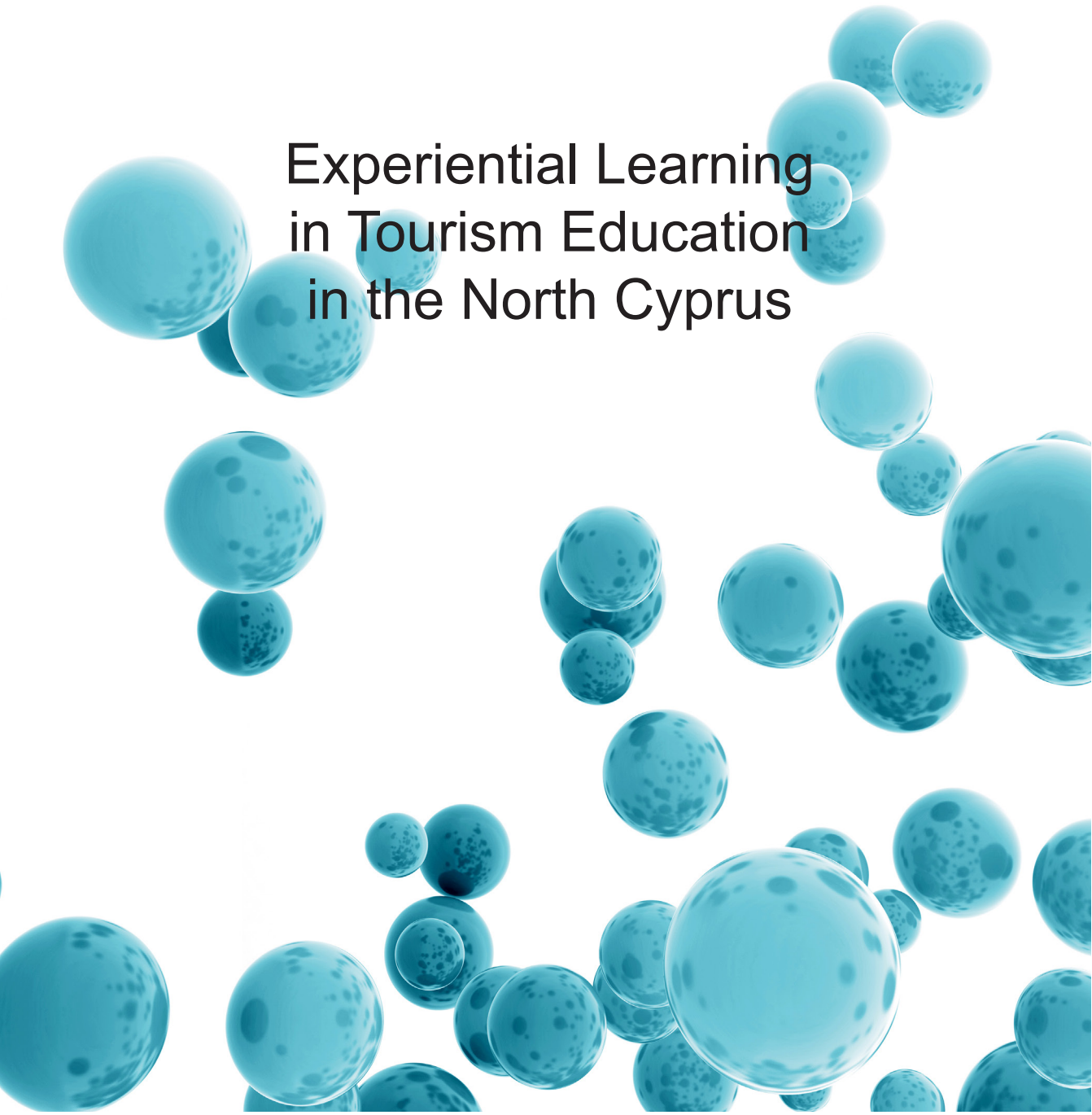KENAN BAŞARAN

Experiential Learning in Tourism Education in the North Cyprus

KENAN BAŞARAN

Experiential Learning
in Tourism Education
in the North Cyprus

■

ACADEMIC DISSERTATION
To be presented, with the permission of
the Board of the School of Education of the University of Tampere,
for public discussion in the auditorium Virta 109,
Åkerlundinkatu 5, Tampere,
on 27 May 2016, at 12 o'clock.

UNIVERSITY OF TAMPERE

KENAN BAŞARAN

Experiential Learning in Tourism Education in the North Cyprus

UNIVERSITY
OF TAMPERE

The originality of this thesis has been checked using the Turnitin OriginalityCheck service
in accordance with the quality management system of the University of Tampere.

Cover design by
Mikko Reinikka

CONTENT

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

    AC   Abstract Conceptualization

    ACPHA   Accrediation Commission for Programmes in Hospitality
              Administration

AE	Active Conceptualization
CE	Concrete Experience
CHRIE	International Council on Hotel, Restaurant and Institutional Education
CIU	Cyprus International University
EHEA	Europian Higher Education Area
EMU	Eastern Mediterranean University
ESECT	Enhancing Student Employability Co-ordination Team
EUL	Europian University of Lefke
GAU	Girne American University
KKTC	Kuzey Kıbrıs Türk Cumhuriyeti (Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus)
METU	Middle East Technical University
NEU	Near East University
OECD	Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development
RO	Reflective Observation
STHM	School of Tourism and Hospitality Management
STMNET	Science, Technology, Engineering and Mathematics Network
TEDQUAL	International Standards for Education in Tourism and Hospitality
TRNC	Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus
WTO	World Tourism Organization

ABSTRACT

Tourism industry in the Northern Cyprus is a major contributor to the economy of the country. Tourism and hospitality industry needs not only trained professionals but professionals with educational skills. This need has led to the rapid growth of tourism and hospitality education at the university level in the Northern Cyprus. Although the significance of tourism and hospitality education has been recognized all over the world for many years, it can be considered a relative newborn in comparison to other university level programmes in the Northern Cyprus. The objective of this study is to understand the relationship among the perceptions of the students, faculty and industry professionals towards the required industry competencies and the content of the four-year programme at EMU-STHM. This study is aiming to discover how successfully the present forms of teaching and learning at EMUSTHM have been combined by blending theory with practical experience through experiential learning and meet the needs and expectations of the industry. Based on the results of the objectives, this study will recommend improvements to effect a change to the curriculum of EMU-STHM.

The study focused on collection of data triangulated between the undergraduate students, faculty of EMU-STHM, and the managers of tourism and hospitality industry establishments in the region. The researcher-developed survey instruments were used to collect data over a period of four years. The data collected in this study was explored through a qualitative research approach. Within the qualitative research style, the researcher, acting as a moderator, used open ended questioning to promote increased conclusions through the medium of the interview process.

Keywords: Tourism and Hospitality Education, Competencies, Experiential Learning.

The following conclusions emerged from the present study:

Interpersonal skills, leadership skills, industrial training and experiential learning are essential components of EMU-STHM programmes for future success of graduates in the industry.

Theoretical content of the programme should be supported by practical and student-centered experiential learning activities so that the most beneficial learning will take place.

More continuous interaction and cooperation is needed between the school, industry and policymakers to ensure that tourism and hospitality education at EMU-STHM radically adapts the present curriculum to meet the fastest changing needs of tourism industry.

Tiivistelmä

Pohjois-Kyproksen matkailuelinkeinolla on keskeinen rooli maan taloudessa. Matkailu-jamajoitusala tarvitsee paitsi koulutettuja ammattilaisia myös ammattilaisia, joilla on pedagogisia taitoja. Tämä tarve on johtanut yliopistotason matkailualan koulutuksen nopeaan kasvuun Pohjois-Kyproksella. Vaikka alan koulutuksen merkitys on tunnustettu kaikkialla jo vuosia, yliopistollisena koulutusohjelmana Pohjois-Kyproksella se on melko tuore.

Tämän tutkimuksen tavoitteena oli lisätä ymmärrystä siitä, miten opiskelijat, yliopiston opettajat ja alan ammattilaiset näkevät matkailualan johtamisen tiedekunnassa toteutettavan matkailualan yliopistollisen koulutusohjelman vastaavan sisällöltään matkailu- ja majoitusalan tarpeita Pohjois-Kyproksella. Tutkimuksessa tarkasteltiin sitä, kuinka yliopiston koulutusohjelman opetusmenetelmissä yhdistetään teoriaa ja käytäntöä kokemusperäisen oppimisen avulla vastamaan alan tarpeisiin ja kentän odotuksiin. Tutkimuksen tiedonkeruussa käytettiin aineistonhankinnan triangulaatiota. Tietoa kerättiin sekä yliopisto-opiskelijoilta ja yliopiston opettajilta että alueen matkailuelinkeinoyritysten johtajilta. Tutkimusta varten kehitettiin kyselymenetelmä, jolla aineistoa kerättiin neljän vuoden ajan. Aineisto analysoitiin laadullisella tutkimusotteella. Analyysi kohdennettiin avointen kysymysten tuottamiin näkökulmiin haastatteluprosessin aikana.

Tutkimustulosten perusteella tutkimuksessa esitetään seuraavia johtopäätöksiä, joiden avulla matkailualan koulutusohjelmaa voidaan kehittää. Olennaisia tekijöitä yliopistollisessa matkailualan johtamisen koulutuksessa ovat vuorovaikutus- ja johtamistaidot, substanssialan koulutussisällöt sekä opetusmenetelmät, jotka perustuvat opiskelijan kokemusperäiseen oppimiseen. Nämä antavat perustaa opiskelijoiden menetykselle tulevaisuudessa matkailualalla. Paras oppimistulos saadaan, kun koulutusohjelman teoreettista sisältöä on tukemassa käytännönläheisiä sekä opiskelijalähtöisiä ja opiskelijan omaan kokemusoppimiseen perustuvia opetusmenetelmiä. Yliopiston, yrittäjien ja päättäjien jatkuvaa vuorovaikutusta ja yhteistyötä on lisättävä, jotta yliopistollinen matkailualan johtamisen koulutusohjelma uudistuu vastaamaan matkailualan nopeasti muuttuviin vaatimuksiin.

Avainsanat: matkailuala, koulutusohjelma, kokemuksellinen oppiminen, osaaminen ja pätevyys

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

This was a very, very long journey. It was started many years ago in Oulu University and ended up at Tampere University. I would never have been able to complete my dissertation without the administrative, academic and partly financial support of these institutions. I owe many thanks to the people I met at these universities; especially the academic staff of Early Childhood Education department at Tampere University and Dr. Jarmo KINOS for his friendly but professional guidance. I would also like to thank Dr. Mani RAJBHANDARI, who contributed in the development of theoretical finding of my research; "Theor*active* Learning".

I would like to express my warmest and deepest gratitude to my advisor, Dr. Eeva HUJALA, for her sincere help, guidance, patience, and thank her for providing me with an excellent atmosphere for doing my research studies. I would also like to thank her life-partner Dr. Veijo NIVALA for his friendship and hospitality. He was always willing to help and gave his best suggestions.

My special thanks goes to my revisers, Dr. Iiris AALTIO and Dr. Hasan KILIC, whose comments and suggestions on their preliminary evaluation reports shed light on my final draft.

Finally, I would like to thank Dr. Pauli JUUTI for kindly accepting to be the opponent at the defense of my dissertation.

DEDICATION

To my sweetheart, my daughter, GiZEM.

   CiCi KIZIM GiZEM'e

CHAPTER 1,
INTRODUCTION

Tourism and hospitality industry is one of the fastest growing segments within the economy of many countries (Gailliard, 2010). This multi-billion dollar industry generated 76 trillion US Dollar (10% of global GDP) and 277 million jobs (1 in 11 jobs) for the global economy in 2014 (World Travel and Tourism Council, 2015). As stated by the World Tourism Organization (W.T.O), international tourist arrivals hit a record 1133 million worldwide in 2014, up from 1087 million in 2013. Receipts from international visitors spending on services and goods reached an estimated 1245 billion US Dollar (937 billion euro) in 2014, an increase of 3.7% in real terms. Europe, which accounts for 41% of worldwide international tourism receipts, saw the largest increase in absolute terms: up by 17 billion US Dollar to reach 509 billion US Dollar (383 billion euro) (UNWTO, 2015). According to Tourism Towards 2030, the number of international tourist arrivals worldwide is expected to increase by an average of 3.3% a year over the period 2010 to 2030. In absolute numbers, international tourist arrivals will increase by some 43 million a year, compared with an average increase of 28 million a year during the period 1995 to 2010. At the projected rate of growth, international tourist arrivals worldwide are expected to reach 1.4 billion by 2020 and 1.8 billion by the year 2030 (UNWTO, 2015).

1.1. North Cyprus as a Research Context

As a Mediterranean island, North Cyprus' economy depends on tourism. In North Cyprus, tourism is a significant contributor to the GDP. When we consider the scale of disadvantage and isolation that has been imposed on North Cyprus, the importance of the tourism and hospitality industry can be seen clearly due to its unspoilt natural beauty and cultural heritage (Nadiri and Tanova, 2010). Therefore, tourism industry, as it is in many islands in the Mediterranean and Aegean Sea countries, is the major contributor to the budget of the Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus (TRNC).

The TRNC, comprising about 37% (3.555 sq. km) of Cyprus Island (9,250 sq. km.) with a population of 301,400 and a GNP of 3.6 billion U.S. dollars in 2015, is a major holiday destination in Eastern Mediterranean. For this reason, there is a regular increase in the number of tourists visiting North Cyprus when it is compared with the figures of the previous years. According to the latest statistics released by the State Planning Office of TRNC, 625,000 tourists visited North Cyprus in 2015 and a total 776,000 stays, they generated net tourism revenue of 750 million U.S. dollars which meets the 26,2% of trade balance of the country (State Planning Office, 2015).

Inter-communal negotiations in 2004 came very close to bring a substantial solution to the Cyprus dispute within the framework of "Annan Plan" of United Nations. Although a settlement could not be achieved due to the rejection of Annan Plan by Greek Cypriots, the developments that took place afterwards continued to contribute to the tourism industry of Northern Cyprus. Especially, the European Council Regulation called the Green Line Regulations, which organize the passage of goods and people have contributed significantly in increasing the number of tourists travelling to North Cyprus (Altinay et al., 2005). As a result of a boost in confidence to the Turkish North, political and economic isolation of the Northern Cyprus will be reduced by EU and direct flights are expected to be allowed by the International Civil Aviation Organization. Therefore, North Cyprus should prepare for an onslaught in the travel and hospitality industry.

According to the Economy and Tourism Ministry of North Cyprus, revenue from tourism in the Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus (TRNC) is up by 28 per cent on last year. If this is compared with the same time last year, the increase in the number of tourists in Northern Cyprus is 33 per cent. One of the reasons for the increase is the consequences of the Green Line Regulations announced in May, 2004 by the European Commission allowing EU citizens to cross freely into the North.

1.2. Tourism Industry in North Cyprus

Cyprus is a small island with limited natural resources and markets that based its economic developments on service industry (Altinay et. al., 2005). Tourism sector is the leading sector of TRNC economy. As a result of being a small island state,

the only area that TRNC has approximate favored position is tourism and hospitality industry. Among its major strengths, North Cyprus has its unspoiled and undiscovered sceneries, hospitality of its people, 12 months of holiday opportunity with its sunny weather, richness of flora and fauna, shores and beaches, and rich environmental, cultural and historical heritage (State Planning Office, 2015). Currently there are 139 tourist accommodation establishments with 19,493 beds available. Providing incentives to the entrepreneurs by the TRNC government, the bed capacity of the country is targeted to be 25 thousand within three years.

North Cyprus is considered to be emerging new market for European tourists. In the wake of increasing competition and dramatic changes occurring in the tourism industry in North Cyprus, there is a need for industry shareholders to recognize the importance of staff and service improvements in establishing a competitive advantage (Nadiri and Tanova, 2010). Since the Northern Cyprus is expected to move into a position to advance in the tourism and hospitality industry, a better-educated and more capable workforce is vitally needed than before. However, trained workforce shortages are not an unusual phenomenon in Northern Cyprus (TRNC Tourism Planning Office, 2015). These shortages directly affect the collective tourism and hospitality industry on the island. A recent survey of WTO reported that many Eastern Mediterranean and Middle-East countries are in the need of qualified professionals. This is because tourism and hospitality education and training bear with a lack of financial resources, workforce planning, training programmes, on-the-job training schools and facilitators to meet the expectations and training needs of tourism and hospitality management students. Accordingly, formal education becomes the primary tool to equip students with the technical and interpersonal competencies required by the tourism and hospitality industry.

1.3. Education Industry in North Cyprus

The higher education in Northern Cyprus is provided by 9 universities with more than 81.000 local and international students in 2015 – 2016 academic years. All of these educational institutions have been established since 1974. EMU, which is a state-trust university, is an internationally recognized institution of higher learning with more than 1100 faculty members from 45 different countries and 20.000

students representing 98 nationalities including Balkan, African, Middle East countries and former Soviet Republics. These universities present a broad range programmes via the faculties of Communication, Education, Health, Arts and Sciences, Law, Engineering and Tourism leading to BA, MA, and PhD degrees in various fields. Except some of the programmes like Teacher Education and Turkish Literature, Health, Law, etc., the medium of instruction in general is English.

Tourism and hospitality four-year-programme at EMU-STHM was established in 1992 and is the oldest programme among the schools and departments of other universities offering similar programmes. However, tourism and hospitality education in the Northern Cyprus is still regarded as relatively new when it is compared with the other programmes within colleges and universities.

To develop an effective programme, it is critical to examine the important competencies that ensure graduates of tourism and hospitality management programmes success in the industry. Most managers in the hotel industry are trained in the classical management style, which emphasizes the functions of planning, leading, and controlling (Tracy and Hinkin, 1994). As a result, there is little room for individual creativity and innovation because of adhering to rules and regulations (Warwick, 1975). However, innovation and creativity are the key attributes that distinguish one hotel from another. As Hanson (1993) pointed out, creativity is a characteristic that is essential for hotel operations and administration. In addition to Hanson, some experts, such as Buergmeister (1983), Tas (1988), Okeiyi, Finley, and Postel (1994), and Kay and Rusette (2000), proposed different viewpoints on qualifications and competencies required by the members of tourism and hospitality industry.

When planning and developing curriculum, it is important to declare the purpose to be served (Foshay, 1995). According to Nelson (1994), hospitality education is designed to train and educate individuals with the professional expertise and skills to enter the industry. However, Pizam (1987) stated that tourism and hospitality education programmes have to expand their curriculum and should not limit them to tourism and hospitality specific content. Whichever the focuses are, it is imperative that educators offer a curriculum that satisfies the requirements of both the industry and the students (Deveau and Deveau, 1990).

Evaluations of tourism education programmes at the national level have been completed for several countries (Wu et. al., 2014). In the Northern Cyprus, the effectiveness of tourism and hospitality management courses is also the most essential issue that must be examined. The study conducted by Basaran (2001), indicated that hoteliers of international tourist hotels criticize hospitality programmes for not meeting the demands of industry. The standards and the levels of tourism and hospitality services in the North Cyprus are generally recognized as unsatisfying of those expected by an average traveler (Basaran, 2001). Finally, many researches indicate that visitors and guests often criticize the services in the Northern Cyprus tourism and hospitality industry (e.g., Karatepe, and Avci, 2002, Kozak et al., 2003, Yavas et. al., 2004). With respect to increase the quality standards of the service, there is a tremendous requirement for better tourism and hospitality education. Therefore, it is crucial to examine and review the present tourism and hospitality management programmes which are initiated by universities and colleges, and identify important skills and competencies required by the industry.

Many leading tourism and hospitality programmes presently integrate an experiential learning element into their curriculum (Lee, 2006). The idea of learning through experience is not new. About a century ago, John Dewey tried to express the complicated, foundational relationship between direct hand-on experience and meaningful learning. According to his philosophy, Dewey claims that true learning comes through educative experiences (Dewey, 1933). Experiential learning, whether it occurs within or beyond the formal classroom environment, is centered on the concept that "informally acquired knowledge and skills may be as significant as learning through any formal means" and there is "recognition that individuals can and do learn by doing as well as through formal instruction, and most important, that many learn without being taught at all" (Evans, 1994, p.2).

There has been growth of experiential learning initiatives in programmes that bridge experience and learning (Kraft, 1995). Internships, cooperative-based programmes, study abroad, service learning, adventure education, and prior learning assessment have all begun to develop exponentially among the academic society since the 1960's. Schools and colleges of education, colleges of business, recreation programmes, vocational programmes, schools of social work, nursing education, and other programs and disciplines within the aegis of higher education

now promote and utilize experiential learning as means to educate students (Cantor, 1997).

1.4. Statement of the Problem

Tourism and hospitality industry is a major benefactor to the economy of the Northern Cyprus. The Tourism Ministry of TRNC forecasts that after the solution of Cyprus issue, overseas arrivals are estimated to reach over one million as the direct flights to the Northern Cyprus will be allowed and the political and economic embargoes will be lifted. Therefore, with the financial support of the mainland Turkey and providing incentives to the foreign investors by TRNC government, the current number of 19,500 beds for tourist accommodation in North Cyprus will be 25,000 in three years.

As a result of growing economic, social and political importance of tourism and hospitality industry in the Northern Cyprus, there is a demand and necessity for training and education in this field. Recognizing the need for educated and qualified professionals in all levels of tourism and hospitality industry, five of the total six universities in Northern Cyprus have been offering tourism and hospitality programmes at varying academic levels. All degree programmes at these institutions require a compulsory industrial training (internship) for programme completion.

Tourism and hospitality management programmes are the primary means to prepare students to have the competencies required by the industry; however, the industry representatives criticize the schools for producing poorly prepared graduates (Basaran, 2001). Some of these industry professionals complain and claim that tourism and hospitality education is losing touch with the industry (Basaran, 2001). Furthermore, current research studies indicate that guests and visitors often complain about services in the Northern Cyprus tourism and hospitality industry (e.g., Kozak et all, 2003, Karatepe and Avci, 2002, Yavas et all, 2004). As a result, the question of how to design effective programmes to meet the expectations and requirements of the industry has remained unsolved. The similar comments come from industry professionals as well (Cassado, 1991). One of the major problems is the gap between the perceptions of educators and practitioners toward important industry competencies and curriculum. Additionally, Robinson

(1992), Cotton (1991), and Lesie (1993) pointed out that a misconnection between real skills of students and the needs and expectations of the industry is the main cause of poor retention rates among graduates in the industry.

Identification of the knowledge and competencies required managing effectively in the tourism and hospitality industry and application of the most effective teaching and learning methods are prerequisite to any programme development. Therefore, various researches required to be conducted to decide important knowledge, competencies, and effective teaching and learning methods that practitioners are seeking to prepare students for meeting these industry needs. Moreover, it would be crucial to identify the perceptions of students, educators and industry practitioners towards industry competencies and the effectiveness of the courses found in most tourism and hospitality management curricula. If differences exist, then educational institutions and the tourism industry should be informed and appropriate adjustments may be considered.

1.5. Purpose of the Study

The primary purpose of the present study is to investigate how effectively the tourism and hospitality management degree programme at EMU-STHM meets the needs and expectations of the industry and to identify the perceptions in the areas of competencies and experiential learning of undergraduate and trainee students, faculty from all academic level, and tourism industry professionals in the region. The specific purposes of this study were to explore the perceptions of tourism and hospitality shareholders about the competencies required by the tourism and hospitality industry, to develop awareness of the importance of experiential learning to the education of tourism students, to examine whether a gap exists between the perceptions of educators and industry managers towards required skills and the EMU-STHM curriculum and to recommend improvements to affect a change to the curriculum in order to donate its graduates better with necessary skills to perform and manage successfully in the dynamic and rapidly changing tourism industry.

This was the first study which has introduced experiential learning to tourism and hospitality education, and industry shareholders in north Cyprus. It was necessary to conduct this research study in order to understand the

perceptions of these shareholders on this concept. Therefore, based on the empirical and theoretical findings of this qualitative research study, additional studies are needed to continue exploring how experiential learning strategies can be implemented both into the school curriculum and the industry practices.

1.6. Research Questions

In this study, a qualitative research approach was applied in order to investigate the following objectives:

(1) to discover the perceptions of shareholders (students, faculty and industry representatives) towards the competencies required for entry level positions in tourism and hospitality industry,

(2) to identify the perceptions of shareholders on experiential learning,

(3) to explore whether there is a gap among the perceptions of shareholders towards the required competencies,

(4) to understand whether the EMU-STHM programme meets the needs and expectations of the industry, and finally to recommend improvements
to effect a change to the curriculum of EMU-STHM.

Therefore, the problem statement of this study is: whether EMU-STHM programme educate its students to meet the needs, requirements and expectations of fast changing tourism and hospitality industry through experiential education. On the basis of research problem and the theoretical framework, this research study addresses this problem through the following research questions:

(1) Which competencies do shareholders expect from EMU-STHM graduates to excel during their studies?

(2) What are the perceptions of shareholders on experiential learning in tourism and hospitality education and industry?

(3) What are the differences among the perceptions of stakeholders towards the required competencies in tourism and hospitality industry? And finally,

(4) How does EMU-STHM programme meet the needs and expectations of the shareholders?

It is assumed that the findings from this research study will produce a foundation for positive initiatives for future change to supply and accommodate the human resource requirements of tourism and hospitality industry in Northern Cyprus.

1.7. Significance of the Study

Tourism and hospitality management programmes are generally following either European hospitality education model which emphasizes technical skills, or American hospitality education model which focuses on strategic management and leadership. However, because of the cultural and structural differences of tourism and hospitality industry in different countries, neither American, nor European tourism and hospitality education model should be directly transferred to the Northern Cyprus. Educators in the north Cyprus must develop their own programmes to meet the industry needs.

There has not been a research study published which is similar to the present study focusing on the relationships between the tourism and hospitality management programmes in the Northern Cyprus and important competencies that is required by the industry. Utilizing input from the representatives of the industry, academicians and students, this research study will supply administrators and instructors a basis for curriculum development by effective use of experiential learning in tourism and hospitality management programmes in the Northern Cyprus. This study may be presumed valuable to people in tourism and hospitality industry as a guide to understand contemporary trends in university's tourism and hospitality management programmes in order to offer appropriate suggestions. This study is also considered beneficial to students presently studying in tourism and hospitality management program. The study can serve as an enlightening reference to students in understanding the importance of experiential learning to provide expertise or qualifications that the industry is seeking in the graduates of

tourism and hospitality management programme. Utilizing the knowledge of the educational opinion of practitioners and educators is important in establishing an effective programme in tourism and hospitality management.

1.8. Organization of the Study

This research study was organized and reported into six chapters as follows: (see Figure 1.)

Chapter One presents the statement of the problem, problem background, purpose of the study, research questions, significance of the study, and organization of the study.

Chapter Two reviews and summarizes the important concepts and literature from multiple disciplines for better understanding of experiential learning and draw a theoretical framework of this research study.

Chapter Three presents comprehensive literature reviews related to historical developments of tourism and hospitality management as part of higher education both in the world and in the Northern Cyprus, identification of required industry competencies like interpersonal skills, leadership, and employability skills of potential managers of tourism and hospitality industry, the significance of industrial training and the direction of tourism and hospitality management curriculum developments in terms of experiential learning.

Chapter Four contains the research strategy and research design through the selection of research approach, population, instrumentation, data processing and analysis, and ethical consideration.

Chapter Five focuses upon the summary of the empirical results including analysis and interpretation of them.

Chapter Six depicts the summary of the study and discussions of the results while answering the research questions.

Chapter Seven introduces theoretical findings of this study. This chapter also assesses the trustworthiness of the research and finally the implications for

practice, recommendations from the study and suggestions for future research studies.

Figure.1   Structure of the dissertation
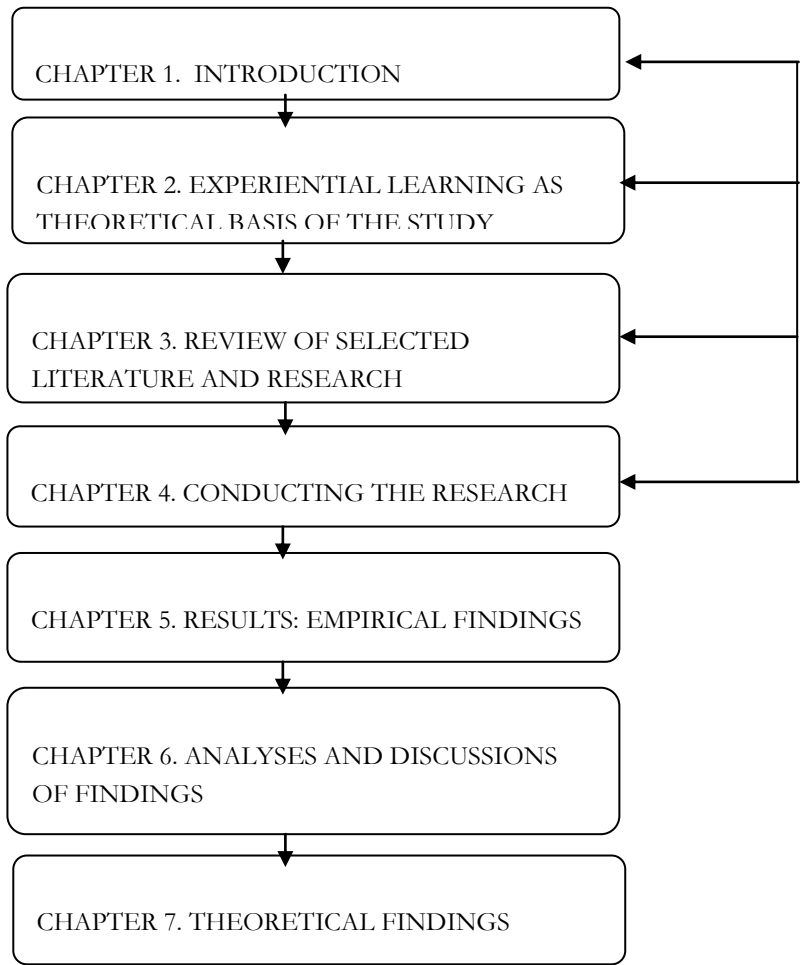
CHAPTER 2,
EXPERIENTIAL LEARNING AS THEORETICAL BASIS OF THE RESEARCH STUDY

Based on the important concepts and theories in the existing literature, the following chapter is going to review and summarize the literature from multiple disciplines for better understanding of experiential learning and draw a theoretical framework for this research study.

There is a considerable interest accross Europe today in expanding the number of learners in vocational education and training through apprenticeship; e.g. Europian Commisssion 2010, 2012 (Mazenod.2015). For centuries craftsmen have used apprenticeship to learn and teach their skills and these skills have been passed down from generation to generation to perform their daily tasks. The young, accompany the experienced to do the job site every day, and learn by following the lead of experts in the field (Steffes, 2004). Employed by the master craftsman, the journeyman would be bound to his mater for a number of years, and often traveling to encourage the expansion of such training and skills (Astleitner and Wiesner, 2004).

The evolution of theoretical foundations of experiential learning goes back to early 1900s through the work of John Dewey and Kurt Lewin. The philosophers Jean Piaget and David Kolb's well-known works followed them. They all focused on not only the importance of trying theory to practice, but also the reflections of the learners on the experience as well. This method of teaching and learning is very different than a traditional higher education programme, although many learning environments today have progressed far beyond the reach of the classroom walls (Steffes, 2004).

David Kolb's experiential learning model has become very popular in the field of education among the practitioners and the researchers today. Kolb's model draws from the origins of John Dewey, Kurt Lewin, and Jean Piaget. These theorists offered a concrete foundation in experiential learning that formulated Kolb's model. The significance of each of these theorists and how their models come to an end in Kolb's model will be discussed in the followings paragraphs.

2.1 Experience and Education

"Tell me, and I will forget. Show me, and I may remember. Involve me, and I will understand." Confucius around 450 BC.

John Dewey is the pioneer of the theoretical framework underlying experience centered curriculum design. In his book Experience and Education, he explains the relationship between "experience", "curriculum" and "learning". He believes that " a coherence theory of experience affording a positive direction to selection and organization of appropriate educational methods and materials is required by the attempt to give new direction to the work of schools" and " it is cardinal principle of education that the beginning of instruction shall be made with the experience learners already have; that this experience and the capacities that have been developed during its course provide the starting point for all further learning" (Dewey, 1933, p.21).

Learning from experience is one of the most essential and logical means of learning applicable to anyone. The idea of learning through experience is not new. Over half a century ago, John Dewey tried to express the complicated, basic relationship between direct hands-on experience and meaningful learning. Nearly all of his seminal works were built around one relationship.

> Before the child goes to school, he learns with his hand, eye and ear, because they are the organs of the process of doing something from which meaning results. The boy flying a kite has to keep his eye on the kite, and has to note the various pressure of the string on his hand. His senses are avenues of knowledge not because external factors are somehow "conveyed" to the brain, but because they are used in doing something with a purpose (Dewey, 1938, p.142).

Thus, Dewey suggested that we naturally design our learning through an endless lifelong cycle. He called these cycles as primary and secondary experience. While primary experience is generally active or often physical, secondary experience is reflective, and more mental. Riding a bicycle, baking a cake or giving a speech is typical examples of primary experience. However, we can process

secondary experiences in different ways such as by personal journaling or by getting feedback from mentors or peers. Accordingly, straight, hands-on experiences inspire issues which are moved to explore and process, and the significant consequences of this processing likely to bring us to other experiences. This continual cycling between these two components constitutes the basic cycle of experiential learning (Dewey, 1916, 1938). Figure 2 represents the endless cycling relation between theory and practice.

Figure 2. The relationship between theory and practice (endless cycling)
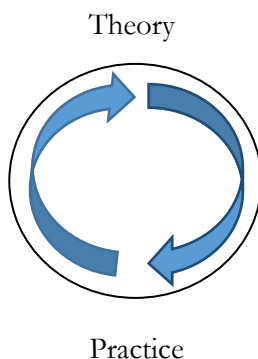
Theory

Practice

The concept that knowledge is acquired from both theory and practice has a long history (Chung, 2007). In fact, integrating theory and practice was a preoccupation of Dewey (1938). He drew attention to the limitations of formal education and the fact much of what we were supposed to learn in school was no longer accessible. He considered that when learning occurred in isolation, it was disconnected from the rest of child's experience. Thus, because it was segregated and not linked through experience to the child's memory, it became impossible to retrieve it. In his book Experience and Education (1938), John Dewey emphasized that theoretical abstractions have a connection with practical matter; however, theory becomes abstract in the remote sense when it ignores practical application. Dewey considered experiential learning is the way to bridge the gap between education and experience. Dewey maintained that experience and education are one and the same; his pragmatic emphasis was in opposition to external imposition of ideas, facts, and concepts that are divorced from real-world experiences (Milne, 2000). He strongly believed in the significance of offering students direct experience in solving real-world questions (Card, 2000).

Dewey (1938) places more emphasis on developmental nature of learning. According to his model, the formation of purposes is then a rather complex intellectual operation. It involves: (1) *observation* of surrounding conditions; (2) *knowledge* of what has happened in similar situations in the past, a knowledge obtained partly by recollection and partly from information, advice, and warning of those who have a wider experience; and (3) *judgment*, which puts together what is observed and what is recalled to see what they signify. The crucial educational problem is that of procuring the postponement of immediate action upon desire until observation and judgment have intervened (Brandon, 2012). (See figure, 3)

Figure 3. Dewey's learning process

Observation

Judgment   owledge
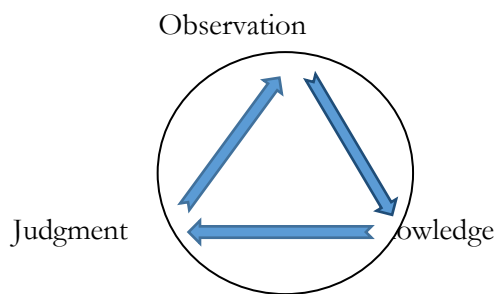
Theories are abstract conceptualizations of how thoughts and external objects relate to one another in a consistent manner. They inform and guide us in our practice, and enable us to gain insights into various events in which we are involved. If our realistic experiences do not suit or fit into our theory of how we anticipate things ought to be, then we often modify our theories or sometimes reorganize the experience to be able to observe if it can be agreed with our way of looking at the world. Accordingly, there is an uninterrupted interplay of theory and practice in which each informs the other (Beard and Wilson, 2002).

The idea of experiential learning, whether it occurs within or beyond the formal classroom environment, is centered on the concept that "informally acquired knowledge and skill may be as significant as learning through any formal means" and there is "recognition that individuals can learn by doing as well as through formal instruction, and most important, that many learn without being taught at all" (Evans, 1994, p.2). Evans (1994) believes that the central challenge

posed by experiential learning for formal institutions of education is a reorganization of their strategies so that they may take full advantage of all the ways that individuals learn. Evan further suggests that "A college or university needs to become a Learning Centre where classroom teaching is seen as only one opportunity offered to individual students" (p. 104).

2.2 Developments of Experiential Learning

The development of understanding about experiential learning is grounded in philosophical thought, and many authors including Dewey, Lewin, Piaget, and Kolb drew upon this heritage. Kurt Lewin, the creator of social psychology in the U.S.A., was highly appreciated with contributing greatly to the concepts of experiential learning between 1930s and 1940s (Kolb, 1984). "The consistent theme in all Lewin's work was his concern for the integration of theory and practice, stimulated if not created by his experience as a refugee to the United States from Nazi Germany" (Kolb, 1984. P.9). Kurt Lewin's curiosity lay in social issues like children's prosperity, oppressed people, and governance of peoples. Lewin's assumption of education was committed to democracy, necessitating that individuals had to actively cooperate and that this pattern of education was superior to more traditional autocratic methods (Gold, 2014). Lewin's model is very much alike with the model of Dewey, whose experiential learning philosophy resulted from his research studies on group dynamics (See Figure 3). Lewin's model is still used today in training and organizational development (See Figure 4).

The Lewin's experiential learning model, just like Kolb's model, is a four stage cycle which begins with a concrete experience, and observations and reflections are analyzed. The next stage is formation and generalizations of abstract concepts and the last stage comprises the conclusions to examine implications which are acquired in new situations. Lewin suggested that the concrete experience and feedback process are two very essential stages of this cycle, and without feedback, organizations may target on actions and decisions without mirroring to decisive feedback that is implemented in decision making (Kolb, 1984).

However, Kolb (1984) asserted that Lewin's description of learning process is relatively similar to that of Dewey's model (see Figure 3), which involved

observation, knowledge, and judgment. Kolb also described how Lewin's action research and T-group training in laboratories was influenced by the concept of feedback that was used by electrical engineers. This process involved concrete experience, observations and reflections, formation of abstract concepts and generalizations, and testing implications of concepts in new situations.

Figure 4. Levin's feedback process

Concrete experience

Testing implications
of concepts
in new situations

Observations and
reflections

Formation of abstract concepts
and generalizations
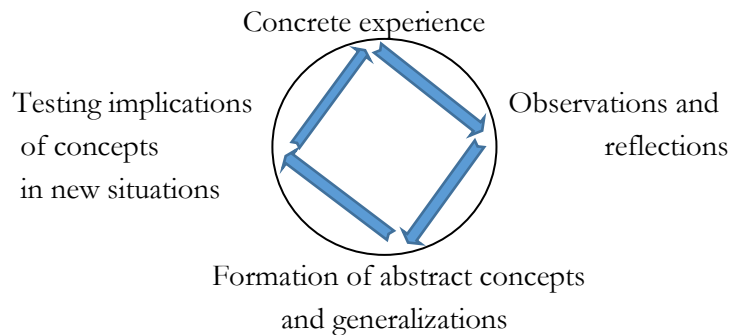
2.3 Learning and Cognitive Development

Another major contribution to experiential learning is that of Jean Piaget, a Swiss psychologist and epistemologist. Although Dewey is accepted as the founder of experiential learning in America, Cunnigham (1999) recognizes Jean Piaget to be his equivalent who contributed much to the development of European movement in experiential learning. Jean Piaget's studies in developmental psychology further contributed to this concept in that "intelligence is shaped by experience" (Kolb, 1984).

Figure 5. Piaget's Learning and Cognitive Development

Concrete experience

Abstract conceptualization
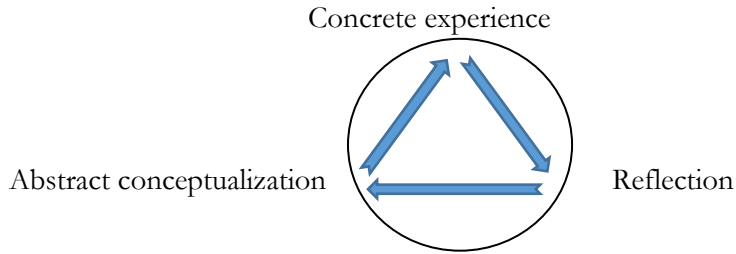
Reflection

In Piaget's model, (See Figure 5) cognitive development cycle begins with concrete experience stage. In this stage knowledge is gained through sensory impressions such as feeling and touching, and moves to a reflective stage which involves the manipulation of images and symbols. Then, individuals begin to perform logical operations where children start categorizing items and measuring, counting and talking about length, area and width of them. The final stage of the cycle rotates around learning as convergent because the individuals are able to use the previous stages of concrete experience, reflection, and abstract conceptualization in order to test their beliefs and ideas. Therefore, they are able to understand abstract concepts like rate, ratio, percentage and proportion (Kolb, 1984).

The essence of Piaget's work is the description of how intelligence (learning) is shaped by experience. He believed that competence evolves from experience and the process of growth includes learning through stages. Thus, learning is the output of interaction between the individuals and their environment and action (experience) is the key. Therefore his focus was on cognitive-development process. Dissimilar to Kolb's uninterrupted cycle of experiential learning, Piaget promoted his model to define growth from infants through teenagers. He considered that individuals develop through these stages over time.

2.4 Experiential Learning Model

Dewey, Lewin and Piaget shape the foundation for David Kolb's experiential learning model. In fact, David Kolb is one of the most influential writers on experiential learning. Kolb, himself, looked at the process of experiential learning

and drew on the legacy of the perspectives provided by Dewey, Lewin, and Piaget. He has continued and fixed his ancestors' theories and ideas together into a close-knit framework that now contributes the modern foundation of experiential learning.

Kolb and Kolb (2005) provide more insight into the definition of experiential learning through propositions of experiential learning theory. These propositions include: (1) Learning is best conceived as a process, not in terms of outcomes. (2) All learning is relearning. (3) Learning requires the resolution of conflicts between dialectically opposed modes of adaptation to the world. (4) Learning is a holistic process of adaptation to the world. (5) Learning results from synergetic transactions between the person and the environment. (6) Learning is the process of creating knowledge (Austin and Rust, 2015).

Kolb's experiential learning theory describes learning as "the process whereby knowledge is created through the transformation of experience. Knowledge results from the combination of grasping and transforming experience" (Kolb 1984, p. 41). Stressing the importance he wrote "Experiential learning theory offers…the foundation for an approach to education and learning as a lifelong process that is soundly based in intellectual traditions of psychology, philosophy, and cognitive philosophy" (p.3-4). Kolb also removed the concepts of experiential learning out of the common territory of academia and directly implemented the ideas of experiential learning to distinguishing occupational areas of education such as business and engineering (Kolb, 1984).

Figure 6. Kolb's experiential learning cycle
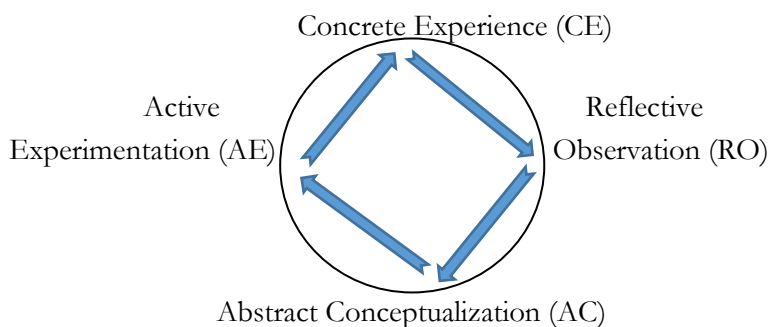
Kolb's experiential learning model is a four-stage cycle: concrete experience, reflective observation, abstract conceptualization, and active experimentation (See Figure 6). In order for learning to be educational, the learner must engage in experience through all phases of this model. Kolb's experiential learning model begins with a concrete experience (CE). Individuals can acquire information through direct sensory experiences. Everything we touch, taste, hear or see represents the concrete experience. This stage can include role playing, game simulations or structured exercises as all these activities are action oriented where individuals learn by doing. Through this stage of concrete experience, individuals are able to generate their own ideas about the situation. The next step, reflective observation (RO), involves observing and reflecting on what happened during experience. In this stage, the learners are able to communicate what they recognized during the situation in the first stage. This new information includes observations, feelings and reactions from the perception of the learner. The next stage is abstract conceptualization (AC) where the individuals think of the principles, concepts, and generalizations that link the process from the second step. This may occur through group discussions where individuals are asked to process their observations, feelings and reactions to make a more generalized statement. This is one of the most important stages of the cycle as individuals are able to test their own feelings and reactions to those of others that experienced the same or similar situations. The more open the individuals in the group to share their experiences, the more learning can be achieved. The final stage of this model is active experimentation (AE). This application stage allows the individuals to test their new ideas in new situation which was similar to the first concrete experience. This last stage also begins the start of a new cycle (Kolb, 1984). This cycle starts over every time the learner has a new experience. Individuals are faced with situations on a daily bases, and they continuously test concepts and observations, making changes when they feel necessary. This cycle implies that experience is the springboard for new learning (Gardner and Korth, 1997).

The advantages and the importance of experiential learning have been discussed in many studies. Rogers (1969), Bruce (1987), Wish (1989), and Cannon and Smith (1998) stated that the kind of internship educational experience provides the students the best opportunity of applying the theory learned in the classroom to practical working situation. Similarly, Shenker and Heinemann (1987) pointed

out that students could develop greater independence and responsibility, as well as benefit from the skills they have gained during the work experience while entering the labor market. Nelson (1994) added that the students had the opportunities to test their career choice. Sommers (1986) suggested that retention in the hospitality industry might be enhanced by participation in certain types of experiential learning. Moreover, Craig and Evers (1981) argued that employers could benefit from the opportunities of assessing workers through experiential education.

Experiential learning has a rich theoretical history; however, it has not yet become an established method of learning in many academic institutions. Historically, it was often consigned to cooperative education programmes. Although current literature suggests the necessity and vitality of experiential learning as a component of instruction; it also contains a great deal of controversy on its use among educators (Cantor, 1997). Even though experiential learning is often discussed, many educators in higher education institutions have not yet seen it as a relevant or important method of curriculum design and delivery that deeply affects students (Jacobs, 1999) ,because experiential learning has not been well understood but it has been poorly applied in many educational setting (Hopkins, 1994). The hospitality industry has historically demanded practical skills in addition to theoretical knowledge (Whitney, 1984). Accordingly, experiential learning has repeatedly been one of an essential and critical issue of tourism and hospitality management education (Breiter, 1992).

However, Cantor (1997) points out that there is renewed interest in experiential learning as a strategy for instruction in academia in certain programmes. There has been growth of experiential learning initiatives in programmes that bridge experience and learning. Internships, cooperative based programs, study abroad, service learning, adventure education, and prior learning assessment have all begun to develop exponentially among the academic society since the 1960's. Schools and colleges of education, colleges of business, recreation programmes (Kraft, 1995), vocational programmes, school of social work, and other programs and disciplines within the aegis of higher education now promote and utilize experiential learning as means to educate students (Cantor, 1997).

In summary, each experiential learning method reviewed by now, can shed light on this study from its own perspective. However, Kolb's experiential learning model seems to be the most applicable one as it rotates around a holistic perspective of learning and there is no wonder that his model can be transferred to multiple disciplines (Kolb & Kolb, 2005).

Kolb's experiential learning model provides a conceptual framework for this study. As it was explained earlier and is seen in Figure (6), Kolb's experiential learning model is a four-stage cycle. These are: concrete experience (CE), reflective observation (RO), abstract conceptualization (AC), and active experimentation (AE). The first stage, concrete experience (CE), of this method enables individuals to become immersed in actual situations (Kolb, 1984). By having direct contact with the guests during training periods or working at the faculty staff restaurant during lunch hour, students can gain valuable first-hand experience. Reflective observation (RO) of ideas and situations by carefully observing the hotel or restaurant guests from different perspectives can facilitate students' understanding of their meaning. Guest speakers from industry, research projects, group discussions, and debriefing can also be used to engage students at this stage. Abstract conceptualization (AC) is used to develop explanation of what has been experienced. Therefore, lecturing and textbook readings can be used as teaching methods at this stage. The last stage is active experimentation (AE) so that presentations, simulation games, role play, practice in the computer labs or demo-kitchen can effectively be used as experiential learning strategy at this stage.

As it is seen above, experiential learning model emphasizes learning, rather than teaching; the learner is prepared for learning outcomes through the activities which requires and promote active involvement of the students rather than just by being a passive receiver of information. Moreover, experiential learning signifies learning activities that engage learners directly in experiencing the real world situations. Application of experiential learning method to an educational programme, with a variety of teaching strategies, may grant the EMU-STHM students not only with a diploma but equip with the required competencies of tourism and hospitality industry.

CHAPTER 3
REVIEW OF SELECTED LITERATURE AND RESEARCH

This chapter presents a review of tourism and hospitality education literature regarding this research study. The first section offers a review of importance and the historical developments of tourism and hospitality management education both in the world and the Northern Cyprus. The second section discusses the required competencies of the employees in the tourism and hospitality industry. Three of these competencies; leadership, interpersonal communication, and employability skills have been reviewed separately in the following sub-sections. Finally, the third section explores the importance of industrial training, the contemporary issues and the direction of tourism and hospitality management curriculum development in terms of employability skills, experiential learning, and internship.

3.1 Introduction to Tourism and Hospitality Education

3.1.1 Importance of Tourism and Hospitality Education

Tourism and hospitality management education plays a vital role in the provision of qualified and competent human resources. The importance of tourism and hospitality management education has been acknowledged all over the world for many years. In fact, the quantity of tourism and hospitality management programmes has grown significantly over the last thirty years. This advancement has been encouraged by the rapid development of the industry by governments that tourism contributes significantly to local and national economies. Therefore, the responsibility for providing service-oriented human resources lies not only with the governments, and tourism organizations, but also with the system of a country's higher education institutions in tourism and hospitality management. With regard to fulfill the needs of both industry and customers through providing quality services by skilled and competent staff, a sufficient tourism and hospitality

education system must exist (Christou, 1999). However, the demand for tourism and hospitality management graduates and existence of the discipline in higher education require identification. What is tourism and hospitality management education? What are the responsibilities of it and who is it accountable to? Is it an applied or a professional discipline? (Christou, 1999).

Although many researchers like Lundberg (1990), Samenfink (1992), and Ferreira (1992) have tried to define it, there is no clear answer to what is tourism and hospitality management education. It is stated that the role of tourism and hospitality management higher education institutions must be to produce graduates who can think, lead, and solve problems (Laesecke, 1991). Some other authors insisted that tourism and hospitality students must obtain similar amount of professional concepts, general business principles, and liberal studies (Casado, 1992; Defranco, 1992; Richards, 1998). The obligation of the tourism and hospitality management educators is to integrate industry priorities with the needs of students and powerful contributions to research into socially responsive programmes of the study (Stutts, 1995). It is believed that "education must be thought as a journey, not as a destination" (Pavesic, 1993), and advised that the final customers in tourism and hospitality management education are not the students themselves but the community in general and the whole tourism industry (Pizam, 1995). In addition, tourism has various impacts and functions in a complicated, changeable world calling for sustainable progress. Therefore, tourism and hospitality programmes can contribute to this change in the right direction – toward a better future in tourism (Tribe, 2002). Hence, the following question arises: How should tourism curricula in higher education is designed in order to meet the expectations of industry professionals, students and academics concerning the required competencies of graduates? An extensive literature review to provide insight to this question will be given in the following sections of this chapter.

3.1.2 Historical Development of Tourism and Hospitality Education

Higher education for the hotel and restaurant industry is relatively recent concept (Casado, 1991). In the course of last three decades, tourism and hospitality

education has grown together with the speedily extending industry. Similarly, academic tourism and hospitality management programmes in America have experienced much of their advancement in the last 30 years. Before the 1920s there were no formal higher education programmes for industry managers; managers had to learn the business on the job (Lundberg, 1976). In 1922, 41 years after the first business school was started at the University of Pennsylvania, Dr. Howard B. Meek established the undergraduate programme in hotel and restaurant administration at Cornell University (Lukoswski, 1972). This was the first foundation of a hospitality programme launched at the university level (Lundberg, 1976). After Cornell, other universities began to offer baccalaureate, masters, and doctoral degrees in hospitality administration (DeVeau, 1988). Other academic programmes were established in the latter 1930s. The University of New Hampshire, Washington State University, the University of Massachusetts, and Pennsylvania State Universities began to offer hotel programmes. Cornell's master's programme was established 35 years before the second master's programme in hotel and restaurant management was offered by Michigan State University in 1962. It was also most 60 years until the next doctoral programme was launched at Iowa State University in 1984 (Lundberg, 1976). According to the projection of the International Council on Hotel, Restaurant and Institutional Education (CHRIE) there are about 170 tourism and hospitality management programmes awarding baccalaureate degrees and more than 800 programmes offering associate's degrees, certificates, or diplomas (Riegel and Dallas, 1999). As a result of its increasing popularity and widespread existence, tourism and hospitality education is continuing to move and more against the mainstream of post-secondary education in the USA (McCain and Rappole, 1996).

Compared with the U.S.A, universities in the European countries have usually been late starters in the advancement and globalization of tourism and hospitality management higher education. The reason for this was the fact that tourism and hospitality education has customarily been admitted in the vocational training system, which has its own professional logic. Nevertheless, their late entry to the arena make these schools attractively placed to compete with the constrains that appears to be rising for providers of tourism education in many European countries, particularly with regard to supply, lack of recognition, and unsatisfactory job prospects for graduates (Dewar et. al.,2002). In Britain, the first tourism

undergraduate programmes were launched at Newcastle Polytechnic and Dorset Institute in 1986 (Evans, 1993; Ryan, 1995). For entry in January 2016, 1008 courses including 'tourism, hospitality, restaurant' in their title are provided by 145 institutions (www.ucas.ac.uk); most of these are Higher National Diploma (HND) or Foundation Degree (FD) programmes run by colleges rather than universities.

Higher education in tourism and hospitality in China took its first step just before 1980 as a result of the accomplishment of the open-door policy of reform and the rapid demand and expansion of tourism industry. The first tourism college in China was founded at Shanghai Institute in 1979 (Jin and Yu, 1990). In 1980s, the China National Tourism Administration established tourism and hospitality management departments in seven colleges and universities to meet the needs of developing educated personnel for the tourism industry. As reported by the Chinese government statistics, there were 209 higher learning institutes and colleges with tourism departments or schools in mainland China -not including Hong Kong, Taiwan and Macao- at the end of 1999 (China National Tourism Administration, 2000).

On the other hand, the industry's educators did not organize professionally until the 1940s. Founded in 1946, the Council of Hotel, Restaurant, and Institutional Education (CHRIE) represented the leading forum for hospitality educators and industry professionals in the myriad of activities that represent all factions of hospitality and tourism education. The Hospitality Research Journal established by CHRIE was the first nationwide empirical research journal dedicated to a marginal service industry which previously had been attached to manufacturing industries. Since that time educators and industry professionals nationwide have mainly relied on the substantial amounts of scholarly research produced in the Hospitality Research Journal (Bosselman, 1996).

However, the creation and maintenance of international accreditation commissions or authorities goes back to two decades only. TedQual (Tourism Education Quality) which is a service of the United Nations World Trade Organization (UNWTO) was initiated in the 1990s to apply total quality management to tourism education (UNWTO 2007). There is also the Institute of Hospitality, a British organization representing professional managers in the

hospitality, leisure, and tourism industry, accredits tourism programmes, mainly in the United Kingdom (Institute of Hospitality, 2008). Furthermore, there is another accreditation body which is based in the USA and called Accreditation Commission for Programmes in Hospitality Administration (ACPHA). The ACPHA focuses on U.S. programmes, but there is the possibility for international programmes to apply for accreditation as well (ACPHA, 2008).

3.1.3 Developments of Tourism and Hospitality Education in North Cyprus

In the Northern Cyprus, tourism and hospitality management education programmes were developed to meet the needs of the industry. In fact, formal and informal tourism and hospitality educational institutions began offering certificate, diploma and degree level programs at the beginning of 1980s. There are four commercial high schools in the Northern Cyprus that offer three-year tourism education to the students from the ages 16 to 18. These vocational high schools are all state schools and follow a curriculum provided by the Ministry of Education. A new project called METGE (Occupational-Technical Education Development Project) was inserted into the programmes of these schools by the TRNC government in 2000. The purpose of this project was; to establish a new school structure and education systems which is responsive toward the needs of the society, to arrange an environment participation and collaboration, to develop e-module education programme toward the needs, to be able to apply modern technology in education system, to apply occupational standards in education, to prepare source materials (such as modules education supported by computer spelling), to inform student about working life and employment possibilities, to supply a source by selling profits, giving service and educating, and to enlarge school space and apparatus. However, poor infrastructure of all these vocational schools, lack of finance by the TRNC government to upgrade the teaching tools and equipment, lack of opportunities for practical application and what is more; the low interest and motivation of the students produced unsatisfied and unqualified graduates to tourism industry and to the further higher education institutions (Kalya Group, KKTC, 2007).

Higher education in tourism and hospitality management in the North Cyprus is provided by the six of total nine universities. The medium of instruction at these schools is in English and all of these five universities offer two-year (A.A.S) and four-year (B.S) degree programmes to the local and international students for about two decades. School of Tourism and Hospitality Management (STHM) at EMU was established in 1990 and it introduced only an A.A.S. degree. In 1992 it started awarding a B.S degree in Tourism and Hospitality Management, and in 2002, in Recreation Management. According to the school administration, EMU-STHM designates exclusive importance on computer and foreign language education on their programmes. Seeing the needs and requirements of the tourism industry, the School also maintains practical training besides theoretical education. In order to meet these requirements, a demo kitchen and the Tower Restaurant and Beach Club, the world-wide used computer programmes Fidelio, Galileo, and Amadeus all target to supply students with practical knowledge and an education which matches the needs of the scientific and technological era (http://tourism.emu.edu.tr).

The second oldest higher educational institution that offers tourism education in TRNC is Girne American University, School of Tourism & Hospitality Management (GAU-STHM). This school is accredited by United Nations World Tourism Organization (TedQual), the international standards for education in tourism and hospitality that offer tourism and hospitality education. The progressive changes the school has undergone, from being a department to a school has given the possibility for it; to be a distinguished provider in training and education for the tourism industry (http://gau.edu.tr/Eng/). Being a campus university in the city of Girne (Kyrenia) and having regular contact with industry, the school is in an excellent neighborhood to familiar with the new developments in tourism. The schools executives claim that with over ninety hotels in Kyrenia and its outstanding beauty for which generates over 75% of the tourists to North Cyprus; tourism and hospitality management students are in the best possible district and situation to be learning about tourism and hospitality not only in North Cyprus but in the world.

The other three universities that offer tourism and hospitality education at their schools are European University of Lefke, Near East University, Cyprus

American University and International Cyprus University respectively. In accordance with the demands of the industry, these universities established some new programmes like Gastronomy, Casino Management, Yacht and Marine Management and Airport and Airline Management in the recent years.

3.2 Required Competencies of Tourism and Hospitality Industry

Since the first tourism and hospitality management programme was established at the higher education institutions in the 1920s, instructors had looked for industry leaders' proposals and feedback concerning the necessary skills that graduates needed for career success (Kay & Rusette, 2000,). However, the question of which skills the staff needed to be competent in the industry has been asked by various industry leaders, and the answer seems to have reversed over time from technical competencies to personal features (Tas, LaBrecque, and Clayton, 1996). Therefore, many researchers have begun to classify the competencies required by tourism and hospitality industry managers.

Central role played by employees in tourism and hospitality industry should be taken into account seriously as the service quality depends on qualified employee performance (Nadiri and Tanova, 2010). Research conducted by Gundrum (1978), Buergermeister (1983), Katz (1974) and Tas (1988) identified competencies needed by entry-level hospitality managers. Gundrum (1978) declared that providing quality service and demonstrating ethical and professional behaviors were important competencies for entry-level food service managers. Katz (1974) addressed that the technical, human, and conceptual skills are required by all managers. He further added that the extent to which a manager needed each skill related to the level of managerial responsibility. Buergermeister (1983) argued that the most demanding skills for all entry-level managers were efficiently supervising and communicating with the employees, providing effective communication with the guests, and the local people, realizing profit is an important goal, and treating customers as a top priority. In another study Tas (1988) determined required competencies which were needed for management success from a hotel industry perspective along with solving guest problems, industrial and ethical standards, professional appearance and self-assurance,

efficient oral and writing communication, affirmative working relationship, and perfect customer relations.

In a survey administered by Knight and Salter (1985), tourism and hospitality educators and foodservice trainers looked for the traits that a good manager should possess. The result disclosed that satisfactory hospitality managers are required to have outstanding communication skills. Jonker and Jonker (1990) pointed out that probable hospitality managers should have acceptable oral skills, computer literacy, technical skills, and guest relations skills. In addition to these skills and competencies, Cioch, Downey, and Van Kleek (1989) (cited in Lefever, M.1989) suggested that the characteristics required by hospitality graduates included technical skills, analytical skills particularly related to finance, marketing, law, and interpersonal skills (Lefever, 1989).

In 1990s, the studies to define the required skills in the tourism and hospitality industry had been very dynamic (Chung, 1999). According to Hsu, Gilmore, and Walsh (1992), the fundamental competencies to qualify graduates for a favorable career in the hospitality industry including guest satisfaction, administration of personnel, effective communication skills, moral and professional codes in workplace, fair-judgement, and constructive working relationships. Dana (1992) stated that continuing good communication with employees and the quality of the service had always been crucial skills for managers. Additionally, Hanson (1993) recommended creativity which is another necessary qualification for hotel administration and operation. A survey of students, alumni, faculty, and industry, conducted by Enz, Renaghan, and Geller (1993) determined what they considered as the most important factors needed to be successful in the industry. The findings of this survey reveal the top skills described by the participants as fundamental to success were leadership, ability to identify a problem, and organizing and writing skills. Harrison (1996) asserted that interpersonal skills were ranked as the highest domain of workplace competencies for middle-management employees.

Different set of skills, including, among others, leadership, communication skills and total quality management will be needed and demanded by employers from future hospitality managers to succeed. (Umbreit, 1993). The research studies conducted by Okeiyi et al.(1994), Ashley et al. (1995) and Breiter and Clements

(1996) identified the significance of general management knowledge and skills. Okeiyi et al. (1994) administered a study to figure out the significance of food and beverage skills expected of tourism and hospitality management graduates from the perspectives of students, faculty staff, and practitioners. This study revealed that human relations and managerial skills were ranked more significant than technical skills. Ashley et al. (1994) asserted that the top 10 areas of general management knowledge included: (1) people skills, (2) creative-thinking ability, (3) financial skills, (4) written and oral communication skills, (5) developing a service orientation, (6) total quality management, (7) listening skills, (8) problem-identification and problem-solving skills, (9) customer-feedback skills, and (10) individual and system-wide computer skills. The study findings also classified four skills including creative thinking and conflict resolution, interpersonal communication, and teamwork as crucial for an effective programme. However, the perceptions of hotel and restaurant managers towards the importance of managerial skills related to success in management were investigated by Brieter and Clements (1996) and the findings pointed out that leadership, managerial communication, and employee relations were the most important skills required by tourism and hospitality managers.

Tas and his friends examined the important skills for hospitality industry managers in the mid-1990s. In this study, they grouped the required skills into five areas: conceptual-creative (cognitive skills), leadership (ability to turn into ideas into productive action), and interpersonal (skills for effective interaction with others), administrative (personnel and financial management of the business), and technical (knowledge and skills essential to producing the product or service). The highest-rated competency statements fell into the interpersonal, leadership, and conceptual-creative areas (Tas et al., 1996).

A similar study was conducted by Chung (1999) in Korea. He divided competencies into six dimensions and investigated their contribution to the career success of alumni granted a degree from higher education institutions offering hospitality management programmes and who have or had practical experience in lodging and hospitality industry. The findings revealed that the general management skills have the same importance as technical skills. All competency dimensions including; innovation, problem identification and communication,

adjustment to environmental changes, management of employees and job, management analysis techniques, and operational techniques and knowledge were all related to achievement in the hospitality industry. These skills covering conducting and operating the work of others, building up socialization and interpersonal relationship with other staff, taking a change of more job expansions, and sustaining professional look and dignity were the most influential competency attributes to career success. The results also indicated age, gender, educational levels, years of employment, functional areas, and position were significant in discriminating between several competencies.

In another study, Su (1996) surveyed administrators of baccalaureate degree-granting hospitality programmes and industry professional to examine their perceptions of importance of 13 subject areas and of general management skills. He found that interpersonal communication, marketing, human resources management, management information system, and financial management were perceived by respondents as more important than other courses. In this study, the importance of general management skills was confirmed by both administrators and professionals. Significant differences were found in that respondents' demographic characteristics, with the exception of gender, affected their perceptions of importance of some subject areas and some general management knowledge items.

A study conducted by Kay and Rusette (2000) (cited in Lin, S. 2002) was to designate the unique competencies needed within food and beverage, front desk, and sales departments, and entry and middle management levels. Eighteen competencies were found important for all of these six sequences of working areas and management level. They grouped those eighteen competencies into four domains: leadership, interpersonal, technical, and creative. The results revealed that "leadership" competencies were paramount to all managerial functions. They then divided the "leadership" domain as guest-centered, role-modeling, ethical, and trust.

As the findings of this dissertation have also revealed the importance of competencies like leadership skills and interpersonal communication skills, the following sections are going to review the recent literature about them.

3.2.1 Leadership Skills in Tourism and Hospitality Industry

The history of leadership is an interesting story of emerging views on the essence of human attitudes and the ways people obtain power and authority in the workplace. Understandings of how leadership is prescribed, the personal traits of efficient leaders, and popular leadership philosophies have developed over the recent decades (Bownel, 2010). It is well established that the ability to develop these traits is central to the sustainable effectiveness of any service industry organizations (Truresky & Gallagher, 2011).

The study of leadership has been and continuous to be a dominant part of the literature on management (Yukl, 1989) and numerous leadership theories have been suggested over the past decades (Bownel, 2010). Although these perspectives vary on a number of dimensions, this study is focused on identifying the basic characteristics of leadership and its possible contributions to the tourism and hospitality industry.

As the phenomenon of leadership has been around since antiquity (Bass, 1990), the leadership literature is vast (more than 10,000 studies at last count) and continuous of numerous approach. Many researcher studies generally defined leadership in agreement with their individual perspective and the aspect of the phenomenon of most interest to them. There is no 'correct' definition of leadership; it is only a matter of how useful the definition is for our understanding. Any research looking for the best, legitimate and correct interpretation of leadership appears to be pointless, since the appropriate selection of terminology should rely on the methodological forms of leadership.

A brief look back in time reveals how far we have come in our thinking about leadership theory and practice (Bownel, 2010). Some examples of various leadership definitions are as follows:

Leadership is, most fundamentally, about changes. What leaders do is to create the systems and organizations that managers need, and, eventually, elevate them up to a whole new level or… change in some basic ways to take the advantage of new opportunities. (John P. Kotter)

Leadership is the action of leading a group of people or an organization, or the ability to do this. (Oxford dictionary)

Leadership "can be defined according to the institutions environment therefore it is the situation that demands for the adaptation of leadership style in an organization" Rajbhandari (2006).

Leadership is defined "as arising through the interactions between the actors and structures of an organizational environment" (Nivala, 1999) (cited in Hujala, 2000).

Starting in the late 1980s, leadership qualities, key aspects and secrets of the leaders in hospitality industry have been studied and documented by researchers at Michigan State University. Dr.Ronald Cichy, director of The Michigan State University's School of Hospitality Business, describes a leader as: "one who recognizes the value of generosity over wealth, wisdom over arrogance and intelligent choices over a memorized list. Collectively, this industry is not investing in the future. By encouraging our youth, we could double our work force. It is time to get away from the mindset that says we have only worry about this quarter's P&L" (Blanch, 1998, p.36).

The study conducted by Kouzes and Posner over 60,000 leaders from all levels and fields, describe leadership as the profession of organizing others to wish to battle for mutual ambitions (1995, p.30). Similarly, Rost answers why "others struggle" by defining leadership as an influence relationship among leaders and their colleagues who expect absolute developments which reflect shared purpose (Blanch, 1998, p.16). Rost's definition encapsulates tourism as each industry sector provides a service to the customer. The collective process by individuals in providing service stems from "the process of persuasion or example by which an individual induces a group to pursue objectives" (Gardner, 1990, p.1).

In one of his studies Blanch asks: "Are leaders the only people who do leadership?" (1998, p.15). Leading by example is present in the tourism industry through such practices as on-the-job training (OJT). Under this form of leadership, the trainer is seen by new employees and designated by management as a team leader. Is the trainer a leader? Are the behaviors displayed consistent with

leadership behavior? In response to Blanch's question, in the tourism industry the answer is "No". The trainer is one of the personnel designated by management as competent to train new employees.

The general manager of the Westin Michigan Avenue Hotel, Mr. Michael Feigenbaum, outlines nine elements for developing and maintaining leadership at the property. Some examples include: "training and career development support and guidance, constant communications and idea sharing" (www.hotel-on-line). These initiatives for self-improvement mirror Greenleaf's concept of servant leadership which is first to confirm that other people's significant needs and requirements are being served (in Spears, 1995, p.4). Feigenbaum's nine elements are an example of meeting the needs of the employees for their benefit.

Bass suggests that two distinctive or different forms of leadership exist: transactional and transformational. Transformational is assessed mainly in terms of the leader's effect on followers (cited in Yukl, 1994, p.351). For the development of leadership competencies, Bass further suggested leaders "may use both types of leadership at different times in different situations (quoted in Yukl, 1994, p.352). The opportunity to transform and communicate an organization's vision is an opportune challenge for tourism and hospitality graduates entering middle management positions. By demonstrating fresh ideas and concepts from their academic and experiential education graduates may "provide an interface between different parts of the firm's plan and act as a bridge between the strategies developed by senior management and the day-to-day activities on the front lines" (Conference Board of Canada, 1999, p.1). This potential bridging by graduates is accentuated through written and verbal skills practiced in the area of academic general studies where Baradat reminds us, "general education courses expose (us) to the wonders of our world, expanding (our) vision and deepening (our) appreciation of life" (1994, p.xi). Baradat's realizations occur through professional report writing, presentations, and objective research practices leading to natural development of leadership attributes.

Terry Umbreit (1992) stresses that the differences between the leaders and managers must be fully comprehended by hospitality educators if they are going to revise their curriculum to reflect the new realities of the new decade. As noted by

Umbreit: "Leadership must replace the old management style of heavy-handed supervision, control, and assumption that employees have little initiative and creativity" (1992, p.71). Managerial skills of planning, directing and controlling produce short-term results expected by various stakeholders. However, perceptions and procedures are not drafted by the people who have only mastered to cope with plans and budgets (Kotter, 1996, p.29). Visions and strategies under these circumstances are rarely shared with enough people in the organization to energize long-term solutions for the organization. In a change environment involving "alignment of people" Kotter (1996) further emphasizes leadership communicates the need for employee buy-in to a new vision and strategy for the organization.

Another essential attribute of the leaders /managers to be successful in tourism and hospitality industry is interpersonal communication skill. Umbreit asserted that effective interpersonal communication skills are decisive aspects of leadership as the leaders have to establish and share a mutual vision for the department or the unit. Furthermore, leaders have to communicate to their staff at relevant quality and performance standards (1992, p.74).

3.2.2 Interpersonal Skills in Tourism and Hospitality Industry

The terminology 'Interpersonal Skills' refer to a broad variety of concepts like communication skills, social skills, soft skills, personal assertiveness and individual efficiencies. Some of these terms have been used synonymously and inter changeably throughout this paper but the main emphasis was on interpersonal skills descriptor. Both the hospitality and tourism industries are people-driven. Therefore, they hire people with excellent interpersonal skills – people who are easy to talk to, outgoing and good-natured – and then you have the good fortune to be able to work with these awesome people (Goad, 2015). In a global sense, interpersonal skills are the competencies we apply when communicate and collaborate with other people. However, this explanation is rather descriptive. It explains what interpersonal skills are needed for rather than what they really are. It is rather like describing an airplane as a vehicle that takes you from one state to another country. (http://www.psypress.com/skilled-interpersonal-communication 9780415432047). Interpersonal skills always need one another person in a social setting or situation. Most of these social settings have a definite order of behavior

like checking-in at an airline desk, beckoning a waiter or ordering food and beverage at a restaurant. Different people can use different sequences of manners in professional contexts relying on the reactions and feelings of the other people (Hargie, 1986).

A group of tourism and hospitality industry leaders, all of whom earned $250,000 per year or more, were asked to identify the primary factors needed to achieve success. These leaders identified 'communication skills' as the most important factor needed to achieve success. This study revealed that good managers should master four types of communication skills. These are interpersonal, listening, speaking, and writing skills, in the order of importance. When a group of tourism and hospitality management students polled the Help Desk List e-mail discussion group to rate the importance of skills needed in their field, everyone who replied, said that interpersonal aptitude was the most important ability of all. While technical ability is certainly important, interpersonal skill is rated number one, as it is considered almost impossible to teach. The label 'interpersonal skills' can be observed in the employment advertisements and searched anxiously in the job interviews, but it is not something that can be qualified by a degree or diploma.

In a recently published book, Owen (2011) lists the aspects of interpersonal communication as follows:

1. Communicating affectively: The skills approach
2. Communicating without words: Nonverbal communication
3. Rewarding others: The skill of reinforcing
4. Finding out about others: The skill of questioning
5. Showing understanding for others: The skill of reflecting
6. Paying attention to others: The skill of listening
7. Telling others about yourself: The skill of disclosure
8. Getting your message across: The skill of explaining
9. Opening and closing interactions: The skills of set induction and closure
10. Standing up for yourself: The skill of assertiveness
11. Using your influence: The skill of persuasion
12. Working things out together: The skill of negotiating

13. Working with others: The skill of participating in and leading small groups

He further argues that these skills have always been important and "in order to satisfy our needs it is necessary to have an effective repertoire of these interpersonal skills"(Owen, 2011 p.1).

Owen's list above may seem demanding but interpersonal skills are learned behaviors not inborn characteristics like race and gender. We learn them subconsciously. We learn how individuals are possibly to reach to what we should say and act. What is more, we learn how these actions are likely to make them, and us, feel. People with effective interpersonal skills have mastered to determine the better ways of communicating and collaborating with others in various situations (http://interpersonal-skills.net). Interpersonal skills can easily be learnt or improved; with a little time and effort you can get magnificent benefits both in your personal and professional life.

The U.S. Department of Labor projects that by 2020, 75 percent of all people joining in the work force will be women and minorities, many of whom are immigrants. In order to promote the success of these people, the employers and other staff should encourage and try to understand the rare and different attitudes of these people from diverse cultures. Consequently, "Good interpersonal skills are crucial to such efforts at valuing differences (Occupational Outlook Handbook, 2010).

Finally, in Finland, the graduates from higher education institutions had been very fortunate in finding decent jobs in the country. The most recent data from the Statistic Finland provides information about placement of university and polytechnic graduates of 2005 at the end of 2006. (http://www.eurofound.europa.euewco/reports/TN0506TR01/FI0506TR01.pdf). In both sectors, the employment rate is over 87%. Nevertheless, a research study by University of Jyväskylä (2007) reveals that the graduates are a little bit anxious about their work-oriented competencies and knowledge implemented by their education. They assume that their interpersonal communication skills, leadership and managerial skills and problem-solving skills have not yet reached to the level to meet the requirements of working life.

3.3 Employability Skills in Tourism and Hospitality Industry

The literature review in this section analyze the common and general employability and employability skills that enterprises recently defend that the graduates should equipped with the job-specific or other appropriate technical skills.

While tourism and hospitality graduates have enjoyed higher employment rates than unskilled workers in the past, the last decade has seen a considerable increase in the number of graduates wanting to enter the labour market, and finding employment is now more difficult (OECD, 2015). Graduate unemployment has led to intense competition, and students' preparations for being employable individuals have become major and decisive elements in obtaining suitable employment (De Vos, De Hauw and Van der Heijden, 2011). Therefore identifying and satisfying the needs and expectations of students, by providing better opportunities and enhancing employability skills, are becoming key aims for tourism and hospitality management schools (Butt and Rehman, 2010).

The higher education institutions across Europe are currently involved in a major process of reforms and restructuring as part of what is referred to as the Bologna Process. The Bologna Declaration is the primary guiding document of the Bologna process. It was approved and endorsed by ministers of education of 29 European countries at their meeting in Bologna in 1999. The goal of this process as stated in the Berlin Communiqué, 2003 is "the development of a coherent and cohesive European Higher education Area by 2010" in which students and graduates could move freely among the European Union countries, using prior qualifications in one country as satisfactory entry qualifications for further study in another (Wikipedia). The declaration also reflected a search for the 'European answers' to the common 'European problems'. One of these issues was the employability of graduates as 'employability' has been recognized as one of the main targets to reach with the formation of the European Higher Education Area (EHEA) from the very beginning.

Employability is gaining personal traits like abilities and competencies which help graduates to be string and fruitful in their professions. On the other hand, employability generally relates to the employment of graduates but this also

involves self-employment. One of the most accepted and widely used definition adopted by Enhancing Student Employability Co-ordination Team (ESECT, 2005) is: "A set of achievements -skills, understandings and personal attributes- that make graduates more likely to gain employment and be successful in their chosen occupations, which benefits themselves, the workforce, the community and the economy". Harley and Locke (2002), state that employability of a graduate to display personal traits that managers foresee will be essential for the future efficient operation of their organization. Earlier, Hillage and Pollard (1998) had defined it as "Employability is the ability to gain and retain fulfilling work". However, Brown and his friends disagreed with the definition of Hillage and Polard and suggested a contrasting definition of employability: "The relative changes of finding and maintaining different kinds of employment (Brown et al. 2002, p.2).

Yorke and Knight (2004a) summarize five connotations of 'employability' which cover a spectrum including getting a graduate job and a product of skillful career planning and interviewing technique. An appropriate definition of employability is: "a set of achievements -skills, understanding and personal traits which make graduates possibly to gain employment and be happy and prosperous in their chosen occupations, which benefits the graduates, the workplace, the community and the economy (Yorke and Knight) (2004b).

Employability skills can also be described as the transferrable skills required by the individuals to make them 'employable'. In conjunction with good technical ability and subject knowledge, employers often lay out a set of skills that they want from employee. They believe that these competencies will qualify them to carry out their role to the best of their ability. According to the research findings of the Science, Technology, Engineering, and Mathematics Network (STMNET), top ten employability skills gathered by several UK-based well-known business organizations are as follows: (1) Communication and interpersonal skills, (2) Problem solving skills, (3) Using your initiative and being self-motivated, (4) Working under pressure and to deadlines, (5) Organizational skills, (6) Team working skills, (7) Ability to learn and adapt, (8) Numeracy, (9) Valuing diversity and difference, (10) Negotiating skills (STMNET, 2010). Similarly, almost all of these skills, with the exceptions of time-management skills, have been defined as

'employability skills' in a recent document issued by Colorado Department of Labor (2010).

There are many other classifications of the content of employability skills. Majority of these classifications focus on the notions of personal image, attitudes, habits, and behaviors; techniques of communication, problem solving, decision making; and management and organizational processes. One of the groupings of such skills was summarized by Gainer (1988) as: (1) Individual competence: communication skills, comprehension, computation, and culture, (2) Personal reliability skills: personal management, ethics, and vocational maturity, (3) Economic adaptability skills: problem solving, learning, employability, and career development, (4) Group and organizational effectiveness skills: interpersonal skills, and skills in negotiation, creativity, and leadership.

The report of The Employability Skills for the Future Group (2001), specifies employability skills as the skills that are needed not only to get employment, but also to gain advancement within the company so as to earn one's potential and contribute profitably to the company's strategic directions. According to this report, the employability skills framework incorporates the following personal attributes: Honesty and integrity, faith, enthusiasm, reliability, personal presentation, responsibility, commonsense, positive self-esteem, sense of humor, balanced and fair attitude to work and home life, ability to work under pressure, motivation and adaptability. It is obvious that business organizations welcome these traits as necessary and fundamental aspects of employability skills. Therefore, the key skills described along with these personal traits of employability skills are: (1) Communication Skills, (2) Team Work Skills, (3) Problem-solving Skills, (4) Initiative and Enterprise Skills, (5) Planning and Organizing Skills, (6) Self-management Skills, (7) Technology Skills, (8) Learning Skills.

In the recent years, many explicit studies have been conducted at several higher education institutions to find out the relationship between the school curriculum and employability skill. However, many anxieties still exist among employers, students, academics, higher education institutions and governments.

3.4 Internship in Tourism and Hospitality Education

One common form of experiential learning in tourism and hospitality management is the internship programme (Austin and Rust, 2015). Internship students learn to make connections between what they are learning in their courses and their training experiences. Purdie, et al., (2013) suggest that an internship helps students to explore whether they are suited to a particular setting and/or career path. They also discuss that students those complete internships have found professional benefits after college such as greater job satisfaction.

Internship practices which are also referred to as practical work experience, work placement, field of practicum, professional placement, cooperative education or experiential learning activity, are short-term periods of practical work experiences where in students receive training as well as gain invaluable job experiences in a specific field or potential career of their interest (Zopiatis & Theocharous,2013). From a pedagogical perspective internship programmes allow participants gain practical experience, provide opportunities to apply knowledge and learned theories and eventually allow them an opportunity to evaluate their knowledge and reach conclusions (Chang & Chu, 2009). Internship programmes may have significant influences on both the internship-derived benefits and the practice's overall success (Lam & Ching, 2007; Zopiatis & Constanti, 2007).

The National Society of Experiential Learning (1997) describes internship precisely supervised work or service experience where an individual has prearranged learning targets and reflects strongly on how he or she is learning during this training experience period. Either it offsets comprehensive engagement like getting your feet wet or just dirty your hands, internships provide a feeling of reality a student hardly ever find in a traditional classroom setting. (Thiel and Hartley, 1997).

It is the job seekers' oldest dilemma that you cannot get a good job without experience in a particular field, and/or you cannot get experience until you have had a job. Therefore, the higher education programmes with internships requirements in their curricula provide unique advantage to the students in finding the solution to this problem. Internships could not only help students to acquire

professional experience and help industry to gain excellent interns, but also enable the institutions to receive tuition and enhance image (Thiel and Hartley, 1997). Consequently, internship experiences teach students how to cultivate communication, tolerance, and interpersonal skills (Wish 1989). It is argued that internships can also provide graduates with the opportunities to step into entry-level management positions because on undergraduates' internships as related to employability skills (Harris 1994).

Generally, an internship is seen as a short-term hands-on work experience the participants perceive training and apprehend experience in a particular branch or a career area of their interest (Zopitas and Constanti, 2007). The internship experience facilitates students to implement their theoretical school learning within the real world of work. In this manner, they are able to bridge the gap between theory and practice. Furthermore, internships provide opportunity for students to decide if their previous career choice is appropriate for their passions and personalities.

Emenheiser, Clayton, and Tas (1997) investigated undergraduate students' perceptions on the strength and efficiency of the industrial training experience they were presented. The most significant impacts on their determinations to work in the hospitality industry were opportunities to work in the situations to challenge their abilities, feelings of acceptance by employees, and feeling that the academic courses were necessary for developing a successful internship experience. Without industry experience, they have troubles in understanding how all elements of the operation and all courses, form an integrated whole (Powers and Riegel, 1984). However, some other studies reported that the internship students had positive impressions about the experiential learning component of the curriculum Deveau (1988), Meyer and Kent (1987), Antil (1988), and Breiter (1992).

In another study, Hite and Bellizzi (1986) observed 441 senior marketing students concerning their expectations of industrial training. They discovered that internship supplied a more relevant learning experience than listening to chains of guest speakers in class. These research findings supported previous research studies, which revealed that internship students considered they could be considerably better prepared to start their careers than those with traditional

classroom learning experience only. Consequently, the students with industrial training experience recorded positive changes in feelings of professional and social effectiveness (Bernstein, 1976) and a better sense of accountability and career advancement (Eyler, 1992; Hursch and Borzak, 1979; Williams, 1990). In terms of professional development, students observed that industrial training granted them with expanded business connections, exceptional knowledge at the job market (Groves et al. 1977), and better job satisfaction (Bales,1979). Regarding anticipated effects on student learning, industrial training has been defined as a bridge between theory and practice (Nevett, 1985).

Nevertheless, experience remains to be one of the primary characteristics of an entry-level professional can offer a prospective employer, and industrial trainings supply one of the best ways for the desiring success to obtain it (Gault et al., 2000). Nowadays, most of the tourism and hospitality education programmes in the world include industrial training practices in their curriculum, in one way or another. Finally, it can be anticipated that the vocational higher will carry on to play a major role in employability and development of interpersonal skills (Kirby, 2000).

3.5 Research on Tourism and Hospitality Education Curricula

3.5.1 Need for Tourism and Hospitality Education Curricula

The tourism and hospitality management education originally started as training courses for the people in particular sectors. These training programmes subsequently associated with the foundation of technical and vocational schools, which, in turn, have expanded to undergraduate and graduate programmes. Because of the rapid development of international travel and tourism globally, the industry has promoted a need for educated professional and has attempted to structure the new developing curricula (Busby, 2001; Ernetawi, 2003). Therefore, industry needs became –and still are- main and dominant aspects when it comes to curriculum design (Gunn, 1998; Dale and Robinson, 2001; Morgan, 2004; Inui, Wheeler, and Lankford, 2006).

The phrase 'curriculum' associates with the educational strategy of an institution, school, college, or a department, or to a programme. The curriculum is

decisive, mirroring the requirements of community; the ways of awareness that are shared within a field, and students' concerns, competencies, and previous learning (Bennett, 1990; Dillich, 1982). In order to fulfil the needs of the industry, educational institutions are required to have curricula that will develop students to manage and handle with a diverse workforce and to administer business successfully within an international arena (Mok and Noriega, 1999). It is the educators' duty and responsibility to compile, to translate, and to disclose data to the department that are suitable for discussions regarding whether the curriculum is adequately meeting the aims and expectations of the department (Lucas, 1994). Basically, it is compulsory that tourism and hospitality educators develop programmes and courses that challenge the threat put forth by business administration institutions (Umbreit, 1992) by fostering the ability of students to communicate effectively with an ever-changing business environment (Breiter and Clements, 1996).

The previous studies of tourism and hospitality as a subject have concentrated on the survival of, and need for, a least possible core curriculum. Researches on tourism and hospitality have also focused on the growth of provision and concerns of overprovision of tourism graduates due to the enlargements of tourism and hospitality education institutions in recent years (Evans, 1993; Ryan, 1995). Since Cornell University began the first tourism and hospitality education program in 1922, there had been a lot of discussion about the provisions and intentions for curriculum development (Chung, 1999). This debate had been continuing with the arguments centered on the questions, "Are managers better prepared as specialists or as generalists?" "Should instructors impart theoretical challenges, or deliver information by the practical, hand on experience?" (Rudolph, 1999). On the other hand, the Carnegie Corporation and the Ford Foundation funded a study of higher education as preparation for business careers in 1959. These studies were the first important in-depth investigations of business schools in the United States (Lin, 2002). Both of these reports criticized business schools for the traditional courses in their curriculum, and especially the practical courses, such as hotel front office procedures. Because of limited and misconceived interpretation of vocational education, students were not prepared to do the most useful work of which they were capable over their entire careers. It is also indicated that many of the business schools were not meeting the requirement

of business firms for competent, creative, and flexible managers. (Gordon & Howell, 1959).

3.5.2 Content and Emphasis of Tourism and Hospitality Education Curricula

There have been several studies designed to reevaluate the status of higher education for business. Studies conducted in the 1950s and 1960s found that there was a trend to reduce specialized courses in favor of basic liberal arts courses (Bond and Leabo, 1964), and this dilemma remained unresolved into the 1970s and 1980s (Casado, 1991). In the decade of the 1970s, some hotel and restaurant educators tended to reduce vocational and specialized hotel and restaurant administration courses in favor of generalized education (Casado, 1991). Therefore, a higher education that provided a general education base, allowed its graduates to change their career focus with some confidences after leaving school (Pavesic, 1991). Some supporters moved to cite its connection to the development of general and intellectual skills of judgment, creativity, and problem solving. Powers (1980) argued that the development of problem-solving ability distinguished higher education from vocational training. He further claimed that today's complicated transactions could not be conducted or supervised with technical skills alone; managers are obliged to possess interpersonal skills that are necessary to deal with an increasingly more complex environment of tourism and hospitality industry.

Some researchers argued that course specialization narrowed the education of hospitality students by training the students in specific applications (Riegel, 1990). Others strongly defended a specialization curriculum in hotel and restaurant administration based on well-defined and accepted professional goals. They asserted most innovations were a modification of existing practices. Therefore, if students knew current practices they could understand and accept improvements better than if they did not know anything (Lucowski, 1972).

Tourism and hospitality education programmes are generally consisted of two main components: (1) courses concerning various operational aspects of the hotel properties, such as front desk and housekeeping operations, food and beverage management, and legal issues in hotel operations; and (2) courses related

to various management aspects related to running a travel agent or a hotel, such as sales and marketing management, financial management, human resource management, hospitality accounting, and travel and hospitality management information system. However, these traditional hospitality management education models were designed only to prepare the students to become managers in hotels or other resort properties (Ritchie, 1995). Despite technical abilities are important for students when they are at the beginning of their careers, the tourism and hospitality management curriculums do not have to highlight technical competencies at the cost of the more critical thinking skills as they are fundamental for long-term career continuation of the students (Olsen and Reid, 1983).

Casado (1991) surveyed tourism and hospitality school alumni, and faculty to investigate their perceptions of 22 professional courses offered at the School of Hotel and Restaurant Management at Northern Arizona University. The study results indicated that hospitality programs should provide curricula emphasizing principals of management, cost controls, and human resources management. In general education courses, the three groups were in complete agreement as to relative importance of speech communication, hospitality ethics, and foreign language; economics, and psychology; and, all were considered quite important. The study also revealed that the course concentration for students to reach the executive level in the hospitality industry that was preferred by most of the recruiters and faculty was comprised of 33 per cent general education, and another 33 per cent business education. He suggested a similar proportion of professional, general, and business education courses related with tourism and hospitality management programmes.

Regarding the content and emphasis of hospitality education curricula, Tas (1988) suggested that courses such as tourism law, purchasing, hygiene, food sanitation, front office management, bar and restaurant management, food and beverage management, and finance should be focused. Bardi (1990), and Buergermeister and Van Leonen (1992) emphasized the importance of computer skills in the hospitality curriculum. However, Umbreit (1992) asserted six major content areas need to be included in curricula to qualify students for prosperous careers in tourism and hospitality industry which are financial analysis, human resource management, leadership, total quality management, service marketing and

interpersonal communication skills. Another suggestion by Reich and Defranco (1994) was the inclusion of a strategic planning course in hospitality education.

In a survey, McGrath (1993) measured the perceptions of foodservice managers towards thirteen subject areas. He found that the service operations management, accounting, marketing, and human recourses management were considered as the most important subject areas to study. McGrath also suggested subject areas to be included in a four-year hospitality curriculum were customer relations, communication skills, cooking-culinary skills, nutrition, and facilities/plant management. However, Faiola (1994) recommended that the curricula should offer both technical and conceptual courses capable of developing competencies and knowledge in a wide variety of areas, while, at the same time, having liberal education components required. The courses such as general management, purchasing, and accounting should be emphasized more than technical food and beverage courses; courses in writing and public speaking were strongly suggested.

In another study regarding tourism and hospitality management curriculum, Bach and Milman (1996) recommended four areas to be included into the curriculum:

1. Skills related to hospitality functions, such as food service, and conventions and conferences;
2. Skills related to business functional areas, such as marketing, accounting, and finance;
3.) Personality skills related to the personal qualities or abilities of effective managers;
4. Analytical skills, or the capacity and competence to use appropriate way of verbal and non-verbal communication.

Similarly, Heller (1997) asserted that general administration, operation management, food and beverage management, accounting/finance/law, information systems, human resources management, marketing/sales, and tourism/travel management are commonly required areas of the hotel and restaurant programs. The study conducted by Su, Miller, and Shanklin (1997)

found that the fields such as interpersonal communication, marketing, personnel management, management information systems, financial management, and ethical consideration are important areas of the hospitality curriculum in the views of university administrators and industry professionals.

In order to determine new directions and components of the curricula, Chung (1999) surveyed 422 alumni of tourism and hospitality management schools in Korea. He considered that the courses such as foreign language, basic concepts of computers, service ethics and rules, statistics, management rules, finance, general and hotel accounting and budgeting, service quality management, interpersonal communication, front office operation, bar and restaurant management, hotel project management, food and beverage operation, menu planning, and reception and banquet management had been substantial areas of study for career success in the tourism and hospitality industry.

Recent hospitality pedagogy studies have focused on curriculum development (Collins, 2007; Elliott & Joppe, 2009; Milman, 2001), competencies of entry-level managers (Weber, Crawford, Rivera, & Finley, 2010), and the need for experiential learning in the hospitality curriculum (Hawkins & Weiss, 2004).

3.5.3 Skill-based Curricula for the New Millennium

The question of focus and direction for undergraduate hospitality programmes continued to be discussed in the literature in the last decade as well. In one of these studies, Lonam (1999) surveyed industry professionals, and hospitality faculty, to identify what courses should be included in the undergraduate curriculum in the year 2010. He stated that any program should not overlook the "Big 4" in future hospitality curriculum: (1) liberal or general education, (2) sales and marketing with a service industry focus, (3) principles of management, and (4) at least one second language requirement. Moreover, the results of the study predicted an increasing emphasis on general business courses and internships versus hospitality specific courses as the most likely components of a future undergraduate hospitality curriculum.

Tourism and hospitality degree programmes are designed to meet an industry requirement for qualified future employees. Correspondingly, there is a need to make secure the academic curriculum not only meets the basic needs and expectations of shareholders; students, faculty and industry, regarding the skill sets fundamentally required in the workplace (O'Mahony et al., 2001). The changeable and incalculable nature of employment in the next decades, and the need for employees to be able to grasp and steadily upgrade sets of generic skills that can be applied to various settings (Curtis and McKenzie, 2001). Generic skills have been defined as competencies that are fundamental for employability at some level (Kearns, 2001) and these competencies have also been applied to "core skills", "key competencies" and recently as "employability skills" (Australian Chamber of Commerce and Industry, and the Business Council of Australia, 2002).

It has become increasingly necessary for higher education institutions to pay attention to the skills sustaining the employability of their graduates (Dochery & Fernandez, 2014). Therefore, the exchange of knowledge between the education system and the labor market regarding the necessary skills and competencies that graduates attain during their university studies and those required in the tourism and hospitality industry is essential (Nachmias & Walmsley, 2015).

Consequently, meeting the industry's requirements and expectations is still a basic aim of tourism curricula today (Smith and Cooper, 2000); Ernetawi, 2003; Raybould and Wilkins, 2005). A programme creating graduates who just "function" in the current tourism environment has to be questioned since it does not embrace the needs of education for industry of constant change (Gunn, 1998; Tribe, 2002; Morrison and O'Mahony, 2003; Morgan, 2004; Inui, Wheeler, and Lankford, 2006). Graduates need to be prepared for a changing environment because, at the time of education, the future needs of the industry and levels of complexity cannot be predicted.

As a result, graduates have to be qualified to think critically, be analytical, and be able to use practical and different ways of thinking to resolve conflicts and adjust easily to changes. On the other hand, they have to participate in constructing and framing the future of tourism and hospitality industry. This involves a steady focus on generic skills, which are defined as "those transferable skills which are

essential for employability at some level" (Raybould and Wilkins, 2005, p.204). These are the competencies that are appropriate to various situations and thus, they are transferable. They should also empower graduates to effectively perform in this extremely complicated environment and qualify them lifelong learning (Raybould and Wilkins, 2005; Morgan, 2004).

The literature above clearly supports the need for experiential learning within undergraduate programmes. Therefore, ongoing research and evaluation of hospitality programmes and their requirements are vital in ensuring that curricula are relevant and up to date.

CHAPTER 4
CONDUCTING THE RESEARCH

The following chapter describes the selection of research approach, population, sample, instrumentation, data collection, data analysis and ethical consideration utilized to obtain the necessary information to conduct the study, and the reasons for these choices are explained. A detailed broad description of industry questionnaire, trainee questionnaire, faculty questionnaire, and student focus group interviews are included in the data collection methods and instruments section. The chapter also briefs the reader on ethical issues that were followed. For clarity and consistency in the research paper, the Publication Manuel of the American Psychological Association, 6th edition (2010) was used as a guideline for form and style.

4.1 Research Strategy

When you select a research strategy, the nature of anticipated relation between theory and research implied by the research questions, as well as epistemological and ontological examinations, will be significant, as quantitative and qualitative research strategies are considerably dissimilar in each of these respects (Bryman, 2004). Two of these strategies represent differing epistemological positions. Quantitative research is associated with a positivistic approach, holds that unbiased information can only be arises from direct observation or experience (Robson, 2002). In contrast, qualitative research originates from an interpretivist viewpoint and is therefore concerned with clarifying and understanding phenomena through the meanings that people attach to them (Greenhalg, 2001). Consequently, they both hold differing ontological positions. As a result, quantitative approach is objectivist in its ontological standpoint, which means social phenomenon is considered to prevail independently of individuals (Bryman, 2004). On the contrary, qualitative approach is constructionist, an approach which comprehends reality as being socially manufactured (Robson, 2002). It means that social

phenomenon and their meanings are generated by social cooperation between individuals.

The determining of suitable method is based on the ontological, epistemological as well as theoretical assumptions of the study. This is to say that the decision depends on the nature of the phenomenon and the knowledge interest that the researcher is heading towards.

Following these considerations, a qualitative research strategy was preferred for this study and the nature of this investigation is consistent with interpretivist epistemological position and constructionist ontological orientation with its focus upon understanding the perceptions of the representatives of tourism and hospitality industry and educational institutions. One of the reasons that a qualitative research approach was preferred for this research study was to provide insight into a small size of academics, students, and regional industry participants. Another reason for adopting the techniques and methods of qualitative approach was the flexibility in the use of instruments, the process of data collection, analyzing the perceptions and the meanings made by the participants about the phenomenon, and making meaning by the researcher from the perceptions of the participants (Marshal and Rossman, 2006).

4.2 Research Design

According to Niglas (2004), the research problem or aim rather than the philosophical position regulates the method or overall strategy of the study. However, relying on the complexity and the nature of the problem, the research design can be either quantitative or qualitative or mixture of both (Hammersley, 1993). The differences between qualitative and quantitative research methods have been identified by a number of different scholars. One of the key issues differentiating between these two methods is the nature of data. In quantitative research, data is objective, hard and standardized, but in qualitative approach it is soft, rich and deep (Maxwell, 1998; Corbetta, 2003). Niglas (2004) further claims that inside each strategy, there is opportunity to use data-collecting techniques mostly associated with the same approach or to join both of these data collecting techniques. There is also probability to use both qualitative and quantitative data

within each study without paying attention to the research design or the concrete data-collecting techniques.

Qualitative research design has been prescribed in many different ways. In one of these definitions, Strauss and Corbin (1998) described qualitative research as any type of research that creates results which cannot be discovered by statistical measurements or other means of quantification. They elaborated that "qualitative research can refer to research about person's lives, lived experiences, behaviors, emotions, and feelings as well as about organizational functioning, social movements, and cultural phenomena (p.10-11). They demonstrated that qualitative method is perfectly used especially the methods are congruent with the nature of the research problem, supplementary to the choices and personal experiences of the researcher, and committed to investigate the areas about which little is known. Miles and Huberman (1994) pointed out that qualitative research is administered to validate previous research on a topic, to supply more in-depth features about something that is already acknowledged, to acquire a new mindset or a new viewpoint about a phenomenon, and to enlarge the dimensions of a current study.

When you design a research study, you cannot just grab a strategy in advance and administer it precisely (Maxell, 2005). He further argues that classical, linear approaches to research design implement a model for administering the research, a rigid guide that arranges the task involved in outlining or running a study in what is seen as an excellent order. These patterns regularly mirror a flow diagram, with a bright starting point and target and itemized structure for fulfilling the intermediate assignment.

However, designing a qualitative research is an ongoing process. In a qualitative study "research design should be a reflexive process operating through every stage of the project" (Hammersley and Atkinson, 1995, p.24). Thus, the activities of gathering and transcribing data, evaluating and modifying theory, expanding or concentrating research questions, and determining and addressing the validity dangers are all proceedings simultaneously, each manipulating all of the others. It does not begin from a prearranged starting point or progress on a fixed chain of actions, rather involves interaction and interconnection throughout the various design principles. There is always needs to constantly evaluate how your

design is literally working all along the research, and to make alterations and modifications in order to make your study produce what you desire or looking for. Therefore, the model that was followed in this research study is "interactive research design" approach of Joseph A. Maxwell (Maxwell, 2005).

Figure (7) Maxwell's Interactive Model of Research Design (2005)
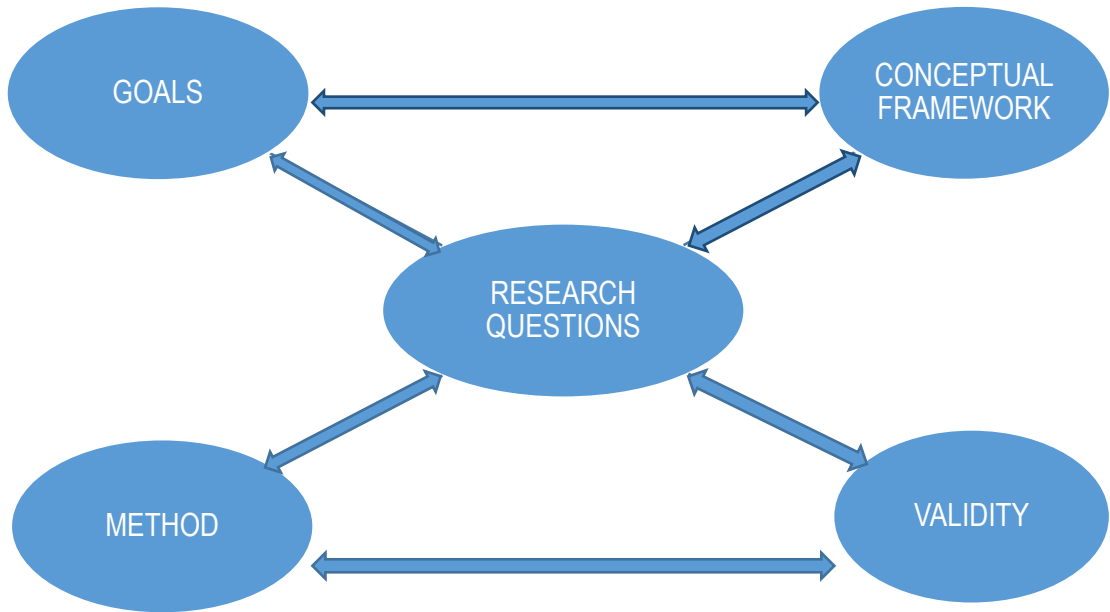
As it is seen in the Figure (7) above, Interactive Research Design Model has five components: a) goals, b) conceptual framework, c) research questions, d) methods, and e) validity. These components are not extensively diverse from the ones observed in many other qualitative research design studies. What is original in this approach is the way relationships among the components are mentally visualized. In this model, various parts of the research design form a connected, unified and interacting whole, with every component attached to another rather than being linked in a linear sequence.

The research questions are the heart of this model as they connect all the other components. Therefore, they are required to inform and be sensitive to all of these components.

The upper triangle of this model is a thoughtfully integrated unit. Thus, the research questions ought to have a fair relationship to the goal of the study. In addition, the goal of the study should be enlightened by what is already known about the phenomena and the theoretical concepts and models that can be applied to these phenomena. The bottom triangle is also closely integrated. The methods chosen for the study should empower the researcher to respond all the research questions and cope with any possible validity threats.

Based on the reasons explained by now, interactive qualitative research design method was found to be more appropriate for this research study and the structure map with five components of this research study is displayed in the following Figure (8).

However, there are additional reasons to choose to do qualitative research in this study. As Creswell (2013) suggested, committed qualitative researchers frame their research questions in such a way that the only manner in which they can be answered is by doing qualitative research. In addition qualitative researchers want to connect with their research participants and to see the world from their point of view (Corbin, 2015).

Figure (8) Structure of Research Design Map

GOAL
-Raising awareness of the stakeholders on the importance of required competencies and Experiential learning in tourism and hospitality education and enable them to empower curricula

CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK
-Experiential Learning
-Literature on teaching and learning in higher education and hospitality industry
-Own academic and practical experience

RESEARCH QUESTIONS
-Which competencies do shareholders expect from EMU-STHM graduates to excell during their studies?
--What are the perceptions of stakeholders on experiential learning in tourism and hospitality education and industry?
-What are the differencies among the perceptions of stakeholders towards the required competencies in tourism and hospitality industry?
-How does EMU-STHM programme meet the needs and expectations of the shareholders?

METHOD
-Structured interviews, questionnaire, focus group,secondary data
-Data triangulation
-Coding, categorizing, interpretation

VALIDITY
-Triangulation of multiple data sources, multiple informants and methods.

Qualitative researchers often stress the need for researchers to display the values, interests, and influences essential to their own personal experiences, which is called reflexivity. In order to demonstrate reflexivity, they often use "I" and active voice rather than passive voice. Unlike this tradition, the author of this

qualitative study preferred to use "the Researcher" and/or passive voice throughout the dissertation except the recommendation section where he presented his own ideas and thoughts about the objectives of this study.

In social research, the terminology of triangulation is used in a less literal sense that contains the use of multiple methods and measures of an empirical phenomenon to be able to overcome the problems of bias and validity (Blaikie, 2000; Scandura and Williams, 2000). This concept emerged from an ethical requirement to verify the validity of the process and, in case studies, it can be accomplished by using multiple data sources, multiple interviewers, and multiple methods in order to gather multiple perspectives on the same topic, remarkably to gain a better and an ultimate understanding of the phenomena (Yin, 2003). Social science researchers agree that the use of combined methods of investigation (triangulation) may offer valid and reliable findings obtained from each method (Adler and Adler, 1994). Triangulation was one of the best valuable ways to increase the trustworthiness of this research study and will be broadly discussed in Chapter 6. This study focused on collection of data triangulated between the undergraduate students, faculty of EMU-STHM, and the representatives of tourism and hospitality industry establishments in the region. Therefore, different types of investigation methods were employed to explore the perceptions of the participants of this research and to increase confidence in the findings of this study. (See Figure 9.)

Figure 9. Data Triangulation
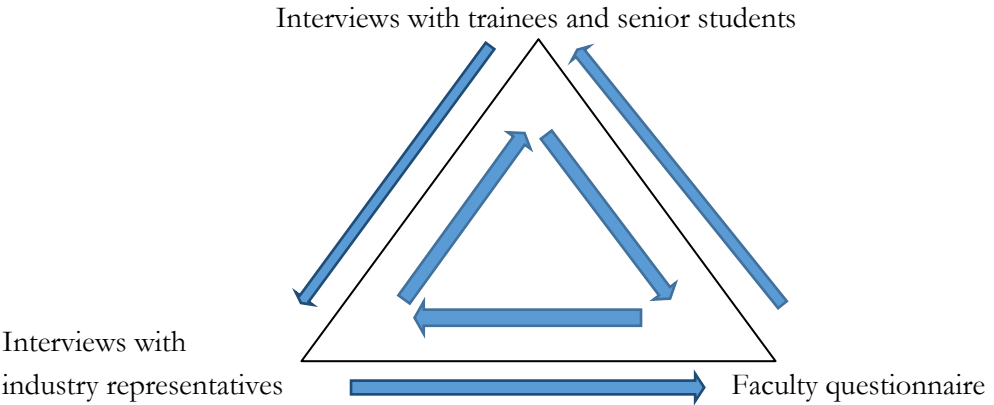
According to some scholars, interviews are widely used techniques as it is in the present study. Although 'asking questions and getting answers is a much harder task than it may seem at first', many factors such as the length of an interview, its structure and format, type and nature of the questions, interview location, personal and professional characteristics of the interviewer may contribute to the success of an interview (Fontana and Frey, 2000). Within the qualitative research style, the researcher and two of his colleagues, acting as the instrument (interviewer), used open-ended questioning to promote increased conclusions through the medium of interview process. Moreover, the research design that was applied to compile the data for this study from the interviewees enabled the researcher to find in detail, formed attitudes dealing with what students, academics, and industry professionals had experienced, listened, and watched with regard to the objectives of this study (Rubin and Rubin, 1995).

In spite of qualitative research is distinguished by an emergent and adjustable design, a primary plan for data collecting was necessary to guide this study. An overview of the participants, empirical data collecting instruments, and data collecting techniques for this study is illustrated in the Table 1. Table 1. Participants, data collecting methods and techniques

PARTICIPANTS	NUMBER	DATA COLLECTING INSTRUMENT	DATA COLLECTING TECHNIQUE
Senior Students	57 (5 groups)	Focus Group Discussion	Recorded and videotaped group discussion
Internship Students	116	Interview	On-the-job, one-to-one structured interview
Industry Representatives	57	Interview	On-the-job, one-to-one structured interview
Faculty	22	Questionnaire	e-mail and surface mail

Another important procedure, carried out in this research study, was to test the data collection instruments such as interview questionnaires or focus group interview guideline in advance through pilot studies.

4.3 Participants

Sampling is linked with the external validity (transferability or generalisability) of research findings, considered high in probability samples which allow results to be generalized from sample to population (Robson, 2002). Nevertheless, qualitative researchers are better inclined to choose non-probabilistic sampling methods as their curiosity rest in understanding social practices, not accomplishing statistical representativeness (Mays and Pope, 1995). They argue that the samples generated in these ways, while they are not representative statistically, they are relevant to the research questions and theoretically informed.

A purposive sampling method was used in selection of the participants of this study. This method is based on selecting the participants non-randomly, which allows the participants to be chosen as they have knowledge and experience suitable for the research (Bowling, 2002). Therefore, the participants of this study involved three primary stakeholders; the students, the educators, and the tourism and hospitality professionals (Zopiatis and Constantini, 2007). In order to determine the industry's expectation of EMU-STHM graduates who need to be prepared for a dynamic and changing tourism and hospitality industry, representatives from the students, faculty and industry were involved to provide knowledge and expertise. This population was selected in order that this research study would focus on the industry-required competencies and define how well experiential learning could prepare the students to an entry-level position within the tourism and hospitality industry.

Senior Students

The first group subjects consisted of 57 of total 78 EMU-STHM four-year program undergraduate students. These students were expected to graduate at the end of the semester they were interviewed. (see Table 2)

Table 2. Statistical information of focus group participants

Group No	No of Participants Invited – Attended	Nationality of Participants	Gender Male-Female	Average Age	Language of Focus Group Discussions
1	5 – 5	International	1 – 4	23	English
2	14 – 12	Turkish Cypriot	8 – 4	21.5	Turkish
3	14 – 12	Turkish Cypriot	7 – 5	21,5	Turkish
4	14 – 14	Turkish	10 – 4	22	Turkish
5	14 – 14	Turkish	9 – 5	21.5	Turkish

Research projects often use different groups to get different views. Each of these groups would represent a potentially different perspective on the problem that was under discussion. Therefore, considering their nationalities, 57 undergraduate volunteers were grouped into three categories; local students (Turkish Cypriot), Turkish students (from mainland Turkey) and international students. Turkish was the medium of interviews with the local and Turkish students, but the interviews with the international students was held in English. Among these categories, there were two groups of Turkish students, two groups of Turkish-Cypriot students and the total five undergraduate international students from Bosnia, China, Ghana, Palestine and Sweden formed another focus group. There were 14 participants in each of Turkish students' and 12 participants in each Turkish-Cypriot students' focus groups (see Table 2). According to Calhoun and Koltay (1999), focus groups are face-to-face interviews and a group of eight to twelve participants are chosen for similarity of background, but possible dissimilarity of attitudes. Too small groups are easily dominated by one or two of the group members, or may fall flat if too few people have anything to contribute (Manuel of American Statistical Association, 2001).

Internship Students

Educational institutions are liable for supervising internship students by organizing on-site visit to hospitality establishments and through interviewing with their on-the-job supervisors (Zopiatis and Constantini, 2007). Therefore, the first target population of this research study was consisted of 116 EMU-STHM four-year program trainee students who were doing their compulsory 60-day industrial training in the summer of between the years 2003 and 2005. Interviews of these trainees were conducted by the researcher himself and four other colleagues from EMU-STHM while they were inspecting them on-the-job at the premises. With the permission of the management, these trainees were visited at the premises while they were on duty, and individual face-to-face interviews were administered in order to reveal the trainee students' plans and perceptions of their career expectations as they developed in the classroom setting, and the internship practices.

Industry Representatives

The third target population of this study represented all industry professionals who were managers or supervisors during the industrial training of EMU-STHM trainee students at A-Class travel agents and four or five star hotels or holiday villages both in Northern Cyprus and in the southern part of Turkey. The third group was composed of 57 supervisors or the managers of the establishments where EMU-STHM trainee students completed their industrial training during the years mentioned above. Interviews of these professionals were also conducted by the researcher and his colleagues who were on a formal trainee on-site inspection trip to the premises that EMU-STHM trainees were supposed to be working at. Interviews with supervisors/managers lasted about 30 minutes. Questioning areas included the nature of trainee students, their expectations from them, inconsistencies between the expectations and the reality, necessary skills and knowledge that EMU-STHM program should provide to its students.

Faculty Staff

The subjects of the fourth group were the whole part-time and full-time faculty of EMU-STHM in 2005. The faculty staffs that teach or specialize in tourism and hospitality management were assumed that they possessed understanding in tourism and hospitality management curriculum. All EMU-STHM faculty staffs were encouraged to take part in the survey. The questionnaire was comprised of basic background information of the faculty and seven open-ended questions. Including two part-timers, all twenty-two regular faculties were e-mailed and handed over a hard copy of the Researcher-developed questionnaire. The questionnaire consisted of two sections. The first section asked for background information on the courses they teach and the length of time. The experience of faculty was taken into consideration while the responses were analyzed and evaluated. The second section of the questionnaire asked the faculty seven open-ended questions. The questions were on leadership competencies and the development of interpersonal communication skills, the efforts made by faculty to bring experiential learning into classroom, and the types of learning objectives emphasized in the course they teach.

The questions were about four themes. The first theme was leadership competencies. The questions in this theme asked the faculty how they perceive their roles and responsibilities in the improvement of leadership skills of the students. The second theme was interpersonal skills and the third theme was experiential learning. The questions in the later theme asked the faculty to comment on their perceptions and applications of this concept. The final theme was course objectives and activities. The questions in this theme were used to determine whether the course objectives meet the expectations of the tourism industry.

4.4 Data Collecting Instruments

Data collection in qualitative research can be managed by employing many different ways of data collecting techniques or by choosing one technique in particular. According to Marshall and Rossman (2006), data collecting methods in qualitative research can be classified into four types. These are: (a) direct

observation, (b) participation in the setting, (c) in-depth interviews, and (d) documents. For the purpose of this empirical study, the Researcher utilized questionnaires with open-ended questions, individual (one-to-one) and in-depth focus group discussions, besides analysis of trainee reports and log-books. These were suitable means to collect data from the participants, because they offer a very good way to bring forth personal experiences, thoughts, feelings, and self-reflections on the phenomena.

Table 3 below illustrates an overview of the relations between the questions of each of these data collecting instruments and the research questions.

Table 3. Relations between Research Questions and Data Collecting Instruments.

Data Collecting Instruments	Research Question #1	Research Question #2	Research Question #3	Research Question #4
Focus Group Discussion	Q # : 3	Q # : 4	Q #: 5,6	Q #: 1,2,5,6
Industry Representatives Interview	Q #: 2,4,5	Q #: 4,5	Q #: 5,6	Q #: 3,5,6
Internship Students Interview	Q #: 4,5,6	Q #: 4,5,6	Q #: 4,5,6	Q #: 1,2,3
Faculty Questionnaire	Q #: 1,2,3,6	Q #: 4,5,6	Q #: 1,2,6	Q #: 1,7

4.4.1 Focus Group Discussion

Focus group discussions have become a popular method for collecting qualitative information which cannot be discovered on many other types of data collecting methods. By gathering data from a small number of carefully selected people from similar experiences and back ground, focus group discussions have many advantages like being low cost and providing speedy results. Its adjustable format permits the researcher to have a look at unanticipated issues and encourages interaction among participants (https://www.ndi.org/.../USAID%20Guide). In a group setting, participants provide checks and balances, thus minimizing false or extreme views.

It is believed that focus group discussions would enable the researchers to get directly at issues that might not be revealed in a topical survey or even one-to-one interview (archive.unu.edu./unupress/…/UIN03E03). Unlike the one-way flow of information in a one-to-one interview, focus groups generate data through the give and take of group discussions. However, in a focus group discussion the so-called "interview affect" is limited because the statements made by the respondents are formulated under the influence interaction with other participants more than as responses to what the moderator says. Moreover, matters that are controversial or particularly important for the respondents come to the fore spontaneously. However, focus group discussions have some limitations. The flexible format makes it sensitive to facilitator bias that can undermine the validity and reliability of findings (www.ifad.org/operations/projects/.../focus.pdf).

During the eighth week of a sixteen-week teaching semester, the Researcher visited as many classes as possible to meet almost all of the undergraduate students. He gave brief information about the study he was conducting. He asked them to volunteer their services as focus group members and asked to write their names, e-mail addresses, and contact telephone numbers on a printed form prepared and provided by him. To make focus group meetings more appealing, he told them that the participants of the focus group would be offered pizza and coke before the session as small incentive. This announcement made many of them more interested in participating in one of these meetings.

With the permission of the school administration and the course instructors, the focus group interviews were conducted on Thursday afternoons which was the only period that all registered undergraduates were supposed to be at school. The interviews were held in the EMU-STHM staff meeting room which was "a convenient place with some degree of privacy" (Simon, 1999). All of these five group sessions were tape-recorded and videotaped by the researcher himself. The Researcher has also acted as a moderator and note-taker at the focus group interviews.

At the beginning of each focus group meeting, the moderator arrived at the meeting room earlier than the participants to arrange the recording equipment and set out the food and the refreshments. The reception and the pizza party session was an important opportunity for the moderator to make participants relax and feel comfortable. At the same time, he could identify the 'expert', 'shy', and 'dominant' students and make the seating arrangement for the focus group session accordingly.

Through the revision of the industrial training files, the Researcher developed six main questions and several follow-up/probes of the interview guide for the focus groups sessions (see Appendix A). In order to reduce participants' anxieties, to encourage participation and getting the interest of the participants quickly, "the funnel approach" which is moving from open-ended general questions to more specific ones was followed (Stewart and Shamdasani, 1990). Remembering that "one pilot group is a thousand times better than none at all" (http:www/pfks.org/toolkits), the focus group interview questions were pre-tested with a pilot group of five STHM students and found that more follow-ups were needed to be added. There were five focus groups. Total five undergraduate international students were gathered into the first focus group and the medium of instruction was English. The second and the third groups consisted of fourteen Turkish students (from mainland Turkey) in each. Turkish Cypriot students formed the fourth and the fifth focus groups with twelve participants in each and the interview was held in Turkish in these four groups.

Every focus group sessions initiated with a short introduction of the study and of its confidentiality. An interview guide (Appendix A) was developed for the

focus group sessions. The interview guide provided a framework for interaction and smooth running of the discussion. Six questions were posed to each group for discussion. These questions were ranged from the rationale for studying STHM programme at EMU and professional goals after graduation, to the theoretical application of STHM programme/curriculum and suggestions to for the improvements.

The interview began with a general background question on the reasons to choose studying a four-year tourism and hospitality programme at EMU-STHM. The following questions and follow-ups were on the perceptions of the participants about skills and competencies required by industry, contents of the courses offered and experiential learning activities that the students felt beneficial. Final question asked for the suggestions for the improvement of the STHM four-year programme curriculum. The length of each focus group was approximately one hour and ten minutes and all five interviews were moderated, recorded, videotaped, and then transcribed by the Researcher himself.

4.4.2 Structured Interview

A questionnaire is a group or sequence of questions designed to elicit information from an informant or respondent when asked by an interviewer or completed unaided by the participant. Whenever an interviewer is involved, the questionnaire is sometimes referred to as an interview. A structured questionnaire, on the other hand, is one in which the questions asked are actually decided in advance. The list of questions that make up a structured questionnaire may be open ended or close ended, depending on how the questions are framed and asked A close-ended question usually implements a set of responses or options from which a respondent indicates his/her choice. Where the study topic concerns factual issues, or is a familiar one with a limited range of responses, close-ended questions are particularly useful. An open-ended question is one in which possible responses are not supplied in advance. Each respondent's statements should be recorded as fully as possible and in the respondent's own words. Open-ended questions are very useful for exploring sensitive issues and investigating topics concerning beliefs, attitudes, and practices (Breakwell, 2006).

Thus, in many ways, the structured interview is like the questionnaire; indeed the two overlap to the extent that often interview is simply the investigator going through a questionnaire in the presence of a respondent the interviewer filling in the answers on the questionnaire sheet based on what the respondent says (Breakwell, 2006).

When used as an interviewing method, the questions are asked exactly as they are written, in the same sequence, using the same style, for all interviews. Nonetheless, the structured questionnaire can sometimes be left a bit open for the interviewer to amend to suit a specific context.

4.4.2.1 Industry Representatives' Interview

The content of the structured questionnaire for the supervisors/managers of the STHM trainee students was similar to the trainee students' questionnaire except that the second question asked students to list the benefits they were provided by the property where as the second question of the industry professionals' questionnaire asked the managers/supervisors to express their opinions and observations about the trainee students. A pilot test was conducted for clarification of the questionnaire and all except interviewing the trainee student in the same room with his/her supervisor worked well. Therefore, the Researcher advised his colleagues not to interview the trainee students in the presence of their supervisors or the managers of the establishments.

The industry questionnaire consisted of two sections (see Appendix B). The first section asked for background information on the level and the length of expertise of the trainee's supervisor/manager in the sector, and the establishment date of the property. The second part of the questionnaire consisted of nine open-ended interview questions except the second question explained above. The questionnaire was designed to be progressive, and was modeled "in a way that mirrors a conversation" (Palys, 1997, p.177). This approach was comfortable both for the researcher and the industry professional to exchange information using jargon familiar to the respondents.

The progressive nature of the instrument was first defined by the respondent providing background description on the property which they managed. In keeping with the conversational style and the objective of the survey, the respondents were questioned regarding their observations and opinions on the performance of the students in the areas of grooming, hygiene, and use of technology, communication and leadership skills. These questions revealed their level of satisfaction with the STHM trainee student and various methods industry professionals used to deliver feedback for the school to consider in pursuing future learning initiatives with the industry and whether they wish to employ STHM trainee students or graduates in the future.

4.4.2.2 Internship Students' Interview

The internship questionnaire consisted of two sections (see Appendix C). The first part gathered information on the name and the class of the training property, the types of responsibilities and duties the trainee was assigned and the names of the departments/sections that the trainee has gained work experience during the 60 day industrial training period. The second part of the questionnaire consisted of seven open-ended interview questions except that the second question asked for the benefits like accommodation, food, and transportation that were provided by the property. The last question asked whether the trainee would recommend the property to the other STHM students to complete their industrial training at this particular establishment.

4.4.3 Faculty Staff Questionnaire

The questionnaire for faculty staff (Appendix D) was designed to explore the main thrust of the study; whether the EMU-STHM programme meets the needs and expectations of the industry by developing its graduates with the required competencies. The faculty staff questionnaire consisted of seven open-ended questions. These questions were on managerial/leadership competencies, communication skills, the efforts of the faculty to bring experiential learning into classroom, the learning objectives and the activities emphasized in the courses they teach, and the methods to develop the students for the positions in tourism and hospitality industry. The questions revolved around four themes. The first theme

was leadership and how faculty perceived their roles in developing leadership competencies of the students. The second theme was the role of experiential learning through various course activities in their method of teaching and their success in achieving course objectives. The final theme was the faculty suggestion for the improvement of the curriculum. This was the key theme in the study as both the students and the industry professionals were also questioned about the programme improvements.

The questionnaire was developed into three sections. The first section consisted of the delivery notice defining the purpose of the research study, instruction with detailed examples, and the deadline for the completion and returning back to the Researcher. A day before the deadline, a reminder was e-mailed to the faculty staff who failed to participate in the survey. The second section was the faculty consent form explaining the purpose of the study, subject areas that the respondent would be questioned in, propose use of findings, and confidentiality. The third section of the questionnaire requested the background information about the courses that the faculty member taught and the length of time. This was considered an asset in evaluating responses to the questionnaire, as eighteen of the faculties were full-time, and two were part-time lecturers, and the other two were specialists teaching culinary and travel specific courses. This was taken into account when the questionnaire was designed, as no questions were directed at any particular group of faculty.

4.4.4 Secondary Data

While primary data applies to data being gathered or retrieved from a first-hand experience, secondary data refers to data which have been collected in the past and readily available for everybody. Primary data can be obtained by the researcher from things like experiments, surveys, questionnaires and interviews where a person gathering the data sits face-to face with the participant, whereas secondary data is freely available to the public and can be obtained from things like publications, journals and newspapers among others.

As reported by Steward and Kamins (1993), the application of secondary data is beneficial for a researcher, because one can previously evaluate the

appropriateness of a data as it is readily in existence, therefore a lot of time can be saved. The secondary data of this research study consisted of the web-pages of the Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus – State Planning Office (TRNC-SPO), TRNC-Ministry of Tourism, and EMU-STHM and the trainee reports and up-to-date logbooks of the internship students who completed their industrial training from the year 2000 through 2003 were analyzed. The trainee files contained employers input on a standardized form and an overall evaluation report that provided qualitative information focused on the performance of the trainee during his/her 60 day training period. However, the logbooks were filled out by the trainees by describing the roles and contributions made by them during their internship practice. These exercises provided researcher with the useful background data to develop questionnaire for faculty, industry professionals and both the trainee and focus group students.

4.5 Data Analysis

There is a great extent of literature underlying hypotheses and methods associated with qualitative data analysis. Quite a lot of these data analysis methods are related with some certain conventions like discourse analysis (e.g., Potter and Wetherall, 1994), narrative analysis (e.g., Leiblich, 1998), grounded theory (e.g., Strauss and Corbin, 1990) and phenomenology (van Manen, 1990). However, qualitative data analysis is a very unique procedure, with few strict rules and processes (http://e-article.info/e/a/title/QUALITATIVE_DATA-ANALYSIS). Therefore, some of these analytic approaches are "generic" and they cannot be classified within one of the particular traditions of qualitative data analysis approaches mentioned above (Silverman, 2006; Ezzy, 2002). Marshall and Rossman (2006) described qualitative data analysis as simple as setting up and then attaching meaning to the data, but Miles and Huberman (1994) pointed out the "three-phase procedure" which contains: data reduction; data display; and conclusion drawing and verification.

Another three main strategies in data analysis were introduced by Maxwell (1998). These strategies were: categorizing (such as coding and thematic analysis); contextualizing (such as narrative analysis and individual case analysis); and memos and displays. Powel and Renner (2003) suggested some sequential actions like getting to know your data; focusing the analysis; categorizing information;

identifying patterns and connections within and between categories; interpretation or bringing it all together.

In the interest of understanding the perspectives of the participants better, and to discover plausible answers to the research questions, Powel and Renner's (2003) data analysis strategies were adopted in this research. This method was based on drawing a simple table on the summary form with the main themes on the left hand side column, and representative quotations for these themes on the right hand side column. Even though some data analysis software were available to be used, the Researcher preferred to use manual data analysis as he was highly engaged in getting nearer to the data and using the analysis to build themes and ideas.

To help the Researcher with the analysis of the data, an 'interview summary form' and a 'focus group summary form' was produced. The Researcher completed these forms right after every single interview or focus group discussion took place. These forms included factual information about the date, time, location, respondents, length of the focus group discussions or one-to-one interviews, and details about the probable themes.

After completions of each focus group discussion, all of the participants were coded and the recorded data was transcribed. Transcribing data through listening to the tapes and/or watching the video recordings was a demanding and time consuming job especially when more than two students talked at the same time. The Researcher started to the process of data analysis immediately. Initially, the Researcher had to read the transcribed data several times and decided on the list of themes. These themes than formed the basis of the categorization of the comments that were made in each focus group session. This process was repeated until the most salient themes were identified. Then, the representative quotations were picked out from each group which would form the substructure of the findings of this research paper.

In conclusion, analyzing the survey results, substantial interpretations of the data collected through questionnaires and interviews, assisted to draw conclusions about the overall findings of this research study. It is obvious that,

these conclusions were highly relevant to the general aims and expectations of this research study.

CHAPTER 5
RESULTS: EMPIRICAL FINDINGS

This chapter will represent an analysis of data collected from the main stakeholders; students, faculty staff and trainee students' supervisors. Empirical findings of the study will be analyzed and presented separately under the following headings: (1) Perceptions of senior students on learning in THM programme, (2) Perceptions of Faculty Staff on teaching in THM programme (3) Perceptions of Internship Students on training practices, and (4) Perceptions of supervisors on internship students' practices.

The themes that were emerged from the analyses of focus group discussions will be presented in details, and interpretations will be supported by various sample quotes from the participants. However, general analysis of the data collected by other instruments will be found in the next chapter.

The population for this study comprised all three primary tourism and hospitality stakeholders; the students, the faculty and the tourism industry representatives. The participants for students consisted of 57 senior (final-year) EMU-STHM students and 116 EMU-STHM two-year and four-year programme trainee students. The target participants for faculty included 22 EMU-STHM teaching staff and 57 industry representatives who were the trainee students' supervisors and/or managers at A-class travel agents and four or five star hotels or holiday villages in Northern Cyprus and in southern part of Turkey.

The data for this study were compiled through questionnaires, one-to-one interviews and focus group discussions. Data generated from the study are shown as a percentage of the total number of participants or as a frequency counts. Table formats and discussions are used to present the findings of the survey. To clarify the results in details, all of the tables are followed by discussions and the most

salient answers are highlighted in the related tables. Data collected through focus group interviews have been coded, summarized and grouped into themes.

5.1 Perceptions of Senior Students on Learning in THM Programme

A total of 57 senior (last year) students participated in total five focus group discussions that were held during the eighth week of a sixteen-week semester. Judgmental sampling procedure was applied in order to specify the sample and according to their nationalities, the volunteers grouped into three categories: international students, Turkish students, and Turkish Cypriot students. The international students, who came from Bosnia, China, Ghana, Palestine, and Sweden, formed the first focus group. The second and the third group members were Turkish Cypriot students who were selected among the volunteers in this category. Although 14 students were allocated in each of these groups, 12 of them attended the sessions. The fourth and the fifth groups were consisted of 14 Turkish students in each, and all of them participated in the focus group interviews. More than half of the participants were male and the average age of the whole participants were twenty-one and a half. The languages that were used during the interviews were English for the first group (international students) and Turkish for the others.

Each focus group began with a warming-up question asking the reason why they chose to study tourism and hospitality program at EMU-STHM. The data revealed that almost all international students chose to study tourism and hospitality program at EMU-STHM purposefully by their own will and decisions. However, about half of the Turkish students and only a few Turkish Cypriot students were studying at EMU-STHM as part of their career plans.

The following question and the follow-ups were about the perceptions of focus group participants towards the competencies required for entry level positions in tourism and hospitality industry and experiential learning components of the programme.

According to the responses, only a few participants among these 57 students in five focus groups were positive about the programme which enhanced them with required industry competencies and provided those adequate experiential learning practices through their four-year undergraduate studies. Therefore, the great majority of the participants found almost nothing to praise in the programme concerning experiential learning practices. However, almost each of these five focus group participants appeared to hold identical perceptions for the essential competencies and qualifications which are required to meet the expectations and requirements of the industry. The comments of the participants have been collected under the following themes: 'Industry Competencies', 'Experiential Learning', 'Programme Courses', 'Industrial Training', and 'Development of the Programme'.

Industry Competencies

It has been described that internship in tourism and hospitality industry maintains the possibility for the trainees to practice what they have studied to the real work environment and prepare them for a future career. Therefore, the students hoped that what they have studied at school was related, adequate and appropriate to the competencies and knowledge needed by the industry. After completing their first industrial training, they realized the consequences of interpersonal communication skills, guest relations and conflict resolutions in real work environment and situation. These were the skills that they could not sincerely appreciate unless they have had a couple of on-the-job practical experiences to work with the guests and industrial training was an excellent opportunity to acquire these transferrable skills.

Overall, focus group participants strongly believed that they should develop job skills like industry knowledge, leadership, interpersonal communication, teamwork, quality service, how to deal with and solve customer complaints as well as foreign languages, computer and telecommunication skills that an entry level professional should have.

Experiential Learning

As part of their course requirement, the students enjoyed participating in seminars, workshops and conferences to enhance their knowledge in selected topics, and they thought they benefitted when their observations were discussed later in the classroom, as an example of experiential learning. Visiting historical sites were also valuable experiential activities which helped them match their prior knowledge with the ones they see, observe and experience in the field.

Building from experience, the 'Travel' stream students have benefitted from the courses which asked them to organize and operate a weekend or a day trip to a touristic place in the country. The courses like guiding, tour operation and tourism event showed them how to organize these type of activities and gave them the opportunity to work in teams and manage every single aspects of the operation. The students believed that they could learn better by just doing and practicing. They even learn from their mistakes or the mistakes of their friends while they are applying and practicing the assignment.

> "...only course we had was Guiding. These courses should be increased. I wish we had done something at Tour Operation, like a tour to a football match at least. I would have been better, if we had supported our theoretical learning with practical applications." (Group 4, Turkish male student.)

One of other experiential learning practices of 'Hospitality' stream students was to manage a live restaurant operation through planning and hosting a restaurant night, which was appreciated by almost all of the participants. This was a group project of food and beverage management course which required them organizing a 'dinner night' open to public. They really enjoyed this group activity. The school let them use the tools and facilities of EMU Tower Restaurant for this project but asked them pay for the damage if any. This was one the best 'learn by doing' type of activity which made some of them act as managers while others were busy with planning, marketing, publicizing, purchasing, cooking, serving, and even doing the washing-up and sweeping the floor after the guests have gone.

"One of the most logical applications at this school was the organization of the dinner night at food and beverage course. Even you do the washing-up, you become a real manager." (Group 5, Turkish male student.)

As part of their course requirement, the students enjoyed participating in seminars, workshops and conferences to enhance their knowledge in selected topics, and they thought they benefitted when their observations were discussed later in the classroom, as an example of experiential learning:

"Among the instructor that I met during my eight year at this school, I appreciate Mr. *** the most. He perfectly taught us how to talk with people, body language, and presentation at a conference. He made us practice, took us out of the classrooms and demonstrated. I believe in experiential learning, nothing else." (Group 5, Turkish male student.)

They believed that the use of guest speakers and professionals from the industry and inviting industry experts and bureaucrats to the classrooms for presentation and demonstration enhanced experiential learning of the participants.

"We took Leadership course. For example, somebody came in that course, I mean experienced people. For example, industry workers come and tell us their experiences. I think this is beneficial for us." (Group 2, Turkish Cypriot male student.)

They also enjoyed the course called planning and policy as they attended weekly seminars of a representative from the ministry of tourism and executives from travel and hospitality industry.

"Every Friday at Mr.***'s Planning and Policy course, people from business, from the tourism industry or the Minister of Tourism came and shared their experiences with us, motivated us." (Group 2, Turkish Cypriot male student.)

Programme Courses

The majority of the students strongly believed that the courses, which combine theory and practice, qualify them with the understanding of management and operation in travel and hospitality industry.

> "We take Historical Environment sir, and we regularly visit and get valuable information about the historical sites of Cyprus. We cannot forget them because we use them every day like what we learned at Interpersonal Skills course." (Group 5, Turkish male student.)

They have stated that most of their courses are from other non-tourism related disciplines such as foreign languages, history and geography. They would rather like to have practical, on-the-job courses which provide experience, personal and professional skills rather than theoretical courses which require a lot of reading and memorizing.

> "Teamwork and Leadership, Interpersonal Skills. These two courses, I have learned a lot." (Group 1, international male student.)

> "I think that we will be positively affected, if our courses are changed and directed to practical applications." (Group 2, Turkish Cypriot female student.)

A dramatic comment came from a participant saying that he has memorized the finance course textbook page-by-page and he can successfully sell the book to the tourists.

> "...applied Tourism and Hospitality School is totally theoretical. We even finished the finance course through reading. We read and memorized the book. I mean we can sell the book to the tourists."(Laughed). (Group 5, Turkish male student.)

He added that you might pass your class in theory but fail in practice. He further suggested that theory and practice should be united in most of the courses they had to study.

"Reading and learning are different concepts. We read, memorize, take exams, and pass these courses. But we are not learning. You may pass your class in theory but fail in practice. Theory and practice should be united in most of the courses." (Group 5, Turkish male student.)

Quite a lot of them believed that EMU-STHM programme is totally theoretical so the number of the applied courses which are directly related with the profession should be increased.

"For our practical development, the number of courses which are directly related with the profession should be increased. I believe that the applied courses prepare us for the future much more."(Group 2, Turkish Cypriot male student.)

Some of the participants believed that the courses, which help them practice skills like interpersonal communication, problem solving techniques, and team management, prepare them to the industry better than the other courses which mainly focus on theory.

"Interpersonal Skills course should be divided into two and given at two semesters. Interpersonal relations are very important sir...languages are important, body language is important and practice is important." (Group 2, Turkish Cypriot female.)

However, they appreciated the courses like mathematics, statistics, accounting, and finance although they are theoretical in nature.

"Besides Math, Statistics, Accounting and Finance, I can say that I have learned everything at Professional Management Skills and Leadership course that Mr.*** gave last year." (Group 5, Turkish male student.)

Apart from the core courses, they found the number of elective courses were limited and far from focusing on practical, experiential or on-the-job learning issues.

"Elective courses are really limited. We need more electives and interesting ones". (Group 5, Turkish male student.)

"There was a course called *** and Mr.*** gave it once. Our friends who took this course say that it was a perfect course. We collected a list of names that wanted to take this elective course but the administration said that the electives were only opened once. I really cannot understand this." (Group 4, Turkish male student.)

Some of the elective were not related with their subjects but they had to register to one of them as they had no other options.

"I am interested in Congress Tourism. A course called 'Conventions' was opened as elective at the previous semester but I could not take it. However, it was not offered this semester and I cannot take it, so I missed that chance, I mean finished!" (Group 4, Turkish female student.)

Unlike the participants who suggested that all electives should be related with their major or stream, some said they would rather have non-technical electives.

"Sir, our school does not consider inserting non-technical courses into our curriculum." (Group 5, Turkish male student.)

They claimed that the courses proposed as being 'electives' at the other departments were more than those proposed as being "required courses".

"...the other departments, they have non-technical courses. My friend is studying at Computer Engineering, and he took English, German, Spanish and Greek. Can you imagine? A man in Computer Engineering has taken four language courses but I can only learn two here. Why not we take language courses from other departments as electives?" (Group 4, Turkish male student.)

Not only the language courses but they also wanted to take courses from other departments in order to enlarge their views on other social subjects.

"… why not open our views on arts, or something else to get relax, to get out from this department. Because, we aren't studying really hard for sure…" (Group 1, international female student.)

They said they could understand the administrative or technical difficulties of taking courses from other faculties and schools but it was difficult to understand why an EMU-STHM 'Travel' stream student could not even take courses from EMU-STHM 'Hospitality' stream, although the diploma of both stream students will get is the same.

"If I am in 'Hospitality', let us take courses from 'Travel'. So anyway, when we (that's a great suggestion) get diploma, my diploma and her diploma is the same. " (Group 5, Turkish male student.)

Industrial Training

Almost all of the students accepted the utmost importance and need for industrial experience and on-the-job training. They believe that industrial training open their vision to the real world and help them feel more self-confident when they can apply their previous theoretical knowledge into practice or just learn by doing after observing their supervisors.

"I cannot see our practical, applied courses as fruitful. The only experiential learning course here is THM 100 and THM 300, I mean Industrial Training. As my friend *** said, our vision has enlarged after completing our internships, not after studying some nonsense courses at the school." (Group 5, Turkish male student.)

"If we take our total internship period as four months, I can say that this four months equal to the four year's study at the school. I mean you learn a lot at your training." (Group 4, Turkish male student.)

One of the graduation requirements of the programme is mandatory industrial training. After completing their second year and again after third year at school, each student should do their 60-day-training in the summer months. However, the majority of the students agreed that the length of the industrial

training was too short. They suggested that either the length of each training periods should be extended or the number of industrial training should be increased to three or four times.

> "We can go to training four times in four years; this may take us to better and higher positions in the sector." (Group 4, Turkish female student.)

> "…other schools in London or in other places, their training period are three months." (Group 1, international female student.)

The most common complaint was about unsocial working hours as well as the duties and responsibilities they were given during their internship at the industry.

> "We are just you know 'waiters', in the training program. So we don't see how they do this job. May be the School should, you know, request for them, you know, to lead us to the managerial level." (Group 1, international female student.)

They would not mind working as waiters or waitresses in their first training period, but would like do some kind of administrative or managerial duties at the related departments in their second training.

> "It's okay to be a busboy or busgirl or start from the lowest level at the first industrial training. But I wish we could do the second training under a general manager or a personnel manager. (Group 4, Turkish male student.)

They would also want to work at different departments of the establishment to be able to view the general picture of the organization.

> "… to make the part of a procedure, would be better to divide the total 60-day-internship period into four two-week sub-periods and work two weeks at four different departments of the hotel." (Group 3, Turkish Cypriot male student.)

Many of the participants did not know and were not sympathized with the extended working hours, high stress levels and restricted opportunities for entry-

level management options. They have strongly criticized the lack of information they received about the work placement and working conditions.

"What's more sir, they made us work no less than 14 hours a day." (Group 2, Turkish Cypriot female student.)

Therefore, there was a strong demand that the school should take the issue of internship more seriously. Because, some participants argued that they had to work long hours and felt as if they were 'cheap workers', neglected and left alone at these big hotels, and asked the school to take care of its students by inspecting them regularly.

"...and the school should take care of its students during the training. I used to start at five in the evening and finish at eight in the morning. My daily workload was 16 hours." (Group 4, Turkish male student.)

"The school only leaves us; I mean, get rid of us and leave us all alone at these huge hotels by ourselves." (Group 2, Turkish Cypriot male student.)

They added that the school should be sensitive about the complaints of internship students and give the hotel administration a checklist of activities to take part and the skills to be improved on trainees.

"The school can give them the list of things to teach the trainees or advise them. Because, they make us do some hard but simple and unimportant things." (Group 2, Turkish Cypriot male student.)

"The school, for example, non-sensitive in a way. For example, the trainees always complained about *** hotel the most. They must cancel this hotel or...Every summer 10, 12 students do their training at this hotel, but none of them is happy." (Group 3, Turkish Cypriot female student.)

After completing their industrial training, they realized that how the courses were scheduled was another problem. They thought that it would be more beneficial if they could take some of the programme courses before they go on

training. Therefore, they would have the occasion to implement their theoretical knowledge into practice.

> "How our courses are scheduled is a bit of a problem. Because, I came from training and I realized that, all that I learnt from training was being taught in the following semester. (Group 1, international female student.)

Development of the Programme

Beyond the themes of 'Industry Competencies', 'Experiential Learning', 'Programme Courses', and 'Industrial Training', the focus group participants raised a number of issues that can be collected under 'Development of the Programme'.

Although the great majority of the students were satisfied with their course instructors, some considered the need for the instructors with industry experience. They argued that tourism was a field of education that requires instructors to know not only its theoretical background but also to appreciate the practical issues of the industry. They believed that getting information or recommendation from someone who was in the sector would prepare them to the future better.

> "I wish we had instructors from the sector... I believe that getting information or recommendation from someone who is in the sector will prepare us to the future better." (Group 2, Turkish Cypriot male student.)

On the contrary, some of them considered the instructors with only industry experience were not adequate. They said some of their instructors had never received any regular or systematic professional education or training in tourism. They argue that teaching was an art. Therefore, knowing the subject alone cannot help them pass their knowledge to the students. However, students agreed that they would definitely benefit from the industry experiences of the teaching staff.

> "I don't support the idea of having instructors with industry experience. They may know their subject but cannot teach us. I believe that teaching is an art. We can only benefit from their experiences." (Group 3, Turkish Cypriot male student.)

Considering the importance of Experiential Learning, quite a lot participant believed that the school should provide new premises or facilities for its students and give opportunities to run or operate them. A classroom for example, can be converted into a front office for this purpose, or a travel agent in the campus can be established and run by the students. This would be valuable opportunity for them to work and have practical application in a natural setting. Some even go further and ask the school to build its own hotel and operate it mainly by EMU-STHM students.

> "I bet the School has enough budgets to build its own hotel to make profit. The money earned here can be spent to make the Demo Kitchen better. They may build another floor on top of the Tower Restaurant (at the School premises) and provide more alternatives for the students." (Group 5, Turkish male student.)

> "…an International University, the whole restaurant is run by students. The manager, the general manager, assistants, everyone are students. And that's the part of their course. One semester they work there. Everything is run by students. Even the accounting department. We cannot do anything, but carrying dish to a man who is gonna serve." (Group 1, international female student.)

5.2 Perceptions of Faculty Staff on Teaching in THM Programme

In order to find out the perceptions of faculty staff on teaching in THM programme, a faculty questionnaire consisted of seven questions was handed and e-mailed to all seventeen academic staff and two research assistants at EMU-STHM. Thirteen or 75% of these questionnaires were completed and returned back. The faculty questionnaire first requested for professional background information of the faculty by asking their teaching experiences and which courses they had offered at this school and for how long. Two of the faculty and two other research assistants responded that they were teaching at STHM for one to two years. Five of the full-time faculties had four to five years teaching experience at the school. The remaining four respondents were the most qualified faculty with

nine to ten years of teaching experiences at STHM. Five of these senior faculties had offered five to six different courses, and five other full-time faculties instructed three to four travel and hospitality related courses during their service at STHM. However, the research assistants and one full-time specialist instructed only one or two different courses in their teaching careers so far.

The second section of the questionnaire asked the faculty seven open-ended questions which were on leadership competencies, development of interpersonal communication skills, the efforts made by the faculty to bring experiential learning into classroom, and the types of learning objectives emphasized in the courses they teach. These seven questions were grouped into four themes. The first theme was leadership competencies. The questions in this theme asked the faculty how they perceive their roles and responsibilities in the improvement of leadership competencies of the students. The second theme was interpersonal skills and the third theme was experiential learning. The final theme was course objectives and activities. The questions in this theme were used to determine whether the course objectives meet the expectations of tourism industry.

The first open-ended question of the questionnaire asked the faculty how EMU-STHM programme prepares the students for leadership /managerial roles in tourism industry. The 29 % of the respondents believed that the courses they offered play the main role to qualify students with the leadership skills required by the tourism and hospitality industry. The data reveals that among other activities, group projects and presentations were mostly used methods (18%) on the purpose of preparing the students as leaders / managers of tomorrow. The faculty believed that the group projects help students conceptualize and internalize the information while gaining leadership through informal meetings and group presentations. The second equally important activity (18%) was the compulsory sixty-day industrial training where the students could practice leadership skills and understand how to act professionally, which was not necessarily taught in classes. The third activity (18%) was the case studies which normally provide students with real-world situations. Case studies required the students to offer solutions and make feasible and workable suggestions after researching the nature of the problem. The fourth activity (12%) was inviting industry professionals as guest speakers to present and disclose their experiences and thoughts with the students.

Other activities that prepare students for leadership roles were social, cultural and sports activities. Through these activities students could practice and improve leadership competencies including vision, decision making, coaching, effective interpersonal and intercultural communication skills. Finally, one of the faculties thought that the STHM curriculum was poor like a vocational high school programme. He further suggested that more grounds had to be opened in terms of practical activities and more real-life case studies should be applied as in the Japanese teaching and learning system.

The second question asked the faculty how the courses they teach address leadership /managerial competencies of the students. The majority of the faculty (65 %) indicated that activities like presentations, group works, invitation of guest speakers and case studies were often used to equip the students with managerial / leadership competencies through the courses they teach. Sharing the industry experiences of some of the lecturers, analyzing theories and presenting them fairly, increasing the competencies in communication skills, and discussions of various papers were the other effective activities for development of leadership competencies of the students within the courses they offer.

The third question was about improving interpersonal communication skills of the students. This question asked the faculty how do the courses they teach provide students with essential interpersonal competencies. Almost half of the respondents (48%) agreed that the group projects and presentations, and reading and writing requirements of the courses they teach provided tools to develop interpersonal communication skills of EMU-STHM students. Three of the respondents (12%) believed that using technological device enhanced them with firm foundation to communicate effectively and professionally. Two of the faculties (8%) responded that activities like case studies, class discussions, and encouraging students to use the right body language were the other aspects of their courses that helped to improve interpersonal communication skills of the students. However, one of the faculties claimed that the course he lectured was not directly related to improve this competency.

The fourth question focused on experiential learning and asked the faculty how do the courses they teach serve the aspects of this concept. Six of the

respondents (27%) agreed that reality based projects that require outside classroom research were the most effective activities on this purpose. Three of the faculties (14%) responded that oral presentation of these projects was the second important experiential learning activity as they go through the process of preparation and presentation of them in front of their instructors and classmates. Two other respondents (9%) believed that inviting guest speakers from the industry and practicing case studies were the third and the fourth important experiential learning activities of the course they teach. Due to their course contents and requirements, the rest of the faculty had various responses like e-learning, visiting industrial workplaces, wine-tasting events, and consultation opportunities for the students, participating in conferences and seminars, round-table discussions in class, role-plays and video presentations.

The fifth question asked the faculty what efforts they look out for bringing experiential learning into their classroom. Five of the respondents (20 %) were in favor of the invitation of sector representatives as guest speakers to share their experiences with the students. Three others (12%) believed in the effectiveness of on-the-job training (internship) and learn by doing type of projects. Two of the faculties (8%) suggested that case studies and presentations of group projects were other effective activities to bring experiential learning into their classes. The rest of the responses were quite varied as field trips, organizing sightseeing tours, research seminars and conferences, following media, encouraging students referring their own work experiences, exam questions related to real-life and current issues, using up-to-date materials, role-plays, menu designing and application, and video-recorded presentations.

The sixth question was about learning objectives that were included and emphasized in EMU-STHM courses. Five of the faculties (23 %) responded that the primary objective of the courses they teach was to enhance analytical thinking skills of the students. Three faculties (14%) argued that the courses they teach focused on the development of communication skills. Two other faculties (9%) responded that the learning objectives of their courses were research skills and critical thinking abilities of the students, however, one faculty suggested that more experiential learning activities should be emphasized in the courses. The rest of their responses on learning objectives of EMU-STHM courses were ranged from

teamwork, community work, undertaking SWOT analysis, improving presentation skills, organization chart and the roles of staff, practical and relevant outside projects, professional experience of instructor, integration of the knowledge gained in the other courses to practicing and application of previously learned subjects.

The final question asked the faculty the activities that provide the best results for experiential learning in the courses they teach and the reasons. The answers were various like group projects, presentations research, real life examples, one-to-one teaching, case studies, interactive learning, open-book quizzes and speaking classes. Therefore, the majority of the respondents agreed that learning-by-doing type of activities produced the best result as they challenge the students to provide opportunities to develop their competencies like leadership, interpersonal, team-working and problem solving competencies in authentic situations. The rest of the responses and the reasons for suggested activities are displayed in the following table. (Table 4.)

Table 4 Perceptions of Faculty Staff: Activities which provide best results for experiential learning

Activities	Reasons
Group projects	More live than theories Motivate students, enhance teamwork and problem solving Outdoor activities make them learn by doing Provide responsibility skills & Teach how to act in a team Provide feedback from alumni who currently work in industry
Presentations	Make them feel confident & Increase self-esteem Help them become more active in class Give opportunity to practice communication skills Through role play they learn by doing
Research	Increase analytical skills & Capture students' attention Enhance understanding inductive and deductive learning
Real life examples	Give opportunity to improve technical skills Enhance understanding by practicing and doing Make them realize the differences between theory and real life applications

One-to-one teaching	Best way to increase the success of students
Case studies	Capture students' attention and enhance their understanding
Interactive learning	Learn by doing
Reading and writing	Learn by doing
Repetitions of certain principles	Make those responsible ones to work harder Help them not to lose the perspective whatever they do
Encouragement to participate	Learn by doing
Open-book quizzes	Increase ethics and self-esteem Make them become more active and responsible
Speaking classes	Best way for solving conflicts and problems

5.3 Perceptions of Internship Students on Training Practices

Both the internship students and their supervisors were interviewed at the premises during the training period of the students. The content of questionnaires for trainees and the supervisors were similar except that the trainees were asked to list the benefits they were provided but the supervisors expressed their observations about the trainee students instead (see Appendix B and C).

The internship students were composed of 116 students studying in the two-year and the four-year tourism and hospitality programme at EMU-STHM. The data collected from these students through questionnaires and interviews which were considered the most appropriate data collection methods although it was tiring and time consuming to visit each trainee on the job at their training places in two countries (Turkey and North Cyprus) and in different regions within these countries.

The first question on the questionnaire asked trainee students "What kind of difficulties did you face with before and/or during the first days of your industrial training? How were they solved?"

Among 116 respondents only 18 of the trainees (15 %) said that they did not face with any problem at all. The remaining 98 students (85 %) said that they faced with some difficulties and problems at the beginning of their training periods. Although half of them were taken seriously and solved quickly, some others were ignored and could not be attended properly. One of these complaints was about accommodation that was mainly derived from the poor standards and the hygiene of the places allocated for trainee students. As most of the trainees had no previous job experiences and some were not given orientation at the premises, they did not feel confident at the beginning of their training period. Some of these training students were discouraged and lost their enthusiasm by non-stop 13 hours workload during their first experience in the sector. What deeply annoyed and upset them were unfriendly attitudes of some senior staff at the travel agencies and hotels. Some trainees claimed that they were offended just because they study at a private university. Therefore, some of them were given duties like cleaning, helping laundry staff, loading and unloading food and beverages to and from the cellar, carrying things and washing up.

The degree of trainee students' satisfaction on the benefits like accommodation, food, uniform and salary that the property provided them was another question that the trainee students answered. They were quite satisfied with the accommodation, food and the uniform that were provided by the property they worked at. Other benefits given to trainee students were the salary and the use of hotel facilities. However, none of the students found the salary given to them as satisfactory. Yet, 28 students (24%) at seven different properties were not given any salary at all. Other benefits that the trainee students were provided are ranged from transportation to customer tips and use of hotel premises like spa and swimming pool on their off days.

Majority of the trainee students (70%) generally satisfied with the type of work given to them. However, many of them wanted to work at different departments in order to have a broader vision on various duties and sections

within the organization. Some of the total 20% dissatisfied students complained about wasting their time by doing simple and ordinary jobs that were given to them.

The next question they were asked was "How do you get on with your supervisors and other personnel?" Only 13% of the students had difficulties in working and communicating with their supervisors and other staff, but the vast majority (83%) was happy to meet and work with those people around them. The trainees, who were not pleased, generally said that they were seen as a 'potential danger' by some of their supervisors who had no certificates or diploma and believed that these trainees would become their managers with a couple of years' experience after their graduation.

The following question asked the students if and at what level they benefitted from the courses they studied at EMU-STHM and give the name of the courses they assumed they benefitted directly or indirectly during their training periods.

A little over half of the respondents (54%) found the courses beneficial but 28% were not sure if the courses they have taken at school were beneficial or not. However, 14 % said that they had little or no benefit from the courses they have studied at school.

According to the perceptions of the trainee students, the most beneficial course was Interpersonal Skills (31%). The following courses like English (28%), Travel and Tour Operation, Lodging, Room Division and Hotel Operation (14%) were second and third rank beneficial courses. The other courses that the trainee students assumed that they were benefitted were German, Ticketing, Troya, Galileo, Fidelio, Human Resource Management, Computer Skills, Front Office, Accounting, Cost Control, Marketing, Travel Geography and Labour Relations, Airline and Transportation respectively

The next question asked the trainees "What skills and knowledge should EMU-STHM emphasize for its students pursuing a career in tourism management?". One-third (32%) of the respondents stressed the importance of

'on-the-job training' and raised the need for more practical experiences on their studies so that they would gain self-confidence and communicate with the guest effectively. The following important skills that the students needed were practical spoken English and German. Computerized reservation system called Troya, and ticketing, accounting and a third foreign language were the other important skills they wanted to gain within their studies. The students who felt the need for a Turkish course were foreign trainee students but were doing their industrial training at mainly Turkish speaking establishments.

The last question asked if they would recommend the property where they spent their training period to the other students to do their training in the following years. The replies revealed that more than 70% of these trainee students said that they were willing to recommend the property to EMU-STHM students. However, 22 students (19%) were not satisfied and would not recommend the property to the others, and 14 students (12%) were not sure to recommend it or not. The trainees who were not sure whether to recommend the property to the students for their training in the following years complained about; the heavy workload, lack of salary, mismanagement, autocratic management, low standards, no job satisfaction, lack of motivation and lack of orientation and rotation.

5.4 Perceptions of Supervisors on Internship Students Practices

The other questionnaire which was applied to 57 supervisors was designed to explore whether the programme and the trainee students of EMU-STHM meet the expectations that hospitality management programmes develop graduates with technical and other required skills. It was similar with the trainee student's questionnaire except that the second question was on observations of the trainee students. They were asked to give opinion on hygiene, appearance, computer skills, foreign language skills, communication skills and leadership skills of the training students.

The first question on the supervisors' questionnaire was "What kind of difficulties did you face with before and/or during the first days of the trainee? How were they solved?" Out of 57 respondents only 12 of them said that they

experienced some problems with the trainees. The rest of the supervisors (45) had either no problems or solved them immediately. According to the supervisors, the serious problems affected the performance of the trainees were; lack of motivation, lack of practice, lack of self-confidence, no job satisfaction and expectation of managerial or supervisory duties.

Secondly, supervisors were asked to comment on their observations on appearance and hygiene, computer skills, English proficiency, communication skills, and leadership skills of the trainee students.

The replies indicated that none of the supervisors were dissatisfied by the look and the personal care of the trainees and almost half of them (46%) found their personal image and hygiene perfect, and the rest of them (54%) said they looked good.

Half of the trainee supervisors (50 %) were satisfied with the computer skills of the students and 6 others (10%) found their skills to be adequate. However, 22 respondents (40%) replied in which the departments that trainee students currently work did not require the application of computer literacy skills.

English proficiency was another skill that the supervisors were asked to comment on. More than half of the trainee supervisors (53%) indicated that English proficiency of the trainees were either good or excellent. Fifteen others (26%) graded their level as 'average' and 12 respondents (21%) said that English was not needed for the department they currently work.

Industry questionnaire revealed that majority of supervisors (87%) found the communication skills of the trainees above the average level except four of the respondents (7%) indicated that this was not needed for the duty of trainee students were given.

On the other hand, forty-two of the supervisors (75%) assumed that the level of leadership skills of trainee students was above average. Only 3 of them (6%) found them poor at it or do not have it at all. However, 19% of the

respondents said that the duties and responsibilities of the internship students did not require any leadership skills.

The relationship of the trainees with their supervisors and other personnel was regarded as "perfect" by 23 or (42%), "good" by 28 or (51%) and adequate by 4 or (7%) of the supervisors.

The next question was about the efficiency of the current courses at EMU-THM which asked whether EMU-STHM prepares its training students to meet the expectations of tourism industry by providing them required knowledge and skills. Only 8 or (14%) of the supervisors did not consider the courses offered at EMU-STHM were sufficient, and 5 % of the respondents had no idea about it, but the rest of them (80%) were quite happy with the subject specific education they had at their schools.

The following question asked them what skills and knowledge should EMU-STHM curriculum emphasizes for its students pursuing a career in tourism management. Almost half of the industry representatives complained about the length of the training period. They assumed that 60 day internship was too short and some said this period should be doubled. They also suggested that the following courses, activities, and competencies like Restaurant Management, Customer Relations, Basic Technical Skills, Communication Skills, Ability to deal with Customer Complaints, Empathy, Time Management Skills, Telephoning Skills, Self-discipline, Work Ethics and Professionalism, Spoken English, On-the-job experience, Tour Operation Practice, Rent-a-car Education and Internet-literacy Competencies should be included into EMU-STHM curriculum.

Finally, the industry representatives were asked if they could employ EMU-STHM trainee students in the following years. Fifty-two or 91% of the supervisors would be glad to work with the trainees from EMU-STHM, but five or 9% of the supervisors were not keen on employing trainees from the same school again.

CHAPTER 6
ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSIONS OF RESEARCH FINDINDGS

This chapter reports the summary of the present study which consists of a short summary of the problem, a theoretical statement, and a methodology section, followed by the discussion of the results while answering the research questions, and the results initiated from the analyses of data in the previous Chapter Five. Theoretical finding of this study, which is named "Theoractive Learning", will be introduced with its theoretical framework. This chapter also assesses the thrustworthiness of the study and finally, the Researcher concludes the chapter with the suggestions for exercising, recommendations from the study and suggestions for the future research studies.

The aim of this research study was to investigate the liaison among the perceptions of the students, faculty and industry professionals towards the required industry competencies and the content of the four-year programme at EMU-STHM. Another aim of this study was to analyze how successfully the present forms of teaching and learning at EMU-STHM have been combined by blending theory with practical experience through experiential learning.

In light of these aims and intentions, the problem statement of this study was: whether EMU-STHM programme educate its students to meet the needs, requirements and the expectations of fast changing tourism and hospitality industry through experiential education. Consequently, the findings predicted an increasing emphasis on general education courses focusing on interpersonal skills, leadership skills, tourism and hospitality specific courses as well as on-the-job industrial training requirement as the most likely components of a future curriculum at EMU-STHM. Therefore, theoretical content of the programme should be supported by practical and student-centered experiential learning activities so that the most beneficial learning will take place. On the other hand, more continuous

interaction and cooperation is needed between the school, industry and policymakers to ensure that tourism and hospitality education at EMU-STHM and radically modify the curriculum to meet the fastest changing needs of tourism industry.

The following paragraphs reveal the analyzed data to address the results of four research questions that have been posed in this study. Research questions are presented one by one along with detailed discussions of those explicit findings.

6.1 Shareholders' Expectations of Required Competencies

The first question of this study was: "Which competencies do shareholders expect from EMU-STHM graduates to excel during their studies?"

The findings suggested that general leadership and managerial competencies which include strategies for dealing with complaints, problem identification and solving, creative thinking, communication skills (written and verbal), interpersonal skills, teamwork, development of a quality service attitude, motivation, and personal computer and system wide telecommunications skills were the essential technical and managerial competencies that an entry-level managerial staff should have, and 75 % of the industry representatives assumed that the level of leadership skills of EMU-STHM trainees were above the average. However, this assumption is questionable as much of the duties given to the trainees did not require any leadership or managerial competencies at all.

Not surprisingly, the majority of the managers (69%) in hotels and travel agencies considered soft skills such as communication, interpersonal, empathy, dealing with complaints, time management and general leadership skills to be significantly more important than hard or technical skills. It could be harvested that interpersonal communication skill was the most required competency to possess by the people working in tourism and hospitality industry. This finding approves research conducted by Kay and Rusette, (2000) and Chung-Herrera et al, (2003) which accomplished that competencies which involve speech, written and

interpersonal communication are necessary traits for the tourism and hospitality industry.

Industry believes that practical experience is required to move ahead quickly. However, an industry perception of EMU-STHM internship students was: "they have the attitude they can run the place" and "some students see themselves already suitable for managing positions even though they may not yet have any management experience". One of the manager stated, "We do not normally hire trainee students from tourism faculties as they want to become managers without adequate industry experience. Instead we hire community college students, because they are more enthusiastic to serve to the guests and have a better grasp of the practical knowledge to do the job". The potential effect resulting from these industry perceptions is one of the major findings of this research study.

The majority of the trainees and industry representatives believed that industrial training experiences expose students to an environment which is not available in a classroom setting. They share the view that experience in the industrial training is not similar with that found in a classroom. Therefore, both the students and industry representatives confirmed that industrial training primarily improve interns' communication skills, interpersonal skills and industry specific technical skills.

Internship students perceive their industrial training experiences as an ongoing learning process with particular objectives and goals, rather than a part-time summer job that supply them with some social and financial benefits. In addition, they believe that on-the-job academic inspection by their teachers during industrial training makes them to feel proud among other trainees and their supervisors. Therefore, on-the job inspection by a school member performs a big and crucial role in their overall perception of industrial training. However, the majority (85%) of trainee students were often faced with some difficulties at the very first days of their training periods as they were not given any precise guidelines defining and explaining the role and responsibilities of the travel agency or hospitality establishment, despite the training students' contribution is important to the local hospitality industry and it is a compulsory requirement of EMU-STHM programme. Although some of these problems were solved immediately, it

suggests that either their schools or the industry have failed to establish protocols and guidelines clarifying the stakeholders' duties, responsibilities and the targets of the practice were not fully defined and appreciated by internship students. Therefore, one of our resolutions should focus on drafting a guideline outlining such issues and initiate a positive work environment in which trainees can maximize their contribution and internship benefits.

Internship students acknowledged that during their industrial training, job rotation which means working at different sections and departments of the establishment is vital to their overall travel and hospitality industry experience. They demand that the school should play more eager role during their first and second industrial training experiences. In fact, first industrial internship is called 'technical internship' and the students are expected to improve their industry-specific practical experiences during this period of 60 working days. The second term internship is called 'management training' and the trainees are supposed to deal with the duties which will help them to improve their managerial and leadership skills. However, this is not the case in practice as one of the focus group student said "We were told to do our second training at EMU-Beach Club as waiters". And he raised a question: "How can you call this 'management training'?"

When senior students were asked the reason for choosing to study in tourism and hospitality programme, some of them replied that they did not have a clear idea on the general content of tourism and until they had their first compulsory industrial training experiences. Before the completion of their compulsory industrial training, they were powerless for establishing a friendly communication between their interests and ambitions, and the nature, demands and complexity of the industry. As soon as they realize that many practical and functional issues that they have learned in a traditional classroom are different than what they have experienced in practice, they start to question the need, purpose obligation and applicability of their academic education. This considerable conflict may hurt students' hopes, dreams, and long-term desires in accomplishing a travel and hospitality career. Quite a large number of these students may then assume that they were not suitable for a tourism and hospitality industry career or a career in tourism and hospitality is not a good destination for them. Some may decide to review their career plans right at the beginning and look for alternative career fields

which were not related with travel and tourism industry. As a result, they are aimed to learn more about the big picture of how and if they can be suited for the tourism hospitality industry and how they can individually employ themselves to the travel and hospitality industry as a practical result of internship experiences than the issues they do in a traditional classroom setting. Internships give students the best opportunities to experience real-world matters. However, poorly designed training programmes will cause students to underestimate its value and the importance of the internship. Only when internship programmes are highly structured can students, schools, and the industry benefit.

As it is mentioned earlier, one of the other substantial competency dimensions that were revealed from this study is communication skills. In light of the fact that effective interpersonal communication skills are continually emphasized in the business world, particularly for the labor-intensive travel and hospitality industry, this discovery is valuable but not surprising. Individuals either in the front office or at the other administrative offices need to have some degree of communication with both guests and co-workers. As a result, the hotel industry demands employees with the ability to integrate personal and professional relationships and are able to interact clearly and accurately with an appropriate level of emotion. It is understandable that a communication skill is the most substantial competency that was emerged from this study. This findings support the opinions of Jonker and Jonker (1990), Hsu et al. (1992), Dana (1992), Enz et al. (1993), Okeiyi et al. (1994), Ashley et al. (1995), Tas et al (1996), Breiter and Clements (1996), Harrison (1996), and Kay and Rusette (2000) that effective communication, interpersonal skills, human relation skills, service quality, managing guest problems, and adaptation to changes are necessary skills in guiding EMU-STHM graduates and helping them to succeed in their careers.

6.2 Shareholders' Perceptions of Experiential Learning at EMU-STHM

The second question of this research study was: "What are the perceptions of students, faculty and industry representatives about experiential learning components of the programme at EMU-STHM?"

The students believed that the courses, which combine theory and practice, qualify them with understanding of management and operation in tourism and hospitality industry. Although the majority of them were satisfied with their instructors, some considered the need for the instructors with industry experience or at least guest speakers from different sections of the industry. They assume that getting information or recommendation from someone who is or was in the sector will improve their required competencies. Additionally, almost all of the students perceive that industrial training is the most valuable requirement of the programme and suggest that it should be extended and inserted into normal academic year requirements.

On the other hand, experiential learning is valued by all the other stakeholders as they assume that deeper learning happens while the students in the classrooms or trainees at the workplace increase their degree of engagements in the activity. This belief fits very well with Kolb's (1984) learning cycle. As he defined that there are four stages of learning: (1) experience, which leads to (2) observation and (3) reflection, which leads to the development of new ideas and (4) experimentation, which leads to further experience. Learning is more effective when it is grounded in experience (Train & Elkin, 2001). As Dewey mentioned, it is not adequate for the instructor to slightly transfer information to the students in order to make them participate in the targeted activities for learning occur (Cooper, Bottomly and Gordon, 2004). Dewey (1938) also stated that for real learning to arise at deeper levels that education needed to be grounded in experience, and that experience needed to go with the student's active reflection on his or her experience.

As the literature revealed, experiential learning is critically important component of tourism and hospitality curriculum. Kolb (1984) clearly defined the reasons why students may learn more and better in experiential learning activities than in traditional way of classroom teaching. However, the classroom setting is usually teacher centered as the teacher usually leads the display of materials and presentation of lectures. Experiential learning activities are usually student centered as the learning is directed by the individual student's prior knowledge, practice and judgement as they experience new situations. This provides higher level of student

participation and enthusiasm in the learning process as a result of student centered experiential learning as compared to teacher centered learning in the classroom.

However, the methods and the activities that the academics used to bring experiential learning into classroom are limited. One of the faculties thought that STHM curriculum was poor like a vocational high school programme. He further recommended that more grounds ought to be opened in terms of experiential learning activities and more real-life case studies should be applied as in the Japanese education system. If hospitality industry requests were to be structured into a course that meets educational goals through a positive learning experience, then educators would envision a case study (Meyer and Kent, 1987). The incident concept, which is a brief case study, adds a very important essential feature to the experiential learning process, as learning can be erected around a real life situation which takes only a few minutes to grasp (Wright, 1988). Organizing activities that place students in real life experiential learning situations and demand them to apply a theory to absolute and truly existing industry situations and conditions can be extremely valuable (Ball, 1995).

6.3 Comparing Perceptions of Stakeholders on Required Competencies and Experiential Learning

The third question of this study was to examine whether there is a gap that may exists among the perceptions of stakeholders towards required competencies, and experiential learning.

According to the industry managers, tourism and hospitality programmes teach competencies that can only be used in high-level administrative positions but not for entry-level positions. Industry representatives added that tourism and hospitality schools are required to teach the philosophy of this industry, soul and attitude of service, as a core curriculum. As a result, how tourism and hospitality schools design and draft competent curriculum becomes a very important issue. Industry representatives confirmed that tourism and hospitality programme graduates were obliged to earn industry-specific technical skills but with a firm ability to communicate efficiently with the guests and fellow workers. In addition, industry representatives strongly stressed that tourism and hospitality school

teachers are required to improve and enlarge students' practical skills through using experiential learning activities.

Tourism and hospitality management students are treated the key in the foundation of a mutually profitable and complementary relationship between the two shareholders: industry and educational institution. With the lack of student engagement, any efforts to improve the education–industry relationships will fail in reaching any significant outcomes. However, keeping good bright and genius students is not only the responsibility of educational institutions but also one of the major obligations of the industry. In addition, hospitality industry should support, fund and provide life-like, on-the-job experience to trainee students.

The relationship between education and industry may take a number of patterns and formats. Currently, the tourism and hospitality industry in the North Cyprus can only interact with tourism education through internship programmes. However, formation of academic advisory boards and activities like field trips, guest speakers, consultancies, festival celebrations, associated workshops and training sessions accelerate and improve the cooperation and communication between the industry and academia. What is more, these types of activities likely build trust between the shareholders and appreciate their understanding of the duties, accountabilities and expectations of one another.

6.4 Programme Challenges to Industry Needs

The fourth question of this study was whether EMU-STHM programme meets the needs of the industry.

Although there were differences among the perceptions from students, faculty and industry representatives, the findings revealed that EMU-STHM programme provided adequate preparation for its students with the skills required by tourism and hospitality industry. The literature review of this research study showed that there have been a lot of investigations of tourism and hospitality graduate skills and the requirements of tourism and hospitality industry. The findings of these investigations reveal that the same subject matters and interests will continue to be obvious in the near future. While it is anticipated that there will

be some changes in the content of the school and the requirements of tourism and hospitality industry curriculum content and industry over time, there will be dissimilarity between the perceptions of industry and faculty about required competencies, roles and responsibilities of a graduate who steps into tourism and hospitality industry.

On the other hand, tourism and hospitality industry is rallying against globalization and becoming universal. Therefore, the curriculums of tourism and hospitality education programmes are required to have a vision of globalization to prepare its graduates to have international and intercultural knowledge and qualifications. The foreign culture and multicultural skills should be embedded or at least emphasized in the course content. Elective or core courses like economics, auditing, purchasing, marketing, retailing, human resources management, communication and interpersonal skills should be mixed with an international approach or viewpoint. Moreover, diversity should also be emphasized in course content. It is obvious that the quality of workers determines the quality of service that an enterprise gives to its customers. Customers can be provided with better service because of employees having more diverse perspectives. In order to meet this requirement of multicultural awareness, students can be encouraged, and the programme should allow them to take general elective courses which can fill this gap. However, the focus group findings of this study reveal that the current EMU-STHM curriculum cannot meet this need.

There is no doubt that taking foreign language coursework is a direct avenue through which hospitality management students can learn about other cultures and countries. While English is the medium of education at EMU-STHM, students should make every effort to learn other foreign languages in order to communicate effectively with their international colleagues and customers. In practice, German is a 'compulsory elective' component of EMU-STHM curriculum but the students complain that they cannot take any language course other than German as general electives. Moreover, as one of the focus group participants said, they cannot speak any German although they study it for four years and get an 'A' grade in the final exams every semester. Therefore, the school administration needs to revise the curriculum and teaching methods of this language course and considers the demand of alternative elective language courses other than German

Industrial trainings are essential part of any tourism and hospitality management programmes and play a critical role in the smooth progress of students from the school setting to the workplace environment (Ross et al., 2006). That is why; all students should be fully stimulated to engage in an industrial training experience (Busby, 2003). Industrial trainings are significant to the tourism and hospitality industry as they are not only providing intellectually qualified staff to help supplement the workforce, but they also cultivate the land for the prospective leaders of the industry. Satisfactorily trained and adequately supervised internship students, whose job performance skills match the needs of the agency are likely to stay employed at that agency (Antun, 2001). The internship requirement of EMU-STHM programmes provide actual experiences and allow students to apply information learned in the classroom. The majority of the internship students believe that EMU-STHM training programme is appreciated by tourism and hospitality professionals and that an admirable balance lies between the tourism schools and the industry. Furthermore, EMU-STHM faculty staffs assume that they are performing a decent job in adapting their students for industrial training practices by associating theoretical concepts to contemporary industry proceedings. Identical views are communicated by the majority of tourism and hospitality representatives, of whom few consider that tourism schools satisfactorily prepare their students to enter the tourism and hospitality industry and participate in industrial training practices. Therefore, the industrial training should be designed to supplement the coursework so that the students' capacity of education and experience are improved and strengthen.

Even though the internship students wanted to work at different sections of the workplace to apply their theoretical knowledge into practice, the majority of interns' positions were office clerks, waiters/waitresses or chambermaids but without any having work experience of other departments of the workplace. Accordingly, tourism and hospitality programme students are not eager or enthusiastic for coming back to the tourism and hospitality environment when they graduate and some of them do not even view tourism and hospitality as a life career. Therefore, tourism and hospitality industry needs to develop or restructure itself to be able to give trainee students opportunities to work at different departments of the workplace and try to persuade them to view hospitality as a career.

The final an overall task of this research study was to recommend improvements to the EMU-STHM programme. As the advancement of tourism and hospitality industry fast and accelerated and respectively there is an exceptional need for competent tourism graduates ever than before, the result of this study advise that EMU-STHM should revise and update the curriculum and teaching methods with regard to enhance the teaching standards and characteristics for students in the tourism and hospitality schools. Therefore, the academic staff of these schools should be provided solid and firm support such as scholarship, short-term leaves and reductions to improve their knowledge in research and teaching skills, and curriculum development. It is suggested that efforts could be made to collaborate with universally known tourism and hospitality management schools through exchange programmes to provide opportunities for both the students and academicians to improve their personal and professional qualifications. Academics of EMU-STHM could be trained for tourism and hospitality industry. They could also spend some time in the industry through a structured programme and introduce his or her experiences back into their colleagues and students.

Perhaps one of the most critical issues that is highlighted in this study is a need for greater collaboration and discussion between tourism and hospitality educational professionals, as well as industry practitioners and policy makers to ensure that tourism and hospitality education at EMU-STHM meets the increasing needs and challenges of globalized tourism industry. The establishment of powerful links between education and the industry is crucial to the advancement of a remarkably qualified workforce, and is essential to the future competitiveness of tourism and hospitality programmes (Ball, 1995).

When we compare the results of the competency statements between industry representatives and faculty, the need for effective links between these two stakeholders becomes vital. For example; the study revealed that the focus of the faculty was on administrative and technical skills, while the industry focus was on interpersonal skills. This finding is similar with the conclusion drawn by Tsai et al. (2006) that hospitality educators continue to focus on the past, and have not evolved with the dynamic demands and obligations of the tourism and hospitality industry today.

To sum up, the findings in this research study signified that interpersonal skills and experiential learning are the fundamental and crucial components of any tourism and hospitality management programmes for future success in the industry. 'Interpersonal skills' was recently added to the school curriculum as an area elective course and lectured by the author of this research study. Unfortunately, it was omitted from the programme when the lecturer moved to another department. On the other hand, benefits of experiential learning have been strongly recorded and many leading tourism and hospitality schools are now integrating an experiential learning aspect into their curricula to bridge theoretical underpinnings with practical content (Cavlek, 2015). Therefore, EMU-STHM should consider appreciating and introducing experiential learning as a reasonable and essential feature of its curriculum to enhance and improve student learning and to breed qualified and profitable graduates for the industry. EMU-STHM faculty should also consider bringing student-centered experiential learning activities into classrooms.

Industry, students, and faculty agreed that internship is an important aspect of any tourism and hospitality management programmes. However, students cannot get high benefit of industrial experience as the summer training programmes are not designed and structured well and adequately. It should be extended and inserted into normal academic requirements. This programme should also provide opportunities to trainee students to have positions which would allow them to put interpersonal and leadership skills into practice.

This study revealed that managerial skills that the school teaches do not match with the requirements of entry-level management positions. Therefore, more interaction and cooperation is needed between the school and the industry through seminars, guest speakers and advisory board memberships.

The lack of practical industry work experience among tourism faculty is another key finding of this research study as it is similar with the finding of a recent research conducted by Wu, et.al. (2014). This is undoubtedly is a negative point in preparing undergraduate students to enter the tourism and hospitality industry as the instructors have no practical backgrounds against which to position their courses.

The EMU-STHM programme should be revised with an international perspective. Intercultural and multicultural skills and diversity should be inserted into the programme. In order to learn other cultures and communicate effectively with multicultural staff and customers, more emphasis should be given to the teaching of second and third foreign language.

EMU-STHM programme should be updated and upgraded and efforts should be made to cooperate with well-known tourism schools to improve experiential, educational and professional qualifications of the school and its stakeholders.

There is no doubt that educational institutions in tourism need to improve relationship with the industry (Cavlek, 2015). Consequently, there is a great need for cooperation and collaboration between educational professionals, industry practitioners and policy makers to ensure that tourism and hospitality education at EMU-STHM meet the increasing and fast changing needs and challenges of globalized tourism industry. On the other hand, the devoted relationship between the school and industry is the considerable aspect for the future success of tourism and hospitality education. In order to correlate the disparity between the schools and the industry, the tourism and hospitality management schools should understand the missions of the programmes to ensure success of the industry. Tourism and hospitality school educators also need to admit the reality of the industry and completely modify and adjust the curriculum to this rapidly changing industry. Therefore, industry leaders need to split up this responsibility and work with tourism school teachers to fulfill the gap between the traditional classroom setting and working environment of the industry.

CHAPTER 7
THEORETICAL FINDINDGS

7.1. Theoretical Finding of the Study: "Theor*active* Learning"

A grounded theory approach was not suitable and did not meet the requirements which were set for the research method of this study, and the main goal of this empirical research was not a theory development. However, a new approach or a theory on learning, (theor*active* learning), has been emerged from systematic analysis of empirical data of this research study.

Learning has never been an ending process for many of us. It may have different forms like classroom learning, social learning, cognitive learning, experiential learning or any other forms (Rajbandari, M.M.S., 2011). According to the theoretical finding of this study, learning is also a process of blending theories and practice which is called "theor*active* learning". (see Figure 10)

Figure (10). Theoretical framework of Theoractive Learning
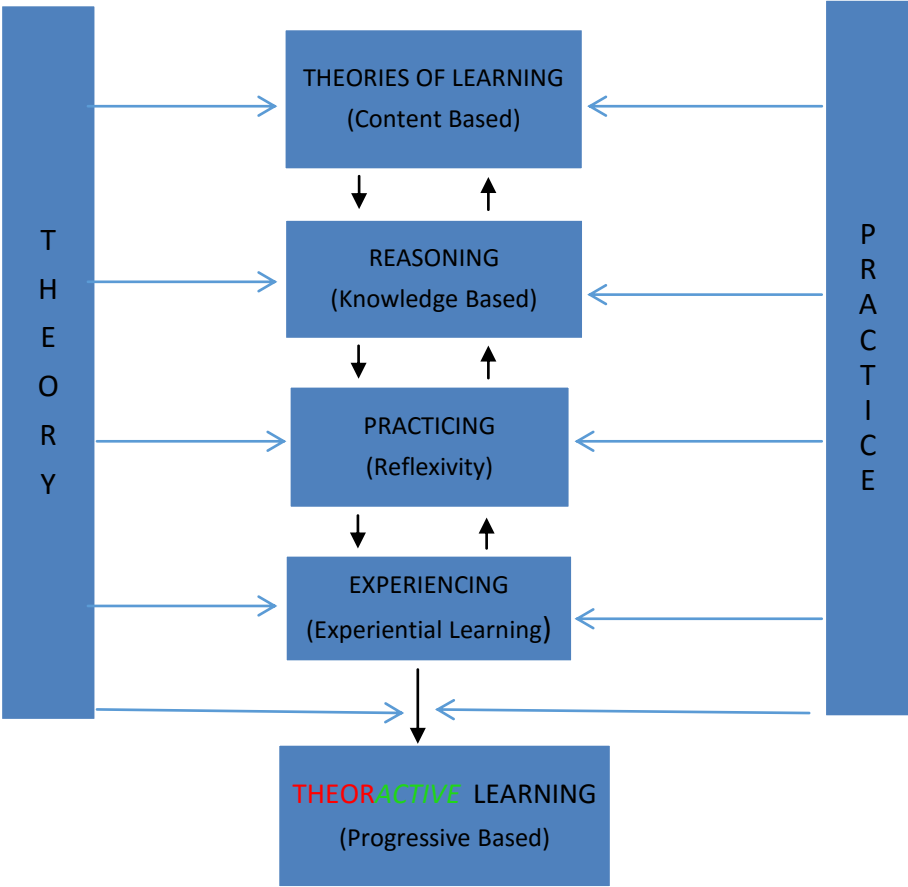
Learning process requires condition that effects upon the learning process. These conditions are attentions, retentions, motor reproductions and motivation or demonstrations. These conditions essentially determine the dimension of learning process into bringing it into practices which therefore can call for theoractive learning process. The theoractive learning process nevertheless is the blending of theories and the practices that is brought about for demonstration and motivation through the channel performances of combination of conditions applied into attention, retention and motor reproductions.

More specifically, when it is about theor*active* conditioning approaches, it is the theories that individual learns in formal education and the practice also termed as active or the demonstration is the experiential performances into the applicable jobs. Therefore, in simple, theor*active* is both the combination of theories and the practices of an individual performance. In line to this connection, Basaran (2006) states theoretical and experiential learning is consigned to cooperative education programme, moreover for him, despite both the learning process being accepted, experiential learning is not gain establishment learning method in academic institutions. In the same line to support this view, Illeris (2007, 92) contributes his version of statement by reasoning that " experiential learning can be understood as learning in which the learning dimensions of content, incentive and interaction are involved in a subjectively balanced and substantial way". Nevertheless, according to Pickles (n.d), experiential learning is a cyclical pattern of all learning from experience. This causes an effect of reflection and conceptualizing into action and on to further experience.

Moreover, theories are the learning process determining to equip with knowledge driven in academic arena or the cognitive process development. Experiential learning is encountering life experiences through practices, observing or even sensing with conditioning approaches or the social learning. According to Rajbhandari (2011, 36) lifelong learning is a process of multiple realities. He states, "Lifelong learning experience is encountered with many different perspectives in life. It is a continuous process moving ahead with adaptation of present and structuring to shape the way forward for the future. The subjectivist view of lifelong learning is the knowledge that we acquire from different sources with or without our own participations. However, we have multiple realities to come across in learning realm. This is acquired through experiential learning". As many of us comes from different background, such as, academic, cultures, this may produce behavioral complexity for critically thinking and acting rationally to overcome any given situation at particular timeframe. Boger-Mehall explains "A

critical goal of many education programmes, especially in professional education, is to help the students transfer what they have learned to different, even unique, situations. This ability is often referred to as "cognitive flexibility." "[T]his includes the ability to represent knowledge from different conceptual and case perspectives and then, when the knowledge must later be used, the ability to construct from those different conceptual and case representations a knowledge ensemble tailored to the needs of the understanding or problem-solving situation at hand" (Spiro, et al., 1992, 58). However, cognitive learning and social learning can therefore produce mindset for reasoning and implication to learn the experiences. In the words of Rogers (n.d), learning involves two distinguishable aspect the first is cognitive which is meaningless and is related to knowledge, such as, learning vocabulary or multiplication. The second for him is experiential which is significant reflecting to applied knowledge, such as, learning about engine in order to repair a car. Moreover, for Rogers, experiential learning distinctively addresses the motive to tune the behavior of expectations and requirements of the learner. This includes the quality of experiential learning in terms of personal involvement, self-initiated, evaluated by learners, and pervasive effects on learner.

In connection to apply experiential learning model into practices, students' perceptions of the EMU-STHM students on learning practices provided significant input to demonstrate both grasping experiences and transforming experience. It is argued that theories are learnt as content based and knowledge based learning, but practice is reflexivity and participations. The theoretical finding of this study has made the Researcher feel that theory is 'thinking' in particular or feeling and practice is watching and 'doing' in particular. Therefore, the new learning approach of applying theory into actively practicing will be named as 'theor*active* learning'.

7.2 Ethical Consideration

According to Guillemin and Gillam (2004), ethical tensions are part of our daily practice of doing any type of research in all disciplines. These tensions are not limited to fieldwork, but attribute to every stage in the research process. Therefore, elements of ethical issues like code, consent, confidentiality, and trust have been observed during every stages of this research study (Ryen, 2004). Code and consent refer to "informed consent". It means that the participants have the right to learn what they are being researched about, to be instructed about the essence of the research and to drop out at any time. Confidentiality means that the researcher is required to secure the identity of the participants and the place of the research. And trust refers to the communication between the researcher and the participants and to the researcher's accountability not to destroy the field for others in the sense that possible research subjects became unwilling to research (Ryen, 2004).

Permission to gather and examine data for this research study was obtained from the director of EMU-STHM and all the participants were informed about the purpose of the study, its code, consent, confidentiality and of their rights as participants. Data collected for the study were dealt within the strictest of confidence. Only the Researcher had access to the data, and on completion of the study, the videotapes and audio recordings of interviews will be erased.

The anonymity of participants was protected as individuals were not identified at any point in the study. Therefore, an ethical standard of coding all participants' names were adopted in the summary and discussion chapters of this study and the findings were analyzed and announced so that no single participant can be named or even recognized.

7.3. Trustworthiness of Results

It is perceived that traditional measures of validity and reliability are not appropriate to qualitative research as the essence of the research methods and epistemological expectations of the research, which encourage the unique

characteristics of the research. Accordingly, many researchers have established their own image of validity and have often created or selected what they assume to be more suitable or applicable terms, such as, rigor, quality and trustworthiness (Davies and Dodd, 2002; Seale, 1999: Lincoln and Guba, 1985).

It is argued that the validity and reliability of a qualitative research can be assessed by its "trustworthiness" (Lincoln and Guba, 1985). Relying on the epistemological basis of the research and epistemologically bias controversy of the interpretation, trustworthiness of a qualitative research can be considered from the perspectives of its credibility, transferability, dependability, and confirmability. Epistemological basis of the research can be influenced by the researcher, but the fair principles declared by the researcher can make it more accurate and authentic for the reader to figure out the trustworthiness of the research (Pulkkinen, 2003). Thus, setting a clear basis for the evaluation is an important issue for the researcher. Following the argument of Guba and Lincoln (2000), the notions of validity and reliability supposed that there is only one "truth" for the researchers to explore and identify. Following this assumption, it could be inappropriate to include the concepts of validity and reliability for this research study. Therefore, aspects of trustworthiness such as credibility, transferability, dependability and confirmability were applied. The following paragraphs will describe the above constructs of trustworthiness of this study.

Credibility or assuring the truth-value of the findings in a qualitative research study is interchangeable to the concept of internal validity in a quantitative research. Triangulation was the verification strategy to help as a method to increase the credibility of the results of this research study and was also a procedure to reduce researcher bias since substantiation for claims were linked to data instances from multiple sources. As reported by Lincoln and Guba 1985, triangulation is the confirmation of results with different sources of data. Similarly, Creswell (1998) stated that the process of triangulation demands justifying evidence from different experts or origin to shed light on a theme or perspective.

Credibility of this study was achieved through the continuous reviewing process of data (Denzin, 1998; Lincoln and Guba, 1985). To be able to obtain credible findings, the Researcher double checked that various phenomenon was

presented or interpreted correctly. Credibility of these interpretations of this empirical study was attained by transcribing and coding the recorded and videotaped interviews accordingly. The use of multiple data sources and cross-checking data and results through the use of multiple measures of these sources, provided corroborating evidence to verify the findings of this study. Although different people participated in focus group and one-to-one interviews, they all provided similar information that was valuable for the validation of this study. On the other hand, experience elicits a certain amount of credibility. The Researcher's experience was consistent with two important segments of prolonged engagements: spending sufficient time to recognize distortions or misinformation, and providing the opportunity for building trust with the informants so that the results would be sound (Lincoln and Guba 1985).

Transferability or generalizability is another major issue to consider for determining the validity of this research study. Transferability is analogous to external validity in qualitative studies. It refers to the extent to which one can extent the account of a specific place or a population to other settings, times or people than those directly studied (Maxwell 2002; Marshall and Rossman 1995). In a qualitative study, transferability is treated as a major dispute because of the individuality from the researcher as the major tool, and is a threat to accurate assumptions in its traditional thinking about the research data. Seale (1999) emphasizes that a qualitative researcher can enhance transferability by implementing a comprehensive and prosperous description of the setting investigated to supply the reader with acceptable information to be able to examine and determine the relevance of the findings to another setting. In fact, this research study did not demand statistical generalizability because of the complexion of case studies and qualitative data collection methods that focuses on in-depth understanding and enlightenment of a selected research problem. Comparatively, the signification and philosophy of transferability was utilized. By supplying a heavy and prosperous definition of the context, viewpoints, and findings that bordered participants' experiences, this study allows the readers the freedom to determine for themselves whether or not the findings of this research are transferrable to other educational institutions or circumstances. Consequently, transferability or generalizability phenomena has to be acquired by the reader based

on how close the reader's and the Researcher's context are (Ritchie and Lewis, 2003).

Dependability is similar to reliability. It is also analogous to the concept of reliability; dependability refers to whether or not the results of a study are true and logical over time and among researchers (Lincoln and Guba, 1985; Miles and Huberman, 1994). In fact, reliability supposes that there is only one "truth" to discover by the researcher (Lincoln and Guba, 2000). Reliability is questionable and almost beyond the bounds of possibility as human behaviors are not fixed or stationary, and depending on various influencing factors, they are highly contextual and change continuously. On the other hand, a very much alike study with different participants, by a different researcher or in a different educational institution with different culture and context may not yield the same results. Accordingly, the similar findings can never be reproduced (Lincoln and Guba, 1985). Respectively, reliability in the traditional understanding is not realistic in a qualitative case study. However, reliability of this research should be assured by whether the results are agreeable with the data collected (Merriam, 1998) or the readers of this research find the findings of this study authentic, relevant, and useful (Kennedy, 1979).

Conformability is similar with objectivity, that is, the extent to which a researcher is knowledgeable or realizes individual subjectivity or bias (Seale, 1999). It is considered that the findings of the participants' perspectives as demonstrated in the data, rather than being meditation of the researcher's perceptions or bias. With regard to prove that the findings were not affected or altered by inspiration or overall qualification of the Researcher and to assign confirmability to this research study, the Researcher shared the data with the participants through summarizing them at the end of each interview or presented them to his colleagues at a formal meeting and revised the data to make minor alterations. This technique helped to convince that the findings were originated from the data rather than the Researcher's personal compositions (Guba and Lincoln, 1985). As a result, confirmability of the research findings was accomplished successfully.

7.4. Limitations of the Study

There are several limitations to this study:

1. The study was based purely on the perceptions of the participants, and this in itself is subjective in nature.

2. The sampling of trainee students and their supervisors came from a convenient audience; therefore, their perspectives may not be representative (Brotherton, 2008).

3. Survey items of EMU-STHM curriculum were those courses that the researcher downloaded from the website of this institution prior to June, 1, 2009. The posted courses will likely to have changed by the time the researcher has completed the study. As a result, some new courses may have been included in the curriculum or certain courses in the survey may not have been offered in the following academic years.

4. The study has no data collected from the graduates of EMU-STHM. Although the Researcher tried his best to organize the first reunion of EMU-STHM alumni, he failed to manage this event by the time this research study was concluded.

5. No demographic data were collected from the industry representatives. There would be interesting findings about the respondents; as being male-dominated and having low / no tourism and hospitality education backgrounds.

7.5. Final Words

Based on the review of the related literature and this research study, the researcher recommends the following be acknowledged for the future research:

Further research should be examined to duplicate this research study with more students and graduates connected with tourism and hospitality education at various educational institutions and more industry establishments. This could make

prospective researchers to study and account for the cooperation of different curricula, different academic and industrial perceptions and influences.

Additional research should be considered regarding relationships between faculty and industry professionals. This would allow for a closer look at how these relationships affect the education of students.

Supplementary research should be consulted having a similar study with the graduates. This would look at not only how EMU-STHM programme affected their employment immediately after graduation, but also look at their career path post-graduation to see how quickly they climbed the ladder in tourism and hospitality industry.

In the end, the findings of this research study are not intended to serve as an assessment of the EMU-STHM programme or to impose specific limits on any programmes or on tourism and hospitality students. Rather it is an acknowledgement of Pavesic's (1991) point that not all programmes can, or should, attempt to offer the same curriculum. There is no agreed upon formula for the best tourism and hospitality management education (Jack, 2011). It is clear that collaboration between students, faculty and industry is a must. Faculties will have to make decisions about the content of their future curriculum regarding the availability of resources, strengths of the faculty and relevant internal and external market conditions. They should intend to incorporate the teaching skills and philosophies in a way that is more rational, reasonable, real and practical to the workplace. Taking time to communicate amongst faculty and industry would go a long way in closing the gap of disconnect as well as ensure the best curriculum possible and labour for the future. However, participation of the tourism and hospitality industry should be solicited to identify those programs that best meet its needs in order to produce the most suitable graduates. The final vital piece is not simply having a conversation, but continuing the conversation along with regularly assessing the needs and outcomes of the process of the experiential education.

REFERENCES

Accreditation Commission for programs in Hospitality Administration (ACPHA) (2008). Handbook of Accreditation. Retrieved June 17, 2008, from http://www.acphacahm.org/forms/acpha/acphahandbook04.pdf

Adler, P. A., & Adler, P. (1994). Observational techniques. In N. K. Denzin & Y S. Lincoln (Eds.), Handbook of qualitative research. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

Altinay, M. & Hussain, K. (2005). Sustainable tourism development: a case study of North Cyprus. International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management. Vol. 17. (2/3). 272-280.

Antil, F. (1988). Learning hospitality management through a rigorous work-study experience. Hospitality and Tourism Educator, 1 (2), 24-27.

Antun, J.M. (2001). Internships develop valuable employees. AAHOA Hospitality, 6(9), 65-67.

Ashley, R.A., Bach, S.A., Chesser, J.W., Ellis, E.T., Ford, R.C., LeBruto, S.M., Milman, A., Pizam, & A., Quain, W.J. (1995). A customer-based approach to hospitality education. The Cornell Hotel and Restaurant Administration Quarterly, 36(4), 74-79.

Astleitner, H., & Weisner, C. (2014). An integrated model of multimedia learning and motivation, Journal of Educational Multimedia and Hypermedia, 13, 3-21.

Austin, M.J., & Rust, D.Z. (2015). Developing an experiential learning program: Milestones and challenges. International Journal of Teaching and Learning in Higher Education. Volume 27(1), 143-153.

Australian Chamber of Commerce and Industry, and the Business Council of Australia, (2002). Employability skills for the Future, Commonwealth of Australia, 2002.

Bach, S.A., & Milman, A. (1996). A novel technique for reviewing hospitality management curriculum. Hospitality and Tourism Educator, 8(1), 37-40.

Bales, K. (1979). Experiential learning: A review and annotated bibliography. Journal of Cooperative Education, 16 (Winter 1979), 70-90.

Ball, S. (1995), Enriching student learning through innovative real-life exercises. Education and Training, 37(4), 18-25.

Baradat, L. (1994). Political ideologies their origins and impact. Engle Wood Cliffs. Prentice Hall.

Bardi, J.A. (1990). Hotel front office management (1st ed.). New York: Van Nostrand Reinhold.

Basaran, K. (2001). A preliminary study of leadership skills of tourism school training students and their expectations from the tourism sector. EMU- Journal of Tourism Research, 2(2), 65-83.

Bass, B.M. (1990). Bass and Stodgil's handbook of leadership: Theory research and managerial application. (3rd ed.). New York: Free Press.

Beard, C., & Wilson, J. (2002). The power of experiential learning: A handbook for trainers and educators. Herndon, VA: Kogan Page Publishers.

Bennet, B. (1990) Linking classroom and school improvement. Educational Leadership, 47(8), 13-19.

Bennis, W.G., & Nanus, B. (1985). Leaders: The strategies for taking charge. New York: Harper & Row.

Bernstein, J. (1976). Urban field education: An opportunity structure for enhancing students' personal and social efficacy. Human Relations, 29 (July), 677-85.

Blaikie, N. (2000). Designing Social Research. (1st edition). Cambridge: Polity Press.

Blanch, G. (1998). When the topic turns to leadership… Educators Mostly Miss the Mark. Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Education. 10(3). 14-18.

Bond, A., & Leabo, A. (1964). Preparation for business leadership: Views of top executives. Ann Arbor, MI: The University of Michigan Press.

Bosselman, R.H. (1996). Student selection: North American practices for hospitality and tourism graduate programmes. International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management, 8(4), 34-36.

Bowling, A. (2002). Research methods in health: Investigating health and health services. (2nd. Edition). Buckingham: Open University Press.

Bownel, J. (2010). Leadership in the Service Industry. Cornwell Hospitality Quarterly, 51(3), 363-378.

Brandon, W. (2002). Experiential learning: A new research path to the study of Journalism education. Journalism & Mass Communication Education, Spring 2002, 57,1.

Breiter, D. (1992). Experiential learning in guest services as perceived by undergraduate hospitality students. (Doctoral dissertation, University of South Carolina, 1992). Dissertation Abstract International, 53, 1067.

Breiter, D., & Clements, C.J. (1996). Hospitality management curricula for the 21st century. Hospitality and Tourism Educator, 8(1), 57-60.

Brown, P., Hesketh, A. & Williams, S. (2002). Employability in a knowledge-driven economy. In Knight, P. (compiler) Notes from the 13th June 2002 'Skills plus' conference, Innovation in education for employability held at Manchester Metropolitan University, 5-25. Retrieved June 3, 2003, from http://www.open.ac.uk/vqportal/Skills Plus/publications.htm

Bryman, A. (2004). Social research methods (2nd edition). Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Bruce, C. (1987, November/December). The college internship experience. The Black Collegian, 81-83.

Buergmeister, J. (1983). Assessment of the educational skills and competencies needed by beginning hospitality managers. Hospitality Education and Research Journal, 8(1), 38-53.

Buergermeister, J., & Van Leonen, D. (1992). Personality characteristics and profiles of hospitality managements graduate. Hospitality Research Journal, 4(2), 48-51.

Busby, G. (2003). The concept of sustainable tourism within the higher education curriculum: A British case Study. Journal of Hospitality, Leisure, Sport and Tourism Education, 2(2), 48-58.

Busby, G. & Fiedel, D. (2001). A temporary review of tourism degrees in the UK. Journal of Vocational Education and Training for Tourism, 53(4), 495-516.

Butt, B., & Rehman, K. (2010). A study examining the students' satisfaction in higher education. Procedia Social and Behavioral Sciences, 2(2010), pp. 5446-5450.

Calhoun, K. & Koltay, Z. (1999). Library gateway focus group report (A research supported by a 1998 CUL internal grant)

Cannon, D., & Smith, K. (1998). To pay or not to pay interns-that is legal question. Hospitality and Tourism Education, 10 (2), 42-44.

Cantor, J. (1997). Experiential learning in higher education: Linking classroom and community. Washington, D.C: ERIC Clearinghouse on Higher Education.

Card, K. (2000). General teaching strategies and styles. University of South Dakota, Vermillion. Retrieved October 20, 2000, from http://www.usd.edu-kcard/ahed882.4.4 html

Cassado, M.A. (1991). Perceptions of corporate recruiters, alumni and educators toward critical factors of hotel/restaurant management program: A comparative study (Doctoral dissertation, Northern Arizona University, 1994). Dissertation Abstract International, 52, 10A.

Casado, M.A. (1992) Higher Education Hospitality Schools: Meeting the Needs of Industry. Hospitality and Tourism Educator, 4(4). 41-43.

Cavlek, N. (2015). Experiential learning in tourism education. Tourism Social Science Series, Volume 21, 101-113.

China National Tourism Administration. (2000), The Yearbook of China Tourism Statistics, CNTA, Beijing.

Christou, E.S. (1999). Hospitality management education in Greece: An exploratory study. Tourism Management, 20(1999), 683-691.

Chung, K. Y. (1999). Hotel management curriculum reform based on required competencies of hotel employees and career success in hotel industry. Department of Hotel and Tourism Management. 473-487

Chung-Herrera, B.G., Enz, C.A. & Lankau, M.J. (2003). Grooming future hospitality leaders: A competencies model. Cornell Hotel and Restaurant Administration Quarterly, 44(3), p. 17.

Clark, M. (1995). Interpersonal skills for hospitality management (1st Ed.). London; N.Y.: Chapman & Hall.

Collins, A. B. 2007. Adding a course to the curriculum?. Journal of Teaching in Travel & Tourism, 6(4): 51–71.

Colorado Department of Labor (2010). Occupational Outlook Handbook, 2010. The U.S. Department of Labor.

Conference Board of Canada, (1999). Middle managers are back: How companies have come to value their middle managers again. Ottawa.

Cooper, C., & Westlake, J. (1998), "Stakeholders and tourism education: curriculum planning using a quality management framework", Industry and Higher Education, April, 1998.

Cooper, S., Bottomley, C. & Gordon, J. (2004). Stepping out of the classroom and up the ladder of learning: an experimental learning approach to entrepreneurship education. Industry and Higher Learning, 18(1), 11-22.

Corbetta, P. (2003). Social research theory, methods and techniques. London: Sage publications.

Corbin, J. (2015). Basics of qualitative research: Techniques and procedures for developing grounded theory. 4th. Ed. CA: Sage Publications.

Cotton, B. (1991). Graduates who jump off the ladder. Cater and Hotelkeeper, (30), p.25.

Craig, R.L., & Evers, C.J. (1981). Employers as educators: the "Shadow Education System". New directions for experiential learning. Business and Higher Education: Toward New Alliances, (13), 29-46.

Creswell, J. W. (1998). Qualitative inquiry and research design: Choosing among five designs. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

Curtis, D. & McKenzie, P. (2001). Employability skills for Australian industry: Literature Review and Framework Development. Australian Council for Education Research, Melbourne.

Dale, C., & Robinson, N. (2001). "The theming of tourism education: A three-domain approach. International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management, 13 (1), 30-34.

Dana, J.T. (1992). Managerial work of entry-level restaurant managers: Implications of curriculum development (Doctoral dissertation, Kansas State University, 1992). Dissertation Abstracts International, 53, 07A.

Davies, D., and Dodd, J. (2002). Qualitative research and the question of rigor. Qualitative Health Research, 12(2), 279-289.

Defranco, A.L. (1992). Back to basics: Humanism in education. Hospitality and Tourism Educator, 4(3), 71-72.

Denzin, N. K. (1998). The landscape of qualitative research: Theories and issues. Thousand Oaks: Sage Publications.

DeVeau, L. (1988). Experience and education: How are hospitality programs coordinating this vital curriculum interface? Hospitality Education Research Journal, 12(2), 476.

DeVeau, P.M., Deveau, L.T. (1990). Front office management in the 1990s and beyond. Hospitality Education and Research Journal, 12(2), 586.

(DeVos, A., DeHauw, S. & Van der Heijden, B. (2011). Competency development and career success: The mediating role of employability. Journal of Vocational Behavior, 79(2011) pp. 438-447.

Dewey, J. (1916). Democracy and education: An Introduction to the Philosophy of Education. New York: The Free Press.

Dewey, J. (1933). Arts and experience. New York: G.P.Putnam, Capricorn Books.

Dewey, J. (1938). Experience and education. New York: Macmillan Publishing Company.

Dewar, K., Sayers, J., & Meyer, D. (2002) Hopes, dreams and reality: an investigation into the expectations and experiences of the tourism graduates. Journal of Teaching in Travel and Tourism, 2(1), 1-18.

Dillch, L.S. (1982, winter). School administrators: Educators without classrooms. Occupational Outlook Quarterly, (25), 25-27.

Dittmer, P.R. & Griffin, G.C. (1997). Dimensions of the hospitality industry: An introduction. New York: John Wiley and Sons, Inc.

Docherty,D.,&Fernandez,R.(2014). Career portfolios and the labour market for graduates and postgraduates in the UK . Higher Education Funding Council of England. Retreived from: http://heer.qaa.ac.uk

Elliott, S. and Joppe, M. 2009. A case study and analysis of e-tourism curriculum development. Journal of Teaching in Travel and Tourism, 9(3/4): 230–247

Emenheiser, D., Clayton, H., & Tas, R. (1997). Students' perceptions of the effectiveness of the hospitality industry internship experience. Proceedings of the 1997 Annual CHRIE Conference. Province, Rhode Island, 221-222.

Enhancing Student Employability Co-ordination Team (ESECT). (2005). Retrieved from http://www.esect.co.uk.

Enz, C.A., Renaghan, L.M., & Geller, N.A. (1993). Graduate level education: A survey of stakeholders. The Cornell Hotel and Restaurant Administration Quarterly, 34(4), 90-95.

Ernetawi, D. B. (2003). Stakeholder's view on higher tourism education. Annals of Tourism Research, 30(1), 255-58.

Eyler, Janet T. (1992). Comparing the impact of two internship experiences on student learning. Journal of Cooperative Education, 29 (3), 41-52.

Evans, N. (1994). Experiential learning for all. London: Cassell.

Ezzy, D. (2002). Qualitative Analysis: Practice and Innovation. Crow's Nest, NSW: Allen & Unwin.

Faiola, N.A. (1994). Job competencies expected of entry-level foodservice managers: Implication for curriculum development (Doctoral dissertation, Syracuse University, 1994). Dissertation Abstract International.

Fayos-Sola, Eduardo, (1997). Human capital in the tourism industry of the 21st century: readings in tourism education and training. Madrid: World Tourism Organization.

Ferreira, R.R. (1992). A review of case analysis and simulation for use in hospitality management education. Hospitality and Tourism Educator, 4(2), 16-20.

Fontana, A. & Frey, J. H. 2000. 'The Interview: from structured questions to negotiated text', in N.K. Denzin & Y.S. Lincoln (eds.), Handbook of qualitative research. Second Edition. California: Sage Publications, Thousand Oaks.

Foshay, A.W. (1995). Aesthetics and history. Journal of Curriculum and Supervision, 10(3), 191-206.

Frankfort-Nachimas, C., & Nachimas, D. (1996). Research Methods in the Social Scinces. London: Arnold.

Gainer, L. (1988). ASTD update: Basic skills. Alexandria, VA: American Society for Training and Development, February 1988. (ERIC No. ED 291 882).

Galliard, F. (2010). The hospitality industry. The Black Collegian, 28 (2), 95.

Gardner, J. (1990). On leadership. The Free Press. New York. N.Y.

Gault, J., & Redington, J. (2000). Undergraduate business internships and career success: Are they related? Journal of Marketing Education, 22(1), 45-53;

Goad, G. (2015). 7 Reason why you should explore a career in hospitality and tourism. www.studyandgoabroad.com.

Gordon, R.A. & Howell, J.E. (1959). Higher education for business. Columbia University Press.

Greenhalg, T. (2001). How to Read a Paper: The Basics of Medicine Based Evidence (2nd edition). London: BMJ Books.

Groves, D.L., B. Howland, B., Headly, F., & Jamison, D. (1977). Relevance in the classroom and curriculum. College Student Journal, 11 (Fall), 259-61.

Guillemin, M., & Gillam, L. (2004). Ethics, reflexivity, and "ethically important moments" in research. Qualitative Inquiry, 10, 261-280.

Gunn, C.A. (1998). Issues in tourism curricula. Journal of Travel Research, 36, 74-77.

Gundrum, D. (1978). Competencies for entry-level foodservice managers in food-for-profit establishments. Unpublished master's thesis. Iowa State University.

Hammersley, M (ed) (1993) Educational Research: Current Issues (vol. 1), London, Paul Chapman

Hanson, B. (1993). Executive creativity. Lodging Hospitality, 49(9), 28.

Hargie, O. (Ed.). (1986). A handbook of communication skills. New York: New York University Press.

Harvey, L., Locke, W., & Morey, A. (2002). Enhancing employability, recognizing diversity. London, Universities UK and CSU.

Harris, K. (1994). Faculty internships: Bridging the gap between education and industry. Hospitality and Tourism Educator, 6 (4), 68-71.

Harrison, W.E. (1996). Workplace basic competencies needed by entry-level and middle-management employees as perceived by hotel/motel managers. (Doctoral dissertation, University of Missouri-Columbia, 1996). Dissertation Abstract International, 57, 12A.

Hawkins, D. E. and Weiss, B. L. 2004. Experiential education in graduate tourism studies: An international consulting practicum. Journal of Teaching in Travel & Tourism, 4(3): 1–29.

Heller, V.L. (1997). Comparison of hospitality administration programs in American colleges and universities: An exploratory study. Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Education, 91(1), 26-29.

Hemphill, J.K. & Coons, A.E. (1957). Development of leader behavior description questionnaire. In R. M. Stodgil and A.E. Coons (Eds.), Leader behavior: Its description and measurement. Columbus: Bureau of Business Research, Ohio State University.

Hickman, C. R. (1990). Mind of a manager, soul of a leader. New York: John Wiley & Sons Inc.

Hillage, J. & Pollard, E. (1998). Employability: Developing a framework for policy Analysis. Department for Education and Employment (DfEE) Research report. No RR85 (London, DfEE).

Hite, R. & Bellizzi, J. (1986). Student expectations regarding collegiate internship programs in marketing. Journal of Marketing Education, 8 (Fall), 41-49.

Ho, C.J., & R.H. Macy. (1929). Personnel studies of section managers in a department store. Personnel Journal, 8 (4), 225-231.

Hopkins, R. L. (1994). Narrative schooling: Experiential learning and the transformation of American education. New York: Teachers College Press

Hosking, D.M. (1988). Organizing leadership and skillful process. Journal of Management Studies, 25 (2), 147-166.

Hsu, Cathy H.C., Gilmore, Shirley A., Walsh, Thomas, E. (1992). Competencies needed and demonstrated by hospitality management graduates: Perceptions of employers. National Association of College and University Food Service Journal, 16, 34-42.

Hujala, E. (2004). Dimensions of leadership in the childcare context. Scandinavian Journal of Higher Education, 48(1), February, 2004.

Hursch, B., & Borzak, L. (1979). Toward cognitive development through field studies. Journal of Higher Education, 50(1), 63-77.

Inui, Y., Wheeler, D., & Lankford, S. (2006). Rethinking tourism education: What should schools teach? Journal of Hospitality, Leisure, Sports and Tourism Education, 5(2), 25-35.

Institute of Hospitality, (2008). Accreditation for Academic Programs. Retrieved from
http//www.instituteofhospitality.org/accreditation/Accred/ioh_accreditation

Irwin, S.(2005). Reshaping social life. London: Routledge.

Jack, K. (2011). The role of experiential learning in nurturing management competencies in hospitality and tourism management students: Perceptions from students, faculty, and industry professionals. (Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Western Michigan University, 2011).

Jacob, E. (1999). Cooperative learning in context: An educational innovation in everyday classrooms. Albany, NY: State University of New York Press.

Jacobs, T.O., & Jaques, E. (1990). Military executive leadership. In K.E. Clark and M.B. Clark (Eds.), Measures of leadership. West Orange, NJ: Leadership Library of America, 281-295.

Jin, H. & Yu, L. (1990). Hospitality education in China: great strides in the land of the great wall. Arizona Hospitality Trends, 4(3), 6-8.

Jonker, P., & Jonker, D. (1990). What do hospitality graduates really need? An industry perspective. Hospitality and Tourism Educator, 3(1), 12-13.

Kalya Group, KKTC. (2007). Kalya gurubunun KKTC gezi bilgileri eki. Unprinted document. Eastern Mediterranean University, School of Tourism and Hospitality Management

Karatepe, O. M. & Avci, T. (2002). Measuring service quality in the hotel industry: Evidence from Northern Cyprus. Anatolia, 13(1), 19-32.

Katz, R. (1974). Skills on an effective administrator. Harvard Business Review, 52(5), 90-102.

Katz, D. & Kahn, R.L. (1978). The social psychology of organizations (2nd ed.). New York: John Wiley.

Kay, J., & Rusette, J. (2000). Hospitality-management competencies: Identifying managers' essential skills. The Cornell Hotel and Restaurant Administration Quarterly, 41(2), 52-63.

Kearns, P. (2001). Review of research generic skills for the new economy. NCVER, Adelaide.

Kennedy, M.M. (1979). Generalizing from single case studies. Evaluation Quarterly 3, 661-679

Kirby, P. (2000). Ministerial review of Post Compulsory Education and Training Pathways in Victoria. Final Report, Melbourne, DEET.

Knight, J.B., & Salter, C.A. (1985). Some considerations for hospitality training programs. The Cornell Hotel and Restaurant Administration Quarterly, 25(4), 38-43.

Koc, E., Yumusak, S., Ulukoy, M., Kilic, R., Toptas, A. (2014). Are internship programs encouraging or discouraging? A viewpoint of tourism and hospitality students in Turkey. Journal of Hospitality, Leisure, Sport & Tourism Education 15 (2014) 135–142.

Kolb, D. (1984). Experiential learning: Experience as the source of learning and development. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice-Hall.

Kolb, A. Y., & Kolb, D. A. (2005). Learning styles and learning spaces: Enhancing experiential learning in higher education, Academy of Management Learning & Education, 4(2), 193-212.

Kotter, J. (1996). Leading change. Harvard Business School Press. Boston, M.A.

Kozak, N., Karatepe. O, & Avci, T. (2003). Measuring the quality of airline services: Evidence from Northern Cyprus. Tourism Analysis, 8(1), 75-87.

Kouzes, J.M. & Posner, B.Z. (1995). The Leadership Challenge. (2nd ed.). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Kraft, R.J. (1995). A century of experiential-learning. In R.J. Kraft & J. Kielsmeier (Eds.), Experiential –learning in Schools and Higher Education. Boulder: Association of Experiential Learning.

Laesecke, H. (1991). Meeting the industry needs. The Cornell Hotel and Restaurant Administration Quarterly, August.

Lam, T., & Ching, L. (2007). An exploratory study of internship program: The case of Hong Kong students. International Journal of Hospitality Management. 26(2), 336-351.

Lee, S. (2006). A comparison of student perceptions of learning in their co-op and internship experiences and the classroom environment: A study of hospitality management students. (Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Central Florida, 2006).

Lefever, M. (1989). The future of hospitality education. The Cornell Hotel and Restaurant Administration Quarterly, 30(2), 42-47.

Leiblich, A. (1998). Narrative research: Reading, analysis and interpretation. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Leslie, D. (1993). Higher education for hospitality and tourism: A European dimension. International Journal for Hospitality Management, 12(1), 101-107.

Lin, Shun-Chuan. (2002). Required Competencies in the Hotel Industry in Relation to Hotel management Courses in Taiwanese Universities. (Unpublished doctoral dissertation, The University of South Dakota, 2002).

Lincoln, Y.S., & Guba, E.G. (1985). Naturalistic inquiry. Beverly Hills, CA: Sage.

Lincoln, Y.S., & Guba, E.G. (2000). Paradigmatic controversies, contradictions, and emerging confluences. In N.K. Denzin & Y.S. Lincoln (Eds.). Handbook of qualitative research (2nd ed., pp-163-188). Thousand Oaks, CA: sage.

Lonam, M.W. (1999). Hospitality education 2010: A Delphi study (Doctoral dissertation, The University of Missouri, 1999). Dissertation Abstract International, 60, 12A

Lucas, A.F. (1994). Strengthening departmental leadership: A team-building guide for chairs in colleges and universities. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Lukoswski, R.F. (1972). A comparative study of attitudes towards undergraduate education for the hotel and restaurant industry. (Doctoral dissertation, The University of Massachusetts, 1972). Dissertation Abstract International, 33, 01A

Lundberg, D.E. (1990). Hotel-motel finances and management. The hotel and restaurant business (2nd ed.). Boston: Cahners Books International Inc.

Lundberg, C.C. (1976). A note on targeting hospitality education. Hospitality and Tourism Educator, 3(1), 36-37.

Manuel of American Statistical Association, (1997). ASA Series: What Is a Survey? What Are Focus Groups? Section on Survey Research Methods, USA.

Marshall, C. & Rossman, G. B. (1995). Designing Qualitative Research (2nd edition). Thousand Oaks, London and New Delhi: Sage Publications.

Marshall, C., & Rossman, G. B. (2006). Designing Qualitative Research (4 th ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Maxwell, J. A. (1998). Designing a qualitative study. In L. Bickman & D. J. Rog (Eds.), Handbook of applied social research methods (pp. 69-100). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

Maxwell, J. A. (2002). Understanding and validity in qualitative research. In A. M. Huberman & M. B. Miles (Eds.), The qualitative researcher's companion (pp.37-64). Thousand Oaks & London: Sage Publications.

Mazenod, A. (2015). Education or training? A comparative perspective on apprenticeships in England. Journal of Vocational Education and Training, 2015.

Mays, N, & Pope, C. (1995). Rigor and qualitative research. British Medical Journal, 311: 109-112

McCain, A.M., & Rappole, C.L. (1996). The chronological development, enrollment patterns, and education model of baccalaureate and graduate degree programs in hospitality management. Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Education, 8, 33-37.

McGrath, M. (1993). An evaluation of the core curriculum of the Council on Hotel Restaurant and Institutional Education Accreditation Standards. (Doctoral Dissertation, the University of Tennessee, 1993). Dissertation Abstract International, 54, 09A.

Merriam, S.B. (1991). Case study research in education. A qualitative approach. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Merriam, S.B. (1998). A qualitative research and case study applications in education. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass

Meyer, R. A., & Kent, W. E. (1987). Infrastructure for student practicum in the hospitality industry. Hospitality Education and Research Journal, 11(2), 191-194.

Miles, M.B., & Huberman, A.M. (1994). Qualitative data analysis: An expanded Sourcebook. (2nd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Milman, A. 2001. Hospitality and tourism curriculum development: A qualitative case-study approach. Journal of Teaching in Travel & Tourism, 1(4): 65–76.

Milne, B. (2000). Pragmatic emphasis. Unpublished manuscript, University of South Dakota, Vermillion.

Mok, C. & Noriega, P. (1999). Toward a cross-cultural diversity perspective in hospitality curriculum development. Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Education, 11(1), 30-34.

Moore, B. V. (1927). The May conference on leadership. Personnel Journal, 69(1), 122-135.

Morgan, M. (2004). "From production line to drama school: higher education for the future of tourism", International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management, 16 (2), 91-99.

Morrison, A. & O'Mahony, G.B. (2003). The liberation of hospitality management education", International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management, 15(1), 38- 44.

Nachmias, S., and Walmsley, A. (2015). Making career decisions in a changing graduate labour market: A hospitality perspective. Journal of Hospitality, Leisure, Sport & Tourism Education 17(2015) 50-58.

Nadiri, H., & Tanova, C. (2010). An investigation of the role of justice in turnover intentions, job satisfaction and organizational citizenship behavior in hospitality industry. International Journal of Hospitality Management. 29 (2010) 33-41.

Nelson, A. A. (1994). Hospitality internships: The effects of job dimensions and supportive relationships on student satisfaction. (Doctoral dissertation, Wayne State University, 1994). Dissertation Abstract International, 56, 02A

Nevett, T. (1985). Work experience: The essential ingredient in British programs. Journal of Marketing Education, 7 (Spring), 13-18.

Niglas, K. (2004). The Combined Use of Qualitative and Quantitative Methods in Educational Research. Tallinn, Estonia: Tallinn Pedagogical University Dissertation on Social Sciences.

Occupational Outlook Handbook, (2010). Retrieved from http://www.bls.gov/oco/

OECD, (2014). Job strategy: Lessons from a decade's experience. Paris: OECD.

Okeiyi, E., Finley, D. & Postel, R.T. (1994). Food and beverage management competencies: Educator, industry, and student perspective. Hospitality and Tourism Educator, 6(4), 37-40.

Olsen, M.D., & Reid, R.D. (1983). How to judge the hospitality program. The Cornell Hotel and Restaurant Administration Quarterly, 24(2), 37-40.

O'Mahony, G., McWilliams, A.M., & Whitelaw, P.A. (2001). Why students choose a hospitality degree program. The Cornell Hotel and Restaurant Administration Quarterly, 42(1), 92-96.

Owen, H. (1986). Handbook of Communication Skills. London: Croom Helm

Owen, H. (2011). Skilled interpersonal communication: Research, theory and practice. London: Routledge

Palys, T. (1997). Research Decisions: Quantitative and Qualitative Perspectives (2nd ed.) Toronto, ON: Harcourt Brace.

Pavesic, D.V. (1991). Job satisfaction: What's Happening to the Young Managers? The Cornell Hotel and Restaurant Administration Quarterly, February, 90-95.

Pavesic, D.V. (1993), "Hospitality Education 2005: curricular and programmatic trends", Hospitality Research Journal, 17(1), 285-94.

Payne, K., (1998). What now for tourism training: academic adaptation or economic Extinction. Faulkner, B., Tidswell, C., Weaver, D., Progress in Tourism and Hospitality Research, Bureau of Tourism Research, Canberra, 579.

Pizam, A. (1987). Travel, tourism, and hospitality research: A handbook for managers and researchers. New York: John Wiley.

Pizam, A. (1995). Who is the customer in hospitality education? International Journal of Hospitality Management, 14(3), 215-216.

Potter, J., & Wetherall, M. (1994). Analyzing discourse. In A. Bryman & R. Burgess (Eds.), Analyzing qualitative data (pp. 47-68). London: Routledge.

Powell, E. & Renner, M. (2003). Analyzing qualitative data. Madison, WI: University of Wisconsin Extension. Retrieved from http://learningstore.uwex.edu/pdf/G3658-12.pdf

Power, T. (1980). Hospitality management development for the 1980s. The Cornell Hotel and Restaurant Administration Quarterly, 25(2), 43-48.

Powers, T., & Riegel, C. (1984). R (for research) and D (for doctorate): An affirmative definition of hospitality education. The Cornell Hotel and Restaurant Administration Quarterly, 25(2), 43-48.

Publication Manuel of the American Psychological Association (5th ed.). (2001).

Pulkkinen, J. (2003). The paradigms of e-education. (Doctoral dissertation, University of Oulu, 2004). Retrieved from http://herkules.oulu.fi/issn0355323X/

Purdie, F., Ward, L., Mcadie, T., King, N., & Drysdale, M. (2013). Are work-integrated learning students better equipped psychologically for work post-graduation tan their non-work-integrated learning peers? Asia-Pasific Journal of Cooperative Education, 14(2), 117-125.

Rajbhandari, M. M. S (2006). Dominant leadership style in school. Educational resources information center. ED499621.

Raunch, C.F. & Behling, O. (1984). Functionalism: Basis for alternate approach to the study of leadership. In J.G. Hunt, D.M. Hosking, C.A. Schriesheim and R. Steward (eds). Leaders and managers: International perspectives on managerial behavior and leadership. Elmsford, New York: Pergamon Press, 45-62.

Raybould, M. & Wilkins, H. (2005). Over qualified and under experienced". International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management, 17(3), 203-216.

Reich, A., & Defranco, A. (1994). How to teach so students will learn: Part Two. Hospitality and Tourism Educator, 6(2). 43-45.

Richards, G. (1998). A European network for tourism education. Tourism Management, 19(1), 1-4.

Riegel, C.D. (1990). Purposes, perspective and definition: Toward and encompassing view of HRI education. Hospitality and Tourism Educator, 3, 18, 19, 28, 30-32.

Riegel, C.D. (1995). An introduction to career opportunities in hospitality and tourism (4th ed.). New York: John Wiley and Sons, Inc.

Riegel, C.D. & Dallas, M. (1999). Hospitality and tourism: Careers in the world's largest industry. Council on Hotel Restaurant and Institutional Education (ed.), A guide to Collage Programs in Culinary Arts, Hospitality and Tourism (6th ed.), New York: John Wiley and Sons.

Ritchie, J. & Lewis, J. (2003). Qualitative research practice: A guide for social

science students and researchers. London: Sage Publications

Ritchie, J.R.B. (1995). Design and development of tourism: Hospitality management curriculum. Tourism Recreation Research, 20(2), 7-13.

Robson, C. (2002). Real world research: A resource for social scientists and practitioner-researchers, Oxford: Blackwell.

Robinson, S. (1992). The learning curve. Inside Hotel, 15-40.

Rogers, C. (1969). Freedom to learn. Columbus, OH: Merrill.

Ross, C.M., Beggs, B.A., & Young, S.J. (2006). Mastering the job search process in recreation and leisure services. Boston, MA: Jones and Bartlett Publishers.

Rubin, H. & Rubin, I. (1995). Qualitative interviewing: The art of hearing data. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Rudolph, D.R. (1999). Desirable competencies of hospitality graduates in year 2007. (Doctoral dissertation, Cornell University, 1999). Dissertation Abstract International, 60, 04A.

Ryan, C. (1995). Tourism courses: A new concern for new times? Tourism Management 16(2), 97-100.

Ryen, A. (2004). Ethical issues. In C. Seale, G. Gobo, J. F. Gubrium, & D. Silverman (Eds.), Qualitative Research Practice (pp. 230-247). London: Sage.

Samenfink, W. H. (1992), A rebuttal: careerism and general education revisited in the hospitality curriculum. Hospitality and Tourism Educator, 4(4), 50-52.

Scandura, T.A., & Williams, E.A. (2000). Research methodology in management: Current practices, trends and implications for future research. Academy of Management Journal, 43, 1248-1264.

Seale, C. (1999). Quality in qualitative research. Qualitative Inquiry, 5(4), 465-478.

Shenker, J., & Heinemann, H. (1987). Institutionalizing cooperative education: The human dimension. Journal of Cooperative Education, 23(2), 58-64.

Sherman, R., & Webb, R. (1988). Qualitative research in education focus and methods. Philadelphia: The Falmer Press.

Silverman, D. (2006). 'Credible Qualitative Research', in D. Silverman, Interpreting Qualitative Data. London: SAGE Publications.

Simon, J. S. (1999). How to conduct a focus group. The Grantsmanship Center Magazine, Fall\99 issue, Los Angles.

Smith, G., & Conlin, M. (1998). Hospitality education and training: the challenge of Globalization. In Faulkner, B., Tidswell, C., Weaver, D., Progress in Tourism and Hospitality Research, Bureau of Tourism Research, Canberra, 615.

Smith, Ginger & Cooper, Chris. (2000). Competitive Approaches to Tourism and Hospitality Design. Journal of Travel Research, 39, 90-95.

Sommers, G. (1986). How cooperative education effects recruitment and retention. Journal of Cooperative Education, 22(3), 58-64.

Southall, R. M., Nagel, M. S., Le Grande, D., & Han, P. (2003). Sport management practica: a met discrete experiential learning model. Sport Marketing Quarterly, 12(1), 27-36.

Spears, L. (1995). Reflection on leadership. Toronto: Willey and Sons.

State Planning Organization, Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus (2009). Economic and Social Indicators 2004. State Printing Office, Nicosia, North Cyprus.

Stefles, J.S. (2004). Creating powerful learning environments beyond the classroom. Change, 36(3), 46-50.

STEMNET, (2010). Employability Guide. Retrieved from http://www.westlondonlln.org/stem-policy-watch/900/stemnet-employability-skills-guide.

Steward, D.W., & Kamins, M. (1993). Secondary Research: Information, Sources, and Methods. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

Stewart, D. W., & Shamdasani, P. N. (1990). Focus groups: Theory and practice. Applied Social Research Methods Series, Vol.20. Newbury Park, CA: Sage Publications.

Stogdill, R.M. (1974). Handbook of leadership: A survey of literature. New York: Free Press.

Strauss, A., & Corbin, J. (1998). The basics of qualitative research: Techniques and procedures for developing grounded theory. (2nd ed.). Thousand Oaks. CA: Sage

Strauss, A., & Corbin, J. (1990). Basics of qualitative research. Newbury Park: Sage

Stutts, A.T. (1995). Viewpoint: higher education in hospitality management. International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management, 17(6), ii-iii.

Su, A. Y., Miller, J.L., & Shanklin, C. (1997). Perceptions of industry professionals and program administrators about accreditation curriculum standards for hospitality programs. Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Education, 9(4), 36-40.

Su, Y.L. (1996). An evaluation of accreditation curriculum standards for four year undergraduate hospitality programs. (Doctoral dissertation, Kansas State University, 1996). Dissertation Abstract International, 57, 11A.

Tannenbaum, R., Weschler, I, R. & Massarik, F. (1961). Leadership and organization. New York: McGraw-Hill.

Tas, R.F. (1988). Teaching future managers. The Cornell Hotel and Restaurant Administration Quarterly, 29(2), 41-43.

Tas, R.F., LaBrecque, S.V., & Clayton, H.R. (1996). Property-management competencies for management trainees. The Cornell Hotel and Restaurant Administration Quarterly, 37(3), 90-96.

The National Society of Experiential Learning (1997). Retrieved from http://www.nsee.org/about_us.htm

The Employability Skills for the Future Group (2001). Retrieved from http://www.dest.gov.au/archive/ty/publications/employability_skills/final_report .pdf

Thiel, G. R., & Hartley, N.T. (1997). Cooperative education: A natural synergy between business and academia. Advanced Management Journal, 19-24.

Tracy, J.B. & Hinkin, T.R. (1994). Transformational leaders in the hospitality industry. The Cornell Hotel and Restaurant Administration Quarterly, 35 (2), 18-24.

Train, B. & Elkin, J. (2001). Branching Out: a model for experiential learning in

professional practice. The Journal of Librarianship and Information Science, 33 (2), 69-75.

Tribe, J. (2002). The national curriculum for tourism higher education. National Liaison Group for Higher Education in Tourism: Guideline No. 9, NLG, London.

(Truresky, F., T, & Gallagher, D. (2011). Know thyself: Coaching for leadership using Kolb's Experiential Learning Theory. The Coaching Psychologist, Vol. 7, No. 1 June 2011.

Tsai, J. L., Knutson, B., & Fung, H. H. (2006) Cultural variation in effect valuation. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 90, 288 – 307.

United Nations World Trade Organization (UNWTO) (2015). Tourism highlights, 2015. Retreived on 21 January 2016 from http://www.unwto.org/

United Nations World Trade Organization (UNWTO) (2007). TedQual. Retrieved from http://www.unwto.org/education-new/english/tedqual

University of Jyväskylä (2007). Retrieved from https://www.jyu.fi/en

Umbreit, W.T. (1992). In search of hospitality curriculum relevance for the 1990s. Hospitality and Tourism Educator, 5(1). 71-74.

Umbreit, W.T. (1993). Essential Skills: What graduates need to succeed. Hosteur, (Spring 1993), 10-12.

Van Manen, M. (1990). Researching lived experiences: Human science for an action sensitive pedagogy. London, Ontario: Arthouse Press.

Warwick, D.P. (1975). A theory of public bureaucracy. Harvard University Press.

Weber, M., Crawford, A., Rivera, D. Jr. and Finley, D. 2010. Using Delphi panels to assess soft skill competencies in entry-level managers. Journal of Tourism Insights, 1(1): 98–106.

Westlake, J., & Cooper, C. (1998). The role of quality in curriculum planning for tourism and hospitality education. In Faulkner, B., Tidswell, C., Weaver, D., Progress in Tourism and Hospitality Research, Bureau of Tourism Research, Canberra, 583-93.

Whitney, D.L. (1984). A model for experiential learning. The Cornell Hotel and Restaurant Administration Quarterly, 25(2), 52-53.

Williams, R. (1990). The impact of field education on student development research findings. Journal of Cooperative Education, 27(2), 29-45.

Wilson, J. N. (1999). CISE, Curriculum renewal focus group interview guide.

Wisch, R. (1989). Stressing the practical side of training hospitality students through internships. Hospitality Education and Research Journal, 13, 483.

World Tourism Organization, June, 2004). World Tourism Organization / Statistics Retrieved February, 2006, from http://www.world-tourism.org/newsroom/Releases

World Tourism Organization, August, 2004). World Tourism Organization /Statistics Retrieved February, 2006, from http://www.world-tourism.org/newsroom/Releases

World Travel and Tourism Council. Retrieved August, 2011 and January 2016, from http://www.wttc.org/Facts

Wright, P.C. (1988). The incident as a technique for teaching undergraduates in hospitality management and food administration. Hospitality Education and Research Journal, 12 (1), 57-66.

Wu, B., Morrison, A.M., Yang, J.K., Zhou, J.L., Cong, L.L. (2014). Cracks in the ivory tower? A survey-based analysis of undergraduate tourism education and educators in China. Journal of Hospitality, Leisure, Sport & Tourism Education 14 (2014) 26-38.

Yavas, U., Karatepe, O. M., Babakus, E., Avci, T. (2004). Customer complaints and organizational responses: a study of hotel guests in Northern Cyprus. Journal of Hospitality & Leisure Marketing, 1 (2/3), 31-46.

Yin, R. K. (2003). Case study research: Design and methods (3rd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Yorke, M., & Knight, P. (2004a). Employability: Judging and Communicating Achievement. York: LTSN.

Yorke, M., & Knight, P. (2004b). Embedding Employability into the Curriculum. York: LTSN.

Yukl, G. (1989). Leadership in organizations. (2nd ed.). Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.

Yukl, G. (1994). Leadership in organizations. (3rd ed.). Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.

Zopitas, A., & Theocharous, A. L. (2013). Revisiting hospitality internship practices: A holistic investigation. Journal of Hospitality, Leisure, Sports & Tourism Education. 13, 33-46.

Zopitas, A. & Constanti, P, (2007). And never the twain shall meet. Investigating the hospitality industry-education relationship in Cyprus, International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management, 49, 391-407.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

Focus Group Interview Guide
FOCUS GROUP INTERVIEW
GUIDE

1. Why did you choose tourism and hospitality management program?
2. What types of positions are taking your attention in Travel or Hospitality sector of Tourism industry?
3. How has the program at EMU-STHM prepared you with the required competencies to entry level managerial and leadership positions?
4. Beyond your industrial training, which courses and what kind of 'experiential learning' activities provided you opportunities to learn something by doing?
5. What elective courses have you taken by now? Why?
6. What changes in the programme would you suggest that could do a better job in preparing its graduates for entry level managerial and leadership positions or roles with the required competencies?

"FOCUS GROUP "
MÜLAKAT SORULARI

1. Bu Okulu / Programı niçin seçtiniz?
2. İleride ne tür işler / görevler yapmayı hedefliyorsunuz?
3. Takip ettiğiniz 4 Yıllık Proğram sizi bu hedeflerinize ne kadar hazırladı? Yeteri kadar Managerial Skills , Leadership Skills sahibi oldunuz mu?
4. "Experiential Learning" konusunda hangi derslerin / uygulamaların yararını gördünüz?
5. Bugüne kadar hangi Seçmeli dersleri, niçin aldınız?
6. Bu Proğrama daha neler eklenmeli ki buradan mezun olan öğrenciler kendilerini ileride bekleyen görevlere hazır hissedebilsinler?

APPENDIX B

Industry Questionnaire
STAJ DENETLEME FORMU
Yönetici Bilgileri

Yöneticinin Adı – Soyadı :
Görevi/ Hizmet Yılı   :
Tesisin /İşyerinin Adı   :
Kuruluş Yılı   :
Tarih   :

1.Stajyerin işe başlamadan önceki yada işyerinizdeki ilk günlerinde ne tür sorunlarla karşılaştınız? Nasıl Giderildi?

2.Stajyer öğrenci hakkındaki gözlemleriniz:

Genel Görünüm / Temizlik:	
Bilgisayar Becerileri:	
Yabancı Dili (Okuma/Yazma/ Konuşma)	
İletişim Becerileri: (Dinleme/Anlama / Diyalog Kurma)	
Liderlik Özellikleri: (Karar Verme/ Sorun Çözme/ İnsiyatif Kullanma)	

3.Stajyer öğrencinin şefi ve diğer personelle olan ilişkileri nasıldır?

4.Stajyerin bugüne kadar okulunda aldığı bilgi ve becerilerin onu sektöre iyi bir şekilde hazırlamakta olduğuna inanıyormusunuz?

5.Stajyerlerin / Turizm eğitimi alan öğrencilerin sektörde daha başarılı olabilmeleri ve sektöre olumlu katkılar yapabilmeleri için Turizm okullarınında ne tür bilgi ve beceri öğretimine ağırlık verilmesi gerekmektedir?

6. Önümüzdeki yıllarda tekrar okulumuz öğrencilerinden stajyer olarak yararlanmayı düşünürmüsünüz? Diğer Yorumlar:

APPENDIX C

Trainee Questionnaire

STAJ DENETLEME FORMU
Öğrenci Bilgileri

Stajyerin Adı – Soyadı   :
Öğrenci Numarası   :
Staj Yapılan İşletme Adı   :
Çalıştığı Bölüm(ler)   :
Tarih   :

1.Staj öncesi ve başlangıcında karşılaştığın sorunlar oldu mu? Nasıl çözüldü?

2.Staj yaptığın işyeri sana ne gibi olanaklar sağlıyor?

Konaklama	Yemek	Üniforma	Maaş	Diğer

3.Çalıştığın bölüm, verilen görevler seni tatmin ediyor mu?

4.Şefinle ve diğer personelle ilşkilerin nasıl?

5.Staj yaptığın süre içinde Turizm"de bugüne kadar aldığın derslerin hangilerinin direk ya da dolaylı olarak yararını gördün?

6.Staj yaptığın işyerinde daha başarılı olabilmek için kendinde eksikliğini hissettiğin bilgi ve beceriler nelerdir?

7.Burayı önümüzdeki yıllarda staj yapmaları için Turizm öğrencilerine tavsiye edermisin? Diğer Yorumlar:

APPENDIX D

Faculty Questionnaire

School of Tourism & Hospitality
Management
Questionnaire for Faculty

Personal Information
Name & Surname   :
Years of service at Faculty / STHM   :
Courses taught recent years   :

As leaders / managers of tomorrow, how do you think that STHM prepare its students for these roles in the tourism industry?

How does the course you teach meet leadership / management competencies?

How does the course you teach provide students with essential Interpersonal Communication skills competencies?

How does the course you teach serve to the aspects of Experiential Learning?

What efforts do you look out for to bring Experiential Learning into your classroom?

What types of learning objectives are included and emphasized in the course you teach?

Which activities in the course you teach provided the best results and why do you think they work?