There is no cost difference between incarceration and an Ivy League education; the main difference is curriculum" (Paul Hawken).

Curriculum helps us to achieve the education purposes, where "Real education is about genuine understanding and the ability to figure things out on your own" (Aaron Swartz).

This means "Intelligence plus character" (Martin Luther King, Jr) and, encouraging students "to not only know what they are doing but also why and how" (Harry Wong).

APPENDICES

Appendix 1: Interview Questions Guidelines for Educators

Objectives	Main Interview Questions
O1: To determine graduate profiles of Indonesia's hospitality and tourism undergraduate programs that suit the occupational needs of Indonesia's tourism industry.	1. What do you think of the current situation of Indonesia's tourism and hospitality industry and education? 2. What do you think the major challenges confronting Indonesia's tourism and hospitality industry and education in the next 10 years or so? 3. What kind of occupations does Indonesia need to promote its tourism industry? 4. How do graduates from vocational D IV and academic Bachelor programs fill in the desired occupational needs? 5. In what sector do your graduates/alumni work 6. What kind of positions do they have?
O2: To generate aims and objectives for the academic and vocational Bachelor programs in Indonesia's hospitality and tourism higher education.	7. What aims and objectives of vocational D IV and academic Bachelor programs do you recommend? 8. To achieve the aims and objectives, what knowledge and skills should the graduates of vocational D IV and academic Bachelor have?
O3: To develop the content of the curriculum for the academic and vocational Bachelor programs in Indonesia's hospitality and tourism higher education	9. Given the aims and objectives, what would be the emphasis of content or subject area of vocational D IV and academic Bachelor programs?
O4: To develop the prevailing learning and instruction for the academic and vocational Bachelor programs in Indonesia's hospitality and tourism higher education.	10. What range of learning and teaching approaches are appropriate for vocational D IV and/or academic Bachelor? 11. What kind of activities do you propose to enhance students' soft skills? 12. How do lecturers' educational background and work experiences influence the delivery methods? 13. What is your suggestion regarding the characteristics of vocational D IV lecturers and academic Bachelor lecturers?
O5: To develop the classification of assessment for the academic and vocational Bachelor programs in Indonesia's hospitality and tourism higher education.	14. What are the range of assessment approaches suitable for vocational D IV and academic Bachelor that you recommend? 15. How do you explain the characteristics of vocational D IV's final project and the Bachelor's thesis? 16. How do you typify the internship programs of vocational D IV and the academic Bachelor? 17. How do you evaluate curriculum to ensure that it has met the aims and objectives? 18. How often do you evaluate the curriculum?

Appendix 2: Interview Questions Guidelines for Industry Practitioners

Objectives	Main Interview Questions
O1: To determine graduate profiles of Indonesia's hospitality and tourism undergraduate programs that suit the occupational needs of Indonesia's tourism industry.	1. What do you think of the current situation of Indonesia's tourism and hospitality industry and education? 2. What do you think the major challenges confronting Indonesia's tourism and hospitality industry and education in the next 10 years or so? 3. What kind of occupations does Indonesia need to promote its tourism industry? 4. How do graduates from vocational D IV and academic Bachelor programs fill in the desired occupational needs? 5. What kind of occupation and job level will you offer to students of vocational D IV and academic programs when you hire them?
O2: To generate aims and objectives for the academic and vocational Bachelor programs in Indonesia's hospitality and tourism higher education.	6. What aims and objectives of vocational D IV and academic Bachelor programs do you recommend? 7. To achieve the aims and objectives, what knowledge and skills should the graduates of vocational D IV and academic Bachelor have?
O3: To develop the content of the curriculum for the academic and vocational Bachelor programs in Indonesia's hospitality and tourism higher education	8. Given the aims and objectives, what would be the emphasis of content or subject area of vocational D IV and academic Bachelor programs?
O4: To develop the prevailing learning and instruction for the academic and vocational Bachelor programs in Indonesia's hospitality and tourism higher education.	9. What range of learning and teaching approaches are appropriate for vocational D IV and/or academic Bachelor? 10. What kind of activities do you propose to enhance students' soft skills? 11. How do lecturers' educational background and work experiences influence the delivery methods? 12. What is your suggestion regarding the characteristics of vocational D IV lecturers and academic Bachelor lecturers?
O5: To develop the classification of assessment for the academic and vocational Bachelor programs in Indonesia's hospitality and tourism higher education.	13. What are the range of assessment approaches suitable for vocational D IV and academic Bachelor that you recommend? 14. How do you explain the characteristics of vocational D IV's final project and the Bachelor's thesis? 15. How do you typify the internship programs of vocational D IV and the academic Bachelor?

Appendix 3: Interview Questions Guidelines for Students

Objectives	Main Interview Questions
O1: To determine graduate profiles of Indonesia's hospitality and tourism undergraduate programs that suit the occupational needs of Indonesia's tourism industry.	1. What do you think of the current situation of Indonesia's tourism and hospitality industry and education? 2. What do you think the major challenges confronting Indonesia's tourism and hospitality industry and education in the next 10 years or so? 3. What kind of occupations does Indonesia need to promote its tourism industry? 4. How do graduates from vocational DIV/academic Bachelor programs fill in the desired occupational needs? 5. What sector of hospitality and tourism industry that you would like to work when you graduate? 6. What kind of occupation and job level that you expect to have?
O2: To generate aims and objectives for the academic and vocational Bachelor programs in Indonesia's hospitality and tourism higher education.	7. What aims and objectives of vocational D IV/academic Bachelor programs do you recommend? 8. To achieve the aims and objectives, what knowledge and skills should the graduates of vocational D IV/ academic Bachelor have?
O3: To develop the content of the curriculum for the academic and vocational Bachelor programs in Indonesia's hospitality and tourism higher education	9. Given the aims and objectives, what would be the emphasis of content or subject area of vocational D IV/academic Bachelor programs?
O4: To develop the prevailing learning and instruction for the academic and vocational Bachelor programs in Indonesia's hospitality and tourism higher education.	10. What range of learning and teaching approaches are appropriate for vocational D IV and/or academic Bachelor? 11. What kind of activities do you propose to enhance students' soft skills? 12. How do lecturers' educational background and work experiences influence the delivery methods? 13. What is your suggestion regarding the characteristics of lecturers of vocational D IV/academic Bachelor?
O5: To develop the classification of assessment for the academic and vocational Bachelor programs in Indonesia's hospitality and tourism higher education.	14. What are the range of assessment approaches suitable for vocational D IV/academic Bachelor that you recommend? 15. How do you explain the characteristics of vocational D IV's final project/the Bachelor's thesis? 16. How do you typify the internship programs of vocational D IV/the academic Bachelor?

Note: Students of vocational program were only asked the questions related to vocational DIV, whereas the academic Bachelor students were only asked the questions concerning the academic Bachelor program.

Appendix 4: Interview Questions Guidelines for Government Officials

Objectives	Main Interview Questions
O1: To determine graduate profiles of Indonesia's hospitality and tourism undergraduate programs that suit the occupational needs of Indonesia's tourism industry.	1. What do you think of the current situation of Indonesia's tourism and hospitality industry and education? 2. What do you think the major challenges confronting Indonesia's tourism and hospitality industry and education in the next 10 years or so? 3. What kind of occupations does Indonesia need to promote its tourism industry? 4. How do graduates from vocational D IV and academic Bachelor programs fill in the desired occupational needs? 5. In what sector of hospitality and tourism do you think graduates of vocational D IV and academic Bachelor programs should work?
O2: To generate aims and objectives for the academic and vocational Bachelor programs in Indonesia's hospitality and tourism higher education.	6. What aims and objectives of vocational D IV and academic Bachelor programs do you recommend? 7. To achieve the aims and objectives, what knowledge and skills should the graduates of vocational D IV and academic Bachelor have?
O3: To develop the content of the curriculum for the academic and vocational Bachelor programs in Indonesia's hospitality and tourism higher education	8. Given the aims and objectives, what would be the emphasis of content or subject area of vocational D IV and academic Bachelor programs?
O4: To develop the prevailing learning and instruction for the academic and vocational Bachelor programs in Indonesia's hospitality and tourism higher education.	9. What range of learning and teaching approaches are appropriate for vocational D IV and/or academic Bachelor? 10. What kind of activities do you propose to enhance students' soft skills? 11. How do lecturers' educational background and work experiences influence the delivery methods? 12. What is your suggestion regarding the characteristics of vocational D IV lecturers and academic Bachelor lecturers?
O5: To develop the classification of assessment for the academic and vocational Bachelor programs in Indonesia's hospitality and tourism higher education.	13. What are the range of assessment approaches suitable for vocational D IV and academic Bachelor that you recommend? 14. How do you explain the characteristics of vocational D IV's final project and the Bachelor's thesis? 15. How do you typify the internship programs of vocational D IV and the academic Bachelor?

Appendix 5: Consent Form

THE HONG KONG POLYTECHNIC UNIVERSITY
香港理工大學

CONSENT TO PARTICIPATE IN RESEARCH

TITLE OF RESEARCH PROJECT:
A Curriculum Framework for Hospitality and Tourism Higher Education in Indonesia: An Exploratory Study

I _____ hereby consent to participate in the captioned research conducted by Hera Oktadiana, a PhD student of School of Hotel & Tourism Management, the Hong Kong Polytechnic University .

I understand that information obtained from this research may be used in future research and published. However, my right to privacy will be retained, i.e. my personal details will not be revealed. I am also aware that the interview will be recorded.

This study aims to examine curriculum for the vocational-based undergraduate (i.e. Diploma IV program) and academic-based undergraduate (i.e. Bachelor degree program) of hospitality and tourism higher education in Indonesia. This study will involve an in-depth interview, which will take about 60 minutes.

I understand the benefit and risks involved. My participation in the project is voluntary.

I acknowledge that I have the right to question any part of the procedure and can withdraw at any time without penalty of any kind.

Name of participant : _____

Signature of participant : _____

Name of researcher : Hera Oktadiana

Signature of researcher : _____

Date : _____

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