

2000

The contribution of internship in developing industry-relevant management competencies in tourism and hospitality graduates

Maree Ann Walo
Southern Cross University

Publication details

Walo, MA 2000, 'The contribution of internship in developing industry-relevant management competencies in tourism and hospitality graduates', Masters thesis, Southern Cross University, Lismore, NSW.
Copyright MA Walo 2000

ePublications@SCU is an electronic repository administered by Southern Cross University Library. Its goal is to capture and preserve the intellectual output of Southern Cross University authors and researchers, and to increase visibility and impact through open access to researchers around the world. For further information please contact epubs@scu.edu.au.

**The Contribution of Internship in
Developing Industry-Relevant
Management Competencies in Tourism
and Hospitality Graduates**

Thesis submitted by

Maree Ann Walo (BBus)

February, 2000

**In fulfilment of the requirements for the Degree of Master of Business in the
School of Tourism and Hospitality Management**

Southern Cross University

Unless otherwise stated, results recorded in this thesis are the original work of the author and have not been previously submitted for any other degree at a university.

Signed.....

Date

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

There are several individuals who should be acknowledged and thanked for the support and assistance they provided during my candidature.

Two people made the process of completing my thesis a lesser task than it otherwise might have been. I would like to sincerely thank my principal supervisor, Nerilee Hing and co-supervisor, Paul Weeks for their wisdom, tuition and encouragement and for providing an environment conducive to discussion. In particular Nerilee's meticulous feedback on drafts of the dissertation was incredibly helpful and very much appreciated. I thank them also for their enthusiasm and academic support over the past three years and for their emotional support and friendship during times of stress.

I would also like to thank Lyndon Brooks and Katrina Luckie for their patience and invaluable guidance with the data analysis and interpretation. I am also extremely grateful to Dale Sweeny for his desktop publishing skills, in the preparation of this document.

In acknowledging the support of my colleagues at the School of Tourism and Hospitality Management, a special thanks to Drs Norman and Ngairie Douglas and Ros Derrett, who are a continuing source of inspiration. They have been great mentors and friends during the whole candidature and their moral support and encouragement gave me the impetus to complete my Masters degree.

Finally, as well as the support from my close friends I acknowledge and deeply appreciate the ongoing patience, support and encouragement of my family and husband Joe. In particular, Joe has been a tower of strength in helping me maintain my sanity and humour not to mention my sustenance throughout the whole process. Without his support this seemingly unending task would not have been possible.

ABSTRACT

Industry practitioners and educators both agree that tourism and hospitality management curricula need to reflect recent and future industry needs and developments, to ensure graduates are equipped with appropriate and industry-relevant skills. Furthermore, the combination of theory with practice is viewed as an essential component of a student's tourism and hospitality management education. In the past, limited attempts have been made to provide empirical support to claims that a practical internship experience develops management competence in tourism and hospitality management students. In addition, Australian research into the management competencies employers in tourism and hospitality industries expect of recent graduates is minimal. Given the proliferation of tourism and hospitality-related courses over the past decade and the relative importance attributed to internship in developing students' management competencies, such evaluations are considered important.

Thus, this study focused on three main research objectives which were; to identify the management competencies that managers of organisations within tourism and hospitality industries expect of recent tourism and hospitality graduates; to determine whether students' management competencies are developed during the internship component of Southern Cross University's Bachelor of Business in Tourism degree; and to determine whether the management competencies of Southern Cross University's Bachelor of Business in Tourism students meet the expectations of selected managers of organisations in four tourism and hospitality sectors.

The study utilised the 24 management competencies and eight roles of Quinn, Thompson, Faerman and McGrath's (1990) Competing Values Framework (CVF) to test two research hypotheses. The first hypothesis proposed that students' pre-internship mean scores will be significantly lower than their post-internship mean scores with respect to the 24 management competencies and eight managerial roles associated with Quinn *et al.*'s (1990) Competing Values Framework. The second hypothesis proposed that students' post-internship mean scores will not be significantly lower than the selected managers' mean scores with respect to the 24 management competencies and eight managerial roles associated with Quinn *et al.*'s (1990) Competing Values Framework. A specific survey instrument, the Self Assessment of Managerial Skills (DiPadova, 1990), was used to survey managers within four sectors of Australian tourism and hospitality industries and Bachelor of Business in Tourism internship students from Southern Cross University in Lismore, Australia. Students were surveyed before and after internship.

The study found that students' perceptions of their level of managerial competence had significantly increased after the completion of their internship placement in six of the 24 management competencies and three of the eight managerial roles, thus partially supporting the first research hypothesis. Further, it was found that pre-internship, students perceived these six competencies were their weakest competency areas, with one exception - Presenting Information by Writing Effectively. This suggests that internship has complemented competencies developed during their coursework. The study also found that after completing internship, students' perceptions of their managerial competence were reasonably congruent with the expectations of this sample of managers, thus supporting the second research hypothesis.

In this study students' post-internship competencies were found to be reasonably aligned with Quinn, Faerman and Dixit's (1987) research which examined the relationship between management competencies and hierarchical levels in an organisation. Empirical data collected from the students and the managers, identified students' management profiles pre- and post-internship and the management profile that managers expect of recent graduates. These profiles resembled Quinn's (1991) description of a Master Manager. These findings suggest that internship has assisted students in moving closer to the competence required of a Master Manager.

The study concludes that the internship component of a student's tourism and hospitality education can hold real educational benefits in preparing them for future management roles. Also, as entry level graduates, this cohort of students has the ability to demonstrate competence over a range of transferable generic management competencies and should be effectively equipped to undertake a range of managerial opportunities that may be presented to them. The study demonstrates the importance of conducting empirically based evaluation to provide support to the debate on the true educational value of internship and highlights the need for further research in this area. It also demonstrates the application of the eight management roles and 24 management competencies of the CVPF (Quinn *et al.*, 1990) to tourism and hospitality industries.

With the recent proliferation of tourism and hospitality management programs, tertiary education providers are now being held more accountable for the courses they offer. Curricula must reflect the changing needs of industry. Research in collaboration with tourism and hospitality industries must continue to ensure that courses offered are not only relevant but are also producing graduates with skills and knowledge they will need as future managers.

Contents

Acknowledgement.....	i
Abstract.....	ii
Contents	i
List of Tables	v
List of Figures	v
Abbreviations Employed in the Study.....	vii
Chapter One – Introduction to the Study.....	1
1.1 Introduction.....	2
1.2 Background to the Research.....	4
1.2.1 The Link Between Management Competencies and Management Education.....	5
1.2.2 The Link Between Management Competencies and Tourism and Hospitality Education.....	6
1.2.3 Developing Tourism and Hospitality Curricula to Meet Industry Needs	7
1.2.4 Competencies of Graduates: Industry Expectations.....	9
1.2.5 The Role of Internship in Tourism and Hospitality Management Education.....	11
1.3 Purpose of the Study.....	12
1.3.1 Selecting an Appropriate Tourism and Hospitality Degree Program.....	13
1.3.2 Selecting an Appropriate Theoretical Framework.....	14
1.3.3 The Theoretical Framework Used for the Study.....	15
1.3.4 Research Objectives	18
1.4 Potential Significance of the Study.....	19
1.5 Structure of the Thesis	21
1.6 Conclusion.....	22
Chapter Two – Review of the Literature.....	23
2.1 Introduction.....	24
2.2 The Need for Management Reform in Australia.....	24
2.3 The Issue of Competency Based Management Education.....	36
2.3.1 Management Competency Defined.....	37
2.4 Historical Developments of Models of Management Competencies	39
2.4.1 Summary of Managerial Competencies Identified in the Literature.....	39
2.4.2 Management Competency Models from 1960 - 1990.....	46
2.5 The Competing Values Framework	55

2.5.1	Development and Evolution of the Competing Values Framework.....	56
2.5.2	The Values in the Competing Values Framework.....	61
2.5.3	Eight Managerial Roles and 24 Competencies in the CVF.....	64
2.5.4	Prior Application of the Competing Values Framework.....	71
2.5.5	Profiles of Ineffective and Effective Managers.....	74
2.6	Justification for a Generic Model of Management.....	77
2.7	Competencies Required by Tourism and Hospitality Managers.....	79
2.8	Skills and Competencies Required by Tourism and Hospitality Graduates.....	90
2.8.1	DEETYA Report.....	95
2.8.2	Summary.....	97
2.9	The Value of Internship in Tourism and Hospitality Management Education.....	98
2.10	Developing Management Competencies Through Internship.....	101
2.11	Assessing Students' Management Competencies.....	106
2.12	Research Hypotheses.....	109
2.13	Conclusion.....	110
Chapter Three - Research Methodology.....		112
3.1	Introduction.....	113
3.2	The Self Assessment of Managerial Skills (S.A.M.S.).....	114
3.2.1	Previous Applications of the S.A.M.S. Instrument.....	116
3.2.2	Development of the S.A.M.S. Instrument.....	117
3.2.3	Justification For Using the S.A.M.S. Instrument.....	120
3.3	Study Variables.....	122
3.4	Stages of the Research.....	123
3.5	Stage One of the Research.....	125
3.5.1	Survey Participants.....	126
3.5.2	Sampling Methods.....	127
3.5.3	Survey Instrument.....	129
3.5.4	Maximising Response Rates.....	131
3.5.5	Survey Procedure.....	132
3.5.6	Survey Response Rates Attained.....	133
3.5.7	Data Analysis.....	134
3.6	Stage Two of the Research.....	135
3.6.1	Survey Sample.....	135
3.6.2	Survey Instrument.....	136
3.6.3	Survey Procedures.....	136
3.6.4	Maximising Response Rates.....	137
3.6.5	Response Rates Attained for the Student Sample.....	138
3.6.6	Data Analysis.....	139
3.6.7	Testing Hypothesis One.....	140
3.7	Stage Three of the Research.....	140
3.7.1	Testing Hypothesis Two.....	140
3.8	Methodological Limitations of the Study.....	141

3.9	Conclusion.....	142
Chapter Four - Analysis and Interpretation of Results		144
4.1	Introduction.....	145
4.2	Demographic Profile of Respondents	145
4.2.1	Profile of Student Respondents	145
4.2.3	Profile of Tourism and Hospitality Respondents' Organisation.....	149
4.3	Reliability of the Survey Instrument	152
4.4	Explanation of Significance Levels for Hypothesis Testing.....	164
4.5	Results and Discussion Pertaining to the Research Objectives.....	165
4.5.1	Mean Scores of Managers' Expectations of Graduates' Management Competencies.....	165
4.5.2	Summary of Managers' ANOVA Results.....	168
4.5.3	Comparison of Students' Pre- and Post-internship Mean Scores	160
4.5.4	Comparison of Rankings of Managers Expectations and Students Post-internship Competencies	164
4.6	Hypothesis One Findings	169
4.6.1	The Co-ordinator Role	171
4.6.2	The Monitor Role	172
4.6.3	The Innovator Role	174
4.6.4	Broker Role	175
4.6.5	Summary of Hypothesis One Findings.....	176
4.6.6	Discussion of Hypothesis One Findings	177
4.7	Hypothesis Two Findings	182
4.7.1	Mentor Role	185
4.7.2	Summary of Hypothesis Two Findings	187
4.7.3	Discussion of Hypothesis Two Findings.....	187
4.8	Students' and Managers' Profiles within the CVF	193
4.8.1	Comparison of Students' Pre- and Post-internship Management Profiles	195
4.8.2	Comparison of Students' Post-internship Profile and the Profile Managers Expect of Graduates	197
4.9	Summary of Hypotheses Testing.....	200
4.10	Conclusion.....	202

Chapter Five - Conclusions and Implications 204

5.1	Introduction.....	205
5.2	Summary of the Study's Findings	205
5.3	Implications of the Study's Findings	209
5.3.1	Implications for Education Providers of Tourism and Hospitality Management Courses.....	209
5.3.2	Implications for Tourism and Hospitality Industries	210
5.3.3	Implications for Students and Graduates	211
5.4	Limitations of the Study.....	211
5.5	Contribution to Knowledge	213
5.5.1	Empirical Contribution.....	213
5.5.2	Theoretical and Methodological Contributions.....	214
5.6	Recommendations for Future Research.....	216
5.6.1	Evaluation of Internship or Practical Work Experience.....	216
5.6.2	Evaluation of Employers' Expectations of and Satisfaction with Graduates.....	217
5.7	Conclusion.....	218

References 220

List of Appendices 238

Appendix One - Copy of the Self Assessment of Managerial Skills (Di Padova, 1990:70-72).....	239
Appendix Two - Breakdown by Sector of Southern Cross University's Bachelor of Business in Tourism Graduates (1991-1995)	243
Appendix Three - Copy of the Manager's Questionnaire	245
Appendix Four - Covering letter sent to the Tourism and Hospitality Manager Sample.....	254
Appendix Five- Follow up letter sent to the Tourism and Hospitality Manager Sample	256
Appendix Six - Copy of Student Questionnaire, pre-internship.....	258
Appendix Seven - Copy of Student Questionnaire, post-internship	266
Appendix Eight - Covering letter sent to students, post-internship	274
Appendix Nine - Follow up letter sent to students, post-internship.....	276
Appendix Ten - ANOVA analysis output.....	278
Appendix Eleven - Paired Sample T-Tests output	299
Appendix Twelve - Independent Sample T-Tests output.....	306

List of Tables

Table 2.1	The Old and New Paradigm of Management.....	26
Table 2.2	The Emerging Frontline Manager Profile	28
Table 2.3	A Comparison of the Competencies in the ANTA (1997) Framework and Quinn et al.'s (1990) CVF	35
Table 2.4	Summary of Managerial Competencies Identified in the Literature by Miller (1992)	41
Table 2.5	Summary of Boyatzis's (1982) Competency Results	51
Table 2.6	Competencies Relevant to Performance and Effectiveness in Terms of Job Demands at Various Levels of Management Jobs (Boyatzis, 1982)	52
Table 2.7	Characteristics of the Four Management Models of the CVF (Quinn et al., 1990).....	56
Table 2.8	Summary of the Competencies Required by Tourism and Hospitality Managers.....	81
Table 3.1	Summary of Demographic Study Variables	122
Table 3.2	Outline of the Three Stages of the Research.....	125
Table 3.3	Breakdown of Bachelor of Business in Tourism Graduates' Destinations, from 1991-1995 in the Selected Four Sectors	127
Table 3.4	Breakdown of Numbers by Sector for the Industry Sample.....	129
Table 3.5	Examples of Modifications to the S.A.M.S. (DiPadova, 1990) Instrument	131
Table 3.6	Breakdown by Sector of Industry Responses	133
Table 3.7	Breakdown of Student Response Rates.....	139
Table 4.1	Demographic Profile of Students	146
Table 4.2	Demographic Profile of Tourism and Hospitality Industries' Respondents	148
Table 4.3	Tourism and Hospitality Respondents' Organisational Profile n=153	149
Table 4.4	Results of Reliability Analysis of the Self -Assessment of Managerial Skills Scale for Student and Industry Respondents Using Coefficient Alpha.....	163
Table 4.5	Mean Scores of Managers' Expectations of Graduates' Management Competencies	167
Table 4.6	ANOVA Results Comparing Managers' Mean Scores by Sector.....	169
Table 4.7	Comparison of Students' Pre- and Post-internship and Mean Scores.....	160
Table 4.8	Rankings of Managers' and Students' Post-internship Mean Scores.....	165
Table 4.9	Results of Paired Sample T-Tests Comparing Students' Pre- and Post-internship Managerial Competence.....	169
Table 4.10	Results of Independent T-Tests Comparing Managers' and Students' Post-Internship Mean Scores	183
Table 4.11	Comparison of Students' and Managers' Roles within the CVF (Quinn et al., 1990).....	190

List of Figures

Figure 1.1	The Competing Values Framework	16
Figure 2.1	The Eight Values in the CVF (Quinn et al., 1990).....	62
Figure 3.1	The 113 Competency Statements, 24 Competencies and 8 Managerial Roles Associated with the CVF (Quinn et al., 1990).....	115
Figure 3.2	Program in Supervision (Faerman, Quinn and Thompson, 1987).....	119
Figure 4.1	Differences in Mean Scores for Controlling by Sector.....	159

Figure 4.2	Comparison of Managerial Roles for Students Pre- and Post- internship	164
Figure 4.3	Comparison of Student's Post-Internship and Managers' Mean scores	168
Figure 4.4	Differences in Students' Pre- and Post-internship Mean Scores in the Co-ordinator Role.....	172
Figure 4.5	Differences in Students' Pre- and Post-internship Mean Scores in the Monitor Role	173
Figure 4.6	Differences in Students' Pre- and Post-internship Mean Scores in the Innovator Role	175
Figure 4.7	Differences in Students' Pre- and Post-internship Mean Scores in the Broker Role	176
Figure 4.8	Differences in Students' Post-internship and Managers' Mean Scores for the Mentor Role.....	186
Figure 4.9	Students' Mean Scores Pre-internship	194
Figure 4.10	Students' Mean Scores Post-internship	194
Figure 4.11	Managers' Means Scores	195
Figure 4.12	Comparison of Students' Pre and Post-internship Profiles.....	196
Figure 4.13	Comparison of Students' Post-internship Profile and the Profile Managers Expect of Graduates.....	198
Figure 4.14	The Master Manager (Quinn et al., 1990)	200

ABBREVIATIONS EMPLOYED IN THE STUDY

ANTA	Australian National Training Authority
ANOVA	Analysis of Variance
CEO	Chief Executive Officer
CVF	Competing Values Framework
CHRIE	Council on Hotel, Restaurant and Institutional Education
DEET	Department of Employment, Education and Training
DEETYA	Department of Employment, Education, Training and Youth Affairs
EFSC	Employment and Skills Formation Council
MBO	Management by Objectives
NTB	National Training Board
NBEET	National Board of Employment, Education and Training
TQM	Total Quality Management
S.A.M.S.	Self Assessment of Managerial Skills
SCU	Southern Cross University
UK	United Kingdom
US	United States of America
WTTC	World Travel and Tourism Council

Chapter One

Introduction to the Study

1.1 INTRODUCTION

Worldwide, travel and tourism industries generate direct and indirect employment for 204 million people and create twice as many jobs as the average industry (World Travel and Tourism Council, 1996). In Australia, these industries are some of the nation's largest employers with forecasts indicating they will achieve a growth rate of approximately 45% and generate 250,000 new jobs over the next decade (WTTC, 1996). However, a potential barrier to the future growth of these industries is the lack of appropriate human resources (WTTC, 1996).

Tourism and hospitality employers have raised concerns regarding the scarcity of suitably qualified workers. They claim there is a severe shortage of both management and skilled workers, particularly in the hotel and resort sectors, and that the education of these potential employees needs to be more aligned with industry needs (Goodman and Sprague, 1991; Jones, 1991). This reflects more general concerns regarding a critical shortage of suitably qualified Australian managers with the knowledge and skills to meet the demands and challenges of the 21st century (Karpin, 1995) and the need for educational strategies to foster the development of management skills and competencies within Australia (Report of the Industry Task Force on Leadership and Management Skills [*Karpin Report*], 1995). Thus, developments in training and education need to ensure they accommodate expected industry growth and future competitive demands (WTTC, 1996:18).

The predicted growth in tourism-related industries and expected shortages of skilled workers have been reflected in a rapidly growing number of related university courses. These courses aim to meet an increasing demand for qualified flexible professionals who can meet the demands of a volatile and changing business environment (Umbreit, 1993). To achieve these aims, providers of tourism and hospitality management education need to focus on providing vocationally relevant management education that reflects contemporary developments in industry practice and technology. The challenge is to successfully prepare graduates for the demands of the future by offering tourism and hospitality curricula that reflect the needs of industry, whilst maintaining the academic rigour and underlying philosophy associated with a university education.

This challenge is heightened by the rapidly changing business environment that presents new demands of management. Forces such as increased globalisation, rapid technological innovation and the customisation of products and services are considered major influences on world markets and the nature of business enterprises, thus influencing how organisations

will be structured and managed (Rand Corporation, 1995 in Karpin, 1995). This dynamic and challenging environment will demand a change in the nature of workers, the way they think and the range of skills they possess. High quality employees who can adapt to inevitable change will be one of the essential ingredients for organisational success (Terpestra, 1996:16).

It is argued that, to meet the future demands for appropriately skilled managers and workers, ongoing collaboration and consultation with industry is required to ensure the goals of all primary stakeholders - students, educators and industry employers - are met. One form of collaboration often included in tourism-related university courses is internship or workplace experience. This practical component of a university course is aimed at enhancing students' practical skills and management competencies. Under the broad term of 'industry placements', these experiences have attracted a range of different terms such as practicum, internship and co-op. Different structures and approaches to internship are used, with considerable variations apparent in length of the placement time, location within the degree program, whether students are paid or unpaid and the nature of work undertaken.

While there is still much debate surrounding its legitimacy as an academic exercise (Petrillose and Montgomery, 1998), it is well documented that internship can realise many benefits for all three stakeholders. For employers, internship provides access to a pool of workers who are usually enthusiastic and dedicated to the industry and who bring fresh ideas to the workplace. It also provides them the opportunity to screen potential employees without making long term commitments and to have direct involvement in training the industries' future managers (Pauze, Johnson and Miller, 1989; Petrillose and Montgomery, 1998; Ju, Emenheiser, Clayton and Reynolds, 1998). For education providers, internship can strengthen links with industry. This can enhance collaborative research opportunities, raise the institution's profile and establish long term working relationships between industry and the institution to optimise future graduate employment opportunities (Bell and Schmidt, 1996; Walo, 1999). For students, internship provides opportunities to practice what they have learnt in the classroom, gain a greater understanding of the industries' requirements, test career choices and develop important workplace skills (Casado, 1991; Barron and Maxwell, 1993; Emenheiser, Clayton and Tas, 1997; Petrillose and Montgomery, 1998; Barron, 1999).

It is also argued that internship contributes to developing students' management competencies (Mariampolski, Spears and Vaden, 1980; Knight, 1984; Tas, 1988; LeBruto and Murray, 1994). Students through internship can reportedly develop competence in several generic areas of management, including leadership, human resources, oral and

written communication, interpersonal communication, problem solving, teamwork, planning and decision-making (Tas, 1988; LeBruto and Murray, 1994; Bell and Schmidt, 1996; McMullin, 1998). However, there is limited empirical evidence to support these claims with few studies assessing changes in students' management competencies as a result of undertaking an internship. Consequently, research into the role of internship in developing management competencies would seem valuable given the importance of ensuring that tourism and hospitality management curricula reflect current and future industry needs, so that graduates are equipped with appropriate skills and competencies.

Therefore, in an attempt to address this important research area, this study aims to assess the contribution that the internship component of Southern Cross University's Bachelor of Business in Tourism course makes in developing students' management competencies. The study also aims to identify the management competencies employers in tourism and hospitality industries expect of recent graduates and to assess whether the selected cohort of students meet employers' expectations (upon graduation). These aims are specified as general objectives in Section 1.3.4.

A review of the literature reveals there are many variations to the definition of management competencies. However, for the purposes of this study, Quinn, Faerman, Thompson and McGrath's (1990) definition of a competency has been adopted. It is defined as 'the knowledge and skill necessary to perform a certain task or role. A competency suggests both the possession of knowledge and the behavioural capacity to act appropriately' (Quinn *et al.*, 1990:14-20).

Having identified the rationale and general aims of this study, the remainder of Chapter One provides relevant background information on the topic under research, identifies the study's primary objectives, introduces the theoretical framework adopted and evaluates the potential significance of the research.

1.2 BACKGROUND TO THE RESEARCH

The purpose of this section is to provide relevant background information to the topic under research. Section 1.2.1 focuses briefly on the link between management competencies and management education, while Section 1.2.2 focuses more specifically on tourism and hospitality management education.

1.2.1 The Link Between Management Competencies and Management Education

Recent reports have identified an urgent need for Australian enterprises and education providers to attend to management reform and skills development and training, to ensure the country's future competitiveness in a challenging and demanding global market (Karpin, 1995). These have argued that Australia maybe be moving too slowly in adjusting to emerging challenges and demands (Dawkins and Holdings, 1987; Employment and Skills Formation Council [EFSC], 1988; Department of Employment, Education and Training [DEET] 1991).

The most comprehensive recent study of Australian management practices (Karpin, 1995) contended that 'Australian management must improve significantly in the next decade if enterprises expect to even meet today's world best practice standards' (Karpin, 1995:xiv). The *Karpin Report* identified significant gaps in the skill levels and education of Australian managers. These include entrepreneurship, global orientation, soft skills, strategic skills and management development (Karpin, 1995:136). Karpin argued that these gaps reflect deficiencies in Australian management education to date (Karpin, 1995).

Drawing on extensive research of practising management professionals and a review of Australian and international management literature, the *Karpin Report* (1995) articulated the need for superior leaders and managers if Australia is to take full advantage of opportunities associated with the 'Asia Pacific century'. It identified five major challenges for improving management skills and achieving best practice in management into the next century. One of these, 'the challenge to achieving best practice management', identified two key elements. The first - the need for identifying broad areas of leadership and competence, reflects the Task Force's recognition that identifying management competencies can be an effective tool for enterprise management development, selection and staff appraisals, career development and succession planning (Karpin, 1995:137). The second - for management development to meet the needs of industry rather than the needs of educators, suggests a need for greater involvement and links between universities and industry (Barraclough and Co. in Karpin, 1995:156). These links can foster greater understanding of needs and transfer of ideas of these two stakeholders. In turn, curricula may be developed not in isolation, but in collaboration to best suit the needs of education, industry and students.

There is a strong move amongst Australian higher education professionals to develop and impart life long learning skills in graduates. The value of life long learning skills is also now being recognised by industry (DEETYA, 1998) as necessary for managers to operate in a

dynamic and volatile environment. Undergraduate education can be a potentially vital link in the life long learning process and should form the core of all undergraduate programs in all disciplines to help graduates deal with a diverse range of formal, non- formal and informal learning opportunities after graduation (Candy, Crebert, and O’Leary, 1994).

Higher education has a major role to play in providing formal training and developing students’ management competencies. Further, increased industry involvement in the provision of training will help to ensure that the skills imparted are relevant, responsive and up to date (Minister for Employment, Education and Training, 1988). As Burns (1993) notes:

Rapid changes in the international economy and the present transformation of Australia into a multi-faceted economy means that, now more than ever before, a well-trained and well educated work-force is essential if Australia is to maintain its relatively prosperous position in the world.

(Burns, 1993:5)

1.2.2 The Link Between Management Competencies and Tourism and Hospitality Education

Higher education plays a key role in tourism and hospitality management education, with emphasis on developing student’s managerial, rather than operational, skills (Roberts and Whitelaw, 1999). The past decade has witnessed a proliferation of tourism and hospitality management university courses in Australia, with the number of courses between the mid 1980’s until 1997 growing from five to 44. The challenge for educators in this crowded market is to find the ‘right focus’ to ensure these courses are recognised as playing a significant role within the tourism and hospitality management education field (Craig-Smith and Shortland-Webb, 1999).

In finding this focus, Lewis contends that universities need to take a strategic approach to tourism and hospitality education by ‘re-evaluating present programs in light of changing managerial and social needs, as well as industry needs that have not yet surfaced’ (Lewis, 1992:12). Lewis provides valuable insight into the role of future management education within the hospitality industry, claiming that educators will need to research and re-evaluate their teaching as well as their service. He states that both educators and industry need to be forward thinking and open to new ideas, suggesting a co-operative approach, if the ideas and views of graduates are to be accepted (Lewis, 1992).

The relationship between management education and the future development of tourism-related industries was clearly illustrated in *The National Tourism Strategy* (1992):

While industry training has tended to focus on the development of operational skills, there is a growing appreciation of the importance of balancing operative, supervisory and management skills development.

To be competitive with other industries, tourism needs to recognise more fully the need for qualified management personnel in areas such as human resource planning, customer relations, marketing and financial control as well as staff with specific operational skills.

Quality management practices are paramount to improving the productive capacity of all staff and the efficient allocation of resources in any scale of operation, but are particularly critical in tourism where small business combine many of the diverse management functions.

(Australian Department of Tourism, 1992:15)

In summary, the above discussion signals a need for greater interaction between industry and education in training future tourism and hospitality managers. The success of these future professionals will depend on their ability to perform over a diverse range of management functions and to think strategically. Therefore, universities will need to take a strategic approach in developing curricula so that students are adequately equipped with skills that are relevant and current. The importance of ensuring that tourism and hospitality curricula satisfy industry needs is discussed in the following section.

1.2.3 Developing Tourism and Hospitality Curricula to Meet Industry Needs

Many researchers have highlighted the issue of industry relevance in the planning, design and redesigning of tourism and hospitality management curricula. If a curriculum is not industry relevant, it lacks credibility and purpose (Luke and Ingold, 1990). Further, tourism and hospitality educators need to continually and objectively assess the relevance of their curricula in line with future needs and trends (Pavesic, 1993).

Some studies have investigated the opinions of educators and recruiters in tourism-related industries to determine the relevance of their curricula. For example, a study of hospitality educators and recruiters in the United States of America (US), found that only 37% of educators believed their curriculum was 'very relevant' while a mere 16% of hospitality recruiters rated hospitality curricula as 'very relevant'. Walker suggests these alarming

results signify the need for hospitality curriculum to undergo continual relevancy checks (Walker, 1992 in Pavesic, 1993).

Another concern reported by hospitality professionals is the apparent shortage of adequately skilled middle and upper level management personnel. According to Jones (1991), while undergraduate hospitality education provides an abundance of graduates for lower level management positions, there is concern amongst industry leaders about a serious shortage of mid level and executive management talent. It seems that these low level managers with advanced operational skills experience difficulty as they climb the organisational hierarchy in acquiring the knowledge and skills associated with advancement to general management levels (Jones 1991:72). While these concerns for apparent deficiencies in management education have related to hospitality industries, it is argued they could equally apply to tourism industries. It is suggested that, educators in both these fields should concentrate on modifying existing curricula to align with both current and future needs of these industries (Umbreit, 1992).

Researchers and educators in hospitality industries are particularly concerned about the importance of providing industry relevant curricula. There is a perception that if hospitality curricula do not align more closely with the updated needs of industry employers there is a risk of losing students to general business programs (Goodman and Sprague, 1991). It is recognised that the needs of hospitality industries are not fully met by these competing general business programs as they do not focus on service and other unique elements of tourism and hospitality industries. However, it will be important to increase the breadth and quality of tourism and hospitality curricula to maintain the loyalty of students, faculty and industry recruiters (Goodman and Sprague, 1991).

To summarise, there is little doubt about the importance of ensuring that tourism and hospitality management curricula reflect current and future industry needs and developments, to ensure graduates are equipped with the tools required for effective management in these industries. Continual review and research in collaboration with industry is therefore considered an essential activity in the evaluation, development and redesign of these curricula. Therefore, research into competencies expected of tourism and hospitality graduates is a critical step in identifying industries' needs. Section 1.2.4 provides a brief introduction to this issue, with a more detailed investigation presented in Chapter Two.

1.2.4 Competencies of Graduates: Industry Expectations

The concept of management skills and competencies dominates the direction of research attempting to evaluate what makes an effective manager. General management literature is abound with studies concerning the types of skills and competencies required for effective management.

Lamond (1996:31) cites the work of many theorists and researchers over the past twenty five years and claims that ‘despite the numerous taxonomies of the basic management skills, there is unsurprising commonality’. These common skills include problem solving, organisational, interpersonal and communication skills. In order to undertake the multidimensional tasks managers face, the management functions of planning, organising, motivating, co-ordinating and controlling cannot be separated. While it is argued that dramatic changes in the business environment imply that managers of the future will require a whole new set of skills and knowledge, there is a view that these are no different to what organisations have been seeking of managers for many decades (Lamond, 1996). Whichever view is correct it is clear that management educators need first to identify the skills and knowledge required by industry and then ensure these are incorporated in their curricula. It is no longer adequate to produce university graduates who suit only an academic agenda and many institutions now recognise the need for designing programs that meet the needs of future employers.

A report commissioned by the Department of Employment, Education, Training and Youth Affairs (DEETYA) in 1998, has important implications for both higher education and vocational training providers in Australia. The report, *Research on Employers’ Satisfaction with Graduate Skills*, details the qualitative findings of ongoing research. The aim was to determine employers’ views on skills they are seeking in new graduates; to determine the importance of these skills; and to identify those skill areas where graduates may be deficient (DEETYA, 1998:v). The report was instigated following the growing evidence of employer dissatisfaction with graduates. It found that employers seek graduates who possess a range of transferable skills including strongly developed written and oral communication, interpersonal, team working and problem solving skills (DEETYA, 1998). Communication skills were identified as being the most desired skills for graduates to possess, but these were also considered as seriously deficient among graduates (National Board of Employment, Education and Training, 1992).

The DEETYA (1998) report is the most comprehensive and recent study of management competencies employers expect of graduates in general. Empirical research into the

expectations of tourism and hospitality employers regarding the management competencies of graduates over the past two decades has predominately concentrated on the hotel sector, particularly in the US and the United Kingdom (UK). For example, Tas (1988) identified competencies required by management trainees specific to US hotels and this research laid the foundation for many further studies in the field. In contrast, in a study comparing expectations of management trainees in US and UK hotels, Baum (1991) identified a number of core competencies that could be transferred internationally.

The tourism and hospitality literature emphasises the need for ‘global’, ‘entrepreneurial’ skills and ‘vision’ that will enable managers to meet the challenges of the 21st century (Su, Miller, and Shanklin, 1997). While differences may exist in the nature of tourism and hospitality industries internationally, the trend towards globalisation indicates that future managers will need to demonstrate skills within the global environment. Therefore, the issue of management competencies should not be examined in isolation, in terms of a geographic location (Baum, 1991). Furthermore, many studies have revealed the overwhelming opinion that tourism and hospitality management courses should focus on teaching crucial leadership skills that will equip future managers to meet the demands of an ever-changing business environment (Dew 1991 cited in Umbreit 1992; Cichy, Sciarini and Patton, 1992; Umbreit, 1993).

There is no argument that tourism and hospitality industries are regarded as ‘people industries’ and that effective management of these human resources is highly important. The delivery of high quality service can give an organisation a competitive edge and an organisation’s human resources, particularly front-line employees, are crucial to future success (Umbreit, 1993). There is widespread agreement amongst many tourism and hospitality researchers that, more soft human relation skills such as oral and written communication and interpersonal communication are essential skills for graduates and new trainees to possess (Okeiyi, Finley, and Postel, 1994; Richins, Tait, and Hamlin, 1994; Tas, LaBrecque, and Clayton, 1996; Maes, Weldy, and Icenogle, 1997). With the industries’ need for strong human relation skills, educators must ensure that students have a clear understanding of the importance of these skills and are provided every opportunity to develop them throughout their degree program.

This brief glimpse into the skills considered important for tourism and hospitality management graduates indicates that overall they will need to possess a range of transferable generic skills and be particularly competent leaders, communicators and strategic thinkers. As stated previously, much of the research has emanated from the US and UK. However, published research examining the link between graduate management competencies and

employers' expectations in the Australian context is limited. This present study aims to address this deficiency by identifying the expectations of a sample of managers within Australian tourism and hospitality industries regarding the management competencies of recent graduates.

The importance of ensuring that tourism and hospitality management curricula reflect industries' needs and impart relevant and appropriate skills to students to ensure their future success, has been established. Discussion in Section 1.2.5 concentrates on the contribution of internship to developing students' management competencies.

1.2.5 The Role of Internship in Tourism and Hospitality Management Education

The *Karpin Report* (1995) highlighted the importance of work experience in developing managers' skills and competencies. Management development is seen as a broad collection of formal and informal experiences that can develop and enhance a manager's skills (Telechy Consulting in Karpin, 1995). According to many scholars the key to enhancing managerial experience is through work based learning experiences either on or off the job. Learning should involve a number of pathways including the work role, training and development, work relationships and formal management education (Telechy Consulting, in Karpin, 1995).

Moreover, management development through work experience can commence during university education. In fact a major issue for many researchers in tourism and hospitality management education is the role and benefit of experiential learning or practical work experience. There is consensus that practical work experience or internship is one of the most effective ways that students can apply the theory learnt in the classroom environment (Ford and LeBruto, 1995). Thus, internships may be fundamental in developing key management competencies in students.

Experiential learning is not new and for many years has been a central inclusion in such disciplines as teaching, hotel management, business administration, nursing, agriculture and medicine (Ford and LeBruto, 1995). However, much of the earlier research in the hospitality field comes from the UK and US contexts. For example, research has indicated that the practical experience component of a university degree is crucial in delivering skills and competencies for hotel management (Ford and LeBruto, 1995). Further, a study of the educational value of captive hotels identified a number of essential competencies that can be learned only in a 'practical setting' (LeBruto and Murray, 1994).

Other tourism and hospitality researchers have clearly identified the relationship between practical work experience and the development of skills and management competencies (Knight, 1984; Tas, 1988; Pauze *et al.*, 1989; Ford and Le Bruto, 1995; Bell and Schmidt 1996; Ju *et al.* 1998, Petrillose and Montgomery, 1998). DiMicelli (1998) states that a 'hands-on' approach to educating hospitality managers not only supports management principles learnt in theory but also provides students with the opportunity to practice and review their competence and skills within the real world environment.

It appears there is substantial agreement between all stakeholders - employers, educators and students - that practical work experience is vital for the future success of tourism and hospitality management graduates (Breiter, 1991). If Australian tourism and hospitality industries hope to grow, strengthen and maintain a high profile in the international arena, ongoing research into management education and the role of practical experience will play a crucial role in this development.

In summary, ongoing research into, and evaluation of, the needs of tourism and hospitality industries with respect to competencies required of graduates is crucial to ensure curricula are relevant and up to date. In addition, there is substantial support that internship or practical work experience plays a crucial role in developing students' management competencies. This study will make an important contribution to existing research by providing empirical data on both these issues, as explained in the following section.

1.3 PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

As noted earlier, this study aims to identify the management competencies employers in tourism and hospitality industries expect of recent graduates, assess whether graduates meet these expectations and assess the contribution that internship makes in developing these competencies. To achieve these aims it is first necessary to:

1. identify a suitable tourism and hospitality degree with an internship component as the focus of the study;
2. select an appropriate theoretical framework; and
3. refine the general research aims into more specific research objectives.

1.3.1 Selecting an Appropriate Tourism and Hospitality Degree Program

Central to conducting research for this study is identifying a suitable degree program that prepares students for a career in tourism and hospitality management and which incorporates an appropriate internship program. There are a wide range of degree programs currently offered throughout Australia, many with an internship or practical component. However, the Bachelor of Business in Tourism at Southern Cross University in Lismore, Australia was selected for this study, for several reasons.

First, the School of Tourism and Hospitality Management at Southern University was selected for its high regard and reputation as being a leader in tourism and hospitality education. This has been demonstrated through its achievements in winning the 1997, 1998 and 1999 State Tourism Awards and the 1999 Australian Tourism Awards for Excellence in Industry Education. Moreover, all courses offered through the School are designed in consultation with business and industry leaders and claim to reflect the latest developments in industry practice and technology. These programs are reputedly relevant, timely and responsive to industry needs (School of Tourism and Hospitality Management, 1999).

Second, the School's Bachelor of Business in Tourism, has been offered since 1989. Its success in preparing students for careers in tourism and hospitality industries is reflected in the School's annual graduation employment figure of approximately 95%, which is well above the national average (School of Tourism and Hospitality Management, 1999). These factors were considered important as the School has developed a strong industry network over a broad range of tourism and hospitality sectors. Further, it was felt that because of this strong relationship, industry would be supportive of this current research.

In keeping with the School's philosophy of providing industry relevant courses, the Bachelor of Business in Tourism course includes a six month compulsory internship where students are placed in an industry setting as the final component of their degree. This program allows flexibility to accommodate both students' and participating organisations' needs. For example, students may undertake placements in any appropriate tourism and hospitality sector in Australia or overseas. While many of these placements are paid, some students are financially able to complete a voluntary placement. This allows smaller operations and many government bodies and industry associations who may have limited capacity to pay, the chance to participate in the internship program. This practical component of the degree offers students a range of benefits which are detailed in Chapter Two.

Finally, the Bachelor of Business in Tourism degree at Southern Cross University was selected for ease of access to both students and tourism and hospitality industry personnel, required for the empirical stages of this study. In her role as Internship Co-ordinator for Southern Cross University's School of Tourism and Hospitality Management, the author of the present study has access to both these stake-holders.

1.3.2 Selecting an Appropriate Theoretical Framework

A further important preliminary task in this study is to identify an appropriate and conceptually tested approach to measure students' perceptions of their management competencies and employers' expectations of graduates' management competencies. This involves considering firstly whether a general measure of management competencies or one specific to tourism and hospitality industries is most appropriate.

Many researchers have considered the issue of generic versus industry specific competencies. There is support from within the tourism and hospitality field for using a more general approach to management education, at the same time acknowledging the specialties of tourism and hospitality industries. Supporters for general competencies argue that the basic functions of management do not change from industry to industry and that management education should be based on sound theoretical principles that have stood the test of time (Mullins and Aldrich, 1988; Pavesic, 1993). According to the Hotel, Catering and Institutional Management Association (1997), 'management areas cover functions common to any situation which have been identified as important to successful performance in hotel, catering and institutional services' (in Mullins and Davies, 1990). However it is recognised that, particularly in the hotel sector, there are several distinctive features such as the labour intensity of hotels, perishability of the product, and seasonality, that may demand a specific management approach. Nevertheless, these distinctive features do not preclude the application of general management principles (Baum, 1988). Furthermore, trends in the business environment such as rapidly expanding technology, increasing complexity and the uncertain future of business direction, signify that specific skills and knowledge will become outdated and replaced by an ability to seek new knowledge and understanding relevant to meet future challenges (Haywood, 1989).

A review of the literature to determine the competencies required of tourism and hospitality graduates (Chapter Two) indicates that generic and transferable skills, such as leadership, communication and human resource management, are essential to ensure their success in industry. It is argued that, graduates require transferable generic skills that can be applied across departments, organisations and industry sectors and to management situations in

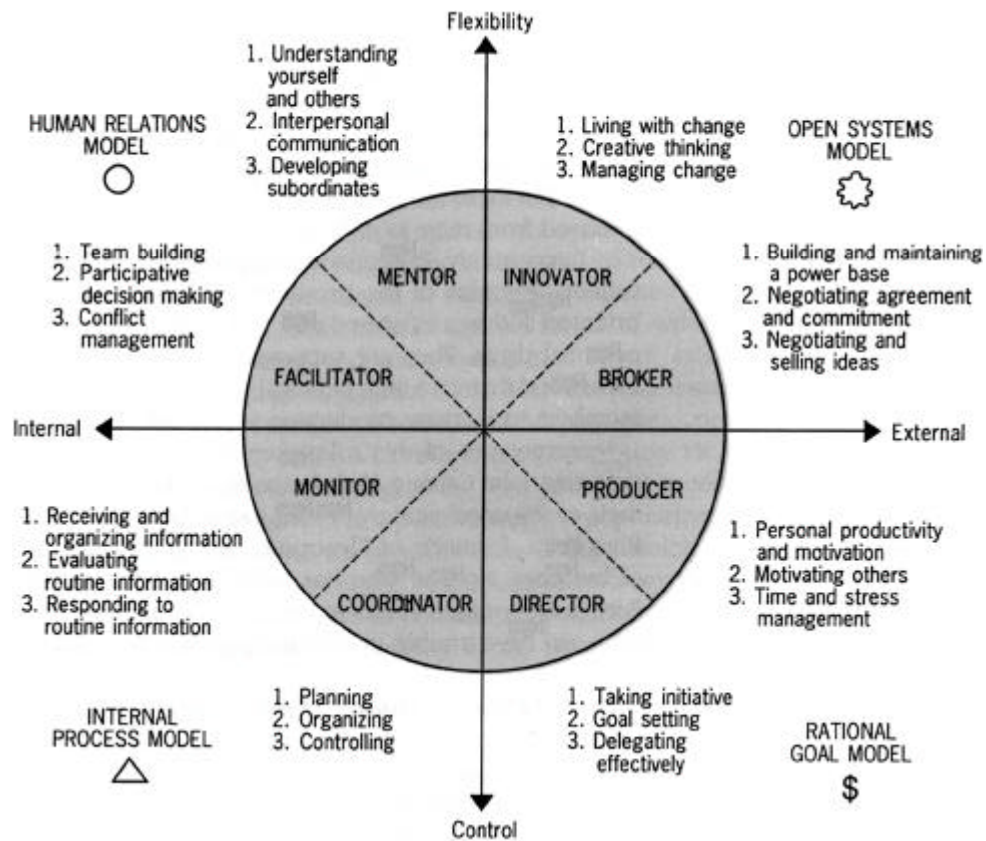
other countries. This further supports the above arguments that tourism and hospitality managers require general competencies to ensure effective managerial performance. Therefore, it is suggested that a generic framework of management competencies is appropriate for use in the empirical stages of this study.

Having determined that a measure of general management competencies rather than those specific to tourism and hospitality industries is most appropriate for this study, it is necessary to identify an appropriate set of competencies to measure. As will be discussed in Chapter Two, there is a wide array of management models that identify management competencies and skills required for effective management. These have been generated from several different analytical constructs and perspectives (Miller, 1992). Following a review of some of these theoretical models in Chapter Two, Quinn, Thompson, Faerman and McGrath's (1990) 'Competing Values Framework' (CVF) has been selected for this study. It is considered most appropriate for the reasons outlined below.

1.3.3 The Theoretical Framework Used for the Study

The CVF (Quinn *et al.*, 1990) was developed following extensive empirical research conducted in conjunction with organisational theorists and researchers. The intention of Quinn *et al.*'s (1990) CVF, shown in Figure 1.1, is to provide a comprehensive model that reflects the values and characteristics of four historic models of organisational theory - the Rational Goal Model, Internal Process Model, Human Relations Model and Open Systems Model (Quinn *et al.*, 1990).

Figure 1.1 *the Competing Values Framework*



Source: Quinn *et al.*, 1990:15

As the name suggests, the values in each of the four quadrants of the CVF (Quinn *et al.*, 1990) appear to have conflicting messages. As O'Neill and Quinn explain:

We want our organisations to be adaptable and flexible, but we also want them to be stable and controlled. We want growth, resource acquisition and external support, but we also want tight information management and formal communication. We want an emphasis on the value of human resources, but we also want an emphasis on planning and goal setting.

(O'Neill and Quinn, 1993:49)

The basis of the CVF (Quinn *et al.*, 1990) is that each of the quadrants, shown in Figure 1.1 is a crucial part that makes up the larger construct of organisational and managerial effectiveness (O'Neill and Quinn, 1993). Quinn *et al.* (1990) state that many managers tend to pursue a single personal style and employ similar strategies over a wide range of differing situations. They suggest that a manager's world keeps changing and therefore strategies effective in one situation may not be effective in another. The CVF (Quinn *et al.*, 1990)

provides managers with the opportunity to increase their effectiveness by utilising a range of competencies depending on the situation (Quinn *et al.*, 1990).

As shown in Figure 1.1, there are two management roles associated with each of the four models of management within the CVF (Quinn *et al.*, 1990). Each role complements the ones next to it and contrasts with those opposite. A further feature of the CVF (Quinn *et al.*, 1990) is that it specifies three specific competencies necessary for managers to perform in each of the eight management roles. These 24 management competencies are largely consistent with existing literature (for example Ghiselli, 1963; Miner, 1973; Katz, 1974; Mintzberg, 1975; Boyatzis 1982; in Quinn *et al.*, 1990).

One advantage of using the CVF (Quinn *et al.*, 1990) for this study is that Quinn *et al.*, (1990) designed and tested a survey instrument to assess an individual's competence in relation to the roles and management competencies contained within the model. The Self Assessment of Managerial Skills (S.A.M.S.), (DiPadova, 1990) consists of 113 questions that assess competence in relation to the three skills associated with eight managerial roles, for a total of twenty four skills.

Chapter Two provides a more detailed discussion of the concepts associated with the CVF (Quinn *et al.*, 1990) and Chapter Three explains the survey instrument as it applies to this study. In summary, after considering the suitability and applicability of the CVF (Quinn *et al.*, 1990) to this study, this model has been selected for the following reasons:

- it has a sound theoretical and research base and offers an opportunity to examine key managerial skills and competencies based on organisational theory;
- the model incorporates a broad range of management roles and competencies that reflect the multidimensional nature and functions of management;
- little empirical research has been found specifically relating to tourism industries with most revolving around competencies specific to the hotel and hospitality fields. Quinn *et al.*'s (1990) model takes a general approach to management competencies and skills necessary for managers to be effective, giving it the versatility to be applied to all industry sectors; and
- Quinn *et al.* (1990) designed a valid and reliable survey instrument to assess an individual's competence in the 24 management competencies and eight managerial roles associated with the model.

Presentation of the theoretical model adopted in this study completes this section. Section 1.3.4 presents the specific research objectives.

1.3.4 Research Objectives

Having identified an appropriate degree program for investigation and a suitable theoretical framework and survey instrument, this section presents the objectives and associated activities of this study. The general aims of this study identified earlier can be expressed as the following research objectives.

Objective One

To identify the management competencies managers of organisations within tourism and hospitality industries expect of recent tourism and hospitality graduates by:

- identifying which four sectors of tourism and hospitality industries are the major employers of graduates from Southern Cross University's Bachelor of Business in Tourism degree, to determine the sectors to be examined in this study; and
- identifying the management competencies selected managers in these four sectors expect of recent graduates of tourism and hospitality degree programs.

Objective Two

To determine whether students' management competencies are developed during the internship component of Southern Cross University's Bachelor of Business in Tourism degree by:

- identifying the management competencies of Southern Cross University's Bachelor of Business in Tourism students prior to commencing the internship component of the degree;
- identifying the management competencies of Southern Cross University's Bachelor of Business in Tourism students at the completion of the internship component of the degree; and
- comparing the pre- and post-internship management competencies of Southern Cross University's Bachelor of Business in Tourism students.

Objective Three

To determine whether the management competencies of Southern Cross University's Bachelor of Business in Tourism students meet the expectations of selected managers of organisations in four tourism and hospitality sectors by:

- comparing the post-internship management competencies of Southern Cross University's Bachelor of Business in Tourism students with the expectations of selected managers in the four tourism and hospitality sectors.

This section has identified the research objectives for this study. Specific research hypotheses developed to test these objectives are presented at the completion of Chapter Two, following a review of the relevant literature.

1.4 POTENTIAL SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

This study aims to contribute to the existing body of knowledge in the ways identified below.

A major issue for many researchers in tourism and hospitality industries is the role of experiential learning or practical work experience and its legitimacy as an academic exercise in management education. In addition, many researchers emphasise the need for internship to be an integral component of education curricula. They contend that internship assists in developing valuable skills and competencies in students that will be required by employers on entry to the workforce. Tas (1988) suggests that hospitality educators should conduct further studies to see whether graduates are demonstrating the management competencies required by employers in the industry.

However, to the author's knowledge there is no published research in the tourism and hospitality field that has empirically tested changes that may occur in students' managerial competence as a result of a practical component in their degree, or that has assessed students or graduates as they progress into the workforce, to determine their level of managerial competence. There appears to have been little progress made in this area over the last decade. This is an alarming discrepancy within this field of research given the important role of management education in producing graduates capable of meeting the demanding needs of the industry. Therefore, this study will help address this deficiency, by using students' self-evaluation of a management skills-based instrument to identify changes in students' management competencies pre- and post-internship. This information will assist in

validating extensive claims that internship does develop certain management competencies in students.

There has been a proliferation of tourism and hospitality programs over the past decade, but research into skills and competencies required for effective management continues to be dominated by the hotel and hospitality sectors of the industry. For all programs to remain vital, it is crucial that curricula reflect the needs of all sectors of the industry and prepare students to meet future challenges. This study will identify a profile of management competencies that selected managers in a range of Australian tourism and hospitality industries consider important for graduates of degree programs to possess. This information will not only help students by raising their awareness of the needs of industry but also may serve as a guide for checking current curricula of tourism and hospitality management degree programs to ensure they reflect current industry needs.

Similarly, the study identifies students' perceptions of their managerial competence at the completion of an internship period. This provides the opportunity to identify a profile of the management competencies that Southern Cross University's Bachelor of Business in Tourism students possess on completing their degree. The study will compare the perceived management competencies of these potential graduates with the industry managers' expectations to determine congruence between the two groups. This will demonstrate how well prepared these students are in meeting industry recruiters' needs and at the same time provide the opportunity to identify any gaps that need to be addressed in the Bachelor of Business in Tourism curriculum.

There appears to have been significant advances in other industries, but there is a disturbing lack of research in tourism and hospitality industries that examines the contribution that internship plays in developing students' management competencies. The reasons for this under-researched field are not known and may be partly because assessing management competencies of students and graduates requires time and funding. A further prohibiting factor may be the perceived lack of an adequate measuring instrument. This highlights the need for an appropriate instrument that has a sound developmental base and a proven track record in management education research. Therefore, this study provides the opportunity to test the relevance of Quinn *et al.*'s (1990) CVF to tourism and hospitality industries. It will determine which of the 24 general management competencies identified in this framework managers rate as being most important for students to possess and those which are seen as less important. These results can be assessed for consistency with the literature relating to the skills and competencies considered essential for tourism and hospitality graduates to possess. It is anticipated this will make an important contribution to the literature in this field.

Overall, the findings of the study have the potential to lead to a better understanding of Australian tourism and hospitality industries' requirements in relation to the skills and competencies of recent graduates. It will provide a valuable contribution to the tertiary education sector to ensure tourism and hospitality curricula are responsive to industries' needs. Finally, the study makes an important contribution to the literature regarding the contribution that internship plays in developing students' management competencies and offers a possible methodology for measuring this contribution. The findings of this study will establish a foundation for future research.

1.5 STRUCTURE OF THE THESIS

This thesis is structured in five chapters.

Chapter One has introduced the study by providing background to the research. It established the topic and identified gaps in previous research that this study attempts to address. The purpose of the study has been outlined, including a brief discussion and justification of the theoretical model and survey instrument used. General aims of the study have been expressed as three specific research objectives that provide a basis for the research hypotheses presented at the completion of the literature review. The chapter concluded by evaluating the potential significance of the study.

Chapter Two reviews general management and tourism and hospitality management literature relating to competencies and skills required for effective management, focusing particularly on those required of graduates or entry level managers. The review discusses the concepts associated with Quinn *et al.*'s (1990) CVF and explains the 24 management competencies and eight managerial roles tested in the empirical stages of the research. The chapter also reviews the literature on the benefits of an internship component in tourism and hospitality management education and identifies prior research into the contribution it makes to developing students' management competencies. Finally, hypotheses developed to test the research objectives are presented.

Chapter Three discusses the methodology employed for this research and explains statistical measures used to test the objectives and specific research hypotheses. Data collection methods, survey procedures, response rates and data analysis are discussed. Methodological limitations and assumptions of this study are briefly identified.

Chapter Four presents the empirical findings of this study. It provides demographic information on the respondents, reliability results of the survey instrument and explanation of significance levels used for hypothesis testing. The results of testing the research objectives and the two research hypotheses are presented and discussed.

Chapter Five concludes the study by summarising the research, by examining the overall implications and contributions of the study, by identifying its major limitations and by evaluating the potential of this topic for future research.

1.6 CONCLUSION

Chapter One has provided an introduction to this study and has laid the foundations for the remaining chapters. It identified the rationale of the study and established the overall issues to be examined. A brief explanation and justification of the theoretical model and survey instrument to be used in the study was presented. The chapter identified the primary research objectives and evaluated the potential significance of the present study in terms of its contribution to the tourism and hospitality literature and its value to management education in these industries.

Chapter Two will provide an extensive review of the literature relevant to the issues to be examined in this study, from which measurable research hypotheses have been formulated and presented to test the research objectives.

Chapter Two

Review of the Literature

2.1 INTRODUCTION

The purpose of Chapter Two is to review literature relevant to the topic under study so the three research objectives formulated in Chapter One can be presented in more measurable terms as research hypotheses.

Section 2.2 briefly examines two important government initiatives over the past decade that highlight the need for Australian educators, training providers and enterprises to focus on management reform to remain competitive within a global economy. Section 2.3 provides a brief discussion of the utility of linking management competency frameworks to managerial effectiveness as an insight into the debate on the complex issue of competency based management education. Section 2.4 presents important historical developments in the general literature on management competency frameworks, while Section 2.5 describes and explains the theoretical model used for this study.

An issue emerging from the review is debate on whether tourism and hospitality industries should focus on a generic rather than a specialised approach to management. This issue is briefly examined in Section 2.6. In Section 2.7 the competencies required for effective tourism and hospitality management are identified, while Section 2.8 examines the competencies required of graduates in these industries.

The relevant literature is then reviewed in relation to internship in tourism and hospitality management education. Section 2.9 examines the value of internship and identifies several attendant benefits to students. Several studies propose that internship can enhance students' management competencies and, while these are investigated in Section 2.10, concerns regarding the accurate measurement of these competencies are raised in Section 2.11. The three research objectives presented in Chapter One are restated as measurable research hypotheses in Section 2.12.

2.2 THE NEED FOR MANAGEMENT REFORM IN AUSTRALIA

This section examines two important government initiatives that have implications for management education in Australia - the *Karpin Report* (1995) and the *Front-Line Management Development Kit* (ANTA, 1997). First, the *Karpin Report* (1995) highlighted skill deficiencies in Australian managers and contended that without appropriately skilled managers it will be difficult for Australian enterprises to maintain their competitiveness

(Karpin, 1995:xiv). Recommendations of the *Karpin Report* (1995) provide direction for Australian management educators. They signal the importance of research into competencies industry employers expect of graduates and the need for educators to provide curricula that equip graduates with these competencies. Karpin suggests that ‘all Australians can benefit from improving the skills of our managers, not only in terms of higher living standards but also in terms of better employment prospects and more satisfying work environments. Better managed enterprises would minimise unemployment, provide higher level jobs and improve employee relations’ (Karpin, 1995:88). Second, the Australian National Training Authority’s (ANTA) *Front-Line Management Development Kit* (1997) emanating from the recommendations of Karpin (1995), provides a competency framework for Australian front-line managers.

Several reports presented over the past decade have signified an urgent need for Australian enterprises and education providers to attend to management reform, to ensure the country’s future competitiveness in a challenging and demanding global market (Karpin, 1995). In particular, the *Industry Training in Australia: The Need for Change*, (Employment and Skills Formation Council [EFSC], 1988), *The Australian Mission on Management Skills*, (Department of Employment, Education and Training [DEET], 1991), and the *Interim Report on the Benchmark Study of Management Development in Australian Private Enterprise* (National Board of Employment, Education and Training, 1990) presented a number of recommendations for improving and strengthening best practice in management and related management skills. These reports were instrumental in developing a management skills strategy for Australia, which resulted in the establishment of an Industry Task Force on Leadership and Management Skills. The task force undertook a comprehensive study of Australian management practices from 1992–1995, which culminated in the *Karpin Report* (1995).

2.2.1 The Karpin Report

The *Karpin Report* (1995) was a major government and industry initiative that reviewed practice and performance of Australian managers, focused attention on the skills and competencies required by current and future managers and subsequently recommended educational strategies to foster future management development within Australia.

While this report has attracted some mixed criticisms, especially from the higher education sector (Nettle, 1996; Smith, 1996; Lamond, 1996), its findings and recommendations have made a significant contribution towards the issues surrounding management development in Australia. It is not appropriate within the scope of the present study to review all the

dimensions of the *Karpin Report* (1995). However some aspects have particular relevance. Thus, discussion concentrates on the issues of management skills and competencies required for current and future Australian managers and the role of practical experience in developing these competencies.

The *Karpin Report* (1995) contended that the nature of the business environment is rapidly changing, with the three most influential factors associated with this change being increasing globalisation, rapid technological advances and the customisation of products and services. This dynamic environment demands a change in the nature of workers, the way they think and the range of skills they possess. It is important especially for those people who will be best placed to interpret and influence change to develop knowledge and skills that will keep their organisations in the competitive arena (Karpin, 1995).

The Boston Consulting Group and Rand (in Karpin, 1995) argued that organisations in the future will have to do things differently and move away from a structured model to a more behavioural model where emphasis is on employee relationships and teamwork. This is because ‘the whole paradigm of management has dramatically changed, bringing with it a whole new set of organisational requirements. These requirements in turn suggest that the role of the managers will be markedly different in the future’ (Karpin 1995:21). Table 2.1 summarises the changing requirements from the old to new paradigm of management as identified in the *Karpin Report* (1995).

Table 2.1 ***The Old and New Paradigm of Management***

New Paradigm	Old Paradigm
organisation learning	organisation discipline
virtuous circles	virtuous circles
flexible organisations	inflexible organisation
management leaders	management administrators
open communication	distorted communication
markets	hierarchies
product development drive by core competencies	product development driven by strategic business units
strategic learning capacities are widespread	strategic learning occurs at the apex of the organisation

assumption that most employees are trustworthy	assumption that most employees are untrustworthy
most employees are empowered	most employees are disempowered
local knowledge of all employees is critical to success and creativity creates its own prerogative	local knowledge of all employees must be disciplined by managerial prerogative

Source: Boston Consulting Group in Karpin, 1995:21

The Boston Consulting Group's research (1995) suggests that profiles of these 'new age' leaders have already started to emerge as shown in Table 2.2. The senior manager will need to have a definite global focus and the critical role of the front line manager will be in areas of innovation, greater productivity, quality and flexibility. Overall, managers at all levels will have to be good leaders (Boston Consulting Group, in Karpin, 1995:22-23).

Table 2.2 *The Emerging Frontline Manager Profile*

1970	Today	2010
The Supervisor	The Organiser	The Leader/Coach
Male	Male, possibly female in sales.	Male or female.
Supervisor from position of accepted authority.	Conflict in role between management's need for supervision and groups' need for leadership.	Clear role as leader and coach. Responsible for developing employee skills.
Operates in a highly hierarchical organisational structure.	Major changes in organisation structure (elimination of middle management).	Flat organisational structure. Team leader reports to senior management.
Values of role: control, organizing, motivation by authority, technical expert.	Values of role: control, organising, motivation by promoting teamwork.	Values of role: performance management, facilitator, participative, empowers other team members.
Low-pressure work environment.	Stressful environment due to organisational restructuring.	Environment emphasises best practice, benchmarking, quality and customer service.
Experience in field, with trade qualification.	Experience in field, with trade qualification.	Most have TAFE level qualification or degree.
Little formal management training.	50% have formal management training for the position, but little support from management for further learning.	100% have formal training for the position. Regular in-company training for further learning.

Source: Boston Consulting Group in Karpin, 1995:23

Karpin (1995) suggested that the challenge now facing enterprises, training providers and educational institutions is to find new ways of developing and equipping managers with these new sets of skills. A review of Australian and international management literature combined with empirical research identified five major challenges for improving management skills and achieving best practice in management into the 21st century. These challenges with particular relevance to the present study are:

- to develop a positive enterprise culture through education and training;

- to upgrade vocational education and training and business support;
- to capitalise on the talents of diversity;
- to achieve best practice management development; and
- to reform management education.

(Karpin, 1995:9)

As discussed earlier, it is not the intention of this review to examine the *Karpin Report* (1995) in any great detail but to raise issues relevant to the current research. An important and critical factor relates to entrepreneurship, as indicated in the first challenge. This appears to underpin all the other challenges. To ensure a positive enterprise culture, managers will require a high level of entrepreneurial skills. The Task Force regards entrepreneurship as critical to effective management (Karpin, 1995). However research indicates that Australian managers rate very poorly in this skill compared to managers in other major trading nations in the Asian region (Karpin, 1995). These findings have implications for educators of potential managers. They need to ensure that opportunities for developing students' entrepreneurial skills are incorporated into management education curricula.

A sub-committee of the Task Force on Management Skills in the Australian Industry, examined 61 international enterprises, government agencies, industry associations and tertiary institutions to establish best practice in developing leaders and managers. Their research identified five main issues that have implications for developing management skills in future Australian managers:

- **Productivity and competitiveness**

There was strong evidence of the relationship between skills development and the improved performance of enterprises. As such, human resource development is a critical aspect in improving enterprise competitiveness. Managers who play a central role in effectively bringing about change processes must move from the traditional supervisor role into one of a team leader, mentor and coach.

- **Development of Front-Line Managers**

Maximising performance of front-line managers and supervisors requires a change from the traditional role of controller and director to one of mentor, coach and trainer.

- **Management Competencies**

It was found there are a number of management competencies that are generic to many industries and enterprises. There was also support for enterprise specific competencies that could be tailored to suit the individual organisation to supplement generic competencies. Again the role of coaching was strongly emphasised, where the challenge in the future was to learn about people rather than tasks.

- **Skills for International Operations**

One of the main areas of concern was a manager's ability to recognise and initiate opportunities for the Australian market in the international arena. Highly developed international skills will be important especially in the Asian countries where a great deal of emphasis is placed on the cultural aspects of international trade. There is a need to develop programs that provide Australian managers with an understanding of how to go about business in Asia, given its high profile in Australia's international trade.

- **Best practice management and leadership development**

The key elements of best practice management development identified were:

- an enterprise strategic plan that drives the management development agenda;
- a management development strategy that provides a framework for all management development activities for up to five years;

- a management development model that emphasises learning from a rich variety of sources;
- management development linked to the entire human resource and management system;
- responsibilities for management development shared between managers and their enterprise;
- management competencies that are identified for all management levels;
- priorities for management development that are agreed by the stakeholders;
- work experience recognised as a primary development opportunity;
- an enterprise culture that encourages all managers to learn and pursue personal continuous improvement; and
- management training and development programs that improve management performance.

(Karpin, 1995: 38-45)

Considering all the above, the last issue, best practice management and leadership development, has extensive implications for future management development and education. According to Karpin (1995:136) one of the challenges of achieving best practice management development involves identifying broad areas of leadership and management competence. The present study attempts to address some of the elements of best practice management development by identifying the management competencies tourism and hospitality employers expect of recent graduates and the contribution that internship makes to developing students' management competencies.

Recognising the importance of research into competencies required for effective management, the Task Force reviewed the literature of prominent management thinkers and sought the views of leading Australian chief executive officers. It identified eight areas where many Australian managers need to improve their skills. These were:

- soft or people skills;
- leadership skills;
- strategic skills;

- international orientation;
- entrepreneurship;
- broadening beyond technical specialisation;
- relationship building skills across organisations; and
- utilisation of diverse human resources.

(Karpin, 1995:136)

Given the deficiencies identified by Karpin (1995), more is expected of management education providers than is currently provided. One way to improve educators' role in developing students' management competencies is by incorporating practical work experience into curricula. Management development is seen as a broad collection of formal and informal experiences that can develop and enhance a manager's skills (Karpin, 1995). According to many researchers, the key to enhancing managerial experience is through work based learning experiences either on or off the job. Work based learning is quickly gaining recognition as the key to enhancing managerial competence (Karpin, 1995). This is supported by the empirical research of Telechy (1995) who surveyed a sample of Australian managers to determine how they acquired their knowledge and skills. Results indicated that work experience played a significant role in developing their skills and knowledge (Telechy Consulting, in Karpin, 1995: 140).

The Task Force raised an alarming concern about Australia's largest category of managers with direct relevance to the present study. It found that:

Front-line managers are numerically the largest category of managers, they have the most immediate impact on the productivity and quality output of the workforce and evidence would suggest the majority of them are not being prepared for the challenges of the Asia-Pacific century.

(Karpin, 1995:150)

Thus, the Task Force's recommendations on achieving best practice management development mainly related to front-line managers. Overall, it recommended the development of a management competency framework for use in all industries, including small business, by managers operating at all levels. Some strategies for developing and implementing such a framework included development of core management competencies, strong industry liaison, ongoing research to ensure world best practice, co-ordination

between industries to avoid duplication, incorporation of existing small business management competencies, preparation of software training packages and merging industry and enterprise specific management competencies (Karpin, 1995:373). These recommendations provide direction for Australian management educators, some of which are addressed in the present study. The empirical stages of this study utilise a general management competency framework to identify the expectations of tourism and hospitality employers regarding graduates' management competencies and to assess whether the management competencies of students (who are ready to graduate) meet these expectations. The study also provides an opportunity to assess the relevance of the competencies contained within this framework to tourism and hospitality industries.

Later sections in this review provide further support for the findings of the *Karpin Report* (1995) that the management competencies and skills required for effective management have undergone change. Many studies reviewed in the literature identified a strong emphasis on people skills, leadership, entrepreneurial, global and strategic thinking skills. It is argued that, these 'new age' skills reflect the changing nature of the general business environment and indicate the challenges facing tomorrow's managers. This signals the importance of identifying the competencies practising managers consider important and the need for education providers to continually refine their programs to ensure these competencies are developed in their graduates.

2.2.2 Australian National Training Authority Report

A further significant development which emerged from the *Karpin Report* (1995) has been the development of a framework of generic management competencies for front-line managers in Australia. In 1997, the Australian National Training Authority (ANTA) released its *Front-line Management Development Kit*. This competency framework underwent extensive validation on a national basis involving some 2000 small, medium and large scale organisations in the public and private sector. It identified eleven areas of competence grouped into four main themes:

Leading by Example

Manage personal work priorities and professional performance

Provide leadership in the workplace

Leading, Coaching, Facilitating and Empowering Ideas

Establish and manage effective workplace relationships

Participate in, lead and facilitate work teams

Creating Best Practice

Manage operations to achieve planned outcomes

Manage workplace information

Manage quality customer service

Develop and maintain safe workplace and environment

Implement and monitor continuous improvement systems and processes

Creating an Innovative Culture

Facilitate and capitalise on change and innovation

Contribute to the development of a workplace learning environment

(ANTA, 1997:5)

The ANTA Framework (1997) is particularly relevant to this study as several of the competencies identified in the framework are consistent with Quinn *et al.*'s (1990) CVF, the management model used for this study. In comparing both frameworks, Miller (1992) found congruence in seven management competency areas. A comparison of the two frameworks is presented in Table 2.3.

Table 2.3 *A Comparison of the Competencies in the ANTA (1997) Framework and Quinn et al.'s (1990) CVF*

ANTA (1997)	Quinn <i>et al.</i> 's (1990) CVF
Manage personal work priorities	Goal setting
Provide leadership	Developing and motivating others
Manage relationships	Conflict management
Facilitate work teams	Team building
Manage operations	(Planning, organising and controlling)
Manage information	Reducing information overload
Manage customer service	
Develop safe workplace	
Implement continuous improvement	(Planning, organising and controlling)
Facilitate change	Managing change
Develop learning environment	Developing subordinates

Source: Adapted from Miller, 1992:100

In addition to Miller's (1992) findings, it is suggested that other competencies in Quinn *et al.*'s (1990) CVF align with the ANTA (1997) Framework. These have been denoted by brackets in Table 2.3. It is argued that the competencies associated with Quinn *et al.*'s Co-ordinator Role address the competencies of Managing Operations and Implementing Continuous Improvement in ANTA's framework. The managers' task in the Co-ordinator Role is to ensure the day to day functioning of the unit and maintain stability and continuity. All three competencies in this role are collectively aimed at effective management of the organisation's operations including operational planning, co-ordinating organisational resources to achieve goals and implementing feedback mechanisms so that plans and processes can be modified for the future (Quinn *et al.*, 1990). Furthermore, these competencies are concerned with managing the operations so that the organisation can respond to change with degrees of flexibility and control (Quinn *et al.*, 1990).

The ANTA (1997) framework represents an important contribution to the development of management education in Australia by identifying a range of behaviours that front-line managers are required to demonstrate in order to be effective in their roles. The aim of this initiative is to improve the competencies of Australia's front-line managers so that organisations may be more productive, innovative and competitive (ANTA, 1999). This poses a challenge for education providers to refine curricula so that graduates are equipped with these competencies, to ensure their effectiveness and success in management.

The next section provides a brief discussion on the utility of linking management competency frameworks to managerial effectiveness to provide insights into the debate on the complex issue of competency based management education.

2.3 THE ISSUE OF COMPETENCY BASED MANAGEMENT EDUCATION

A competency based approach has been a central theme of management education agendas for many years. This approach, now embraced by schools, technical colleges and universities, has spread from the training sector to the professions, although there is still much debate as to the value of what is considered by many as a vocationally oriented approach to management education (Collins, 1993).

The review of management literature for the present study identified a proliferation of management competency models developed over the past twenty years. Nevertheless, there are concerns amongst management professionals regarding the efficacy of using management

competencies to develop frameworks which are used to set the parameters for management development. For example, Burgoyne (1990) seriously questioned the validity of competency models and whether management competence can be broken down into logical sets which are consequently re-integrated into a holistic management performance model (Burgoyne, 1990).

Further, Kandola (1996:20) suggests that a typical management competency framework of planning, organising, decision making, innovation, managing self and others, leadership and influencing others, neglects an individual's need to transform themselves, learn new skills and be adaptable to different environments. She argues that while competencies have a role to play in managing and developing people, they are only one piece of the jigsaw (Kandola, 1996). Likewise, Poole (1998) sees the complex issue of a linking management effectiveness to related competencies as an 'inexact science', fraught with problems. He adds that, while some of the core competencies such as communication and organisational skills can influence managerial effectiveness, there are other inherent abilities coupled with knowledge and a strive for excellence that ensure managerial performance and effectiveness (Poole, 1998).

It is evident that the acquisition of a given set of desired management competencies alone, does not make the 'perfect manager'. There may be other traits, characteristics and attributes that contribute to managerial effectiveness. However, what a plethora of management models have sought to identify are the base competencies underpinning managerial effectiveness. These are examined in the ensuing sections. Prior to this, a brief discussion on defining 'management competency' is provided below.

2.3.1 Management Competency Defined

The concept of competence remains at the forefront of management development in Australia and overseas (Wallace and Hunt, 1996). The meaning and interpretation of the term 'competency' continues to be surrounded by controversy with no proposed agreement in sight. It is suggested that this issue is due to the differing perspectives of professionals involved in the competency movement, all using a different style of language when addressing the terms associated with the skills and functions of effective management performance (Slater, 1992; Marginson, 1993 in Wallace and Hunt, 1996).

Miller holds a similar view when he claims that:

Despite the volume of research in the areas of managerial skills and competencies and the resurgence of the competency based approach to training in many vocational areas, there still remains considerable debate and confusion as to what constitutes a competency.

(Miller, 1992:10).

Much of the debate revolves around the interpretation of competency in terms of its scope. Some scholars suggest that an individual's skills, attributes and qualities are highly context specific and may be evaluated precisely as they relate to specific job related tasks. This more narrow view is evidenced in the National Training Board's definition of competency as:

The specification of knowledge and skill and the application of that knowledge and skill within an occupation or industry level to the standard of performance required in employment.

(NTB, 1991:18).

Other supporters of this view (Barrow, 1991; Bowden and Masters, 1993; Marginson, 1993) also contend that many generic competencies such as problem solving and critical thinking are context bound as they depend on the individual situation and circumstances surrounding the application of these skills (in Wallace and Hunt, 1996).

However, as noted by Wallace and Hunt (1996), many practising managers support a broader approach to defining managerial competencies which recognises that managers use both specific and generalist knowledge to understand their work environments and in particular draw on experience. This broader view emphasises the concept of 'portability of competencies' (Jessup, 1991 in Wallace and Hunt) and recognition that knowledge can be applied and transferred across different situations and environments (Johnson, 1992).

Boyatzis (1982) defines competency as 'an underlying characteristic of a person in that it may be a motive, trait, skill, aspect of one's self-image or social role, or a body of knowledge which he or she uses' (1982:21). This definition tends to focus on the qualities required for effective performance rather than on individual performance (Miller, 1998). Other definitions make reference to an individual's underlying characteristics, such as Karpin's definition of management competencies as 'any underlying characteristics leading to successful performance' (1995:40). Similarly, The Mayer Committee defined competency as the 'mindful, thoughtful capabilities that involve skills and underlying knowledge...and goes beyond pure or abstract thinking to the skilled application of understanding' (1992:4-5). From these conflicting definitions it is apparent that Woodruffe's summation of the myriad definitions of competency may have merit. He argues that

competency appears to be used as an umbrella term to cover almost anything that might directly or indirectly affect job performance (Woodruffe, 1992 in Pierce, 1994).

A major concern with applying a single definition to the term competence in the management field is due to the complex nature and diversity of managerial behaviour and work, which is incapable of standardisation (Martin and Staines, 1994). While disagreement remains as to what constitutes a competency it is generally agreed that a universal definition that could apply to all situations is difficult due to the inherent nature of the concept (Miller, 1998).

As noted in Section 1.1 the literature review revealed there are many variations to the definition of management competencies. However, for the purposes of this study, Quinn *et al.*'s (1990) definition of a competency has been adopted. It recognises importance of operational skills, knowledge and personal characteristics and the linkages between possessing these and performing certain tasks or roles.

2.4 HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENTS OF MODELS OF MANAGEMENT COMPETENCIES

One challenge of this review was to identify a theoretical model that best suits the purpose of the current study given the extensive number of management competency models. Miller (1992) identified a plethora of management models, generated from a number of different analytical constraints and perspectives. There contained a total of 430 management competencies.

It is not within the scope of the present study to review all these models. As discussed in Section 1.3.2, Quinn *et al.*'s (1990) CVF has been selected as the theoretical framework for this study. The management competencies in the CVF are consistent with those identified by numerous contemporary theorists (Quinn *et al.*, 1990). Therefore this section reviews the work of many of these and others that have relevance to the present study.

2.4.1 Summary of Managerial Competencies Identified in the Literature

According to Miller (1992), the work of management scholars and practitioners over the past two centuries has laid the foundations and established ideas and principles in the conquest to discover 'what it is that managers do'. Miller (1992) compiled a chronological survey of management literature concerning the development of managerial competencies

over the last 50 years. Thus, a major part of his review examined studies that investigated the competencies required for effective management. Table 2.4 provides a summary of the managerial competencies identified in Miller's research.

Table 2.4 *Summary of Managerial Competencies Identified in the Literature by Miller (1992)*

Fayol 1916	Gulick 1937	Hemphill 1959	Ghiselli 1963	Sayles 1964	Phelvey 1972	Mintzberg 1973	Miner 1973
<p>Elements of management</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Planning 2. Organising 3. Command 4. Co-ordination 5. Control 	<p>Activities of management</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Planning 2. Organising 3. Staffing 4. Directing 5. Co-ordinating 6. Reporting 7. Budgeting <p>Drucker 1954</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 8. Innovation 9. Communication 	<p>Position elements</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Providing non-operational staff service 2. Supervision of work 3. Internal business control 4. Technical aspects of products and markets 5. Human, community and social affairs 6. Long-range planning 7. Exercise of power and authority 8. Business reputation 9. Personal demands 10. Preservation of assets 	<p>Managerial Traits</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Intelligence 2. Supervisory ability 3. Initiative 4. Self-assurance 5. Perceived occupational level 	<p>Managerial activities in external workflows via relationships</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Work-flow 2. Trading 3. Service 4. Advisory 5. Auditing 6. Stabilisation 7. Innovation <p>B. Leadership</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 8. Direction 9. Response 10. Representative <p>C. Monitor</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 11. Detection 12. Evaluation 13. Correction 14. Formulating Strategies 15. Implementation 	<p>Positional elements</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Trouble shooting 2. Forward planning 3. Briefing subordinates 4. Conducting meetings 5. Reviewing subordinates 6. Interest in personal problems 	<p>Managerial roles</p> <p>A. Interpersonal</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Figurehead 2. Leader 3. Liaison <p>B. Informational</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Monitor 2. Disseminator 3. Spokesperson <p>C. Decisional</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Entrepreneur 2. Disturbance handler 3. Resource allocator 4. Negotiator <p>Managerial Skills</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Peer skills 2. Leadership skills 3. Conflict resolution skills 5. Information processing skills 5. Resource allocation skills 6. Decision making skills 7. Entrepreneurial skills 8. Introspection skills 	<p>Managerial characteristics</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Favourable attitude towards authority 2. Desire to compete 3. Assertive motivation 4. Desire to exercise power 5. Desire for a distinctive position 6. A sense of responsibility

Burgoyne 1976	Mink 1979	Stewart 1982	Kotter 1982	Boyatzis 1982	Gerstein 1983	MEI (USA) 1985	Phillips 1985
<p>Managerial Qualities and information</p> <p>A. Basic knowledge and information</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Command of Basic Facts 2. Relevant professional understanding <p>B. Skills and Attributes</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Continuing sensitivity to events 2. Analytical, problem solving, decision/judgement-making skills 3. Social skills and abilities 4. Emotional resilience 5. Productivity and inclination to respond purposefully to events <p>C. Meta - qualities</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Creativity 2. Mental agility 3. Balanced learning habits and skills 4. Self-knowledge 	<p>Managerial roles</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Advocate 2. Diagnoser 3. Planner 4. Problem-solver 5. Team builder 6. Conflict manager 7. Systems analyst 8. Process observer 9. Change process expert 10. Information expert 11. Individual developer 12. Organisation developer 13. Interpersonal developer 14. Skill builder 	<p>Managerial activities</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Liaison 2. Maintenance 3. Innovation 4. Disturbance handling 4. Change management 	<p>Management job demands</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Setting goals and strategies 2. Allocating resources 3. Monitoring activities 4. Getting information, co-operation and support from superiors 5. Getting co-operation from other groups 6. Motivating, controlling and managing staff and conflict <p>Core Processes</p> <p>Agenda setting</p> <p>Network - building</p> <p>Execution</p>	<p>Managerial competencies</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Concern with impact 2. Diagnostic use of concepts 3. Efficiency orientation 4. Proactivity 5. Conceptualisation 6. Self-confidence 7. Use of oral presentation 8. Managing group processes 9. Use of socialised power 10. Perceptual objectivity 11. Self-control 12. Stamina and adaptability <p>Threshold Competencies</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Logical thought 2. Accurate self-assessment 3. Positive regard 4. Developing others 5. Spontaneity 6. Use of unilateral power 7. Specialised knowledge 	<p>Management characteristics</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Problem solving 2. Solution implementation 3. Execution and control 4. Communication 5. Delegation 6. Crisis management 7. Negotiation skills 8. Integrated approach 9. Staffing 10. Developing subordinates 11. Strategy formulation 12. Openness to innovation and change 13. Interpersonal empathy 14. Group management skills 15. Large system 16. Self-motivation 17. Emotional strength and maturity 18. Personal integrity 	<p>Managerial competencies</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Work unit planning 2. Work unit guidance 3. Budgeting 4. Material resources 5. Personnel management 6. Supervision 7. Interpretation 8. Representation 9. External awareness 10. Co-ordination 11. Work unit monitoring 12. Program evaluation 13. Communication 14. Interpersonal sensitivity 15. Results focus 16. Action orientation 17. Flexibility 18. Leadership 19. Strategic view 20. Internal awareness 	<p>Management roles</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Allocating resources 2. Managing conflict 3. Providing feedback 4. Creating strategic vision 5. Developing staff 6. Encouraging independence

<p>Hailes 1986</p> <p>Management elements</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Figurehead/leader 2. Liaison 3. Monitor/disseminator 4. Resource allocator 5. Disturbance handler 6. Negotiator 7. Innovator 8. Planner 9. Controller/Director 	<p>Cunningham 1986</p> <p>Management competencies</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Ability to manage and relate to people 2. Ability to get things done 3. Ability to see the big picture 4. Ability to think clearly 5. Personal maturity 	<p>Alpander 1986</p> <p>Supervisory functions</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Communicating effectively 2. Planning 3. Organising 4. Motivating 5. Developing teamwork 6. Training employees 7. Production improvement and control 8. Evaluating performance 9. Power and Influence 	<p>Evarts 1988</p> <p>Managerial competencies</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Efficiency orientation 2. Proactivity 3. Concern with impact 4. Diagnostic use of concepts 5. Use of unilateral power 6. Developing others 7. Spontaneity 8. Accurate self-assessment 9. Self-control 10. Stamina and adaptability 11. Perceptual objectivity 12. Positive regard 13. Managing group processes 14. Use of socialised power 15. Self-confidence 16. Conceptualisation 17. Logical thought 18. Use of oral presentations 	<p>Aguilar 1988</p> <p>Managerial roles</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Instigator 2. Priority setter 3. Integrator 4. Taskmaster <p>Personal Qualities and skills</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Knowledge and skills 2. Commitment 3. Integrity 4. Concern for others 5. Resiliency 6. Presence 7. Judgement 	<p>Luthans 1988</p> <p>Management practices</p> <p>A. Communicated Activities</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Exchanging information 2. Handling paperwork <p>B. Traditional Management</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 3. Planning 4. Decision-making 5. Controlling 6. Networking <p>C. Activities</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 6. Interacting with outsiders 7. Socialising/politicking 8. Human Resource Management <p>D. Activities</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 8. Motivating/reinforcing 9. Disciplining/punishing 10. Managing conflict 11. Staffing 12. Training/development 	<p>Dulewicz 1989</p> <p>Supra Competencies</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Strategic perspective 2. Analysis and judgement 3. Planning and organising 4. Managing staff 5. Persuasiveness 6. Assertiveness and decisiveness 7. Interpersonal sensitivity 8. Oral communication 9. Adaptability and resilience 10. Energy and initiative 11. Achievement motivation 12. Business acumen 	<p>Jacobs 1989</p> <p>Core Skills</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Written communication 2. Oral communication 3. Leadership 4. Team membership 5. Planning and organising skills 6. Decision-making 7. Motivation 8. Personal strength 9. Analytic reasoning skills
--	---	---	---	---	---	---	---

Greatrex 1989	Kraut 1989	Schroder 1989	Glaze 1989	Thorpe 1990	MCI 1990	Glass 1990	Margerison 1990
<p>Management competencies</p> <p>A. Achievement orientation</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Personal drive 2. Organisational drive 3. Impact 4. Communication 5. People orientation 6. Awareness of others 7. Team management 8. Persuasiveness <p>Judgement</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 9. Analytical power 10. Strategic thinking 11. Commercial judgement <p>D. Situational flexibility</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 11. Adaptive orientation 	<p>Management tasks</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Managing individual performance 2. Instructing 3. Planning 4. Co-ordinating 5. Managing group performance 6. Monitoring 7. Representing 	<p>Managerial competencies</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Information search 2. Concept formation 3. Conceptual flexibility 4. Interpersonal search 5. Managing interaction 6. Developmental orientation 7. Impact 8. Self-confidence 9. Presentation 10. Proactive orientation 11. Achievement orientation 	<p>Management competencies</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Strategy 2. Drive 3. Relationships 4. Persuasion 5. Leadership 6. Followership 7. Analysis 8. Implementation 9. Personal factors 	<p>Management competencies</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Knowledge of organisation 2. Knowledge of policy 3. Functional competence 4. Interfunctional familiarity 5. Management techniques 6. Environmental awareness 7. Political attunement 8. Interpersonal sensitivity 9. Problem-solving 10. Leadership 11. Persuasion 12. Team development 13. Coping skills 14. Reliability and perseverance 15. Concern for excellence 16. Initiative 17. Ingenuity 18. Conceptual agility 19. Self-development 20. Self-awareness 	<p>Management competencies</p> <p>A. Manage Operations</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Service and production operations 2. Implementation of change <p>B. Manage Finance</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Monitor and control resources <p>C. Manage People</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Recruit and select people 2. Develop teams 3. Evaluate work 4. Create effective relationships <p>D. Manage Information</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Evaluate and organise information 2. Exchange information <p>E. Personal</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Planning 2. Managing others 3. Managing oneself 4. Using intellect 	<p>Managerial competencies</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Anticipate trends 2. Proactive management 3. Leadership 4. Developing others 5. Innovation 6. Use of information technology 7. Broad work experience 8. Ability to handle ambiguity 	<p>Management Functions</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Advising 2. Innovating 3. Promoting 4. Developing 5. Organising 6. Producing 7. Inspecting 8. Maintaining 9. Linking

Quinn 1990	Serge 1990	Carr 1991	Stewart 1991	Odiro 1991	Kerr 1991
<p>Managerial roles/competencies</p> <p>A. Director</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Taking initiative 2. Goal setting 3. Delegating effectively <p>B. Producer</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Personal productivity and motivation <p>2. Motivating Others</p> <p>3. Time and stress management</p> <p>C. Co-ordinator</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Planning 2. Organising and designing 3. Controlling <p>D. Monitor</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Reducing information overload <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 2. Analysing information with critical thinking 3. Presenting information: writing effectively <p>E. Mentor</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Understanding yourself and others 2. Interpersonal communication 3. Developing subordinates 	<p>New roles and skills vision</p> <p>A. Building shared vision</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Encouraging personal vision 2. Communicating and asking for support 3. Visioning as an ongoing process 4. Blending extrinsic and intrinsic visions 5. Distinguishing positive from negative visions <p>B. Surfacing and testing mental models</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Seeing leaps of abstraction 2. Balancing inquiry and advocacy 3. Distinguishing espoused theory from theory in use 4. Recognising and defusing defensive routines 	<p>Managerial roles alignment</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Managing alignment 2. Managing co-ordination 3. Managing the decision process 4. Managing continuous learning 5. Creating and maintaining trust 	<p>Leading edge competencies</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Strategic long-term breath of vision 2. Diagnostic ability 3. Identifying and implement-change 4. Market and customer drivenness 5. Entrepreneurial flair 6. Empoweredness and action orientation 7. Team membership and laterality 8. Vision and values 9. Principles not rules 10. Enabling style 11. Charisma 12. Emotional stability and openness 	<p>Management functions</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Facilitator 2. Administrative liaison 3. Advisor 4. Interpersonal skills 5. Resourcer 6. Obstacle Remover 7. Informer 8. Maintainer 9. Assessor 	<p>Management Skills</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Gaining subordinate co-operation 2. One-to-one relationships 3. Working with groups 4. Relationships with peers 5. Relationships with subordinates 6. Managing with unclear objectives 7. Decision-making in groups 8. Decision-making alone 9. Involving others 10. Persuading others 11. Political awareness 12. Managing upwards 13. Taking action

Source: Miller, 1992:117

As seen in Table 2.4, it is difficult to make direct comparisons between many of the studies as they have examined the nature of managerial work from a range of different perspectives (Miller, 1992). Nonetheless, Miller comments that although the emphasis over time has changed from a task oriented view of management to a more unstructured and interpersonal orientation, the classical management functions of planning, organising, communicating, co-ordinating and controlling continue to play a dominant role in the later models (Miller, 1992).

Many of the early scholars and theorists identified in Table 2.4 have made significant contributions to the management literature and their work continues to be reflected in more contemporary models of management. These and the work of others that have particular relevance to the present study are discussed below in chronological order.

2.4.2 Management Competency Models from 1960 - 1990

The review of management competency models in the general management literature commences with the work of Ghiselli (1963). While research into management development in the 1950's and 1960's evaluated managerial performance in terms of the functions of managers, Ghiselli (1963) embraced a different approach, determining specific psychological traits considered important to managerial performance. These were:

- intelligence – rated on the basis of intelligence test scores;
- supervisory ability – stressing the importance of leadership as one competency in this criterion;
- initiative – involving aspects of motivation and ability to gain support of others;
- self-assurance – the extent to which the manager is effective in dealing with problems; and
- perceived occupational level – the level of aspiration a manager has to achieve on a scale of occupations.

(Ghiselli, 1963:630 in Miller, 1998)

As Miller (1992) notes, Ghiselli's work made a significant contribution to the development of management competency frameworks as this was the first attempt to measure managerial success in terms of psychological traits.

An alternative approach was taken by Miner (1973). Instead of examining functions undertaken by successful managers, he investigated the extent to which a manager's characteristics are related to managerial success. Over 15 years he focused on differences in the types of motivation required by undergraduates to successfully pursue a career in management and those of employed people (Miner, 1973 in Miller, 1992). His study found six major characteristics possessed by successful managers:

- favourable attitude towards authority – managers are expected to behave in ways that do not provoke negative reactions from their superiors;
- desire to compete – managers need strong competitive orientation to compete for rewards and resources;
- assertive motivation – managers must take charge, make decisions and take disciplinary action to protect the interests of the work group;
- desire for distinctive position – a managerial job will require the holder of the position to behave differently from subordinates; and
- a sense of responsibility – a manager must see that what has to be done is done and gain some satisfaction from routine achievements.

(Miner, 1973: 149 in Miller 1992)

Significant contributions to research on management competencies were made by Henry Mintzberg. Mintzberg (1975) claimed that a manager's work has central importance to all aspects of management but that research in this area had been limited and inconsistent and had not built upon prior knowledge. Consequently, his research utilised both primary research and an integration of the relevant findings of prior research (Mintzberg, 1975).

Mintzberg studied five chief executives from diverse organisations - a technology company, a hospital, a consumer goods company, a consulting firm and a school, to observe behaviours and roles of managers while on the job. His research found that a manager's job could be viewed in terms of ten roles which he categorised as interpersonal, informational or decisional:

Interpersonal Roles

These interpersonal roles originate from a managers' formal authority and involve basic interpersonal relationships as head of a unit:

- figurehead – the ceremonial nature of a manager's duties as head of a unit;
- leader – managers hire and train staff, and motivate and encourage staff to reconcile their needs with the organisation's needs; and
- liaison – managers make contact with peers and others outside their unit.

Informational Roles

Managers are viewed as the nerve centre of the unit having interpersonal contacts with both internally and externally. The processing of both written and oral information is a key function of the manager's job:

- monitor – examines internal and external literature and resources and collects information;
- disseminator – shares and distributes information with subordinates; and
- spokesperson - represents the work unit externally.

Decisional Roles

Managers are responsible for making decisions that determine the work unit's strategy and direction based on the information they have collected:

- entrepreneur – initiates change that will improve the unit's performance;
- resource allocators – decides on how resources are divided and co-ordinated within the unit and most importantly examines how his or her time will be allocated;
- disturbance handler – responds to unforeseen or high pressure problems; and
- negotiation – confers with others for the benefit of the work unit.

(Mintzberg, 1975: 54-58)

While each of these ten roles differ, they in fact are inseparable and form a 'gestalt' or integrated whole (Mintzberg, 1975). Managers play these roles in varying degrees depending on their level in the hierarchy and the nature of their position. In hotels for

example, a night audit manager may tend towards an informational role whereas a human resource manager may tend to emphasise the interpersonal roles.

Several management competencies that emerged from Mintzberg's (1975) work were considered essential components for effective management. These were developing relationships, resolving conflicts, motivating subordinates, establishing information networks, disseminating information and allocating resources. In addition, all managers need to be retrospective and examine their own performance and behaviour to ensure continual learning and improvement (Mintzberg, 1975:61).

Further, Mintzberg argued that management education should place as much importance on skills training as it does on cognitive training - in fact they should be complementary (Mintzberg, 1975). He likened this relationship to that of teaching someone to swim. All the theory is useless if there is no opportunity provided to practice and gain feedback on performance. Thus, Mintzberg (1975) contended that teaching management skills and competencies to students should involve practice and evaluation. Therefore, management schools need to identify the skills and competencies that managers use, expose students to opportunities to practice these and then offer systematic evaluation on their performance (Mintzberg, 1975:61; Mintzberg, 1990).

Research into management competencies and the development of consequent competency frameworks gained further momentum during the 1970's. Katz (1974) attempted to address the concerns raised by Mintzberg (1975) and investigated management competencies as an extension to the previous work that had predominantly examined management functions. Katz (1974) claimed that managers at all levels require technical, human and conceptual skills and the emphasis on particular types of skills will depend on the individual's management level. For example, technical skills have greater emphasis at lower levels of management while well-developed conceptual skills are crucial to senior management (Katz, 1974). As Miller noted, the different approach used by Katz (1974) to evaluate what makes an effective manager has had profound impact on management development and signalled the possibility that effective management can be achieved by practising management competencies. As well, the management competencies espoused by Katz (1974) have been extensively used by others to develop further management competency frameworks (Miller 1998:27).

The first comprehensive management competency framework that addressed all levels of management and further developed the work of the classical theorists resulted from the work of Boyatzis (1982). His research highlighted the significance of the work of classical

theorists to contemporary management thinking (Miller, 1998) and made significant advancements in general management development. The main aim of Boyatzis's research was to develop a comprehensive model of managers that would result in a broader theoretical model of management (Boyatzis, 1982). He examined 2000 managers to determine generic competencies that were relevant to performance at various levels of management using the Job Competence Assessment Method. This method enabled managers to generate their own list of characteristics perceived to lead to effective performance at their own hierarchical level (Boyatzis, 1982). The study hypothesised twenty one characteristics related to managerial effectiveness. Of these, twelve were defined as competencies, seven were found to be threshold competencies (not causally related to superior job performance) while two of the characteristics were not supported as having a positive relationship to managerial effectiveness. These competencies are summarised in Table 2.5.

Table 2.5 *Summary of Boyatzis's (1982) Competency Results*

Cluster	Competency	Threshold Competency
Goal and action management cluster	Concern with impact (skill, motive) ^a Diagnostic use of concepts (skill, social role) Efficiency orientation (skill, motive, social role) Proactivity (skill, social role)	
Leadership cluster	Conceptualization ^b (skill) Self-confidence (skill, social role) Use of oral presentations (skill, social role)	Logical thought (skill, social role)
Human resource management cluster	Managing group process ^b (skill)	Accurate self-assessment (skill) Positive regard ^c (skill)
Directing subordinates cluster		Developing others (skill, social role) Spontaneity (skill) Use of unilateral power (skill, social role)
Focus on others	Perceptual objectivity (skill) Self-control ^d (trait) Stamina and adaptability (trait)	
Specialized knowledge		Specialized knowledge (social role)

^a Items in parentheses indicate levels of competency for which empirical support was found.

^b Supported as a competency at middle and executive level management jobs only.

^c Supported as a competency at middle level management jobs only.

^d Supported as a competency at entry-level management jobs only.

Source: Boyatzis 1982:230

As shown in Table 2.5, the competencies have been organised around six clusters – goal and management, leadership, human resource management, directing subordinates, focus on others and specialised knowledge.

Further to these findings, Boyatzis found there was a relationship between the types of competencies and a manager's level of hierarchy (Boyatzis, 1982). For example, a front-line manager tended to emphasise the competencies of developing others, spontaneity and use of unilateral power. In contrast, an executive level manager tended to be more concerned with the competencies in the goal and management cluster - concern with impact, diagnostic use of concepts, and efficiency and productivity. Table 2.6 summarises the competencies in terms of job demands relevant to the various levels of management jobs.

Table 2.6 *Competencies Relevant to Performance and Effectiveness in Terms of Job Demands at Various Levels of Management Jobs (Boyatzis, 1982)*

For Entry Level Manager	For Middle Level Managers	For Executive Level Managers
Goal and action management cluster: Diagnostic use of concepts Efficiency orientation Productivity	Goal and action management cluster: Concern with impact Diagnostic use of concepts Efficiency orientation Proactivity	Goal and action management cluster: Concern with impact Diagnostic use of concepts Efficiency orientation Proactivity
	Leadership cluster: Conceptualization Logical thought Self-confidence Use of oral presentations	Leadership cluster: Conceptualization Logical thought Self-confidence Use of oral presentations
	Human resource management cluster: Accurate self-assessment Managing group process Positive regard Use of socialized power	
Directing subordinates cluster: Developing others Spontaneity Use of unilateral power		
Other competencies: Accurate self-assessment Self-control (at the trail level) Stamina and adaptability (at the trait level) Use of socialized power	Other competencies: Developing others Perceptual objectivity Spontaneity Stamina and adaptability (at the trail level)	Other competencies: Developing others Managing group process Perceptual objectivity

^aRelevance is defined as that competency which is demanded or required more for performance of that level than for other levels *or* that competency which is characteristic of effective managers within that level of management jobs.

Source: Boyatzis, 1982: 227

According to Boyatzis (1982) these findings offer educators and organisations a variety of options in attempting to maximise managerial performance and have several implications for human resource management. For example, the findings may be used to develop selection and promotion systems, performance appraisals and job designs and to assist with succession and career planning. Further, Boyatzis (1982) maintained that generic management competencies can be developed through training and educational programs.

The work of Hales (1986) and Hales and Nightingale (1986) reflects the nature and diversity of managerial work and highlights the need for a more consistent framework for studying management activity. They argued that a limitation of managerial work, both

generally and within the hospitality field, is that it focuses too narrowly on managers' behaviour patterns and excludes other elements such as organisational circumstances and personal characteristics which may also contribute to accurately predicting effective management (Hales and Nightingale, 1986). After reviewing key management literature, Hales (1986) developed a framework comprising nine common strands incorporating many of the categories of managerial functions of previous researchers. These categories comprised figurehead, liaison, monitoring, allocating resources, handling disturbances and maintaining work flows, negotiating, innovating, planning, controlling and directing subordinates (Hales, 1986:95). This work demonstrates the continuing flow of the classical theorists into more contemporary thought on management (Miller, 1992).

Just as Boyatzis's model of management (1982) had built on previous classical management theory, Luthans, Hogetts and Rosenkrantz (1988) drew on the earlier work of Fayol (1949). Their study distinguished the difference between successful (measured in terms of their expediency in progressing up the career ladder) and effective managers (measured in terms of team member satisfaction and the unit's performance). Specifically, they investigated what it is that 'real managers do' and identified twelve activities associated with the manager's job. These activities are classified under four headings:

Communication Activities

- | | |
|------------------------|--|
| Exchanging information | • Sharing new methods and procedures in open and informal channels |
| Handling paperwork | • Reading reports, dealing with mail and reviewing other's work |
-

Traditional Management Activities

- | | |
|-----------------|---|
| Planning | • Setting objectives and integrating long and short range goals |
| Decision making | • Consulting with others and checking options |
| Controlling | • Monitoring progress of the work unit and interviewing where necessary |
-

Networking Activities

- | | |
|----------------------------|---|
| Interacting with outsiders | • Keeping in touch with customers and suppliers |
|----------------------------|---|

Socialising/politicking	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Greasing the wheels with more senior managers in social surroundings
-------------------------	--

Human Resource Management Activities

Motivating/reinforcing	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Providing feedback to work teams and setting the example
Disciplining/punishing	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Using formal and informal means to reprimand
Managing conflict	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Anticipating and preventing potential problems before they erupt
Staffing	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Recruitment and selection of appropriate team members
Training/developing	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Providing formal and informal on the job instruction and opportunities for development

(Luthans *et al.*, (1988) in Miller, 1998: 55)

The significance of Luthan *et al.*'s (1988) study is that many of the management activities identified are consistent with several of the competencies contained in the CVF (Quinn et al. (1990), the theoretical framework used for this present study.

There is a growing trend in more recent management literature to emphasise the need for strong leadership and entrepreneurial competencies for managerial success. Kotter (1982) states that effective managers have strong leadership, motivational skills and intuitive attributes. In examining the state of management education in the UK at that time, Thorpe (1990) reviewed the management literature and identified 20 competencies possessed by successful managers. Thorpe suggested that changes in management philosophy and practice indicated a paradigm shift from competencies such as planning, controlling and organising to those of leadership, market orientation and management of change (Thorpe, 1990 in Miller, 1992). Similarly, Stewart (1991), while recognising the fundamental value and principles of people management, identified 'leading edge competencies' considered important for effective management. These competencies included long term vision, ability to implement change, having a customer and market orientation, willingness to empower, entrepreneurial flair, ability to use teams and think laterally, and ability to demonstrate emotional stability and openness (Stewart, 1991:11 in Miller, 1992).

Hyden (1994) suggested in the contemporary business environment, too many managers focus on control and do not encourage employee training and empowerment. He identifies

the Marriott and Ritz Carlton as examples of hospitality organisations which lead their employees and instill trust and respect in them. Hyden also suggests there is a paradigm shift from management to leadership and identifies six core competencies of leaders - creating more leaders, empowerment, communication, vision, patience and strategic thinking (1994).

To summarise, in considering the management competencies required for effective management from an historical perspective, it appears there has been a shift of emphasis over time from the traditional competencies of planning, organising, motivating, co-ordinating and controlling to a more human relations and entrepreneurial approach where interpersonal communication, teamwork, vision, change management and creative skills will be required. This does not suggest that the well established, traditional competencies are outdated but demonstrates the need for managers to effectively combine a diverse range of skills to meet the challenges of a dynamic environment.

While not attempting to review all related studies that have emerged in the general management literature, this section has concentrated on the most significant of these that are relevant to the present study. Having reviewed these important developments, Section 2.5 presents the theoretical framework for this study - Quinn *et al.*'s (1990) CVF. According to (Quinn *et al.*, 1990), the management competencies in the CVF are consistent with those identified by numerous contemporary theorists including Ghiselli (1963), Miner (1973), Katz (1974), Mintzberg (1975) and Boyatzis (1982). The work of famous classical theorists such as Taylor (1913), Mayo (1945) and Fayol (1949) whose values are also reflected in the CVF (Quinn *et al.*, 1990), will be discussed in the following section.

2.5 THE COMPETING VALUES FRAMEWORK

Section 1.3 provided an introduction to the CVF (Quinn *et al.*, 1990) and presented a summary of justifications for using this model for the present study. This section will first examine the CVF (Quinn *et al.*, 1990) in terms of its evolution and development to provide a background on the diverse range of approaches and values that comprise the total framework. It will then explain the concepts associated with the four contrasting models of management incorporated in the CVF (Quinn *et al.*, 1990) and describe the competing roles and management competencies embedded in each role. Prior research and application of the CVF (Quinn *et al.*, 1990) will be presented. This section concludes by providing an integrated perspective of the model demonstrating the use of Quinn's (1991) concept of the Master Manager.

2.5.1 Development and Evolution of the Competing Values Framework

The CVF (Quinn *et al.*, 1990) was developed after extensive empirical research on organisations to articulate the underlying cognitive structures that experts use to make sense of effectiveness criteria (Quinn and Rohrbaugh, 1983). This research, conducted in conjunction with organisational theorists and researchers in the management field, culminated in the development of an implicit theoretical framework. The resulting cognitive map comprising four separate quadrants reflects the values and characteristics of four major models of organisational theory – the Rational Goal Model, Internal Process Model, Human Relations Model and Open Systems Model (Quinn, 1991).

An outline of the characteristics of the four management models that comprise the CVF (Quinn *et al.*, 1990) is detailed in Table 2.7.

Table 2.7 *Characteristics of the Four Management Models of the CVF (Quinn et al., 1990)*

	Rational Goal	Internal Process	Human Relations	Open Systems
Symbol	\$	△	○	⊛
Criteria of effectiveness	Productivity, profit	Stability, continuity	Commitment, cohesion, morale	Adaptability, external support
Means-end theory	Clear direction leads to productive outcomes	Belief that routinization leads to stability	Belief that involvement results in commitment	Continual adaptation and innovation lead to acquiring and maintaining external resources
Emphasis	Goal clarification, rational analysis, and action taking	Defining responsibility, measurement, documentation	Participation, conflict resolution and consensus building	Political adaptation, creative problem solving, innovation change management
Climate	Rational economic: 'the bottom line'	Hierarchical	Team oriented	Innovative, flexible
Role of Manager	Director and producer	Monitor and co-ordinator	Mentor and facilitator	Innovator and broker

Source: Quinn *et al.*, 1990:10

Each of the four management models is discussed below in historical order of development, to provide an understanding of the values and developments in management thought associated with each model at that time.

As Quinn *et al.* (1990) note, the first quarter of the 20th century experienced a period of phenomenal growth, high prosperity, rich resources, cheap labour and laissez-faire policies. While management thought during these years was greatly influenced by Darwin's theory of 'survival of the fittest', it also saw the rise of some of the great industrial leaders such as Henry Ford. This period was associated with diverse thought in management (Robbins and Mekerji, 1990) and it was during these years that the Rational Goal and Internal Process models of management emerged (Quinn *et al.*, 1990).

Rational Goal Model

The Rational Goal model was greatly influenced by Frederick Taylor's Principles of Scientific Management (1913). The work of Frederick Taylor has been recognised as the foundation of management theory (Robbins and Mukerji, 1990). Taylor's extensive research found that productivity of workers on the shop floor was low and that management had very little concern for matching workers' abilities with the tasks to be done. In an effort to address this problem Taylor developed four principles of management aimed at benefiting both workers and management by rationalising the workplace and improving its efficiency. These principles were based on the scientific method of management, defined as the 'one best way to get a job done' (Taylor, 1913).

Taylor's four principles of management suggested that managers should:

- develop a science for each element of an individual's work, which replaces the old rule-of-thumb method;
- scientifically select and then train, teach and develop the worker;
- heartily co-operate with the workers so as to ensure that all work is done in accordance with the principles of the science that has been developed; and
- divide work and responsibility almost equally between management and workers. Management takes over all work for which it is better fitted than the workers.

(Taylor, 1913:44)

Thus, Taylor's approach recognised the importance of employing the right person for the right job and the link between motivation and productivity (Robbins and Mukerji, 1990).

Keiser (1989) notes that Taylor's methods were characterised by time and motion studies, separation of planning from the actual job and increasing production with a reduced workforce. He adds that contributions during this time were also made by Henry Gantt and Frank Gilbreth who, along with Taylor, focused on the principle that there were better approaches than the traditional methods such as production methods and scheduling. Gantt and Gilbreth believed that increased pay for workers would increase their motivation to work (Keiser, 1989). Keiser maintains that many aspects of scientific management have continued application to the food service and other industries today. For example labour-saving approaches, the notion of finding the right person for the right job, and separation of planning from the actual work, still have application in the hospitality field.

The Rational Goal model emphasised goal clarification, rational analysis and action taking where effectiveness was measured in terms of productivity and profit. Key elements of this model are that managers should be responsible for all decisions, all decisions are driven by considerations of the 'bottom line' and that managers assume the role of director and producer (Quinn *et al.*, 1990). According to Leiper (1995) the climate during this time was characterised by uneducated and unskilled workers who were employed in rapidly expanding industries that engaged in crude technologies. This turbulent period motivated inward thinking managers who greatly underestimated the value of their workers in the quest for profits (Leiper, 1995).

Internal Process Model

The Internal Process model, a variation on the Rational Goal model, emerged in relation to the work of two theorists, Henri Fayol (1949) and Max Weber (1947). These theorists were concerned with classical administration and their ideas and principles continue to be used today in many tourism organisations such as tour operators, airlines, hotels and theme parks (Leiper, 1995).

Weber (1947 in Robbins and Mekerji, 1990), developed a theory of authority structures and his ideal organisation was characterised by division of labour, a clearly defined hierarchy, detailed rules and regulations and impersonal relationships (Robbins and Mekerji, 1990). In his research, Fayol (1949) considered the tasks and functions of managers and argued there are common principles that could be applied not only across organisations but also to various levels within organisations. This systematic framework identified planning, organising, commanding, co-ordinating and controlling as essential elements for effective management (Fayol, 1949:50). As demonstrated later, this universal set of management

functions and basic approach to management continue as the focus of management thought today.

Considering these five functions of management, Fayol also advocated 14 general principles of management. These were:

- division of work – specialisation increases output and employee productivity;
- authority – managers have the right to give orders;
- discipline – employees must understand the organisation's rules and discipline is a sign of effective leadership;
- unity of command – each employee should have one superior;
- unity of direction – activities with the same objective require one manager and one plan;
- subordination of individual interests to the general interests – the interests of the organisation should be supreme;
- remuneration – workers should be paid a fair wage for their services;
- centralisation – decision making is centralised to management;
- scalar chain – communication should follow the line of authority;
- order – people and materials should be in the right place at the right time;
- equity – managers should be kind and fair to their subordinates;
- stability of tenure of personnel – management should encourage personnel planning to avoid high staff turnover;
- initiative – employees' productivity will increase if they are allowed to take initiative; and
- esprit de corps – team spirit promotes harmony and unity.

(Fayol, 1949: 20-41)

The Internal Process model emphasises defining responsibility, measurement, documentation and record keeping where effectiveness is measured in terms of stability and continuity. Key elements include clearly defined hierarchies, decisions governed by well defined rules and

policies and efficient work flows. Managers in this model assume the roles of monitor and co-ordinator (Quinn *et al.*, 1990).

Human Relations Model

According to Quinn *et al.* (1990), during the second quarter of the 20th century social, political and economic factors initiated fundamental societal changes. Workers were earning more money, consumer goods production increased and more leisure time rather than overtime emerged. Managers realised there was a need for change in attitude towards workers and that previous approaches where workers were exploited and seen as subservient were no longer effective (Quinn *et al.*, 1990). The well known Hawthorne experiments involving the work of Elton Mayo, Chester Barnard and others, provided the impetus for a change in attitude towards the human resource element of the workplace - the workers (Quinn *et al.*, 1990).

Mayo's (1945) alternative contribution to management research indicated this human relations approach to management, recognising the link between job satisfaction and employee morale. This research, known as the 'Hawthorne Studies' (Mayo, 1945), challenged the previously held view that a worker was a mere machine and proposed an approach that acknowledged the strength of group behaviour and teamwork and their effect on performance and productivity. In conjunction with the Western Electric Company's Hawthorne Works in Illinois, USA, Mayo (1945) investigated the effect that various illumination levels had on worker productivity. The study found that illumination intensity was not directly related to group productivity but that attention to workers' needs was a major motivator. These findings led to a dramatic change in management thought on what motivates people to work where group sentiment, standards and security were found to significantly influence an individual's behaviour and ultimate productivity (Mayo, 1945 in Robbins and Mukerji, 1990). Mayo's research found that certain psychological factors affected workers' performance, that a sense of belonging to a group was important for workers and front-line supervision was needed to motivate workers. As the Human Relations model started to emerge, management recognised that workers would be more productive if they were treated differently (Keiser, 1989).

The aim of the human relations approach to management was to build commitment, cohesion and morale amongst workers in recognition that individuals have different capabilities and personalities. The key emphasis of this model is on participative decision making, conflict resolution and consensus building. The manager in this model assumed a mentor and facilitator role using a team oriented approach to management (Quinn *et al.*, 1990).

Open Systems Model

By the middle of the 20th century, the fourth model in the CVF (Quinn *et al.*, 1990) began to emerge. The traditional production-oriented economy was being replaced by the new service economy. The open systems model was an attempt to adapt to the increasing rate of technological change and changing societal values and the need to know how to manage this change in a world that was quickly growing and acquiring knowledge. While many of the values from previous models were still firmly in place, it was recognised that managers now were faced with more complex and unpredictable environments where decision making was rapid and erratic. Consequently, contingency theories emerged to influence the Open Systems model (Quinn *et al.*, 1990). Contingency theory recognises that no one approach to management applies to all situations and environments due to the diversity of organisations. Further, a range of internal and external variables impact on managerial actions and organisations (Robbins and Mekerji, 1990).

The Open Systems model signifies the need for organisations to have an external focus. In this system, people are not controlled but inspired and motivation is the key to challenged and committed workers where a common vision and shared values are important. The climate is characterised by innovation and flexibility and effectiveness is measured in terms of adaptability and external support. The manager in this model assumes an innovator and broker role using power and influence in the organisation (Quinn *et al.*, 1990).

2.5.2 The Values in the Competing Values Framework

In the final quarter of the 20th century, stagnant organisations were in abundance bought about by a range of diverse factors. There was a slump in innovation, quality and productivity; a knowledgeable labour force overtook physical labour; the importance of job security increased; organisations faced take-overs and downsizing; and managers' workloads increased producing burn out and stress (Quinn *et al.*, 1990:10). Organisations in this highly ambiguous and rapidly changing environment were faced with intense competition and the challenge was to revitalise, reflecting emerging values such as excellence, quality, customer driven, urgency, continuous improvement, culture, transformational leadership and integrity (Quinn *et al.*, 1990:10). It was recognised that a fresh approach to management was required in order to survive.

In this context, it appeared that none of the previous models offered an effective approach to this complex and dynamic environment. However, it was recognised that, at any one given time, organisations may draw from one or more approaches (Quinn *et al.*, 1990). The

work of Quinn and Rohrbaugh (1983) was instrumental in developing the CVF (Quinn *et al.*, 1990). Their research found the above four models ‘need not be seen as independent, but rather as competing or complementary elements in a larger model of management’ (Quinn *et al.*, 1990:9-11).

The CVF (Quinn *et al.*,1990), although comprehensive in nature, is readily comprehended by a visual presentation of the model, as shown in Figure 2.1.

Figure 2.1 *The Eight Values in the CVF (Quinn et al., 1990)*

Figure removed due to copyright restrictions

Source: Quinn *et al.* 1991: 13

As shown in Figure 2.1, the relationships among the four models can be viewed in terms of two axes. The vertical axis ranges from flexibility to control. The horizontal axis ranges from an internal organisation focus to an external focus. Each of the four models fits in one of the

four quadrants. Thus, each of the models assumes different criteria of effectiveness and each have two distinctive roles (Quinn *et al.*, 1991:11). For example, values in the two roles in the human relations model in the upper left quadrant are associated with commitment and morale, and participation and openness.

The eight general values that operate within the CVF (Quinn *et al.*, 1990) are shown in the triangles on the perimeter. Each value complements the values next to it and contrasts with the one directly opposite. As shown in Figure 2.1, some of these values (in the inner circle) are shared amongst roles (Quinn *et al.*, 1991:11).

According to O'Neill and Quinn (1993), the criteria in each of the four quadrants of the CVF (Quinn *et al.*, 1990) appear to have conflicting messages. They argue that all the criteria in the CVF (Quinn *et al.*, 1990) considered essential for effective management may be viewed as interrelated. However, a manager's potential for effectiveness is reduced because each of the models are usually conceptualised as opposites and managers do not clearly understand that two opposing approaches can exist at the same time. The CVF (Quinn *et al.*, 1990) conceptualises that each of the quadrants are crucial parts that make up the larger construct, namely organisational and managerial effectiveness (O'Neill and Quinn, 1993).

Quinn (1991) contends that, in the same way that organisations are complex and dynamic, so are the decisions and approaches that managers are faced with in their work. Consequently, there is a complex range of approaches that managers use in their decision making and different approaches apply to different types of decisions to be made. He states that 'in every organisation all four models exist. Managers are expected to play all of these roles and to simultaneously consider and balance the competing demands that are represented by each set of expectations' (Quinn, 1991:42).

According to Quinn *et al.* (1990), the overall framework can increase managerial effectiveness and reflects the complexity of decisions confronted by managers. They suggest that the CVF (Quinn *et al.*, 1990) can be used as a tool to broaden managers' thinking and that it provides increased choice and effectiveness. They add that effective managers would operate in all of the four quadrants of the framework and suggest their work is confronted by eight implicit, competing roles or expectations. Consequently, managers would need to demonstrate a range of behavioural competencies allowing them to operate effectively in each of the quadrants (Quinn *et al.*, 1990).

In summary, the CVF (Quinn *et al.*, 1990) draws on prior research, is theoretically well grounded and provides an opportunity to examine key managerial competencies based on organisational theory. It offers a comprehensive approach in a single framework to the complex nature of managerial work. It clearly identifies a broad range of management roles and competencies that reflect the multi-dimensional nature and functions of management. These roles and competencies are described in the following section.

2.5.3 Eight Managerial Roles and 24 Competencies in the CVF (Quinn *et al.*, 1990)

This section provides an overview of the eight roles and 24 associated competencies that comprise the CVF (Quinn *et al.*, 1990). Figure 1.1 (Section 1.3.3) demonstrates how each of the eight roles and associated three competencies integrate into the overall CVF (Quinn *et al.*, 1990). As seen in Figure 1.1 each of the eight management roles contains three competencies. They, like the values in the framework, both complement the roles and competencies next to them and contrast with those opposite (Quinn *et al.* 1991).

The Director Role

In the director role, the manager provides structure through processes such as planning and goal setting and is a decisive initiator who defines problems, selects alternatives, establishes objectives, defines roles and tasks, generates rules and policies, gives instructions and evaluates performance (Quinn *et al.*, 1990:15). The three core competencies that constitute the director role are:

- ***Taking Initiative***

This competency relates to the level of decisiveness a manager must have, described by Quinn *et al.* (1991) as the ‘shooting from the hip, act first think later’ competency. To ensure success, managers must take an active rather than passive approach, focus on results and make things happen (Quinn *et al.*, 1990:28).

- ***Goal Setting***

The focus, purpose and kind of activities in the goal setting process vary with different levels of management within an organisation. For example, senior management tend to focus on strategic goal setting while front-line managers tend to focus on more short-term goals. This competency refers to the effectiveness of managers in their strategic and tactical planning.

Quinn *et al.* identify the management by objective (MBO) approach as an important management tool for goal setting (1990:35).

- ***Delegating Effectively***

Delegation in this context relates to the process of giving assignments to subordinates. Effective delegation gives managers more time to concentrate on more important issues. It is seen as the key to training and development of subordinates and the effective allocation of organisational resources. A manager's ability and willingness to delegate are critical to the effectiveness of director role (Quinn *et al.*, 1990:45).

The Producer Role

The manager in the producer role is task oriented, work focused and highly interested in the task at hand, displaying a high degree of motivation, energy and personal drive exerting these values on subordinates to accomplish goals and increase productivity (Quinn *et al.*, 1990:16). The three core competencies that constitute the producer role are:

- ***Personal Productivity and Motivation***

This competency relates to 'what, where, why and how' managers motivate themselves to high levels of productivity. This competency aspires managers to strive for 'personal peak performance' (Garfield, 1986 in Quinn *et al.*, 1990). Peak performers will most likely be results oriented, display dual capacities of self-management and team mastery, and be capable of managing change (Quinn *et al.*, 1990:55).

- ***Motivating Others***

This competency refers to the manager's ability to keep employees motivated in order to achieve peak performance. This role assumes the application of expectancy theory, a motivational theory based on relationships that link job effort, performance and outcomes of performance. This theory suggests that managers should tie an employee's effort to performance by utilising the MBO approach, or by using the power of positive expectations with subordinates. They should link performance to outcomes through the consistent use of performance appraisal and have a clear understanding of what outcomes are important for their employees (Quinn *et al.*, 1990:62-65).

- ***Time and Stress Management***

Time management is seen as an effective tool for stress management and the two are therefore considered complementary. As a producer, managers must be proactive in assisting employees and subordinates to maximise positive stress (without physical, psychological and emotional strain) and minimise negative stress (Quinn *et al.*, 1990:73).

The Monitor Role

Often viewed as monotonous, the monitor role is nevertheless important so that managers can keep track of what is going on in the work unit. Managers in this role must be able to monitor the facts, analyse them and decide which are the most important. An effective monitor has a clear sense of priority of work activities, utilises effective information management or systems and has an extensive understanding on how the unit functions (Quinn *et al.*, 1990:16). The three core competencies of the monitor role that together constitute the basic activities of monitoring and management of information are:

- ***Reducing Information Overload***

In addition to traditional paperwork, the development of technology has led to an overload of information generated through databases and electronic systems. The challenge with this competency is not in gathering information but in managing the information effectively (Quinn *et al.*, 1990:124).

- ***Analysing Information with Critical Thinking***

The ability to analyse information critically is one of the most effective uses of information. The attributes of managers who are critical thinkers include objectivity, balance, an openness to new information and a methodical manner in studying problems. Common critical thinking tasks for managers include hiring staff, conducting performance appraisals, purchasing equipment, conducting need assessments, allocating resources and budgets, analysing data and preparing reports and proposals (Quinn *et al.*, 1990:138).

- ***Presenting Information: Writing Effectively***

Communicating within a bureaucracy involves knowledge of who, why, what and where - sometimes a difficult task to perform. However the ability to communicate the message or information effectively is a daily task of the manager in all levels of management (Quinn *et al.*, 1990:153).

The Co-ordinator Role

The manager's task in the co-ordinator role is to ensure smooth work flows and ensure tasks are being performed in order of priority while maintaining a harmonious work force. The co-ordinator addresses the day to day functioning of the unit and maintenance of its stability and continuity through tasks such as scheduling, organising and co-ordinating staff efforts (Quinn *et al.*, 1990:17). The three core competencies that constitute the co-ordinator role are:

- ***Planning***

This competency indicates the manager's ability to execute operational planning, involving financial, material and human resource decisions to ensure the most effective delivery of services. Operational planning is important for three reasons - it translates the future into the present by providing a map of how to 'get from here to there', it provides a mechanism for setting standards and clarifying what is to be done and how it is to be done; and it clarifies work unit and organisational priorities (Quinn *et al.*, 1990:86).

- ***Organising***

Organising is the process of dividing the work into manageable components and assigning activities to most effectively achieve the desired results. This competency indicates the ability to allocate and co-ordinate organisational resources in order to accomplish set goals (Quinn *et al.*, 1990:96).

- ***Controlling***

The controlling mechanism is crucial to maintaining the continuity and stability of an organisation, by providing feedback on how goals are being met. This competency also focuses on the ability to analyse discrepancies between plans and actual performance so that future plans and processes can be modified to better meet organisational needs (Quinn *et al.*, 1990:109).

The Facilitator Role

The manager in this role fosters collective effort, builds cohesion and morale, and manages interpersonal conflict. These tasks centre around the manager's work with groups and the associated competencies require the manager to balance individual needs with group needs

to create and maintain a harmonious work group (Quinn *et al.*, 1990:17). The three core competencies that constitute the facilitator role are:

- ***Team Building***

Teamwork is an essential element to ensure the proper functioning of the work unit. This competency focuses on the manager's ability to develop both informal and formal approaches to team building to ensure that all individuals within the work unit have a clear understanding of their role within the group. Effective managers foster a team approach not only to specific tasks but also to planning and co-ordination (Quinn *et al.*, 1990:199-200).

- ***Participative Decision Making***

Participative decision-making involves the input of individuals relating to decisions that directly affect them. This competency focuses on the manager's ability to identify different types of decisions that are appropriate to a certain group of individuals, as not all decisions can or should involve all employees. The manager also needs to be aware of the variety of techniques that can be applied to involve employees in decision-making (Quinn *et al.*, 1990:211).

- ***Conflict Management***

Conflict management is an important role faced by managers at all levels of the organisation. While often viewed as negative in nature, conflict can be used in positive ways, for example to avoid falling into the trap of a 'group think' approach to decision-making. Managers require the ability to manage conflict by developing strategies that will produce positive outcomes (Quinn *et al.*, 1990:224).

The Mentor Role

The mentor role relates to ways that managers work with and relate to their employees. Effective manager/employee relationships are important to achieving teamwork and a collaborative approach to achieving goals. The manager in this role demonstrates empathy, consideration and understanding towards subordinates and recognises them as a valuable resource where training and development opportunities are provided to meet individual's needs (Quinn *et al.*, 1990:18). The three core competencies that constitute the mentor role are:

- ***Understanding Yourself and Others***

Successful mentors understand the uniqueness and differences that exist between individuals within a work group and as a result are aware of how these individuals relate to each other. They also have a clear understanding of their own self and their personal effectiveness (Quinn *et al.*, 1990:168).

- ***Interpersonal Communication***

Effective interpersonal communication is a vital skill required by all managers. Poor communication at the interpersonal and organisational levels will ultimately have a detrimental effect on those activities that require people to effectively communicate with each other, such as goal setting and problem solving. Effective managers have the ability to analyse communication behaviour and implement appropriate communication strategies that will inform, co-ordinate and motivate their work force (Quinn *et al.*, 1990:177-178).

- ***Developing Subordinates***

The mentor is closely associated with a coaching or counsellor role whereby managers help and develop subordinates through consistent feedback on performance and evaluation. The manager's task of providing constructive feedback through such activities as performance appraisal requires skill, to ensure the effectiveness of the whole process for both the manager and the worker (Quinn *et al.*, 1990:187-188).

The Innovator Role

This role focuses on the manager's awareness of inevitable changes occurring in the business environment and his or her ability to effectively manage those changes which provide opportunities for innovation and development. An organisation that successfully manages change and innovation will more readily adapt to the increasing demands and changes of contemporary society. The innovator envisions change and a more effective way of doing things (Quinn *et al.*, 1990:18). The three core competencies that constitute the innovator role are:

- ***Living with Change***

This competency focuses on the manager's ability to eliminate psychological resistance to change and personally adjust to often untimely and unplanned changes. In addition, the manager must ensure that subordinates are assisted through the change process, through effective leadership (Quinn *et al.*, 1990:239).

- ***Creative Thinking***

A manager's creative thinking skills will be important to meet future challenges. Managers who encourage creative thinking among employees recognise a variety of benefits this brings including more effective problem solving and motivation (Quinn *et al.*, 1990:249-250).

- ***Managing Change***

A major challenge that managers face is the ability to effectively plan for and manage organisational changes in a dynamic environment, to ensure the organisation's goals and objectives are being met. This competency requires the manager not only to identify the necessary change but also to develop strategies and approaches that will ensure effective implementation of the change (Quinn *et al.*, 1990:260).

The Broker Role

The role of the broker is to present and negotiate ideas for changes within the organisation so that subordinates clearly identify benefits of these changes. The broker maintains external legitimacy, meets with people outside the unit, acts as spokesperson and acquires and controls resources (Quinn *et al.*, 1990:19). The three core competencies that constitute the broker role are:

- ***Building and Maintaining a Power Base***

An effective broker understands that sound leadership requires a range of strategies in the quest to influence people. Managers must use power to meet and accomplish set goals. This competency indicates the manager's ability to effectively and appropriately build a base of legitimacy, information and influence to serve the needs of work units and the organisation (Quinn *et al.*, 1990:275-276).

- ***Negotiating Agreement and Commitment***

Brokers require strong negotiating skills as they need to recognise and understand the needs of others but at the same time have the task of completing the job. Successful brokers are associated with a reasonable approach to negotiation whereby they are tough on principles and gentle on people (Quinn *et al.*, 1990:288-289).

- ***Presenting Ideas: Effective Oral Presentations***

Communication is a pivotal tool of every manager. Every aspect of managerial tasks involves effective communication whether it be written or oral and effective managers have the ability to get the message across using a wide repertoire of communication tools. Managers need the ability to sell and present their ideas both within the organisational and wider corporate and community environment (Quinn *et al.*, 1990:300).

This section has presented and described the characteristics of the eight managerial roles and 24 competencies contained in the CVF (Quinn *et al.*, 1990). One of the reasons for selecting the CVF (Quinn *et al.*, 1990) for this study was due to its apparent effectiveness over a diverse range of organisational contexts. Thus, a brief overview of prior application of the CVF (Quinn *et al.*, 1990) is provided in the following section.

2.5.4 Prior Application of the Competing Values Framework

The CVF (Quinn *et al.*, 1990) has progressed through nearly a decade of research and experimentation. Its value and recognition in different organisational contexts as a diverse tool for management application is demonstrated through its wide use as a management educational tool across leading US universities and for training and development in the corporate sector. In fact, several thousand individuals have undergone training using the CVF (Quinn *et al.*, 1990) approach through prominent organisations including the Ford Motor Company, the New York State Government, the University of Michigan and the University of Southern California (Quinn *et al.*, 1990). The high calibre and diverse range of organisations that have applied the CVF (Quinn *et al.*, 1990) to improve the professional competencies of their workers and constituents is an indicator of not only its relevance to the current business environment but also its applicability to different organisational contexts within differing industry sectors.

Research in the corporate sector adds support to the CVF (Quinn *et al.*, 1990). According to Wells (1990), all of the eight roles presented in the CVF (Quinn *et al.*, 1990) are crucial for successful management in the future. She states, it is essential for managers to possess the basic skills presented in the first four roles of director, producer, co-ordinator and monitor. In 1998, an international recruitment firm in the US surveyed international executives to identify the types of skills that future CEOs will require. Findings indicated that managers will have to extend beyond the traditional managerial skills and be visionary leaders with a global outlook. The skills identified in the Mentor, Facilitator, Innovator and Broker roles of the CVF (Quinn *et al.*, 1990), such as good relationships with subordinates, communication, negotiation, training and development, will become increasingly important (Wells, 1990).

Further, although of US origin, one of the CVF's (Quinn *et al.*, 1990) distinctive features is its potential international application. According to DiPadova (1990), the range of competencies and skills associated with the model are consistent with those required by managers to function effectively in the global environment of intensifying change and innovation. In addition, this model also implies that managers should have an external as well as internal focus in their roles, which raises the importance of managers' awareness to global matters and international issues (DiPadova, 1990).

The CVF (Quinn *et al.*, 1990) has demonstrated its effectiveness in many training and development situations including its use:

- as a strategic tool to develop supervision and management development programs;
- to help organisations diagnose their existing and desired cultures and execute strategies for major cultural changes;
- as a diagnostic tool to examine organisational gaps;
- as an educational tool to help practising managers understand how the CVF (Quinn *et al.*, 1990) can be used to comprehend complex issues and tasks; and
- as a teaching tool in colleges and universities for skills based and theory based courses in management.

(O'Neill and Quinn, 1993:6-7)

Further, research and development of the CVF (Quinn *et al.*, 1990) has also identified additional potential applications of the model that could assist organisations to interpret and understand various organisational functions and processes:

- to develop a framework of management information systems effectiveness which links MIS characteristics to organisational effectiveness via management activity support;
- as a tool for evaluating managerial writing and speaking; and
- as a tool to help organisational members better understand the similarities and differences of managerial leadership roles at varying levels of the organisation.

(O'Neill and Quinn, 1993:6-7)

As well as in the corporate sector, the CVF (Quinn *et al.*, 1990) has demonstrated its effectiveness as a teaching tool in higher education for courses in management, leadership and organisational behaviour. Thompson (1993) interviewed ten professors from universities across the US who use the CVF (Quinn *et al.*, 1990) extensively in their management education teaching. The interviews revealed consensus that:

A strength, if not a major strength of the Competing Values Framework is its capacity to accommodate and visualise the tensions and paradoxes that contemporary leaders face. Most faculty indicated that the framework is an economical or efficient tool for teaching because it accommodates the best material they have been using to teach management and leadership concepts.

(Thompson, 1993:117)

In addition, the professors indicated their major reasons for adopting the model as its ‘comprehensiveness and visual clarity’ and ‘map like qualities’ (Thompson, 1993).

Other university educators in the management field have recognised the CVF (Quinn *et al.*, 1990) as an effective and relevant approach to use in the classroom environment and justify its use as an appropriate framework for assessing management competencies. Students of today must understand the paradoxes and dilemmas of organisational life and develop competencies that will enable them to undertake decision-making that draws on critical analysis, creative thinking and their experiences (DiPadova, 1990). The CVF (Quinn *et al.*, 1990) is an effective tool for educating future managers to meet the challenges facing organisations in the future as a result of accelerated social and political changes (DiPadova, 1990). This model helps students grasp the complexities surrounding the dynamic nature of management and raises their awareness of the key theoretical approaches that relate to management competencies. It also provides the opportunity for students to develop their own management skills and gain a greater understanding of the material being taught (Denison; Metheny; Michaelson; and Wells in DiPadova, 1990).

Further, DiPadova states that in the past it has been extremely difficult to find a competency based approach which incorporates a recognised model of organisational theory. He sees this model with its roles and associated competencies as having basis in both research and theory (DiPadova, 1990:3). Porter and McKibbin (1988) highlighted the need for a broad rather than specialised approach to business management education. They support the use of the CVF (Quinn *et al.*, 1990) in management education because it emphasises both an external and internal focus on the role of management. Also, many of the competencies

contained in the model are required of managers to function effectively in a world of intensifying change and innovation (Porter and McKibbin, 1988).

In summary, Quinn (1991) maintains that from a theoretical perspective the CVF (Quinn *et al.*, 1990) offers five distinct advantages for thinking about management because it:

- clarifies and acknowledges perceptual bias and that perceptual biases influence how people see social action;
- makes values explicit where each element is juxtaposed with its opposite and the underlying values are clear and positively presented;
- has a dynamic focus where a manager can engage in a set of behaviours reflecting one set of values at one point of time and use an entirely different set of values at some other point in time;
- is highly consistent with existing role categories in the literature; and
- offers an opportunity to identify an individual's management style as the roles in the CVF (Quinn *et al.*, 1990) are not mutually exclusive and it is possible to locate behaviours outside the pre-determined frames.

(Quinn, 1991:88)

As Quinn notes, the significance of the last advantage is that profiles of effective and ineffective managers can be compared by looking at their role patterns to identify 'Master Managers' and how they differ from others (Quinn, 1991). Thus, the final section in this chapter pertaining to the CVF (Quinn *et al.*, 1990) provides an integrated perspective of the model demonstrating the use of Quinn's (1991) concept of the 'Master Manager'.

2.5.5 Profiles of Ineffective and Effective Managers

Quinn (1991) states that due to the dynamic nature of organisations, managers in the work environment are often confronted with change and ambiguity and therefore contradiction, where they have to make complex and intuitive decisions. Further, he claims that managers seem to work in contradictory roles that culminate in a fluid whole at the end. As Quinn notes:

The people who come to be masters of management do not see their work environment only in structured, analytic ways. Instead, they also have the capacity to see it as complex, dynamic

system that is constantly evolving. In order to interact effectively with it, they employ a variety of different perspectives or models.

(Quinn, 1991:3)

Quinn *et al.* contend that very rarely do ‘Master Managers’ just appear and the road to mastering the activities associated with effective management takes time through a learning process (1990). According to Dreyfus, Dreyfus and Athanasiou (1986 in Quinn *et al.*, 1990), masters evolve through a five stage process:

- | | |
|-----------------------|---|
| The Novice | – learning the facts and rules |
| The Advanced Beginner | – applying these rules to specific real world situations |
| Competence | – gaining an appreciation of the complexities of tasks and recognising a larger set of cues from which the most important are selected |
| Proficiency | – unconsciously reading a particular situation and dealing with seemingly contradictory demands |
| Expertise | – effortlessly meeting the contradictions of organisational life and having a holistic perspective and deep understanding of the situation. |

(Dreyfus, Dreyfus and Athanasiou, 1986 in Quinn *et al.*, 1990:314-315)

The above process illustrates the notion that, as managers progress through the five stages, their effectiveness increases (Quinn *et al.*, 1990). In the context of this study, it is suggested that students on internship are advanced beginners as they attempt to apply the theoretical principles learnt in the classroom to practical situations. Then, as they gain further experience post-internship their competence will further develop. Thus, it could be argued that an internship experience is an initial ‘building block’ in developing graduates’ management competencies to an eventual level of mastery.

Profiles of managers have been examined to more fully understand differences in performance between ineffective and master managers. Quinn, Faerman and Dixit (1987) examined the perceived performance of managers to determine if archetypes of effective and ineffective performance exist. 295 people were asked to describe the manager they know

best by completing an instrument that measured the eight roles in the CVF (Quinn *et al.*, 1990). From the results, mean scores were plotted on a radar graph to observe the patterns of emphasis within the framework so that differences between effective and ineffective managers could be identified (Quinn, 1991). The researchers found that profiles of ineffective managers were out of balance within the framework and seven categories of ineffective management emerged from the results – Chaotic Adaptives, Abrasive Coordinators, Drowning Workaholics, Extreme Unproductives, Technical Incompetents, Obsessive Monitors and Disorganised Externals (Quinn *et al.*, 1990). Some of these managers were perceived as impulsive and chaotic while others were narrowly focused and abrasive towards people (Quinn *et al.*, 1990).

On the other hand, six categories of effectiveness emerged from the research – Conceptual Producers, Aggressive Achievers, Peaceful Team Builders, Committed Intensives, Open Adaptives and Masters. A profile of a Master Manager appears to have a flexible all rounded approach employing behaviours that are represented in each of the roles within the framework. The results of the research found that these managers were perceived as being superb, and while each of them had some weaknesses, there were none that were common to all of them (Quinn, 1991).

According to Quinn (1991) these findings raise some important implications. Firstly, for managers to be effective they need balance over the eight roles within the framework where none of the roles are neglected at the expense of others. Second, managers who tend to exert one particular style by concentrating on preferred roles are perceived negatively by those around them. Quinn contends that ‘perhaps effectiveness is the result of maintaining a creative tension between contrasting demands in a social system. When the tension is lost, the perception of effectiveness is altered’ (1991:106). Results also imply that effective managers do not necessarily emphasise all the roles and while they have some weaknesses they maintain enough balance and tension to be perceived as effective. Finally, Master Managers appear to transcend style and approach problem solving from a range of perspectives. They appreciate the values in each of the roles and employ the behaviours that are represented in each (Quinn, 1991). Further, these managers have the ability to integrate all these competing roles and to use the associated competencies in complementary ways (Quinn *et al.* 1990). Importantly, these managers tended to be in higher levels of management, suggesting their competencies evolved over time through experience (Quinn, 1991).

This concludes the discussion on the theoretical model used for this study. Section 2.2 reviewed numerous general management models and identified a range of management

competencies considered important for effective management. As discussed previously, Quinn *et al.*'s (1990) CVF was chosen for this study as it built on prior management models, it emphasises a general approach to management and the eight roles and 24 management competencies in the model have application across a diverse range of organisations and situations. However, whether a generic approach rather than a specialised approach to management should be applied to tourism and hospitality industries has not yet been addressed. The next section justifies using a generic model of management for this study.

2.6 JUSTIFICATION FOR A GENERIC MODEL OF MANAGEMENT

The literature is replete with debate on whether managers should possess generic or specific competencies. The purpose of this section is not to examine this debate at any length but to signal the support for using a generic set of management competencies for this study.

Some writers have expressed the view that, because of the supposed uniqueness of hospitality industries, there are factors that differentiate hotel managers from non-hotel managers. For example, Shaner (1979, in Mullins and Davies, 1991) claims that the hospitality industry has unique features that differentiate it from other industries, such that its managers are different in terms of their values and behaviour. Similarly, Worsfold's (1989) study of 28 hotel general managers found that, compared to general management norms, hotel managers were more assertive, venturesome and imaginative and placed more emphasis on people skills and teamwork. Stone (1988, in Mullins and Davies, 1991) revealed certain personality factors which distinguish hotel managers from non-hotel managers. Generally, Stone found that hotel managers were more:

- calm and stable;
- assertive, competitive and stubborn;
- cheerful, active and enthusiastic;
- socially bold and spontaneous;
- realistic, independent and cynical;
- harder to fool, deliberate and concerned with self; and
- concerned with practicalities and detail.

(Stone, 1988 in Mullins and Davies 1991:22)

However, as noted by Mullins and Davies (1991) identifying such managerial traits does not address the issue of what skills and competencies educators should be developing in future leaders. The nature of the hospitality industry does make certain demands upon its managers and to succeed a manager requires technical competence, social and human skills and conceptual ability (Mullins and Davies, 1991). Nevertheless, while hotel operations place importance on a manager's technical expertise, this must not be at the expense of general management ability (Johnson, 1977; Baum, 1988). There is concern that many hospitality management graduates have well developed technical skills but lack the interpersonal skills necessary for dealing with guests and managing subordinates (Weinstein, 1989 in Okeiyi *et al.*, 1994:37). Furthermore, while the industry may have some unique features it does share common features with other industries. Thus, models of managerial behaviour that emphasise this uniqueness have a narrow and constrained view of the open dynamic nature of management (Mullins, 1988).

The importance of teaching general business principles within tourism and hospitality curricula has also been debated. Jones (1991) stressed that students must be exposed to general business knowledge as well as hospitality specific knowledge to ensure programs are not only congruent with industry needs but also equip students with the skills and knowledge required for a successful career in management (Jones, 1991). He notes that low level managers in hospitality industries have limited ability and success in general management positions. Accordingly, hospitality management curricula must provide students the opportunity to develop both general business and industry specific knowledge and skills (Jones, 1991).

Pavesic (1993) claims that hospitality management students need to develop general management as well as industry specific competencies so they can develop the skills to think analytically and transfer concepts across disciplines. As with tourism, hospitality industries comprise a range of different segments and a generalist approach will allow successful application to these different sectors (Pavesic, 1993). It is recognised that managers in all industries need to apply different skills to different situations and that effective managers will possess both generic and specific knowledge and skills (Boyatzis, 1982). Therefore, students require a sound grounding in basic management theory supplemented with electives and practical experience to develop their competence in specialised areas (Pavesic, 1993). Because of the recent trend towards multi-department management as a result of company downsizing, the challenge for hospitality graduates of the future lies in their ability to multi-skill and develop strong leadership skills (Williams and DeMicco, 1998). It is argued that a

sound education in general management principles will assist these future professionals to successfully meet these challenges.

Francis (1996) investigated the link between general management theory and hospitality management practice. Thirty seven general managers of New Zealand international hotels were asked to rate the time allocated and importance of ten managerial roles as described by Mintzberg (1973). Francis (1996) concluded that of Mintzberg's ten roles, the general managers in her study most frequently assumed the role of leader, monitor, resource allocator and entrepreneur. As leadership was rated the most time consuming and considered the most important role overall, it is also argued that well developed leadership skills are crucial to effective hotel management (Francis, 1996). These findings further support the need for general management competencies in tourism and hospitality management.

In summary, there is support from within the tourism and hospitality literature to nurturing a general approach to management rather than solely relying on the narrow focus of an industry specific management model. It appears that effective managerial performance will depend on a manager's ability to draw on general management competencies and, in particular situations, also utilise a range of specialised competencies. These findings therefore, justify using a theoretical framework of general management competencies in this study such as the CVF (Quinn *et al.*, 1990).

Having established that a general management model is appropriate for this study, the next section reviews research into management competencies required for effective management in tourism and hospitality industries.

2.7 COMPETENCIES REQUIRED BY TOURISM AND HOSPITALITY MANAGERS

The preceding section justified using a generic model of management competencies for the empirical stages of this study. This section reviews tourism and hospitality literature to identify the competencies and skills required for effective management in tourism and hospitality industries. These studies, examined in chronological order, are summarised in Table 2.8.

The literature relating to competencies required for effective tourism and hospitality management revealed some important findings and have implications for tourism and

hospitality management education providers. Although the terminology and categories used to describe areas of management competence in each study may vary slightly, these are readily interpreted so that comparisons can be made.

Table 2.8 *Summary of the Competencies Required by Tourism and Hospitality Managers*

Hotel, Catering and Institutional Management Association (HICMA) 1977	Manpower Services Commission (MSC) 1988	Jones 1991
<p>Core areas of hospitality management expertise</p> <p>Technical</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - purchasing - provision and service - sales - control - premises and facilities - legal aspects <p>Management</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - marketing - financial - personnel - general - industry - legal aspects 	<p>Classification of hospitality management competencies</p> <p>Dealing with people – selecting, enabling guiding and directing</p> <p>Managing activities – financial, systems controls, techniques and industry related skills</p> <p>Reflecting a sensitivity to the environment – customer expectations and needs, legal considerations and organisations</p> <p>Personal effectiveness – communication, numeracy, people orientation, results orientation, self awareness and personal development</p>	<p>Framework for developing hospitality management competencies</p> <p>Competencies related to:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - activities; - people; - environment; and - effectiveness. <p>Change Factors related to:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - economic; - legal; - scientific; and - information technology <p>Technical Areas related to:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - accommodation; - food and beverages; - operations; and - marketing
<p>Key Aspects</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • major study of UK hospitality sector • examined area, scope and range of knowledge required by effective hospitality managers • core areas of expertise developed into a framework. • management functions in the framework represent links between hospitality management and other industries 	<p>Key Aspects</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • the four major areas of competence are relevant to all levels of management • combination of business and analytical skills with particular emphasis on 'soft skills' 	<p>Key Aspects</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • built on the frameworks of HICMA (1977) and MSC (1988) • emphasised the need for realistic and synthesised approach to hospitality management

Mullins and Davies	Cichy and Sciarini 1990	Cichy, Sciarini, Cook and Patton 1991	Cichy, Sciarini and Patton 1992
1991			
Hotel management skills			
Technical			
– application of specific knowledge, methods and skills to discrete tasks			
Social and human skills			
– interpersonal relationships			
– teamwork			
– direction			
– leadership			
Conceptual ability			
– holistic approach			
– strategic planning			
– decision-making			
Key Aspects			
+ areas of competence derived from general management theory			
+ technical expertise should not be emphasised at the expense of other general management abilities			
+ human resources management is central to a hotel manager's role			
+ hospitality management frameworks be developed in collaboration with general management theory			
	Attributes of food-service leaders	Attributes of food-service leaders	Attributes of food-service leaders
	– Develop and provide vision – Earn and return trust – Listen and communicate effectively – Persevere when others give up	– Develop and provide vision – Earn and return trust – Listen and communicate effectively – Persevere when others give up	– Vision – Trust – Communication – Perseverance – Continuous learning – Strong leadership
	Key Aspects	Key Aspects	Key Aspects
	+ examined CEO's in USA lodging and non commercial food-service industries + business leaders possess multiple attributes with no single best style of leadership + flexibility to deal with often contradictory circumstances is essential	+ examined CEO's in USA lodging and non commercial food-service industries + business leaders possess multiple attributes with no single best style of leadership + flexibility to deal with often contradictory circumstances is essential	+ examined USA food service leaders + strong leadership important at all management levels + curricula and training programmes should include modelling of leadership behaviours and mentoring relationships

O'Halloran 1992	Kavanaugh and Woods 1993	Ruddy 1993
<p>Skills and attributes for tourism management</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Communication <ul style="list-style-type: none"> -oral -written - Business acumen - Human relations - Conceptual skills - Leadership <ul style="list-style-type: none"> -strategic planning -goal setting - Knowledge of the tourism system <ul style="list-style-type: none"> -community involvement in planning - Political savvy <p>Key Aspects</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • examined state tourism directors, convention and visitor bureau and ski area managers in the USA • research skills and technical expertise not as important as decision-making and conceptual skills 	<p>Critical elements of management</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Communication skills <ul style="list-style-type: none"> -writing -speaking -listening -interpersonal skills <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Intelligence -critical thinking - Integrity -personal -organisational - Experience <ul style="list-style-type: none"> -on the job -time and stress management -networking - Positive attitude <p>Key Aspects</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • surveyed highly paid USA hospitality business leaders to identify primary factors for success • identified five critical elements to surviving management 	<p>Skills for hotel management</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Human relations - Communication - General planning - People management - Marketing - Entrepreneurial skills - Delegating <p>Key Aspects</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • surveyed South-East Asian hotel general managers to identify key attributes for success • hotel general managers considered high achievers, prepared to work with others, take risks, seek opportunities and learn from a variety of experiences • close links between management development and work-related experience essential • theory provides the foundations for understanding and expertise but workplace practice is required for real learning

Richins, Tait and Hamlin 1994	Barham and Antal 1994	Tourism Training Australia 1994
<p>Skills for tourism management</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Interpersonal - communication - group dynamics - conflict resolution - Organising - Leadership - Public relations - Planning <p>Key Aspects</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • examined skills and knowledge required for Australian tourism, sport and recreation management • communication, interpersonal and well developed people skills important for all three fields 	<p>Competencies International management</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - 'Doing' competencies <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - managing business interests and strategic directions - managing change and innovation - working with others - managing personal effectiveness - 'Being' competencies <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - cognitive complexity (ability to see several dimensions) - emotional energy (risk taking, dealing with stress) - psychological maturity (curiosity to learn, living in the present) <p>Key Aspects</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • identified two important aspects of international management competence - 'doing' and 'being' 	<p>Human, technical and conceptual skills to perform the role of the hospitality manager</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Communication and interpersonal - Financial - Budgeting - Marketing - Quality assurance - Control - Leadership and supervision - Personnel and training - Basic level operational skills <p>Key Aspects</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • management competency standards developed after extensive research with Australian hospitality managers • these standards provide the basis for development of core curricula in hospitality management

Isles 1995	Ryan and Earnett 1995	Bialkowski 1996
<p>Competencies for international management</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Cultural awareness - understanding the difference - Communication - communicating across differences - Cognitive ability - acknowledging stereotypes - Valuing differences - Gaining synergy from differences 	<p>Conference management skills and attributes</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Communication - oral - written - Managing people - Telephone skills - Knowledge of integrative nature of hotel operations - Marketing <p>Key Aspects</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Surveyed New Zealand hotel managers • communication and people skills more important than technical skills 	<p>Club management competencies</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Leadership ability - Technical expertise - Entrepreneurship - Conceptual ability - Strategic thinking <p>Key Aspects</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • investigated change management in Cariberra • Clubs and skills considered important for effective club management • clubs moving from a directive to a more participative leadership style of management • increase of clubs from an orientation that lacked clear vision to a more controlled and strategic orientation

Cichy and Schraidgall 1996	Su, Miller and Shanklin 1997	Williams and DeMio 1998
<p>Skills and attributes for lodging industry financial executives</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Communication and listening skills - Vision - providing direction - defining and setting goals - Trust - high level of personal integrity - firm values - immense inner strength - Perseverance - Education - ongoing - ability to teach to others with enthusiasm - Job commitment - Take responsibility for decisions - Ability to create teamwork - Understand potential and capabilities of people - Assume corporate responsibility <p>Key Aspects</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • a broad, rather than technical educational experience provides essential leadership attributes 	<p>Competencies for hospitality management</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Problem solving - Creative decision-making - Ability to set goals - Leadership - Communication - oral and written - Ability to adapt to change - Time and stress management - Ability to train, develop and evaluate employees - Ability to listen and delegate - Ability to develop teamwork and good employees relations - Global and entrepreneurial skills - Vision <p>Key Aspects</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • general management competencies considered essential for effective service management 	<p>Profile of the multi-department hospitality manager</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Ability to adapt quickly - Exceptional learning capacity - Possess a broad range of leadership skills - Familiarity with TQM methods - Teamwork skills - Proficient at multi-skilling <p>Key Aspects</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • hospitality industries experiencing a new multi-department focus • multi-department management demands increased leadership ability to cope with diversification • multi-department managers will require a broad range of leadership behaviours • general management competencies such as Yukl, Wall and Lepsinger (1990) is essential

As indicated in Table 2.8, each of the studies reviewed has been summarised, providing a list of management competencies or areas of competence and where appropriate key aspects of the study have been noted. While many of the studies reviewed were hospitality based, they spread over a range of different sectors of tourism and hospitality industries. Furthermore, while research into this area has gained momentum during past decade, there was limited research in the Australian context.

The review of these studies raises several key points. First, over time there appears to have been a paradigm shift. Early studies tended to concentrate on technical aspects of competence while later studies emphasised more soft skills such as communication, interpersonal and human relation competencies. Second, several of the competency frameworks suggest that a range of general management competencies are essential for effective tourism and hospitality management and diversity is considered important. The third point indicates that competence in human relations, communication and leadership are considered particularly crucial for effective tourism and hospitality management. These three points are discussed below.

- **Paradigm shift**

A change over time in the nature of the competencies required by tourism and hospitality managers was identified from the literature. There has been a move away from the technical and industry specific competencies to a general management approach. Mullins and Davies (1991) state that while current demand for technical expertise is understandable due to the nature of hotel operations, this emphasis must not be at the expense of other important general management abilities. Human resources are an important element of the hospitality industry and effective management of these depends on a manager's ability in areas such as interpersonal relationships, teamwork, direction and leadership to achieve co-ordinated effort and high levels of performance (Mullins and Davies, 1991). Similarly, managers do not need hands-on technical expertise, but instead must have the skills to use this information for decision making and to view the impacts of these decisions conceptually for the whole organization (O'Halloran, 1992). This demonstrates that while there may be specific contextual factors and technical know-how needed in tourism and hospitality management, generic competencies are still needed to deal with these. Thus, frameworks for hospitality management should not be developed in isolation of general management theory (Mullins and Davies, 1991).

- **Diversity in skills**

The review also revealed that tourism and hospitality managers require a broad range of management competencies to cope with the diverse range of issues and complexities that confront them. According to Williams and DeMicco (1998), hospitality industries particularly are experiencing a new horizontal organisational form which is slowly taking over from the old vertical layer of management. This new multi-department focus demands increased leadership ability in managers as they are expected to diversify over a range of responsibilities. To achieve the demands of multi-department management they conclude that for managers to successfully perform they will need the broadest range of leadership behaviours as possible. Consequently, a taxonomy of general management such as the one proposed by Yukl, Wall and Lepsinger (1990) will be required (Williams and DeMicco, 1998). These competencies include planning, organising, problem solving, informing, clarifying, motivation, monitoring, consulting, recognising, supporting, managing conflict and teambuilding, networking, delegating, mentoring and rewarding (Yukl *et al.*, 1990 in Williams and DeMicco, 1998:16). Furthermore, future tourism and hospitality managers will require ‘global’ and ‘entrepreneurial’ skills plus ‘vision’ to enable them to meet the challenges in the 21st century (Su, Miller, and Shanklin, 1997).

Diversification into the international arena has been clearly identified by many authors as a major factor influencing the nature of the contemporary business environment (D’Annunzio-Green, 1997). Hospitality organisations (for example McDonald’s) are continuing to seek and seize new opportunities overseas through such avenues as strategic alliances, expansions and franchising opportunities. The growth of hotel consortia (for example, ITT Sheraton and InterContinental Hotels) and mergers in particular, are evidence of this diversification (D’Annunzio-Green, 1997). It is argued that this places different demands on managers. In addition to well developed competence in human relations, communication and leadership, they will need competence in cultural awareness, managing change, innovation and cognitive thinking (D’Annunzio-Green, 1997).

- **Crucial skills for the 21st Century**

While recognising the need for tourism and hospitality managers to possess a broad range of general management skills, in the studies reviewed three key competency areas are considered crucial for effective management – human relations, communication and leadership.

Several studies were universal in agreement that effective management of human resources is an integral component of a manager's role. According to Mullins and Davies (1991), the hotel manager plays a central role in 'people management' dealing with customers, staff and superiors all with different points of view. They contend that 'an understanding of the persuasive influences which determine the behaviour of people within the work organisation should therefore form a central focus of the education and development of hotel managers' (Mullins and Davies, 1991:24). The ability to make the best use of people (Mullins and Davies, 1991), creating an environment that ensures they contribute their best to the organisation (Carlopio, Andrewartha and Armstrong, 1997) is a distinct feature of effective management in tourism and hospitality industries. Kavanaugh and Woods (1993) further claim that experience, a manager's greatest asset, includes not just on the job learning, but involves personal time management and learning how to network and cope with stress. Above all, successful managers will possess a positive attitude towards their own work and the work of others (Kavanaugh and Woods, 1993).

The studies reviewed also consider effective communication as one of the most critical competencies for managers at all levels. It is important that managers have the ability to communicate effectively with a diverse employment group, make presentations and lead meetings (Umbreit, 1993). Good managers must master four types of communication including writing, speaking, listening and interpersonal skills. They must utilise critical thinking skills and display strong ethical standards at both personal and organisational levels (Kavanaugh and Woods, 1993). Furthermore, communication skills are important because a manager needs be able to develop and share a common vision for the organisation or work unit (Umbreit, 1993).

Finally, the majority of the studies reviewed indicated that leadership ability is a distinct feature of an effective manager. Skills that advance leadership are important so that managers can build a climate of excellence by setting high standards, by creating a team and by establishing a work environment where employees are empowered to handle crisis situations (Umbreit, 1993). Cichy, *et al.*, (1992) state that strong leadership is important for all levels of management. Furthermore, they highlight the importance of developing curricula and training programs that include modelling of leadership behaviours and mentoring relationships so that students have a better understanding and knowledge of the qualities required for effective leadership (Cichy, *et al.*, 1992). As leaders, managers must have a shared vision and continually communicate this vision to their employees. As Hyden suggests, it is critical to get employees involved in designing the play in order to gain their commitment to executing the play (1994). Communication, listening, trust, patience and perseverance are the foundations of effective leadership (Cichy *et al.*, 1992).

In conclusion, these studies are collectively important as they support the use of a broad range of generic core competencies for effective tourism and hospitality management. Importantly, these management competencies are largely congruent with the management competencies in the CVF (Quinn *et al.*, 1991).

This section has identified the competencies required of management to operate effectively in tourism and hospitality industries, as noted by previous studies. There is also a range of skills identified by a number of professionals and researchers that are considered essential for graduates or trainee managers to possess. An objective of this study is to identify the management competencies that managers of organisations within tourism and hospitality industries expect of recent tourism and hospitality graduates. Therefore, the next section reviews the literature in this area.

2.8 SKILLS AND COMPETENCIES REQUIRED BY TOURISM AND HOSPITALITY GRADUATES

This section examines the relevant literature chronologically, to identify which competencies and skills are reputedly required by graduates to succeed in tourism and hospitality industries. While this review identified research in this field as early as the 1970's, it mainly concentrates on research published in the last two decades. Much of the literature and research in this area tends to be dominated by a US or UK perspective, with very little published in the Australian context. However, a major Australian study undertaken by DEETYA (1998) investigated employer satisfaction with new graduates recruited from higher education and training sectors. Therefore, key findings of this report are discussed at the completion of this section.

Management Competencies Required of Graduates, 1970's-1980's

Prior to the 1970s, there were few attempts to determine the expectations of employers and recruiters in tourism and hospitality industries regarding the competencies and skills they required of graduates. However, during the 1970's, the demand for competent hospitality management personnel increased and created greater industry awareness of the need to identify competent personnel who can function efficiently within a complex service-oriented system (Buergermeister, 1983). However, the development and evaluation of academic programs was varied and there was little effort to identify graduate competencies required by the industry to any extent (Buergermeister, 1983).

Nevertheless, during the 1970's there was increasing interest in identifying the knowledge required of graduates as they enter the workforce. Conducted mainly in the US, research concentrated mainly on hotel and restaurant administration curricula and associated issues such as job-related competencies expected of graduates (Morris 1973; Johnson 1976; Stefanelli 1978; Bloom 1978 in Buergermeister, 1993). For example, Morris (1973) identified the expectations of restaurant operators regarding graduates of hotel and restaurant administration management courses in Oklahoma, USA. He examined areas such as employee training, housekeeping, food purchasing, accounting and management theory. Another study used graduates to evaluate the curriculum content of programs in hotel-restaurant institutional food service (Johnson, 1976). While such studies provided valuable insights into the knowledge and competencies graduates need to succeed, many did not develop lists of specific competencies required of graduates in the relevant industry sectors.

One of the first studies to undertake a more comprehensive approach was by Mariampolski, Spears, and Vaden (1980). An experienced team of 89 restaurateurs developed a consensus on skills required by a food service manager. Using an instrument developed to establish competencies for administrative dietitians (Lloyd and Vaden, 1977), skills were examined under three classifications as suggested by Katz (1974) - technical, human and conceptual - and classified as either essential, desirable or not expected. Essential technical skills comprised food production, purchasing and report preparation while essential human skills pertained to staffing and employee relations. Essential conceptual skills rated were awareness of customer satisfaction as a high priority, realising profit as an important goal, and co-ordinating labour, equipment and personnel within the work unit (Mariampolski, Spears, and Vaden, 1980:81). Of the 62 competency statements, it was further reported that most of the technical and human skills were either essential or desirable for the beginning commercial food service manager but most of the conceptual skills were beyond the capability of a manager at this level. However, the researchers stressed the importance of 'integrity' and 'leadership training' and suggested that co-ordinated work experience may assist in developing students' technical and human skills (Mariampolski, *et al.*, 1980).

Buergermeister (1983) emphasised that the hospitality industry is looking for trainee management personnel who can display skills such as effective communication, staff motivation, recognising customer satisfaction as top priority, ability to appreciate and capable of producing profit, and ability to train personnel effectively. As with Mariampolski *et al.*'s study (1980), the competency statements for this study were drawn from Loyd and Vaden (1977). The researcher concluded that technical skills were considered not as important for graduates to possess as these could be developed through in-house training programs. However, the new trainee manager must be competent in human relations,

motivation, supervision and effective communication (Buergermeister, 1983). These views are still held by more contemporary tourism and hospitality managers (Okeyi *et al.*, 1994; Tas *et al.*, 1996). Further, the nature of the competencies required for trainee managers supports the use of a generic approach to hospitality management.

During the 1980's the literature increasingly emphasised 'soft skills' as important for graduates to possess if they are to succeed in the industry. Tas (1988) identified a list of specific competencies required by management trainees in US hotels and laid the foundation for many further studies in competency-based research. From a comprehensive literature review, Tas compiled an initial list of competencies that may be needed by hotel management trainees. His subsequent survey instrument of 36 competencies was reviewed for clarity and validity by a panel of experts in the field. Of the 36 competencies, the six deemed essential for trainee managers centred primarily in the human relations skills area - managing guest problems, professional and ethical standards, professional appearance and poise, effective communication, positive customer relations, and positive working relationships. A further 18 competencies were rated as being considerably important and many of these involved the process of planning, organising, leading and controlling. The remainder related to financial management, law, food sanitation and safety, reservations, and maintenance of guest room standards (Tas, 1988:43). The competencies identified by Tas demonstrate the relevance of generic competencies in effective tourism and hospitality management and their use in the present study. Further, Tas argued that university programs such as hotel management must include experiences in the classroom and in the field to develop the competencies they will be required to demonstrate as new trainee managers (1988). He suggested that internships are an integral component of hospitality management education (Tas, 1988).

Management Competencies Required of Graduates, 1990's Onwards

Baum's (1990) study of employer expectations of graduates in the UK hotel sector replicated the methodology used by Tas (1988). Using the same 36 competency statements, Baum found the expectations of UK hotel managers were reasonably congruent with those in the US study. Both studies identified that soft or human relations competencies concerned with employee relations, guest care, professionalism and communication are essential for graduates to possess (Baum, 1990:14). Baum also found that general managers believed the more functional skills of hotel management could be easily developed through in-house or corporate training but that 'soft skills' cannot be developed in the same way (Baum, 1990). Baum (1991) examined the results of both the US and UK studies to determine similarities and differences. Eight of the 36 competencies were substantially different, which Baum

(1991) suggested may be due to cultural variation. However, he identified a number of core competencies that could be transferred internationally that had greater significance in terms of developing core curricula than did the differences (Baum, 1991). Collectively these studies are important as they support the use of generic core competencies, supplemented with specific industry competencies in hotel management programs, or their equivalent in other sectors. This further supports the use of a generic set of management competencies in this present study.

The majority of the studies reviewed thus far presented an industry and educators' perspective. However, other research has focused on the views of students. For example, Knutson and Patton (1992), concerned about whether the industries' future hospitality leaders know what is required to be successful, researched students at Michigan State University's School of Hotel, Restaurant and Institutional Management. The 215 students surveyed appeared to appreciate the diversity of skills required of successful managers. They concurred that the ability to deal with the 'people' aspects of business, such as managing people, interacting with guests, effectively communicating with others and dealing with managers, supervisors, subordinates and mentors in a positive way, were all important skills to possess (Knutson and Patton, 1992:42). One disturbing finding in this study was that these same students perceived they were not proficient in many of the skills they identified as important for success, particularly in their ability to manage employees, focus on long term planning and public speaking. While this study did not report the students' specific stage in their degree program, these findings have implications for hospitality educators. Only so much can be taught in the classroom and students need opportunities to practice and refine these skills (Knutson and Patton, 1992). This, highlights the importance of internship.

Burbidge (1994) revealed similar findings about students' perceptions of the skills they need to succeed and how competent they perceived they were in these skills. Using the same instrument and methodology as Knutson and Patton (1992) he surveyed hospitality students over 40 European countries. Overall students recognised similar types of skills required for success but again did not feel adequately prepared for all the complex tasks ahead, such as managing people, focusing on long term results and oral communication and public speaking. Burbidge echoed the sentiments of Knutson and Patton (1992) and proposed that particularly as 50% of students in this study perceived they lacked the ability to manage people, hospitality management educators must review their programs in relation to their theoretical and work experience components. Furthermore, he argued that internship programs should be evaluated to ensure they are providing students with opportunities to further develop the skills they will need in industry (Burbidge, 1994).

A recent study in Hong Kong extended the methodology used by Knutson and Patton (1992) and Burbidge (1994) to examine hotel students as well as hotel managers to determine what skills areas are important for graduate success and how competent graduates were in these skills (Li and Kivela, 1998). The survey instrument utilised 30 technical competencies from earlier research (Tas, 1988) and incorporated four additional management skills areas – research methods, decision making, forecasting methods and interpersonal skills (Li and Kivela, 1998:47). The managers and students differed significantly in the importance they attributed to five skills areas. Managers rated marketing management and job specification/descriptions development as more important than did the students, whereas students thought purchasing management, rooms management and interpersonal skills were more important. The managers' and students' perceptions also differed significantly in their assessment of graduates' competency in three skills areas. Managers thought graduates were more competent in applying a second language and food service skills while students thought that graduates would be more competent in group dynamics (Li and Kivela, 1998:50-52). According to Li and Kivela (1998), the importance of these and similar findings by Knutson and Patton (1992) and Burbidge (1994) indicate the need for greater collaboration between industry and educators to ensure curricula equip students with the skills that will be required of them when they graduate.

Okeiyi, Finley and Postel (1994) studied the expectations of hospitality practitioners, educators, and students enrolled in food and beverage management courses in the US and found that human relations and managerial skills were rated most important for graduates of hospitality programs to possess, while technical skills were considered less important. Similar results emerged from another study of 107 US hotel managers to determine competencies required for property management trainees (Tas, LaBreque and Clayton, 1996). Interpersonal (interacting with people), leadership (ability to operate under pressure) and conceptual (maintaining a global management viewpoint) were the highest rating competencies (Tas, *et al.*, 1996:96). This study utilised Sandwith's (1993) competency domain model which identifies five main areas of managerial competency - conceptual, leadership, interpersonal, administrative and technical skills (in Tas, *et al.*, 1996:91). An important observation was that these 'non technical' people management skills can be transferred from department to department and management trainees should avail themselves of every opportunity to learn about other management styles and to practise common competencies through cross training programs (Tas, *et al.*, 1996). These findings are important to the present study as they recognise the need for tourism and hospitality graduates to have well developed general management competencies. It will be important for students to have a sound grounding in leadership, human resource management, service marketing, financial analysis and total quality management (Umbreit, 1993). Graduates will

be hired for their demonstrated leadership skills, essential to operate in today's competitive environment (Umbreit, 1993). Umbreit (1993) stressed that hospitality and tourism students will need a different set of skills in order to cope with new challenges and opportunities in the business environment, resulting from an expanding role of services in the world economy and the restructuring and deregulation that is characterising contemporary hospitality industries.

The need for strong leadership skills in hospitality graduates is also echoed by Williams and DeMicco (1998). They claim that a new challenge for managers of the future is multi-department management. This new dimension to management, brought about by factors such as company downsizing, consolidation of support services management and acquisitions of competitors, suggests the scope of the hospitality manager's role is now widening with increased responsibilities. According to Williams and DeMicco, these managers must be adaptable, have exceptional learning capacity, be skilled in Total Quality Management (TQM), team development and most importantly be multi-skilled themselves and proficient at multi-skilling their employees (1998:16). It would appear that managerial success for hospitality graduates will depend immensely on an individual's team building skills (Williams and DeMicco, 1998).

2.8.1 DEETYA Report

As noted at the commencement of this section, a report commissioned by DEETYA in 1998 has significant implications for both higher education and vocational training providers in Australia. This interim report, *Research on Employer Satisfaction with Graduate Skills*, details the qualitative findings of an ongoing research project to determine Australian employers' views as to the skills they are seeking in new graduates, to determine the importance of these skills and to identify those skill areas where graduates may be deficient. (DEETYA, 1998:v). While not specific to tourism and hospitality graduates, the report is still relevant because it highlights that business graduates require general management competencies to succeed. Furthermore, the management competencies identified as important for these graduates to possess are congruent with those identified in the tourism and hospitality literature.

The DEETYA report was instigated following growing evidence of employer dissatisfaction with graduates from Australian and overseas universities. This research involved a comprehensive literature review plus focus groups and individual interviews with human resource, general and front line managers from small to large organisations in the public and private sectors and graduates from varying disciplines (DEETYA, 1998).

This research suggests there are a wide range of skills that employers consider when recruiting graduates, but more specifically the following general skills are required of business graduates:

- time management – ability to balance work, social and day to day living pressures;
- written business communication – ability to create business documents in a clear, concise and logical manner;
- oral communication – ability to communicate ideas clearly and concisely;
- interpersonal skills – ability to get on with people from all levels of business and walks of life;
- team working skills – ability to work effectively with others;
- problem solving – ability to analyse and solve work issues; and
- comprehension of business processes – an understanding of the different components of business operations and how they interrelate.

(DEETYA, 1998:19)

Overall the study found general satisfaction with graduates. However, it is suggested that any dissatisfaction with graduates may be due to their poor business communication skills as students are not taught to write appropriately for business communication (DEETYA, 1998).

There are several general implications for educational institutions drawn from the report. Employers look for graduates who:

- can work and co-operate in teams;
- are adaptable and flexible in their attitude towards work;
- possess inter-personal skills;
- have undertaken co-op or work experience; and
- have an understanding of the need for continuous learning.

(DEETYA, 1998:27-28)

2.8.2 Summary

This section identified the competencies and skills considered important for tourism and hospitality graduates. Generally, educators and industry agree that graduates need diversity in their skill repertoire and even as trainee managers they will need to possess strong leadership traits, be people oriented and good communicators. There was also agreement by many researchers that these demands raise several other important issues.

Firstly, they have implications regarding the training of graduates. It is argued that these competencies should form the foundation for program development to ensure tourism and hospitality management curricula align with industry needs so that graduates are prepared for management positions in their future careers (Tas, 1988). Okeiyi *et al.* (1994) agree and add that curricula must change and be updated in accordance with the dynamic industry they serve and quality courses and quality teaching will be imperative for success.

A further issue relates to the nature of these competencies. Concerns were raised that perhaps many tourism and hospitality management programs are producing graduates who lack the ability to transfer concepts across disciplines and who are unable to bridge the link between theory and practice (Pavesic, 1993). This highlights the need for a more congruent approach to management education in the tourism and hospitality fields (Williams and DeMicco, 1998). Students themselves seem to have a general appreciation that they will need to be equipped with a broad range of skills. However, they perceived that they were not adequately proficient in the skills they require for success (Knutson and Patton, 1992; Burbidge, 1994; Li and Kivela, 1998).

This raises the importance of a further issue. The challenge of educators is to provide learning experiences to best prepare graduates for management positions. Students should be offered the opportunity to develop the necessary competencies and skills through a broad range of learning strategies and their performance be monitored to test their competence in these areas (Geissler and Martin, 1998). It is argued that responsibility for training these future professionals lies with both industry and education providers, a partnership viewed by many as crucial to the future success of the industry (McMahon and Quinn, 1995; Li and Kivela, 1998). Therefore, in addition to the traditional lecture style methods, tourism and hospitality management curricula should include more innovative and stimulating learning techniques such as role play, simulation exercises, case studies and, where possible, hands-on experience (Okeiyi *et al.*, 1994). A blend of theory and practice is essential in preparing students for management careers over a range of tourism and hospitality sectors (Tas, 1988). Further, internships offer a range of benefits to students but

above all give them the opportunity to develop and practise important management skills – a learning experience that cannot be replicated in the classroom (Davies, 1990 in McMahon and Quinn, 1995; Paprock, 1992).

This review now concentrates on the value and benefits of internship in tourism and hospitality management education.

2.9 THE VALUE OF INTERNSHIP IN TOURISM AND HOSPITALITY MANAGEMENT EDUCATION

The origins of supervised work experience or internship date back to the Second World War period (Davies, 1990 in McMahon and Quinn, 1995). Practicum has been considered an essential educational component for a range of industry professions for many decades including nursing, teaching, banking, business administration, accounting, agriculture and medicine. The general literature is replete with references regarding issues concerning internship including the structure of successful internship programs, the value and benefits of hiring interns, supervision of internships, evaluation of internship programs, and student assessment, to name a few.

It is argued that experiential learning or learning through experience cannot be substituted through any other techniques. According to Davies (1990):

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

(Davies, 1990 in McMahon and Quinn, 1995:14)

Similarly, Petrillose and Montgomery (1998) claim that experiential education provides the opportunity and environment for students to experience first-hand outside the classroom, activities and functions which relate directly to the application of knowledge (Petrillose and Montgomery, 1998:46). As individuals learn in different ways – by hearing, seeing and doing (Reich and De Franco, 1994) - and appear to learn more effectively through active participation, internships are an effective way of enhancing student learning.

The teaching profession has given particular emphasis to the importance of learning through direct application. Field experiences are essential for bridging the gap between theory and practice (Nichols, 1992) and give students the opportunity to develop professional contacts and networks, familiarise themselves with the working environment and evaluate their

professional performance in a practical work environment (Taylor, 1992). Generally, a well structured field experience is recognised across a wide range of professions as the most influential component of professional preparation, having a profound effect on students' attitudes, work strategies and skills (Koop, 1993).

External pressures also indicate the importance and significance of field practicum in university education and its link with employment opportunities for graduates. Significant formal initiatives such as the Dawkins and Holdings Report, *Skills for Australia* (1997) and the National Board of Employment, Education and Training (1993) suggested that universities should develop opportunities to further establish the links between theory and practice. It is argued that field experiences will be a vital component in this link (Bell and Schmidt, 1996:124).

Craig-Smith, Davidson, and French (1994) claim that tourism and hospitality industries want people with experience and consider a work experience component an essential part of a degree course. However, external factors such as the influence on the job market of the economic depression in the late 1980's and early 1990's, coupled with a rapid growth in student numbers, hinder education providers in meeting this need effectively because the job market has become highly competitive. Thus, research into issues associated with industry placement or internship will be crucial so that current trends and issues can be identified and effective strategies developed and adopted to ensure that the objectives of both education and industry are met (Craig-Smith *et al.*, 1994:315).

Lewis (1982) summarises the contention of many researchers regarding the education of tourism and hospitality management graduates. He maintains there are two areas that need consideration so that students are equipped with the skills necessary to be effective managers, particularly in the hospitality field. Firstly, curricula must be adapted to future business needs, by being proactive rather than reactive (Lewis, 1982). Lewis argues that the hospitality industry in the future faces major technological, economic, political and social challenges. In light of these factors, future successful managers will need to be equipped with a broad range of skills. Secondly, a student's management education must involve both theory and practice - theory to provide the foundations for judicious decision making and practice to provide a greater understanding of how the product and service facets of a hospitality business operate and interrelate with each other and within the surrounding marketplace (Lewis, 1982).

Several studies in the tourism and hospitality fields examined the value of practical work experience in a student's education in terms of career and personal development. There is

strong support that a practical experience prepares students for a career within the industry and also influences the direction they may take (Casado, 1991; West and Jameson, 1990). Supervised work experience is a crucial determinant of student's orientation to the hospitality industry, has a significant effect on their future career choice (Barron and Maxwell, 1993) and can strengthen their desire to work in the industry (Emenheiser, Clayton, and Tas, 1997). While many researchers believe an industry placement helps to cement a student's aspirations to pursue a long term career in the industry, others found a worrying trend that, following an internship experience, some students decide against a career in the industry (Barron, 1999). McMahon and Quinn (1995) stress it is the responsibility of educators and employers to ensure that students' field experiences have a positive influence on their career direction.

From an industry perspective, internships are frequently viewed as an important staff recruiting and retention tool (Ju, Emenheiser, Clayton, and Reynolds, 1998). Pauze, Johnson, and Miller (1989) reported on a study that found 96% of interns were offered a position by the organisation that sponsored their internship. More recently, Walo (1999) surveyed 120 intern students at the completion of their internship and found that 75% continued employment with their internship organisation while a further 20% (students in voluntary intern positions) were offered assistance by their internship organisations to find employment at the completion of their internship (Walo, 1999: 33). As noted by Bell and Schmidt (1996), the vocational and career outcomes associated with an internship component of a degree in tourism and hospitality have been used by many universities as a promotional tool to reach potential students.

There is little doubt amongst educators, industry and students of the value of undertaking practical work experience in preparation for a career within tourism and hospitality industries. Barron (1999) summarised the main aims of industrial placement as:

- the opportunity to put theory into practice;
- the provision of a practical context in which subjects (upon returning to university) may be placed;
- the possibility of receiving some formal industry training;
- the development of personal transferable skills such as communication, teamwork, self discipline and practical skills;
- assistance with identifying career paths and/or confirming pre-work experience career choices;

- an opportunity for industry networking;
- opportunity to experience the constraints and pressures of the working environment; and
- a chance to take a supervisory role and gain responsibility for human, financial and /or physical resources.

(Barron, 1994 in Barron 1999:121-122)

According to Ashworth and Saxton (1989) internships provide a close approximation to the real-life exercise of a student's academic discipline. They add value to a degree course as they enliven the 'theory' by allowing students to interpret the lived experience through effective and rational reflection. This potential to link theory and practice provides students with a more meaningful learning outcome (Ashworth and Saxton, 1989:55).

In recruiting new graduates, it appears that tourism and hospitality employers are seeking those who have experienced a blend of theory and practice in their education. A study of 21 hospitality recruiters by Downey and Deveau (1988) revealed that hospitality managers place equal importance on practical experience as on course work in considering graduates of hospitality management programs (Downey and DeVeau, 1988). Hospitality recruiters also believe that students who have participated in internship programs are more marketable than those who have not. In fact, a study of hospitality recruiters from the Council on Hotel, Restaurant and Institutional Education (CHRIE) membership found that 71.7% of respondents indicated that a student's participation in an internship was an important criteria in the interview and selection process (Petrillose and Montgomery, 1998:49).

This section has examined the reported benefits of internship in terms of a student's professional and career development. In addition, it is argued that this experience can also develop students' management competencies. This issue is discussed in the following section.

2.10 DEVELOPING MANAGEMENT COMPETENCIES THROUGH INTERNSHIP

As discussed in Section 2.1, management development is seen as a continuous learning process through which managers develop competence over time (DEET, 1991). Furthermore, managers acquire skills and knowledge through a variety of ways and it is argued that work experience plays a significant role in this (Karpin, 1995).

Mumford (1987) also holds these sentiments and claims that work experience is an integral component of general management education and training. He states that 'learning by experience is a recognition of managerial fact. What we need are processes which accept

this reality but make better use if it' (Mumford, 1987 in Jones, 1990:11). These sentiments are also reflected in the tourism and hospitality literature. For example, in his study of Irish Hotel industry managers, Baum (1988) overwhelmingly supported the view that practical work experience in the hotel industry is an essential pre-requisite for effective hotel management. Likewise, an internship is seen as an absolute necessity in management education so that students can make the connection between theory and practice and have a greater appreciation of the knowledge they have acquired regarding basic management principles (Bell and Schmidt, 1996; Craig-Smith, 1997; DiMicelli, 1998).

Several tourism and hospitality researchers have investigated the value of internship in terms of competency development. They argue that a practical component of the curriculum is fundamental in developing certain management competencies in students. For example, Mariampolski *et al.* (1980) suggest that hospitality curricula should include co-ordinated work experience for students to effectively develop the more technical and human relations skills required of the beginning food service manager. Likewise, Knight (1984) in his study of 29 educators, 20 trainers and 183 trainees, emphasised the importance of practical experience in developing essential managerial traits in hotel management students. A well structured internship has the potential to develop several of the competencies required of hospitality graduates and, as part of a course curriculum, has a vital role to play in a student's education (Tas, 1988). The ability to learn these competencies however, will depend on a number of factors such as the type of placement, level of work experience and the quality of supervision in place. Tas feels a more structured internship will greatly facilitate students' development of primary competencies (Tas, 1988).

Efforts of other researchers have clearly identified the relationship between practical work experience and the development of students' skills and management competencies. A survey of 42 hospitality recruiters associated with CHRIE identified four essential benefits of an internship:

- real world experience, leadership skills, initiative and judgement;
- exposure to industry;
- customer employee relations; and
- an important recruitment tool for those interns successful in the internship program.

(Petrillose and Montgomery, 1998:49)

This study revealed some significant findings. Recruiters indicated that students completing an internship should already have competence in supervisory/management skills, knowledge of industry operations, communication skills, decision-making and human resource skills. They felt that competent interns can boost employee morale and enable the organisation to pre-screen prospective managers (Petrillose and Montgomery, 1998:49). They also indicated there is a relationship between the type of internship undertaken (length, level of responsibility, rigour of the internship) and the level of a student's skills development. Recruiters felt that internship should challenge students to synthesise theoretical concepts with the real world environment and develop students' leadership and management skills which can only be learnt if given sufficient time and the opportunity to supervise or manage (Petrillose and Montgomery, 1998:50). Petrillose and Montgomery (1998) note a contradiction in that educators agree that internship can develop students' management skills, but readily accept line-level employee positions for intern students which do not adequately allow opportunity to develop these skills.

LeBruto and Murray's (1994) study of the educational value of captive hotels in the US identified a number of essential competencies that can be only learned in the practical setting. LeBruto and Murray undertook a study of the educational value of captive hotels as compared to non-captive facilities. A sample comprising faculty from hotel management programs, corporate recruiters and hotel management students were asked to rate the importance of practical work experience in relation to ten specific management competencies identified as being important for hotel management graduates to possess. The main source of these ten competencies was Tas's study (1988) and included basic management, human resource management, labour cost control, effective oral communication, effective written communication, solving customer problems, professional appearance and poise, professional standards, positive peer working relationships and ethics (LeBruto and Murray 1994:77). The researchers noted that, while no consensus was reached on the issue of using a captive facility as opposed to a non captive facility, practical work experience was considered valuable in developing all these key management competencies, indicating that an internship is an essential part of a hotel management curriculum (LeBruto and Murray, 1994). Moreover, Ford and LeBruto's (1995) research of faculty members, students and employers of hospitality graduates in the US found that 'hands-on' work experience is vital in delivering skills and competencies and therefore should be an integral part of any hotel management program.

The value of internship in developing students' management competencies has also been investigated purely from a student perspective. Bell and Schmidt (1996) report the link between field practicum and skills development. Their research on 208 leisure management

graduates, who were employed over a range of tourism related industries, found that the practical component of their degree had assisted students in developing both specific and generic skills. Strongest support for skill development was in the area of interpersonal communication (86.8%), planning (78.4%), special project co-ordination (73%) and teamwork (70%). The researchers concluded that these results support the importance of field practicum in skills development (Bell and Schmidt, 1996:132).

Also from a student perspective, McMullin (1998) surveyed graduates from a four year hotel, restaurant and tourism program to determine the relationship of internship to a range of employment skills. Students reported that internship adequately prepared them for future employment through developing supervisory skills, analytical problem solving skills, appreciation of corporate culture, interpreting business reports, motivation techniques, confidence, self esteem and guest relations (McMullin, 1998).

Ju, Emenheiser, Clayton and Reynolds (1999) studied 74 tourism and hospitality management students completing an internship in Korea, to determine students' perception and satisfaction regarding the effectiveness of their internship. In this study, nine classifications were used - professional skills improvement, leadership development, general knowledge improvement, future career marketability, self actualisation, relationship with supervisor, evaluation by supervisor and structure of the program (Ju *et al.*, 1999:39). The findings of this study raise some significant issues regarding the nature and length of an internship experience. Overall, students reported low levels of satisfaction with enhanced personal skills and opportunities to develop and practise leadership and professional skills. It is noted that because Korean students are required to complete an internship during the peak summer season, opportunities to develop and practise management skills may be limited. Furthermore, the study found that the Korean hospitality industry has not traditionally understood the value of internship in attracting competent and skilled employees and potential future managers. This study also found that almost two-thirds of the students completed a hotel internship and that these students tended to report lower satisfaction on certain aspects of internship compared with students who had other internship experiences (Ju *et al.*, 1999:39). It would seem these results are in contrast to other studies, but as the researchers argued, internships in Korea (particularly in hospitality) are not embraced in the same manner as in many other countries.

In contrast to the Korean study, DiMicelli (1998) states that a 'hands-on' approach to educating hospitality managers not only supports management principles learnt in theory but also provides students with the opportunity to practise and review their competence and skills within the real world environment. He claims effective managers must demonstrate

both competence in dealing with staff and leadership skills which are most effectively learned in a workplace environment. Furthermore, the move by many hotel chains and restaurant groups to implement their own management training and career development programs, thus becoming ‘private autonomous training providers’ (Hobson, 1995), also demonstrates industry’s view of the importance of hands-on work-place learning in management education (DiMicelli, 1998:32-36).

A well planned internship with commitment from all stake holders (employers, students and educators) has the potential to effectively prepare students for a career in tourism and hospitality management (Pauze *et al.*, 1987; Petrillose and Montgomery, 1998). Both educators and practitioners agree that tourism and hospitality management curricula must blend theory with practice, offering students a variety of learning techniques to effectively develop such skills as human relations, leadership, communication, team building and customer relations (Tas, 1988; Okeiyi *et al.*, 1994).

Notwithstanding the vast amount of research that identifies a range of benefits for all stakeholders, debate continues over the value of internships and their legitimacy as an academic exercise that will in the long term reap benefits for the industry (Petrillose and Montgomery, 1998). There is still considerable debate among academics and recruiters as to the pragmatic value of internship or industry placement (Barron, 1999). As Craig- Smith *et al.* (1994) report, in the past some hospitality programs have removed this component from their course. These concerns are fuelled by the lack of any scientifically documented outcomes of the benefits of internships as enhancements to students’ learning, and while career and personal development outcomes have been documented, cognitive outcomes remain unclear (Petrillose and Montgomery, 1998:46). The importance of research in this area is highlighted by Branton, Cutt, Loken, Ney, Ricks, and Van Glyn (1991, in McDowell and Comerford, 1996:146) when they state that ‘existence of empirical evidence for the contribution of co-op education to the educational benefits of students would help to persuade academic faculty and administrators that the extra cost and efforts are worthwhile’.

This completes discussion on the benefits of internship in tourism and hospitality management education and its contribution to developing students’ management competencies. The review of this topic identified the need for accurate empirical research to substantiate claims that internship does enhance students’ development in terms of their managerial competence and to assess new graduates as they enter employment to determine their level of management competence. These issues are discussed in the following section.

2.11 ASSESSING STUDENTS' MANAGEMENT COMPETENCIES

As noted by Waryszak (1999), co-operative education research is limited by the absence of pre- and post-internship measures of students' perceptions of their placements. It is argued that the same applies to measuring students' management competencies. There appears to have been little progress over the last decade in actually testing graduates for managerial competence. In fact, no studies reviewed below attempted to assess the managerial competence of students as they enter the work-force for internship or after graduation to see if it is congruent with industry needs. Nor were students assessed pre- and post-internship to identify changes in students' management competencies during this period. This is a troubling deficiency given the important role of management education in producing graduates who are capable of meeting industry needs. Furthermore, many tourism and hospitality researchers have proposed that a well structured internship experience can enhance students' management competencies. However, no empirical work has been published to validate these claims. Tas, a pioneer in management competency research within the hospitality industry, identified the need for research to determine whether graduate manager trainees actually demonstrate the competencies required by managers within the industry (1988: 43). The importance of empirical research to provide evidence that students develop management competencies during internship was highlighted by Branton *et al.* (1991 in McDowell and Comerford, 1996). It is argued that these issues need to be addressed and it is important that the management competencies of students and new graduates be quantified and measured in some way.

While related research in the tourism and hospitality fields has developed slowly, the link between internship and skills development has been addressed in other disciplines. For example, Martin (1983) investigated changes in leadership style of administrative management students before and after internship using a Styles of Management Inventory Grid. Herrick (1987) examined the effects of internship experience and participant modelling on the skill development of rehabilitation education interns. More recently, an evaluation of a tertiary based management education program delivered in-house was undertaken to assess the value of formal studies and work experience on Westpac Bank managers (Deves, 1998). Each of these studies utilised survey instruments that were developed in relation to their specific research objectives.

As discussed in the previous section, many tourism and hospitality researchers have examined the value of internship in terms of skills and competency development. However, most of these based their findings on expectations, perceptions and views of experts in

education and industry, rather than assessing students before and after internship to determine if, in fact, internship does develop students' management competencies. While no studies reviewed addressed this particular issue, some research has been conducted to assess students' perceptions and competence from a number of different perspectives in both experimental and applied settings using measuring instruments developed from several sources. These utilised lists of management competencies that were generated from experts in the field or were developed from extensive reviews of relevant literature, utilised general management competency frameworks, or developed instruments utilising a combination of these methods.

The reasons for the apparent lack of empirical research into the management competencies developed through internship are unknown. It is argued that, it may be due to the perceived lack of an effective measuring instrument or perhaps due to financial or time management concerns. In particular, to objectively assess students' management competence pre- and post-internship would require commitment from both the researcher and industry supervisors, to be effective and accurate. It is argued that, alternatively, 'self -assessment' could be utilised to determine students' management competencies and to evaluate the academic value of internship programs.

The recognition of self-assessment as a reliable indicator of self-performance has been investigated by several researchers. For example, school children's judgement of self-perceived competence has been found to be related to their academic knowledge and performance (Stigler and Smith, 1985 in Sim, 1993). Further, this relationship strengthens as students mature (Harter, 1985 in Sim, 1993). Thus, students at an undergraduate level should be able to demonstrate accurate self-assessment of their managerial competence (Wood and Locke 1987). Research on undergraduates in food service management and dietetics found that students demonstrated high ability to self-assess their performance and these assessments provided effective evaluation of programs and students' development (Cochran and Spears, 1980).

Sim (1993) also examined the extent to which students' self-perceived competence or self-evaluation was a reliable indicator of the effects of program instruction. In this study, the researcher attempted to determine the relationship between self-perceived competency, knowledge, performance and self-actualisation. Three separate instruments measured 30 students' self-actualisation, knowledge and performance and their self-assessment of 45 food service management competencies. Results found high correlation between self-perceived competency and knowledge and between self-perceived competency and performance (Sim, 1993:11). According to Sim (1993), the use of self-perceived

competency may be a valid method for course evaluation. She concluded that educators are justified in using students' self-perceived competencies as indicators of students' food service management competencies (Sim 1993:11). Sim's findings have particular relevance to the present study in terms of the method used for assessing students' management competencies.

In another study, Samenfink (1994) investigated the concept of self-assessment to determine the interpersonal skills required for employees in the 'service encounter'. The survey instrument, 'a self monitoring scale', was identified by the researcher as an appropriate way of identifying the interpersonal skills of an employee. He claimed these intangible skills could then be quantified and transposed to a more tangible form where they could then be analysed as competency statements. This instrument lists a set of statements that measure an individual's behavioural traits on a Likert scale. It has been suggested that this instrument may be a useful tool in identifying successful service encounter employees (Samenfink, 1994).

In summary, while there appears to be significant advances in other industries, there is a disturbing lack of research in tourism and hospitality industries that examines the contribution that internship plays in developing students' management competencies by assessment of students pre- and post-internship. Smith (1990) emphasised that measurements such as these must involve valid and reliable survey instruments. This highlights the importance of using instruments which have a sound developmental base and a proven track record in management education research. As discussed in Section 2.4, this study incorporates Quinn *et al.*'s (1990) CVF. While the concepts of the model and its development have been already discussed in Section 2.4, the development, previous applications and description of the S.A.M.S. (DiPadova, 1990) instrument associated with the CVF (Quinn *et al.*, 1990) presented in Section 3.2, demonstrate its suitability for the current study.

In light of deficiencies in prior research to assess the managerial competence of graduates and students, this study will make an important contribution by providing empirical data into the extent internship contributes to the development of student management competencies.

This completes the review of the literature relating to the management competency issues under investigation in this study. Section 2.12 will restate the research objectives presented in Chapter One as measurable research hypotheses, in accordance with the literature reviewed.

2.12 RESEARCH HYPOTHESES

Two issues relating to the broad area of management competencies are under investigation in this study. The first relates to the contribution that an internship component of a tourism and hospitality undergraduate degree program makes to developing the management competencies of students. The second relates to the management competencies managers or recruiters in tourism and hospitality industries expect of recent graduates. From the literature review examining these two issues, the research objectives presented in Chapter One can be restated as measurable research hypotheses.

Given the overwhelming support in the literature for the value of internship in developing student management competencies, the first hypothesis to be tested in this study is:

H₁ that students' pre-internship mean scores will be significantly lower than their post-internship mean scores with respect to the 24 management competencies and eight managerial roles associated with Quinn *et al.*'s (1990) Competing Values Framework.

There has been no direct research that attempts to compare students' managerial competence with the expectations of tourism and hospitality employers. A review of the literature revealed that tourism and hospitality managers expect graduates to possess a range of general management competencies. There is also evidence to suggest that a tourism and hospitality management education that combines theory and practice will provide students with opportunities to develop these competencies in line with industry's needs. Therefore, given that the students in this present study have completed a degree that provides a combination of theory and practice it would be reasonable to suggest that their management competencies would be aligned with employers' expectations. Thus, the second hypothesis to be tested in this study is :

H₂ that students' post-internship mean scores will not be significantly lower than the selected managers' mean scores with respect to the 24 management competencies and eight managerial roles associated with Quinn *et al.*'s (1990) Competing Values Framework.

2.13 CONCLUSION

Chapter Two reviewed the literature in relation to the issues under study to set the study into perspective and to highlight how the current study will address a gap in related research so the three research objectives formulated in Chapter One could be presented in more measurable terms as research hypotheses.

Section 2.2 highlighted the need for management reform in Australia and a more highly skilled workforce to remain competitive within the global economy by focusing the training and education of the country's human resources. Section 2.3 provided a brief discussion on the use of linking management competency frameworks to managerial effectiveness to justify the use of a competency approach for this study. Section 2.4 provided a summary of historical developments in the general literature on management competency frameworks that were relevant to this study. These developments were important to explain how the theoretical model used in this study evolved. Section 2.5 presented the theoretical model used for this study – Quinn *et al.*'s (1990) CVF.

Section 2.6 briefly examined the debate on whether tourism and hospitality industries should focus on a generic rather than a specialised approach to management and argued that a general approach to management will be required for managers to meet current and future demands. Section 2.7 identified a diverse range of competencies required for effective tourism and hospitality management and detected that over the past 20 years there has been a change in emphasis from the technical to a more human relations approach required for effective management. Similarly, Section 2.8 argued that graduates in these industries are expected to possess a diverse range of generic management competencies, particularly in human relations, interpersonal communications and leadership.

Section 2.9 examined the value of internship and identified several professional and career benefits to students. The studies reviewed in Section 2.10 maintained that internship can enhance the managerial competence of students, but cautioned the need for enhanced collaboration and research between industry and education providers and well structured internship programs to achieve these developments. The review of the tourism and hospitality literature revealed a lack of empirical research into whether tourism and hospitality graduates are meeting the needs of industry and the contribution of internship in developing students' management competencies using quantifiable measures. Concerns associated with measuring students' and graduates' management competencies were discussed in Section 2.11. To conclude, the three research objectives presented in Chapter One were restated as two measurable research hypotheses in Section 2.12.

Chapter Three presents the methodology employed for this study and explains statistical measures used to test the objectives and specific research hypotheses.

Chapter Three

Research Methodology

3.1 INTRODUCTION

Chapter Two reviewed general and tourism and hospitality literature relating to competencies and skills required for effective management. In particular, it examined the skills and management competencies required for graduates or entry level managers and the contribution that internship makes to the development of students' management competencies. The chapter concluded by presenting the two hypotheses to be tested in this study. Chapter Three discusses the methodology employed for this research and explains statistical measures used to test the specific research hypotheses.

Section 3.2 introduces the S.A.M.S. (DiPadova, 1990) instrument employed in this research. An explanation of this instrument, previous applications, a brief outline of how it was developed and justification for its use in this study are provided.

Section 3.3 presents the research design for the study. A three stage approach is adopted, each addressing a specific objective and related hypothesis. Section 3.4 provides a brief overview of these three stages and identifies the processes, related objectives and proposed research outcomes for each stage.

Section 3.5 details the methodology for Stage One, which identifies the sectors and sample frame to be used for the tourism and hospitality industry survey. In this stage, managers' expectations of the management competencies of recent tourism and hospitality graduates are collected using the S.A.M.S. (DiPadova, 1990) instrument. Methods for data collection, survey procedures, response rates and data analysis are discussed.

Section 3.6 details the methodology for Stage Two of the research, which identifies and compares students' pre- and post-internship levels of managerial competence using the S.A.M.S. (DiPadova, 1990) instrument. Methods for data collection, survey procedures, response rates and data analysis used to test the first research hypothesis are discussed.

Section 3.7 details the methodology for Stage Three of the research to test the second research hypothesis. This involves quantitative data analysis comparing managers' expectations of the management competencies of recent graduates (collected in Stage One) with the students' perceptions of their pre- and post-internship management competencies (collected in Stage Two).

Section 3.8 identifies the methodological limitations and assumptions of the study while Section 3.9. concludes the chapter with a brief summary.

3.2 THE SELF ASSESSMENT OF MANAGERIAL SKILLS S.A.M.S. (DiPadova, 1990) INSTRUMENT

As previously discussed, Quinn *et al.* (1990) designed a survey instrument that assesses an individual's competence in relation to the roles and management competencies associated with the CVF (Quinn *et al.*, 1990). The Self Assessment of Managerial Skills or S.A.M.S. (DiPadova, 1990) consists of 113 competency statements that assess competence in relation to three skills associated with each of the eight roles, for a total of 24 skills. Figure 3.1 shows the relationship between the 113 competency statements, 24 competencies and eight managerial roles. A copy of the S.A.M.S. (DiPadova, 1990) instrument is contained in Appendix One.

Figure 3.1 *The 113 Competency Statements, 24 Competencies and 8 Managerial Roles Associated with the CVF (Quinn et al., 1990)*



Source: Quinn *et al.*, 1990 in Dimmock, 1999:326

The 113 competency statements in the S.A.M.S. (DiPadova, 1990) instrument describe a variety of skills associated with managerial work. Each of these statements is rated on a Likert scale of 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree). Respondents are required to

circle from 1 to 7 for each statement. These scores are averaged and computed to measure the 24 management competencies and eight managerial roles.

As discussed in Section 2.5.5, in addition to performing statistical analysis, the data can also be used to plot a series of profiles on the CVF (Quinn *et al.*, 1990), using the software developed by Quinn *et al.* (1990). These profiles provide a visual representation of an individual's characteristics or particular style of management. These profiles have proven invaluable for many students, teachers, researchers, management trainers and practising managers. For example, they can be used in the classroom situation where management students are able to evaluate and assess their own style with a tool that is easily comprehended and tangible. Thus, they can identify their own strengths and weaknesses with respect to the management competencies and use the learning model as a means of improving towards a degree of mastery (Michaelsen, 1990).

3.2.1 Previous Applications of the S.A.M.S. (DiPadova, 1990) Instrument

As discussed in Chapter Two, the CVF (Quinn *et al.*, 1990) and associated S.A.M.S. (DiPadova, 1990) instrument have undergone extensive application and experimentation over a range of different organisational contexts. The CVF's (Quinn *et al.*, 1990) effectiveness as a diverse tool for management application is demonstrated particularly through its wide use as a management educational tool across leading US universities for example, the University of Michigan and the University of Southern California (Quinn *et al.*, 1990).

Many university educators in the management field have recognised the CVF (Quinn *et al.*, 1990) as an effective and relevant approach to use in the classroom environment. This model helps students' grasp the complexities surrounding the dynamic nature of management and raises their awareness of the key theoretical approaches that relate to management competencies. It provides the opportunity for students to develop their own management skills and gain a greater understanding of the material being taught, through the supporting experiential learning activities developed and provided throughout the related text (Denison, 1990; Metheny, 1990; Michaelson, 1990; Wells, 1990). The S.A.M.S. (DiPadova, 1990) instrument has been extensively used to assist students in identifying their own strengths and weaknesses. Students have the opportunity to develop a pre-course profile of their managerial strengths and then at the completion of a course develop a post-course profile for comparison. They can then observe the application of the course content to their behaviours (DiPadova, 1990).

Many management teachers have adopted the CVF (Quinn *et al.*, 1990) because, while it is cognitively comprehensive, it also has visual clarity which helps students understand more easily the complexity of effective management. One instructor who uses the CVF (Quinn *et al.*, 1990) extensively in management training in the classroom comments that ‘the CVF (Quinn *et al.*, 1990) is visual; it has a kind of face validity and coherence to it that many models or frameworks lack’ (Thompson, 1993:103).

The use and application of the CVF (Quinn *et al.*, 1990) and S.A.M.S. (DiPadova, 1990) has demonstrated their effectiveness as teaching tools for universities and as tools for evaluating managerial effectiveness in an Australian context. For example, Southern Cross University’s School of Tourism and Hospitality Management has adopted the CVF (Quinn *et al.*, 1990) as a teaching tool for introductory management units for its undergraduate programs. Students undertaking these units have the opportunity to develop their own personal profiles of managerial strengths using the S.A.M.S. (DiPadova, 1990) instrument. As Leiper (1995:214) notes:

What professional practitioners and the academic literature lacked before 1988 was a descriptive theory of management which explained the diverse, flexible, seemingly inconsistent and sometimes apparently irrational or contradictory approach.

(Leiper, 1995:214).

Also, recent research within Australia has utilised the values and principles of the CVF (Quinn *et al.*, 1990). Vilkinas and Cartan (1993 in Miller, 1998) used the S.A.M.S. (DiPadova, 1990) instrument to identify competencies women require to be effective managers and to compare a competency framework between female and male managers. Dimmock (1999) applied the S.A.M.S. (DiPadova, 1990) instrument to a sample of tourism managers within the Northern Rivers Region of NSW to identify their management style and to explore the relationship between their style of management and the competitive strategies pursued by their organisations. Both these studies are significant in that they demonstrate the application and acceptance of the CVF (Quinn *et al.*, 1990) and the S.A.M.S. (DiPadova, 1990) instrument in the Australian context.

3.2.2 Development of the S.A.M.S. (DiPadova, 1990) Instrument

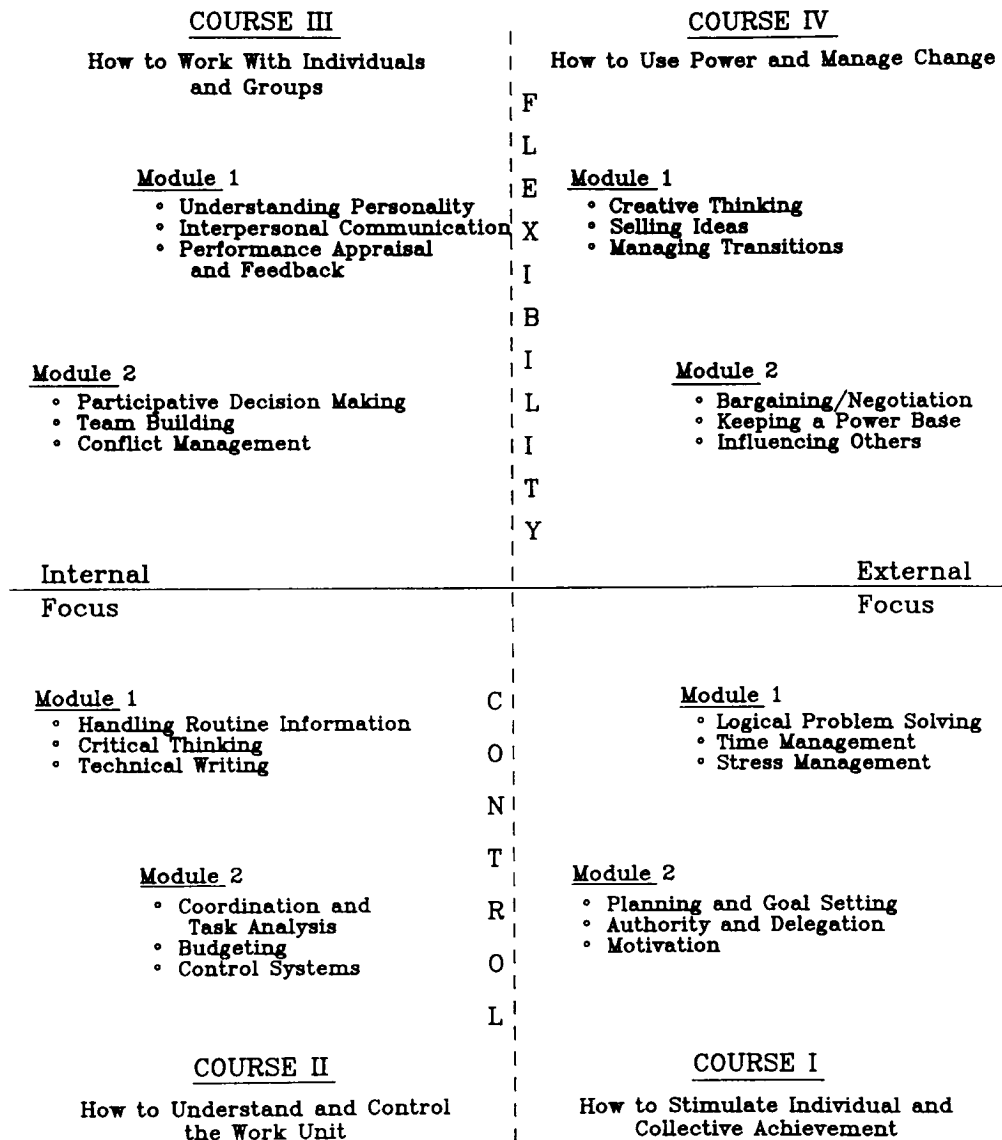
The S.A.M.S instrument evolved as a result of developing two skills based curricula for management education and development designed for practising managers across New York State, USA. This project was instigated in an effort to professionalise the massive and diversified Public Service Sector and to provide opportunities for individual development. It

was a joint venture between the New York State, the Rockefeller College of Public Affairs and Policy at the University of Albany and the State University of New York (Faerman, Quinn and Thompson, 1987).

According to Faerman *et al.* (1987), an advisory panel of management and development experts, selected for their experience and expertise in the field, were commissioned to develop these courses. They claimed that, one of the difficulties in developing a skills-based curricula was the vast array of seemingly unrelated skills that exist in the management literature. To overcome this dilemma it was argued that a conceptual framework would be an appropriate way of attempting to organise these skills. The decision to adopt Quinn's (1984) CVF (Quinn *et al.*, 1990) was made as this framework organised leadership from a perceptual perspective simply demonstrating implicit and competing values of managerial behaviour (Faerman *et al.*, 1987).

The two curricula to be developed were for a Program in Supervision for new managers and a Program in Administration for advanced managers (Faerman *et al.*, 1987). An explanation of how these curricula were developed is reasonably simple. Each curriculum consisted of four courses corresponding directly to the four quadrants of the CVF (Quinn *et al.*, 1990). Each course comprised two modules corresponding to the two roles associated with each quadrant. The task for the curriculum writers was first to identify topic (competency) areas for each of these modules (Faerman *et al.*, 1987). A review of existing literature identified over 250 competency areas which, after eight months of consultation were used as the basis to develop eight individual courses covering the topic areas as seen in Figure 3.2 (Faerman *et al.*, 1987).

Figure 3.2 Program in Supervision



Source: Faerman , Quinn and Thompson, 1987:314

Figure 3.2 shows how each module in the Supervision Program corresponds to one of the eight management roles in the CVF. For example, course three ‘How to work with individuals and groups’ focuses on the Human Relations Skills in which module one contains the competencies associated with the Mentor Role and module two contains those associated with the Facilitator Role (Faerman *et al.*, 1987). As seen in Figure 3.2 this program contains the 24 management competencies that comprise the CVF (Quinn *et al.*, 1990).

The next task after developing this model was to develop each module into an adult learning model based on the guidelines of Whetten and Cameron (1984) which involves five

activities: assessment, learning, analysis, practise and application of skills (Faerman *et al.*, 1987). The S.A.M.S. (DiPadova, 1990) was developed to address the need for an instrument to assess an individual's managerial skills. This instrument developed by the curriculum writers contained 113 questions designed to assess the 24 management competencies in the CVF (Quinn *et al.*, 1990). The curricula developed in the above process was implemented across 130 courses offered in New York State in 1985 (Faerman *et al.*, 1987). Since then, the CVF (Quinn *et al.*, 1990) and its associated management competencies have been extensively used as a management educational tool across leading universities and as a management tool for the training and development in the corporate sector (Faerman *et al.*, 1987).

3.2.3 Justification For Using the S.A.M.S. (DiPadova, 1990) Instrument

As discussed in the literature review, there is a growing body of knowledge that seeks to identify skills considered essential for tourism and hospitality graduates. The importance of conducting industry-based research to determine tourism and hospitality employers' expectations of the management competencies of graduates is well recognised. However, the review found limited research published in the Australian context.

Likewise, research that investigates the contribution that internship or practical work experience makes in developing students' management competencies based on experts and graduates' opinions and perceptions continues to grow. However, very little progress has been made to validate these opinions by specifically testing students pre- and post-internship to observe any changes in their management competence during the internship period.

Several survey instruments have been developed to assess expectations, perceptions and opinions of educators, students, graduates and employers in tourism and hospitality fields. While these instruments perform an important function, they are not suitable for assessing an individual's managerial competence. For the purpose of this study it was necessary to use an instrument that could measure managers' expectations of recent graduates' management competencies and at the same time serve to measure students' pre- and post-internship management competencies. The instrument in this case must have the ability to measure the perceptions and opinions of both managers and students so that valid comparisons of the results can be made.

In summary, the S.A.M.S. (DiPadova, 1990) was considered appropriate for this study for the following reasons:

- the CVF (Quinn *et al.*, 1990) presents an opportunity to assess the relevance of the 24 management competencies contained in the CVF to tourism and hospitality industries. This is important because the CVF (Quinn *et al.*, 1990) is used as a teaching tool in the curriculum content for the Bachelor of Business in Tourism degree at Southern Cross University;
- the S.A.M.S. (DiPadova, 1990) instrument has been extensively used in prior research demonstrating its ability as a valuable tool for identifying students' and managers' managerial strengths and weaknesses;
- the instrument has been shown to be statistically valid and reliable. Results of a reliability analysis provided in Section 4.3 indicate that the S.A.M.S. (DiPadova, 1990) is a consistent and reliable measure of the eight managerial roles within the CVF (Quinn *et al.*, 1990). Alpha results in this present study are also consistent with those of Quinn *et al.*, (1991);
- it has general application to any industry;
- the S.A.M.S. (DiPadova, 1990) instrument required no modification to test students' pre- and post-internship managerial competencies and required very minimal modifications to ascertain managers' expectations of recent tourism and hospitality graduates' management competencies.

Given the time and financial constraints associated with this study, coupled with the proven versatility and effectiveness of this instrument, it seemed appropriate to incorporate the S.A.M.S. (DiPadova, 1990) instrument into the empirical stages of this study.

It is worth noting that Sim (1993) examined the extent to which students' self-perceived competence or self-evaluation was a reliable indicator of the effects of program instruction. Sim's study concluded that 'educators are justified in using students' self-perceived competencies as indicators of students food service management competencies' (Sim 1993:1). Similarly, Wood and Locke (1987) found that college undergraduate students' perceived self -efficacy was significantly related to academic performance in seven task areas of a management course. If, as research indicates, students' have high ability to self-assess their performance, then it would be reasonable to assume that in this study students' self assessment of the 24 management competencies are reliable indicators of their performance in these areas.

Discussion thus far has concentrated on explaining the nature, development, prior application and suitability of the S.A.M.S. (DiPadova, 1990) instrument. Section 3.3 and 3.4 present the research design employed for this study.

3.3 STUDY VARIABLES

This section briefly summarises the study variables associated with this study.

A review of the literature identified a wide array of management competencies considered essential for effective management both from an industry and a theoretical perspective. However, for the purpose of this research the 24 management competencies and eight managerial roles associated with Quinn *et al.*'s (1990) CVF, were adopted as the main study variables. These variables measured manager's expectations and students' pre- and post-internship perceptions of their managerial competence.

The surveys also collected demographic information relating to the survey respondents. Table 3.1 summarises the demographic variables collected in this study, used to compile profiles of the manager and student respondents. These profiles are presented and discussed in Chapter Four.

Table 3.1 *Summary of Demographic Study Variables*

Students' demographic variables	Managers' demographic variables	Organisational demographic variables
Gender	Gender	Industry sector
Age	Age	Geographic location
Level of previous positions held	Current position held	Number of employees
Level of formal educational qualification	Level of formal educational qualification	Number of graduates previously employed
Industry sector for internship		

Source: Primary-compiled for this study

3.4 STAGES OF THE RESEARCH

This section provides an overview of the three stages employed for this research. The ensuing sections then provide a detailed description of each stage and discuss methods of data collection, survey procedures, response rates and procedures for data analysis.

The three research objectives identified in Chapter One were to:

- 1 To identify the management competencies managers of organisations within tourism and hospitality industries expect of recent tourism and hospitality graduates.
- 2 To determine whether students' management competencies are developed during the internship component of Southern Cross University's Bachelor of Business in Tourism degree.
- 3 To determine whether the management competencies of Southern Cross University's Bachelor of Business in Tourism students meet the expectations of selected managers of organisations in four tourism and hospitality sectors.

To achieve these objectives the descriptive survey method was employed. Descriptive research is used to describe characteristics of a population or phenomenon (Zikmund, 1991:33). It involves collection of data through either, surveys, interviews or observations, in order to test hypotheses. This widely used method, is particularly useful for investigating a variety of educational issues (Gay, 1996:251-252).

This study used a quasi-experimental design, specifically the 'one-group pretest-posttest', which enabled comparisons to be made of the same individuals before and after internship. It is acknowledged that experimental designs have weaknesses that may jeopardise internal validity such as maturation, history effect, pretest-sensitization and mortality (Gay, 1996:347). Nevertheless, this type of research represents a valid approach to the solution of educational problems (Gay, 1996) and is widely used in business research where time and costs are important considerations (Zikmund, 1984).

In this study, it is recognised there may be influences other than the internship process that possibly contributed to reported changes in students' management competencies during the internship period. Thus, no attempt has been made to demonstrate a causal relationship between internship and the development of students' management competencies. Furthermore, concerns regarding external validity due to the non-random selection of the

student sample have been considered. Results have not been generalised to students undertaking internship with other tourism and/or hospitality degree programmes.

The research was conducted over three stages each relating to the specific research objectives and hypotheses, as shown in Table 3.2. Discussion of the methodology used in each stage follows.

Table 3.2 *Outline of the Three Stages of the Research*

Stage of the Research	Related Research Objective	Related Research Hypothesis	Process	Outcome
1	1	N/A	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Review of current literature Analysis of databases Administer survey to tourism/hospitality managers Quantitative data analysis and interpretation 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Identify sectors to be used for industry survey Identify sample frame for industry survey Identify tourism and hospitality managers' demographic profile Identify tourism and hospitality managers' expectations of recent graduates' management competencies
2	2	1	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Administer surveys to student sample, pre- and post- internship Quantitative data analysis and interpretation 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Identify students' demographic profile Identify students' self-assessment of management competencies pre- and post-internship Determine significant differences in students' management competencies pre- and post-internship
3	3	2	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Quantitative data analysis and interpretation 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Determine congruence between managers' expectations and students' post-internship self-assessment of management competencies

Source: Primary-compiled for this study.

3.5 STAGE ONE OF THE RESEARCH

The purpose of Stage One of the research was to identify the management competencies, managers of organisations within tourism and hospitality industries expect of recent tourism and hospitality graduates by:

- Identifying which four sectors of tourism and hospitality industries are the major employers of graduates from Southern Cross University's Bachelor of Business in Tourism degree, to determine the sectors to be used in this study.

- Identifying the management competencies selected managers in these four sectors expect of recent graduates of tourism and hospitality degree programs.

3.5.1 Survey Participants

Due to constraints of time and resources it was not possible to include all of tourism and hospitality industries in the survey. Therefore, it was first necessary to identify which sectors would comprise the sampling frame to determine managers' expectations.

The researcher considered that the most appropriate sectors to use for the study would be those employing the majority of graduates of tourism and hospitality degree programs. It is argued that, perhaps due to the experience of having employed graduates of tourism and hospitality degree programs, managers in these sectors would have certain expectations of graduates regarding their management competencies.

A search of current literature was undertaken to identify the major tourism and hospitality industries employing graduates. No comprehensive breakdown of graduate destinations by sector within tourism and hospitality industries were located in the relevant literature. Therefore, an analysis of graduate destinations between 1991–1995 was undertaken to identify the major sectors of the industry where graduates of the Bachelor of Business in Tourism degree for Southern Cross University were employed, at that point of time (1996).

Over the five year period there were 281 Bachelor of Business in Tourism graduates. Of these, there were 239 known destinations. One hundred and sixty four students were employed in tourism and hospitality industries, 25 were overseas, 12 were pursuing further studies and 25 were employed in areas outside tourism and hospitality industries. The 164 graduates were employed across a broad spectrum of tourism and hospitality industries with hotels/resorts (34.0%), clubs (10.3%), government bodies (commonwealth, state and local) (9.1%), and airlines (7.3%) being the key employment sectors. These four areas, which employed a total of 100 (60.7%) graduates, formed the sample frame for the research in Stage One. Table 3.3 provides a breakdown of 1991–1995, Bachelor of Business in Tourism graduates' destinations in the four selected sectors.

Table 3.3 *Breakdown of Bachelor of Business in Tourism Graduates' Destinations, from 1991-1995 in the Selected Four Sectors*

Sector	Number of students employed in each sector	Percentage of total number of known destinations
Hotels/resorts	56	34.0%
Clubs	17	10.3%
Government bodies	15	9.1%
Airlines	12	7.3%
Total	100	60.7%

Source: Primary-compiled for this study

Appendix Two contains a complete breakdown by sector of 1991–1995 Bachelor of Business in Tourism graduate destinations within tourism and hospitality industries.

3.5.2 Sampling Methods

A total sample of 200 managers (50 for each of the four sectors) was surveyed. This sample size was a compromise between an effort to maintain statistical validity and the constraints of time and money available. Veal (1992:153) identifies three criteria that may be used to determine a sample size - the level of precision in the results, the level of detail in the proposed analysis and the available budget. He states that, often the limiting factor in determining the sample size depends on funds available which risks the possibility of a non-representative sample. Veal suggests that in this situation the research could be viewed as a pilot exercise to a more extensive study (Veal, 1992). Given that this study involved a fairly select and limited sample of tourism and hospitality managers, it could be viewed as a pilot study, potentially leading to a larger study of managers in tourism and hospitality and other industries.

In this study, the industry sample was drawn from the School of Tourism and Hospitality's graduate and internship databases. The rationale behind using this sample of the population was that these organisations should be familiar with the competencies of graduates through their involvement with graduates as employees or through involvement with students during the internship program. Also, it was felt that because these organisations had some degree of involvement with students and graduates from the School of Tourism and Hospitality

Management at Southern Cross University, they may be more willing to participate in the survey.

The importance of using organisations who have recruited graduates is supported by LeBruto and Murray's (1994) study of the educational value of captive hotels (hotels operating as part of hotel management curricula) as opposed to non-captive facilities. They identified a number of essential competencies that can only be learned in a 'practical setting'. In their study, an initial response rate of 32% was reduced to 20% because 10 of the 26 surveys returned indicated they did not recruit graduates and therefore could not participate in the survey.

Two sampling methods (purposive and snowballing) were employed to select the survey participants for Stage One of the research. This was necessary as two of the sectors (airlines and government bodies) did not meet the quota of 50, which was the required number of potential survey respondents for each sector.

Purposive sampling is a non probability sampling technique whereby a sample is selected based on the researcher's judgement of some appropriate characteristic required of the sample members (Zikmund, 1991:342). As Zikmund (1991) suggests, it may be difficult to generalise results from this style of sampling. However, in this study attempts were made to identify a sample that adequately represents the population within each of these sectors. To minimise sample bias, systematic sampling was used to select potential survey participants from within each sector. This process is useful when a set number of potential survey participants are to be drawn from within a known number of the sampling population. Consistent with systematic sampling procedures, for each sector a starting point was first identified and then every *n*th number was selected (Zikmund, 1991:345). This procedure was used for two of the sectors - hotels/resorts and clubs.

However, there were only 29 airline contacts and 45 government contacts within the graduate and internship databases. Therefore, a snowballing procedure was applied to attain the required sample number of 50 for each sector. According to Sarantakos, snowballing is used when the lack of numbers within the sampling frame makes it impossible for the researcher to achieve a probability sample. Referrals are used to locate members of the population (Sarantakos, 1995). Therefore, in this study the known airline and government managers were approached and asked to recommend other managers within the sector who might be willing to participate in the survey. These referrals were then contacted by telephone to elicit their willingness to participate.

A total sample of 200 managers (50 for each of the four sectors) was required for this study. Table 3.4 provides a breakdown of the total number of potential contacts (from the combined databases) in each sector and indicates the sampling interval (the *n*th number) used.

Table 3.4 ***Breakdown of Numbers by Sector for the Industry Sample***

Sector	Total number in each sector	Sample number required	Sampling interval used
Hotels/resorts	253	50	5th
Clubs	108	50	2nd
Government bodies	45	50	N/A
Airlines	29	50	N/A
Total	435	200	

Source: Primary-compiled for this study

The survey was directed initially to human resource or personnel managers or to those managers responsible for training and recruitment. The rationale behind using these individuals is that they have a close relationship with, and knowledge of graduates due to the nature of their work. It is believed they would be qualified to comment on the management competencies expected of graduates because assessment of employees and internship students is an integral part of their job description through such means as staff appraisals.

3.5.3 Survey Instrument

Stage One of the research primarily involved the collection of quantitative data. The main aim of the industry survey was to identify the selected managers' expectations of recent tourism and hospitality graduates' management competencies, in relation to the 24 management competencies associated with Quinn *et al.*'s (1990) CVF.

The questionnaire mailed to the 200 managers consisted of two parts;

- part one consisted of Quinn *et al.*'s (1990) 113 competency statements. Each survey participant was asked to respond to each competency statement in relation to his or her expectations of recent tourism and hospitality graduates entering the work-force.

A Likert scale was used to rate each of the competency statements ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree).

The 113 competency statements were presented in the same order as set out by Quinn *et al.* (1990). The instrument required some modifications. Each question was rephrased to reflect managers' expectations of graduates. However, the same meaning was retained for each question. Table 3.5 provides examples of modifications required for the competency statements.

Table 3.5 *Examples of Modifications to the S.A.M.S. (DiPadova, 1990) Instrument*

Quinn <i>et al.</i>'s wording	Re-modified wording
I am an intensely motivated person	They are intensely motivated
In negotiating I know how to explore win-win outcomes	In negotiating, they know how to explore win-win outcomes
I can turn a collection of individuals into a smooth functioning team	They can turn a collection of individuals into a smooth functioning team
I am an effective public speaker	They are effective public speakers

Source: Primary-compiled for this study

- part two collected demographic data of respondents including age, gender, current position held, level of educational qualifications, number of employees in the organisation, geographic location, industry sector and an indication of whether they had previously employed graduates.

Appendix Three contains a copy of the managers' questionnaire.

3.5.4 Maximising Response Rates

Previous tourism and hospitality researchers (Buergermeister, 1983; Casado. 1991; LeBruto and Murray, 1994; Paxson, 1995; Tas *et al.*, 1996) have reported low and inconsistent response rates in survey research. It appears that low response rates are considered inevitable and sometimes accepted as the 'norm'. However, low response rates are a major concern to researchers mainly due to the element of error associated with non-response bias and because decisions may be based on a small sample of non-representative responses (Paxson, 1995).

Furthermore, there are many features peculiar to tourism and hospitality industries that can affect survey response rates. These include limited time and resources to respond, seasonality, un-willingness to co-operate (not in their job description) and high turnover rates of employees (Paxson, 1995:67). Unofficial estimations identify response rates for the hospitality industry between 10-20%. Paxson reviewed the literature and concluded that

response rates were generally 31% or less. Generally, mail surveys, whether involving the general population or businesses, attract low response rates (Paxson, 1995:67).

Due to the tourism and hospitality industries' reputation for low survey response rates, an attempt was made in this study to minimise this problem in the following ways.

First, where possible the researcher telephoned each potential survey participant to solicit his/her willingness to participate in the research. Details of all respondents were recorded and coded so that future non-respondents could be identified for further mail follow-up.

Second, the implementation of the mail survey followed recommendations made by Dillman (1978) and Paxson (1995), to maximise survey returns while minimising costs. According to Paxson, 'if researchers personalise their cover letters, use questionnaires that are easy to complete, and make follow-up contacts, they will achieve higher response rates and reduce the bias that results from low response rates' (Paxson, 1995:73).

The cover letter (Appendix Four) which accompanied the managers' questionnaire thanked potential respondents for agreeing to participate in the study, explained the purpose and importance of the research, assured respondent's confidentiality and was personally signed by the researcher. The letter was printed on university letterhead to enhance the importance and academic nature of the research. The prior telephone contact to survey participants allowed for a more personal approach in the cover letter.

3.5.5 Survey Procedure

A self administered mail questionnaire was used to collect data from the industry sample. This choice of method accommodated the lengthy nature of Quinn *et al.*'s (1990) instrument, the geographic spread of the sample and the limited funding available.

While it is acknowledged there are identifiable deficiencies associated with self-administered questionnaires in survey research, they are however, widely used especially in social science research for a number of reasons. Some that particularly apply to this study include cost effectiveness, quick generation of results, convenience for the respondent, greater assurance of anonymity, minimisation of interviewer bias, consistent and uniform measures of data and a wide coverage of respondents (Sarantakos, 1995:158-159).

Prior to the initial mail-out, the questionnaire was pre-tested on three potential respondents to detect any errors or difficulties with interpretation. All three were promptly returned requiring no modifications.

An initial mailing was conducted which included the cover letter, questionnaire and a reply paid, return addressed envelope. A follow-up mailing to non-respondents was conducted. This second mailing included a reminder letter, questionnaire (in the event of the first copy being misplaced) and a reply paid envelope. Again the procedures recommended by Dillman (1978) were followed. It was felt that a third follow-up was not warranted given the response rate from the first two rounds. Also, a third follow-up may have been fruitless as it would have coincided with the busy Christmas holiday period. Appendix Five contains the follow-up letter.

3.5.6 Survey Response Rates Attained

As previously discussed, 200 managers were surveyed by mail for this stage of the research. Following the initial mailing, 113 surveys were returned, giving a response rate of 56.5%. A further 48 surveys were returned after the second mailing, giving an overall response rate of 80.5%.

The total number of usable responses was 153 giving a usable response rate of 76.5%. Response rates for each sector are summarised in Table 3.6. Given the usually low response rates associated with tourism and hospitality industries, the response rates for this stage could be considered highly satisfactory.

Table 3.6 *Breakdown by Sector of Industry Responses*

Category	No. of managers surveyed	Response after Initial mail-out	Response after 2nd mail-out	No. of unusable responses	Total usable responses	Final response rate %
Hotels and Resorts	50	32	43	1	42	84.0%
Clubs	50	31	41	2	39	78.0%
Airlines	50	21	31	2	29	58.0%
Government	50	29	46	3	43	86.0%

Total	200	113	161	8	153	76.5%
--------------	------------	------------	------------	----------	------------	--------------

Source: Primary-compiled for this study

As seen in Table 3.6, eight of the returned surveys were discarded from the analysis for the following reasons:

- One survey was returned unopened, which was surprising given the personalised approach taken.
- Five surveys could not be used because they were not completed to a satisfactory level.
- One survey was returned and not completed at all. The respondent in this case felt that the survey was too long and the questions were repetitive.
- One survey was returned not completed, as the respondent felt he or she lacked adequate experience with graduates to have particular expectations of their management competencies.

3.5.7 Data Analysis

Data were collected from 153 respondents using the survey instrument. Responses obtained were edited, coded and entered into the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS). All subsequent analysis was conducted using the SPSS statistical package.

Basic descriptive analysis using frequency tables provided a demographic profile of respondents including age, gender, current position held and educational qualifications. Data concerning the participants' organisation included the number of employees, sector of the industry, geographic location and an indication of whether they had previously employed graduates. Results of this analysis are presented and discussed in Chapter Four. Prior to any further statistical analysis in this stage, a test for reliability was performed on the data. Further explanation of this test and results of this analysis are also provided in Chapter Four.

Data was then prepared for statistical analysis following Quinn *et al.*'s (1990) procedure. The 113 statements in the instrument measure eight roles each associated with three management competencies for a total of 24 competencies. A score for each of the 24 competencies is calculated by averaging the scores of the competency statements assigned to each management competency. Similarly, a score for each of the eight roles is calculated

by averaging the scores of the competency statements associated with the three management competencies that comprise each role.

Composite mean scores for the total manager sample were calculated for each of the 24 management competencies and eight roles. This addressed the first research objective by identifying the management competencies that managers of organisations within tourism and hospitality industries expect of recent tourism and hospitality graduates.

Further analysis provided a breakdown by sector of the managers' mean responses for each of the 24 management competencies. A one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to test for differences among the sets of mean scores for each of the sectors. The Bonferroni post hoc test was used to determine significant differences. As the analysis in this stage used the managers' combined mean responses, similar expectations of the managers for each of the four sectors were investigated. That there were no significant differences between the mean scores of each of the sectors would indicate that they have statistically similar expectations in relation to the competencies of graduates with tourism and hospitality degrees.

3.6 STAGE TWO OF THE RESEARCH

The purpose of Stage Two of the research was to measure and compare the mean scores of students' responses to the 24 management competencies before and after internship, in order to test the first research hypothesis. This hypothesis proposed that students' pre-internship mean scores will be significantly lower than their post-internship mean scores with respect to the 24 management competencies and eight managerial roles associated with Quinn *et al.*'s (1990) CVF.

3.6.1 Survey Sample

The sampling frame for Stage Two of the research was limited to the 1996 cohort of third year, internal Bachelor of Business in Tourism students from the Lismore campus at Southern Cross University. The majority of these students were expected to undertake the internship component of their degree program from July of the same year.

The selection process for this stage was based on purposive or judgement sampling. Sarantakos states that 'in this sampling technique, researchers purposely choose subjects who in their opinion, are thought to be relevant to the research topic' (Sarantakos,

1995:158). The limitation with this sampling technique is that only tentative generalisations to the wider population can be made. In other words, conclusions drawn from the findings relating to this cohort of students may not reflect those of all students who undertake an internship or industry placement experience.

The first round of the survey was personally administered to all 59 students enrolled in a third year core unit in semester five, before they left the campus to start internship in semester six. This approach to administering the survey negated having to conduct a mail survey and thus helped to minimise the low response rates associated with mail surveys.

3.6.2 Survey Instrument

The questionnaire administered to the 59 students comprised two parts:

- part one consisted of Quinn *et al.*'s (1990) 113 competency statements. Each student was asked to self-assess himself or herself in relation to each competency statement. A Likert scale was used to rate each of the competency statements ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree). The 113 competency statements were presented in the same order as set out by Quinn *et al.* (1990). The instrument required no modification.
- part two collected demographic data of respondents including gender, age, previous level of industry experience, educational qualifications and the sector in which internship was completed. Students were also asked to record if they had advanced standing for internship. This information was used to check whether respondents were eligible to participate in the post-internship survey. Students who had already gained advanced standing for the four units of internship were not included in the second survey mailing.

A copy of the student questionnaire is found in Appendix Six.

3.6.3 Survey Procedures

The first questionnaire was distributed to all 3rd year Bachelor of Business in Tourism students during week 12 in semester five. In order to achieve a maximum response, the questionnaire was administered in a controlled environment, during a core unit tutorial under the supervision of both the researcher and the lecturer of the unit (the researcher's supervisor). Before the surveys were distributed, the students were informed of the purpose

and importance of the research and reminded that participation was completely voluntary and that their confidentiality was assured. They were also advised that a follow-up mail survey would follow at the completion of their internship.

Students were given a set amount of time to complete the questionnaires, which were collected at the completion of the tutorial. Students who were not in attendance that day were later followed up personally by the researcher. A record of respondents was coded and recorded to identify the sample for the second survey to be sent at the completion of the internship.

Aptly labelled by Veal (1992:118-119) as ‘captive group surveys’, this method of data collection involves the use of ‘group membership’, where individuals are approached to complete a survey in a group situation, as might occur to collect data from school children, adult education groups and groups of employees. This can be a very economical and time efficient way of collecting data, so long as the criteria for membership of the group is matched with the needs of the research (Veal, 1992). Therefore, this method of data collection was considered appropriate for this stage of the research because the study sample was limited to the cohort of students who planned to undertake an internship in second semester, 1996.

A second questionnaire again containing Quinn *et al.*'s (1990) 113 competency statements, was mailed to students in late November of the same year (Appendix Seven). A mail survey was used for students in this stage due to their geographical spread and it allowed relatively easy access to students at moderate cost. This was accompanied by a cover letter and reply paid envelope. Students were advised in the cover letter to complete the survey at the completion of their internship and return it to the researcher. Not all students were due to finish at the same time, as it depended on the starting date of their internship. A record of respondents was coded and recorded so that follow up on non-respondents could be conducted. Appendix Eight contains a copy of the cover letter to students.

3.6.4 Maximising Response Rates

The administration of the student mail survey again followed recommendations made by Dillman (1978). The questionnaire was accompanied by a cover letter on university letterhead which thanked students for participating in the first round and invited them to participate in the second round. The letter also explained the purpose and importance of the research, assured the respondent's confidentiality and was signed by the researcher.

In order to motivate students to return the questionnaire, an incentive was offered. Students were advised in the cover letter that each completed questionnaire returned would be entered into a draw for a chance to win a pair of fashion sunglasses. It is reported that using some sort of reward or incentive can often substantially increase mail survey response rates (Veal, 1992; Paxson, 1995). Respondents were asked to complete a separate sheet which was attached to the survey providing their name and contact telephone number. This sheet would be detached from the survey when returned to the researcher and entered into a draw. Again their confidentiality was assured.

A follow up mailing to non-respondents was conducted in late January. This second mailing included a reminder letter, questionnaire (in the event of the first copy being misplaced) and a reply paid envelope. A final follow-up was conducted late February. This final follow-up involved either a telephone call or a reminder facsimile (to overseas students). Appendix Nine contains a copy of the follow-up letter to students.

3.6.5 Response Rates Attained for the Student Sample

Of the 59 surveys distributed to students in the first round, 52 surveys were returned, giving a response rate of 88.1%. Ten of these surveys had to be discarded from the second round of surveying for the following reasons;

- one survey was returned with no name which negated further follow up
- one respondent was not eligible as he/she was enrolled in another degree program
- eight of the respondents already had advanced standing for the internship units

This left a total of 42 survey participants who qualified for the second survey round. These 42 students were then sent a second mail questionnaire survey and a total of 20 surveys were returned (by mid January) giving a response rate of 47.6%. A follow-up mailing conducted on non-respondents obtained a further nine surveys, taking the total response rate at this stage of time to 69.0%. The final follow-up obtained a further three surveys. A total of 32 surveys were returned giving a final response rate of 76.2%. Table 3.7 provides a breakdown of student responses resulting from the survey process.

Table 3.7 **Breakdown of Student Response Rates**

	Number of surveys sent	Number of responses received	Number of unusable responses	Final number of usable responses	Final response rates
Pre-internship survey	59	52	10	42	88.1%
Post-internship survey	42	20	0	20	47.6%
After 1st follow-up	N/A	9	0	29	69.05%
After 2nd follow-up	N/A	3	0	32	76.1%

Source: Primary-compiled for this study

3.6.6 Data Analysis

To test the first research hypothesis, data were collected from students in two phases, pre- and post-internship using two survey instruments. Responses obtained from each phase were edited, coded and entered into SPSS. All subsequent analysis was conducted using the SPSS package.

Basic descriptive analysis using frequency tables provided a demographic profile of respondents including age, gender, level of educational qualification attained, level of prior work experience and the industry sector for internship. Results of this analysis are presented and discussed in Chapter Four.

Data to test the first research hypothesis was then prepared for statistical analysis following Quinn *et al.*'s (1990) procedure, as discussed in Section 3.5.7. Composite mean scores for the total student sample for the pre- and post-internship phase were calculated for each of the 24 management competencies and eight roles. This also addressed the second research objective which was to determine whether students' management competencies are developed during the internship component of Southern Cross University's Bachelor of Business in Tourism degree.

3.6.7 Testing Hypothesis One

The first hypothesis proposed that students' pre-internship mean scores will be significantly lower than their post-internship mean scores with respect to the 24 management competencies and eight managerial roles associated with Quinn *et al.*'s (1990) CVF.

The appropriate analytical technique for testing the first hypothesis was the repeated measures or paired sample t-test. The paired sample t-test is used when the same sample is measured under different conditions. For example, it is often used in a 'before and after' experiment, known as the pretest-posttest design, (Argyrous, 1996:287). The paired sample t-test determines whether the mean scores for the two sets of data are the same or different. It was used in this study to determine any significant differences between the students' pre-internship mean scores and post-internship mean scores for each of the 24 competencies and eight managerial roles.

3.7 STAGE THREE OF THE RESEARCH

The purpose of Stage Three of the research was to compare the mean scores of the managers' expectations of recent graduates with the mean scores of students' responses to the 24 management competencies after internship, to test the second research hypothesis. This stage involved statistical analysis of the quantitative data collected from the managers in Stage One and from the students in Stage Two of the research.

3.7.1 Testing Hypothesis Two

The second hypothesis proposed that students' post-internship mean scores will not be significantly lower than the selected managers' mean scores with respect to the 24 management competencies associated with Quinn *et al.*'s (1990) CVF.

The appropriate analytical technique for testing this hypothesis is the independent sample t-test. This test can be used when scores for two different groups or samples are measured for differences between their means (Gay, 1996). In Stage Three this test determined any significant differences between the students' mean scores and the managers' mean scores for each of the 24 competencies and eight managerial roles contained in the CVF (Quinn *et al.*, 1990).

In addition to the independent t-test in this stage, the managers' and students' post-internship mean scores were ranked and compared. This provided an overall indication of the management competencies that managers in this study expect of recent tourism and hospitality graduates. It also indicated the competencies in which students perceived they were most competent. Furthermore, this comparison demonstrated the level of congruence between the managers' expectations and students' self-assessment of the management competencies, at the completion of the internship. Students at this stage had satisfied all the course work requirements and were therefore eligible to graduate.

In summary, Sections 3.5, 3.6 and 3.7 have explained the methodology for the three stages of this research by identifying sampling methods, survey procedures, response rates and analytical techniques used to address the research objectives and to test the two research hypotheses. In all stages of the research, data collection adhered to the required standards established by Southern Cross University. All potential participants were asked to participate in the surveys voluntarily and their confidentiality was assured and maintained. Results were analysed and reported using aggregate scores only and identification of individual records was protected.

Sections 3.8 and 3.9 conclude this chapter with an explanation of the limitations and assumptions pertaining to the methodology employed in this study.

3.8 METHODOLOGICAL LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

This study does not claim to reach conclusions applicable to all students who complete an internship or practicum as part of a tourism or hospitality management undergraduate degree program. In terms of the student sample, the study is limited to the 1996, internal third year students of the Bachelor of Business in Tourism program, from Southern Cross University. Only this group of internship students were used in this study due to time and funding considerations.

A further limitation relates to the representativeness of the tourism and hospitality industries' sample. Again the study does not generalise conclusions to all managers within tourism and hospitality industries. Due to constraints of time and funding and to maximise response rates, this study was limited to a selected sample of managers within organisations who have either employed graduates of the Bachelor of Business in Tourism or who have been associated with the School's internship program. Not all sectors were represented as the industry

sample was limited to the top four sectors that employed the School's Bachelor of Business in Tourism graduates at that time.

Furthermore, the measurement of students' managerial competence and managers' expectations of recent tourism and hospitality graduates' management competencies was limited to the constructs of the S.A.M.S. (DiPadova, 1990) instrument. This instrument measures 24 management competencies and eight managerial roles associated with Quinn *et al.*'s (1990) CVF, the theoretical model used for this study.

In addition to the limitations discussed above there are three assumptions made in this study. The first assumption is that the students will answer the questionnaire truthfully and with maturity. The second assumption is that the selected managers will answer the questionnaire thoughtfully and without bias. The final assumption is that the competency statements contained in the S.A.M.S. (DiPadova, 1990) instrument that describe the nature of managerial work will have relevance to tourism and hospitality industries.

3.9 CONCLUSION

Chapter Three has explained the methodology employed for this study and explained the statistical measures used to address the three research objectives and to test the two research hypotheses.

Section 3.2 introduced the survey instrument adopted for this study, the S.A.M.S. (DiPadova, 1990). The development and application of this instrument were also discussed. A three-stage approach was adopted for this research, each addressing a specific objective. Section 3.4 provided a brief overview of these stages. Section 3.5 detailed the methodology for Stage One of the research, which identified the sectors and sample frame to be used for the tourism and hospitality industries' survey. Sampling methods, survey procedures, response rates and analytical techniques were outlined.

Section 3.6 detailed the methodology for Stage Two of the research. Sampling methods, survey procedures, response rates and analytical techniques to test the first research hypothesis were discussed. Section 3.7 detailed the methodology for Stage Three of the research and the analytical techniques used to test the second research hypothesis. Finally, Section 3.8 outlined the limitations and assumptions associated with the methodology for this study.

Chapter Four presents the results of the data analysis by examining the findings of the hypotheses testing.

Chapter Four

Analysis and Interpretation of Results

4.1 INTRODUCTION

In Chapter Three the methodologies used in this study, were explained. Using the S.A.M.S. (DiPadova, 1990) instrument based on Quinn *et al.*'s (1990) CVF, quantitative data were collected from 153 tourism and hospitality managers and 32 students from Southern Cross University's Bachelor of Business in Tourism program. Data were analysed according to the methodology explained in Chapter Three. The findings of this analysis are presented in this chapter.

Section 4.2 presents the demographic profile of the respondents. Reliability results of the survey instrument and explanation of significance levels used for hypothesis testing are presented in Sections 4.3 and 4.4 respectively. Section 4.5 presents the findings of the statistical analysis of the study and examines these in terms of the three research objectives. Section 4.6 and 4.7 present and discuss the findings of testing the two research hypotheses. Section 4.8 draws together the main findings of the study in the context of the theoretical model used. Using the CVF (Quinn *et al.*, 1990), the students' pre- and post-internship profiles are plotted on a graph to identify their perceived style of management in relation to the eight roles in the model. In Section 4.9 the research hypotheses are summarised.

Conclusions to the chapter are presented in Section 4.10. Interpretation and discussion of the research findings are presented throughout the chapter.

4.2 DEMOGRAPHIC PROFILE OF RESPONDENTS

The total sample for the quantitative study comprised 32 Southern Cross University students and 153 managers within the hotel/resort, club, government and airline sectors of tourism and hospitality industries. Demographic statistics of students and industry respondents are presented and discussed in Sections, 4.2.1, 4.2.2 and 4.2.3.

4.2.1 Profile of Student Respondents

Table 4.1 presents the demographic statistics of the student sample including gender, age, level of previous positions held, level of educational qualification and the sector in which their internship was completed.

Table 4.1 **Demographic Profile of Students**

n=32		
Demographic		Percentage
Gender	Female	71.9 %
	Male	28.1 %
Age Group	19	3.1%
	20	59.4%
	21	31.3%
	22 – over	6.2%
Industry Sector for Internship	Hotels/Resorts	56.3%
	Airlines/Travel	15.6%
	Government	12.4%
	Clubs	6.3%
	Marketing /Consultancy	6.3%
	Attractions	3.1%
Highest Educational Qualification	University	nil
	Diploma	nil
	TAFE	6.0%
	HSC	94.0%
	School Certificate	nil
	No qualification	nil
Prior Work Experience	Supervisory	25.0%
	Non supervisory or operational	72.0%
	No experience	3.0%

Source: Primary-compiled for this study

Gender of Respondents

In terms of gender, Table 4.1 shows that approximately one third of the student sample were male and two thirds were female. This finding is broadly consistent with the distribution of males to females enrolled each year in the Bachelor of Business in Tourism at Southern Cross University.

Age of Respondents

Table 4.1 indicates that student respondents were aged between 19 and 23 as would be expected for this group of individuals. The majority of students (90.7%) were either 20 years (59.4%) or 21 years old (31.3%), while the remaining 9.0% were 19, 22 and 23 years of age.

Level of Formal Education Attained

Table 4.1 reveals that the majority of students (94.0%) held the Higher School Certificate as their highest educational qualification, while the remaining 6.0% had attained a TAFE qualification.

Level of Position Held Prior to Internship

In terms of previous experience, Table 4.1 indicates that almost three quarters (72.0%) of the student sample had previously worked in operational/non supervisory positions. A further one quarter had previously held supervisory positions and the remaining 3.0% had no previous experience. While the study did not determine whether this experience had been gained in tourism and hospitality industries, the majority of students in this sample had some experience in the workplace, prior to commencing their internship. This factor may have some influence on the level of students' management competencies in the pre-internship stage.

Industry Sector for Internship

Table 4.1 indicates that over half (56.3%) of this cohort of students were completing an internship placement within hotels or resorts. The remaining students undertook placements in the airlines/travel (15.6%), government departments (12.4%), clubs (6.3%), marketing/consultancies (6.3%) and tourist attractions (3.1%) sectors.

4.2.2 Profile of Tourism and Hospitality Industry Respondents

Table 4.2 presents the demographic statistics of the managers' sample including gender, age, current position held and highest educational level attained.

Table 4.2 *Demographic Profile of Tourism and Hospitality Industries' Respondents*

n=153		
Demographic		Percentage
Gender	Female	53.9%
	Male	46.1 %
Age of respondents	20-24	6.6%
	25-29	16.4%
	30-34	22.4%
	35-39	14.5%
	40-44	15.1%
	45-49	11.8%
	50-54	8.6%
	55-59	3.9%
	over 60	0.7%
Highest Educational Qualification	University degree	40.9%
	Diploma	21.5%
	TAFE Certificate	14.1%
	Higher School Certificate	18.8%
	School Certificate	3.4%
	No qualification	1.3%
Current Position	General Manager/Managers	38.6%
	Human Resource/Personnel Managers	37.9%
	Departmental Managers	16.3%
	Others	7.2%

Source: Primary-compiled for this study

Gender of Respondents

In terms of gender, the tourism and hospitality industries' sample was reasonably balanced. Table 4.2 shows that of all industry respondents 53.9% were male and 46.1% were female.

Age of Respondents

As seen in Table 4.2 the ages of respondents were mainly distributed between 25–49 years of age, with 60.5% of respondents being 39 years of age or younger. The category with the

largest percentage of industry respondents, 22.4%, were aged between 30–34 years of age. Approximately one third (29.6%) of respondents were aged between 35–44 years and 11.8% were in the 45–40 age category. Only 13.2% of respondents were over 50 years of age.

Current Position of Respondents

In terms of the respondents' position, Table 4.2 indicates the majority of respondents were general managers (38.6%) or human resource/personnel managers (37.9%). The remainder were either departmental managers (16.3%) or held other positions within the organisation (7.2%). In the 'other' category, respondents classified their positions as tourism supervisor, senior human resources/personnel supervisor, marketing co-ordinator and senior tourism advisor.

Highest Education Qualification Attained

The largest proportion of the industry respondents, 40.9% held a university degree, with 21.5% and 14.1% gaining qualifications to the diploma or TAFE certificate level, respectively. Just over three quarters of the respondents had some level of tertiary education. The remaining one quarter held a secondary educational qualification, with 18.8% and 3.4% reaching the higher school and school certificate levels, respectively. 1.3% (2 respondents) had no formal educational qualifications. It is worth noting that with the largest category having attained a university degree, these respondents were well placed to assess their expectations of the management competencies of graduates.

4.2.3 Profile of Tourism and Hospitality Respondents' Organisation

Table 4.3 presents the characteristics of the respondents' organisation including industry sector, geographic location, number of employees, and number of graduates previously employed.

Table 4.3 *Tourism and Hospitality Respondents' Organisational Profile*
n=153

Industry Sector	Government	28.1 %
	Hotels/resorts	27.5 %
	Clubs	25.5 %
	Airlines	19.0 %

Geographic Location	Sydney	26.6%
	Country New South Wales	32.9%
	Brisbane/Gold Coast	22.7%
	Country Queensland	3.8%
	Melbourne	4.4%
	Country Victoria	.6%
	Northern Territory	2.5%
	Tasmania	1.9%
	South Australia	1.9%
	Western Australia	1.3%
	Australian Capital Territory	1.3%
Number of full-time employees	less than 100	66.9%
	101 - 300	16.9%
	over 300	16.1%
Number of part-time employees	less than 100	64.7%
	101 - 300	11.8%
	over 300	4.6%
	none	18.9%
Employed graduates	yes	81.3 %
	no	18.7 %

Source: Primary-compiled for this study

Sector of The Industry

The sample was well distributed over each of the four industry sectors. Table 4.3 shows that the largest proportion of respondents (only marginally) were from the government sector (28.1%) followed closely by hotels/resorts, (26.8%) and the club sector, (25.5%). The remainder (19.0%) were from the airline sector.

Geographic Location

Table 4.3 provides a breakdown of the respondents' geographic location. All Australian states were represented in the sample. However, the majority of respondents were from New South Wales (59.5%) followed by Queensland (26.5%) with 5% of respondents from Victoria. The remaining were distributed over Northern Territory (2.5%), Tasmania and South Australia (1.9%), Western Australia (1.3%) and Australian Capital Territory (1.3%).

This sample is skewed towards the eastern Australian states, particularly New South Wales and Queensland, as the majority of graduates and internship organisations (which formed the sample population for this study) are located in these states.

Table 4.3 also provides the distribution of respondents between the capital cities and major country centres. 32.9% of NSW respondents (the highest percentage of the total sample) were located in major centres outside of Sydney.

Number of Employees within Respondents' Organisation

Respondents were asked to give the number of full-time and part-time/casual employees in their organisation to provide an indication of its size. As seen in Table 4.3, two third of respondents' organisations (66.9%) had less than 100 employees, 16.9% employed between 101 and 300 and 16.1% employed over 301. In terms of part-time or casual workers, just under two-thirds of the respondents' organisations (64.7%) employed less than 100 workers, 11.8% employed between 101 and 300 and only 3.9% employed over 300. The remainder (18.9%) of respondents indicated they did not employ casual or part-time workers. Therefore, the sample comprised small, medium and large enterprises.

Graduates Employed

As Table 4.3 reveals, the majority of respondents (81.3%) had previously employed university graduates within their organisation. Although the remaining 18.7% had not previously employed graduates they did respond to the survey indicating their expectations in relation to recent graduates of tourism and hospitality programs. Thus, overall it is considered that the sample of tourism and hospitality managers used for this study were well qualified to comment on the management competencies they expect of recent tourism and hospitality management graduates.

In summary, Section 4.2 has presented the demographic profiles of the students and tourism and hospitality respondents. Before the findings of the statistical analysis are presented. Section 4.3 will discuss the reliability of the survey instrument while Section 4.4 explains the significance levels used to test the research hypotheses.

4.3 RELIABILITY OF THE SURVEY INSTRUMENT

The S.A.M.S. (DiPadova, 1990) instrument comprises 113 competency statements that assesses an individual's ability with respect to three skills associated with eight managerial roles, for a total of 24 competencies in all. Mean scores for each competency statement are calculated to determine the level in each management competency. The mean scores of each set of three competencies are calculated to determine the level of competency in each role.

To establish the reliability of the items in the survey instrument as a consistent measure of the eight roles, reliability tests using Cronbach's alpha coefficient were performed. The results of these tests compared to Quinn's (1991) reliability scores are presented in Table 4.4.

Table 4.4 *Results of Reliability Analysis of the Self -Assessment of Managerial Skills Scale for Student and Industry Respondents Using Coefficient Alpha*

	Constructs (Managerial Roles)	Students pre- internship Alpha values n=32	Students post- internship Alpha values n=32	Managers Alpha values n=153	Quinn's (a) Alpha values n=600
1	Director	.7533	.7879	.8335	.83
2	Producer	.8098	.8964	.9103	.85
3	Co-ordinator	.8659	.8881	.9094	.76
4	Monitor	.8552	.8721	.9154	.89
5	Mentor	.8439	.8642	.9261	.88
6	Facilitator	.8765	.9352	.9567	.81
7	Innovator	.8030	.8800	.8531	.86
8	Broker	.8733	.9041	.9203	.81

(a): Quinn (1991: 179-180)

Note: The alpha values given by Quinn provided only two decimal places.

Source: Primary-compiled for this study

Reliability is reported in terms of an alpha coefficient, ranging between 0 and 1. The assumption underlying the reliability co-efficient is that items on a scale positively correlate with each other as they are measuring to some extent the same construct. The higher the coefficient (i.e. the closer to 1) the more reliable is the scale. A coefficient of 1 indicates perfect reliability. It is considered that alpha should be greater than 0.70 to be reliable (Norusis 1993:147).

As shown in Table 4.4, all the constructs (roles) have alpha values greater than 0.70. This suggests that the 113 competency statements and associated 24 management competencies are a reliable and consistent measure of the eight managerial roles. Furthermore, given this instrument was developed and validated overseas, these results indicate the instrument's validity in the Australian context.

Table 4.4 also presents the reliability results of a modified version of the S.A.M.S. (DiPadova, 1990) instrument, used by its developers to survey 600 subordinates in a US utility industry. As seen in Table 4.4, the alpha results in this current study are broadly consistent with those of Quinn (1991) in the US study.

4.4 EXPLANATION OF SIGNIFICANCE LEVELS FOR HYPOTHESIS TESTING

The statistical analysis used in this study to examine the data and test the previously stated hypotheses involved:

- One way analysis of variance (ANOVA) to compare mean scores for the 24 management competencies of tourism and hospitality managers by sector
- Paired sample t-tests to compare the students' pre and post-internship mean scores for the 24 management competencies and eight managerial roles
- An independent t-test to compare the students' post-internship mean scores with the tourism and hospitality industry managers' mean scores for the 24 management competencies and eight managerial roles

The decision to reject or accept the research hypotheses is based on the probability level or level of significance. The most commonly used probability level is the .05 level. This means that any factor that causes more than 5% variability in the data is considered to be the result of some influence, other than by mere chance (Leedy, 1985:205). The probability level used in analysing results determines the probability of committing a Type 1 error (rejecting a null hypothesis that is true). The greater the probability level used, the greater the chance is of making a Type 1 error (Ott, 1988; Zikmund, 1991; Gay, 1996).

The likelihood of Type 1 error was increased in this study due to the large number of comparisons conducted in each stage (24 tests for each hypothesis). Therefore, the Bonferroni Inequality, a control measure that adjusts for multiple comparisons, was applied. The Bonferroni Inequality implies that Type 1 error rate for a set of n tests (P total) is ; $P_{total} = P_1 + P_2 + P_3 + P + \dots + P_n$ (School of Behavioural Sciences 1987).

Therefore in this study, the chance of rejecting a true null hypothesis for the 24 tests, each at $P = 0.05$. is $P_{24} = 24 \times 0.05 = 1.20$. This means there is a 120 percent chance of falsely accepting a significant difference. This error rate is considered too high and an overall rate of 5% is more acceptable. Therefore, to adjust for Type 1 error rate, an appropriate P level has been specified for the statistical analysis in this study.

For the 24 management competency mean scores, the hypotheses will be tested at the P level of $P_{24} = 0.05/24 = 0.002$. Therefore, the probability level of $p = .002$ was used to

either accept or reject the hypotheses. If the p value was less than or equal to .002 then a significant difference is indicated and the research hypotheses accepted. If the p value is greater than .002 the research hypotheses would be rejected.

The $p = .002$ level may be considered fairly strict when compared to the more commonly used .05 level. Given the difference between these two values, significant differences that exist at both levels will be identified. However, the Bonferroni level of $p = .002$ has been used to either accept or reject each of the hypotheses for this study and therefore only these significant results will be discussed and examined further in this section.

4.5 RESULTS AND DISCUSSION PERTAINING TO THE RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

As discussed earlier, the general aims of this study have been expressed as three specific research objectives. This section presents results of the statistical analysis in terms of the mean scores of three sets of data to address these research objectives. These include managers' mean scores of their expectations of graduate's management competencies, a comparison of students' pre- and post-internship mean scores and a comparison of students' post-internship and managers' mean scores.

Summaries of the mean scores are presented and major findings and trends identified in the data are discussed in the sections below.

4.5.1 Mean Scores of Managers' Expectations of Graduates' Management Competencies

The first objective was to identify the management competencies that managers of organisations within tourism and hospitality industries expect of recent tourism and hospitality graduates.

To achieve this objective managers were asked to indicate their expectations of recent graduates' management competencies by responding to the 113 statements contained in the S.A.M.S. (DiPadova, 1990) instrument which measures 24 competencies and eight roles associated with Quinn *et al.* (1990) CVF. Mean scores were measured on a Likert scale of 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree), the results of which are presented in Table 4.5.

Table 4.5 *Mean Scores of Managers' Expectations of Graduates' Management Competencies*

	Management Competency/Role	Mean	Std Deviation
	Director Role	5.0877	.7290
1	Taking Initiative	5.1373	.8474
2	Goal Setting	5.3065	.9456
3	Delegating Effectively	4.7533	.8318
	Producer Role	5.1367	.8342
4	Personal Productivity and Motivation	5.6549	.8001
5	Motivating Others	4.9500	1.1503
6	Time and Stress Management	4.7984	.9933
	Co-ordinator Role	5.0261	.8380
7	Planning	5.4613	.9415
8	Organising	4.8136	.9046
9	Controlling	4.8497	1.0253
	Monitor Role	5.2379	.8542
10	Reducing Information Overload	5.2141	1.0330
11	Analysing Information with Critical Thinking	5.0343	.9437
12	Presenting Information: Writing Effectively	5.5245	.9274
	Mentor Role	5.1334	.9333
13	Understanding Yourself and Others	5.3631	.9735
14	Interpersonal Communication	5.0649	1.0258
15	Developing Subordinates	4.9341	1.1674
	Facilitator Role	5.0292	1.0615
16	Team Building	4.8747	1.2077
17	Participative Decision Making	5.2493	1.0353
18	Conflict Management	4.9096	1.1517
	Innovator Role	4.9811	.6672
19	Living with Change	4.9425	.7507
20	Creative Thinking	5.0224	.5934
21	Managing Change	4.9698	1.0606
	Broker Role	5.0706	.8492
22	Building and Maintaining a Power Base	4.8915	.9566
23	Negotiating Agreement and Commitment	5.1008	1.0093
24	Presenting Ideas	5.2281	.9844

Source: Primary-compiled for this study

As shown in Table 4.5:

- Managers' mean scores ranged from 5.6549 down to 4.7533. These results indicate that the managers in this study expect recent tourism and hospitality graduates to demonstrate a reasonable level of competence in all 24 management competencies in the S.A.M.S. (DiPadova, 1990) instrument.
- The competencies that managers most expect of recent graduates in descending order are Personal Productivity and Motivation, Presenting Information: Writing Effectively, Planning, Understanding Self and Others and Goal Setting. The competencies managers least expect of recent graduates are Delegating Effectively, Time and Stress Management, Organising, Team Building and Controlling. On a Likert scale of 1 to 7 the managers' lowest mean score was 4.7533 for Delegating Effectively and the highest mean score was 5.6549 for Personal Productivity and Motivation.
- Managers most expect graduates to be competent in the Monitor, Producer and Mentor Roles. They least expect graduates to be competent in the Innovator, Co-ordinator and Facilitator Roles. The managers' highest mean score was 5.2319 for the Monitor Role and the lowest mean score was 4.9811 for the Innovator Role.

4.5.2 Summary of Managers' ANOVA Results

Prior to testing the research hypotheses, the expectations of respondents from the four sectors were compared. This was necessary as the analysis to test the second hypothesis used the combined mean scores of total managers' responses. One way analysis of variance (ANOVA) is the appropriate test to use when comparing the means of more than two groups or levels of an independent variable (Coakes and Steed, 1996:65). Thus, differences between the managers' mean scores for the 24 management competencies within each industry sector were identified using an ANOVA. Table 4.6 presents these results. Appendix Ten contains the SPSS output.

Table 4.6 ANOVA Results Comparing Managers' Mean Scores by Sector

	Management Competency	F value	df	Sig.
1	Taking Initiative	2.723	(3,149)	.046*
2	Goal Setting	1.549	(3,149)	.204
3	Delegating Effectively	3.201	(3,149)	.025*
4	Personal Productivity and Motivation	1.118	(3,149)	.344
5	Motivating Others	.925	(3,149)	.430

6	Time and Stress Management	.736	(3,149)	.532
7	Planning	.776	(3,149)	.509
8	Organising	2.420	(3,149)	.068
9	Controlling	8.644	(3,149)	.000**
10	Reducing Information overload	1.616	(3,149)	.188
11	Analysing Information with Critical Thinking	1.850	(3,149)	.141
12	Presenting Information: Writing Effectively	2.528	(3,149)	.060
13	Understanding Yourself and Others	2.867	(3,149)	.039*
14	Interpersonal Communication	.078	(3,149)	.972
15	Developing Subordinates	1.395	(3,149)	.247
16	Team Building	1.112	(3,149)	.346
17	Participative Decision Making	1.205	(3,149)	.310
18	Conflict Management	1.621	(3,149)	.187
19	Living with Change	1.562	(3,149)	.201
20	Creative Thinking	2.143	(3,149)	.097
21	Managing Change	4.283	(3,149)	.006*
22	Building and Maintaining a Power Base	1.014	(3,149)	.388
23	Negotiating Agreement and Commitment	1.726	(3,149)	.164
24	Presenting Ideas: Effective Oral Presentation	1.691	(3,149)	.171

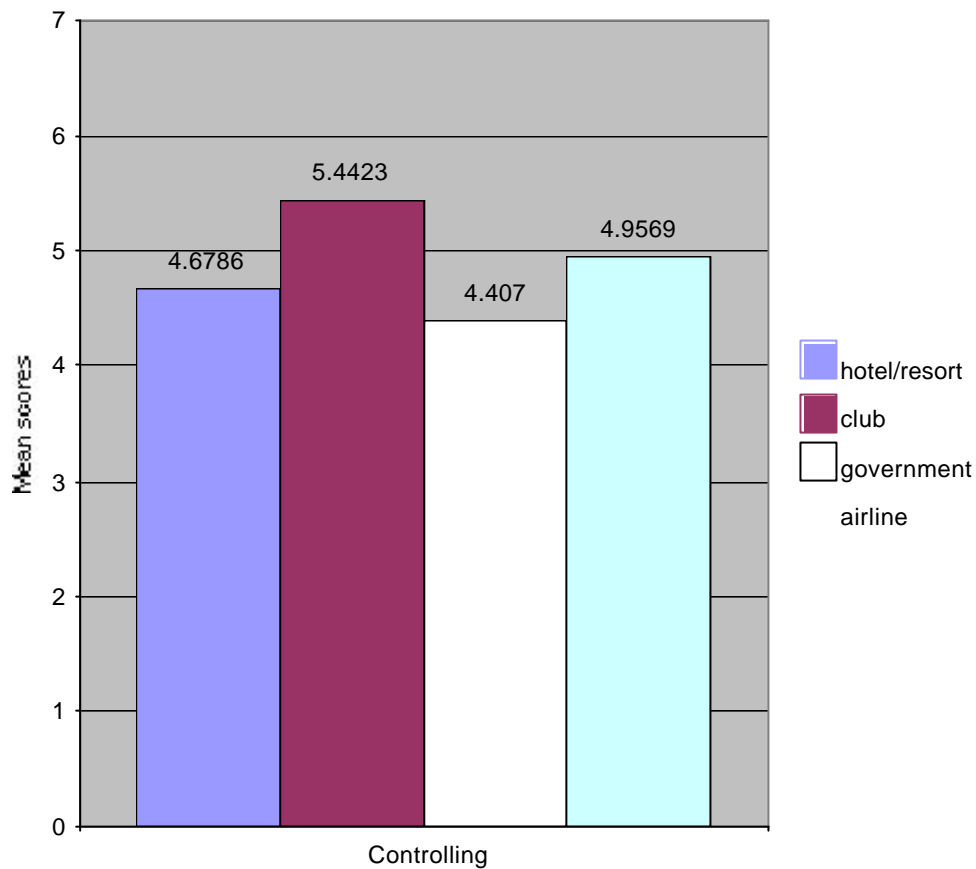
* Significance at the $p=.05$ level.

**Significance at the $P=.002$ level.

Source: Primary-compiled for this study

Table 4.6, shows that a significant difference exists between sectors at the $p=.002$ level in one of the 24 management competencies - Controlling (F ratio=8.644, $p=.000$).

To determine the sectors where this significant difference lies, the results of the post-hoc tests were examined. The differences in the managers' mean scores for each sector in this competency are represented visually in Figure 4.1, below.

Figure 4.1 *Differences in Mean Scores for Controlling by Sector*

Source: Primary compiled for this study

There was a significant difference ($p=.000$) in Controlling, between the mean scores of club and government managers. Given that managers between these two sectors differed significantly in their expectations, for this competency, independent t-tests were performed on the managers' (for each sector) and students' post-internship mean scores for this competency, to identify any further significant differences. Results of this analysis are presented below.

Results of the ANOVA found a significant difference at the $p=.002$ level, between students' post-internship and club managers' mean scores.

	t value	p value	mean difference
Controlling	3.148	.002	.6220

While this test has identified a significant difference in means scores, the actual numerical difference of (.6220) between the mean scores does not appear to be great. There were no significant differences in students' post-internship and government managers' mean scores.

These results indicate that the managers in each of the four sectors have statistically similar expectations in relation to the competencies of graduates with tourism and hospitality degrees, except in the competency of Controlling.

4.5.3 Comparison of Students' Pre- and Post-internship Mean Scores

The second research objective was to determine whether students' management competencies are developed during the internship component of Southern Cross University's Bachelor of Business in Tourism degree.

To achieve this objective, students were asked to self-assess their level of managerial competence before and after internship by responding to the 113 statements contained in the S.A.M.S. (DiPadova, 1990) instrument. These scores were then compared to identify any changes that occurred in students' management competence during the internship period. Mean scores were measured on a Likert scale of 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree), the results of which are presented in Table 4.7. Results of testing the first hypothesis to address the second research objective are presented in Section 4.6.

Table 4.7 *Comparison of Students' Pre- and Post-internship and Mean Scores*

Management Competency/Role		Status n = 32	Mean	Differences in Means	Std Deviation
Director Role		student-pre	4.9561	+.2984	.5925
		student-post	5.2545		
1	Taking Initiative	student-pre	4.9688	+.3062	.7888
		student-post	5.2750		
2	Goal Setting	student-pre	4.9813	+.4000	.7826
		student-post	5.3813		
3	Delegating Effectively	student-pre	4.9219	+.1484	.7948
		student-post	5.0703		
Producer Role		student-pre	4.8272	+.2436	.6333
		student-post	5.0708		
4	Personal Productivity and Motivation	student-pre	5.3812	+.2125	.7643
		student-post	5.5937		

5	Motivating Others	student-pre student-post	4.6844 4.7688	+0.0844	.6570 .8177
6	Time and Stress Management	student-pre student-post	4.4078 4.8500	+0.4422	1.1337 1.0324
Co-ordinator Role		student-pre student-post	4.6093 5.0168	+0.4075	.7113 .6435
7	Planning	student-pre student-post	5.1484 5.3984	+0.2500	.8469 .7124
8	Organising	student-pre student-post	4.5172 4.9688	+0.4516	.7194 .7520
9	Controlling	student-pre student-post	4.1849 4.8303	+0.6354	.9054 .7316
Monitor Role		student-pre student-post	4.8381 5.3147	+0.4767	.7173 .6788
10	Reducing Information Overload	student-pre student-post	4.6625 5.3250	+0.6625	1.0948 1.0616
11	Analysing Information with Critical Thinking	student-pre student-post	4.7729 5.0375	+0.2646	.6830 .6862
12	Presenting Information: Writing Effectively	student-pre student-post	5.1432 5.6484	+0.5052	.8420 .7347
Mentor Role		student-pre student-post	5.3025 5.5469	+0.2444	.6144 .5699
13	Understanding Yourself and Others	student-pre student-post	5.4875 5.6188	+0.1313	.7308 .7350
Management Competency/Role		Status n = 32	Mean	Differences in Means	Std Deviation
14	Interpersonal Communication	student-pre student-post	5.3641 5.6875	+0.3234	.7935 .6179
15	Developing Subordinates	student-pre student-post	4.9792 5.2813	+0.3021	.7649 .6683
Facilitator Role		student-pre student-post	4.8956 4.9519	+0.0563	.6553 .6585
16	Team Building	student-pre student-post	4.7214 4.9219	+0.2005	.8020 .7737
17	Participative Decision Making	student-pre student-post	5.1328 4.8313	-0.3016	.7029 .6626
18	Conflict Management	student-pre student-post	4.7734 5.1328	+0.3594	.8215 .7212
Innovator Role		student-pre student-post	4.6885 4.9336	+0.2451	.5144 .6216
19	Living with Change	student-pre student-post	4.9000 4.9938	+0.0938	.5909 .7157
20	Creative Thinking	student-pre student-post	4.6865 4.8646	+0.1781	.5938 .6591

21	Managing Change	student-pre student-post	4.4734 4.9563	+0.4828	.7727 .8203
	Broker Role	student-pre student-post	4.5517 4.9286	+0.3768	.7808 .7744
22	Building and Maintaining a Power Base	student-pre student-post	4.7984 4.9375	+0.1391	.6570 .6534
23	Negotiating Agreement and Commitment	student-pre student-post	4.8359 5.1328	+0.2969	.5806 .7184
24	Presenting Ideas	student-pre student-post	4.0797 4.7563	+0.6766	1.4427 1.3704

Source: Primary-compiled for this study

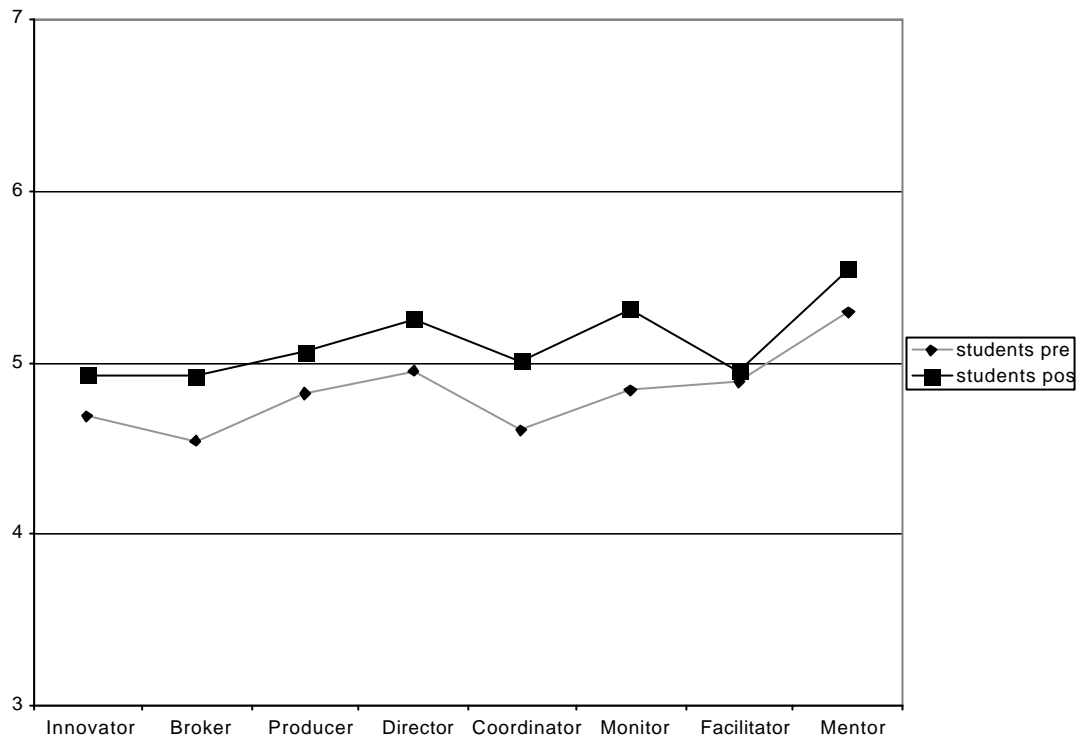
As shown in Table 4.7:

- Students' pre-internship mean scores ranged from 5.4875 to 4.0797. These relatively high scores for students' pre-internship, may be partly due to the fact that the majority of this group of students have already worked at an operational level in previous positions and may have had the opportunity to apply or practice these skills. Alternatively, these skills may have been developed through coursework in their degree program.
- Pre-internship, the competencies in which students perceived they were most confident are Understanding Self and Others, Personal Productivity and Motivation, Interpersonal Communication, Planning and Presenting Information by Writing Effectively. The competencies in which they were least confident are Presenting Ideas, Controlling, Time and Stress Management, Managing Change and Organising. On a Likert scale of 1 to 7 the students' lowest pre-internship mean score was 4.0797 for Presenting Ideas and their highest mean score was 5.4875 for Understanding Self and Others.
- Students pre-internship perceived they were most competent in the Mentor, Director and Facilitator Roles. They were least competent in the Broker, Innovator and Co-ordinator Roles. The students' highest pre-internship mean score was 5.3025 for the Mentor Role and the lowest mean score was 4.5517 for the Broker Role.
- Students' post-internship mean scores ranged from 5.6188 to 4.7563 on the Likert scale of 1 to 7. Students perceived a relatively high level of competence for the 24 management competencies after internship.

- Post-internship, the competencies in which students perceived they were most confident are Interpersonal Communication, Presenting Information by Writing Effectively, Understanding Self and Others, Personal Productivity and Motivation, and Planning. The competencies in which they were least confident are Presenting Ideas, Motivating Others, Controlling, Participative Decision Making and Time and Stress Management. On a Likert scale of 1 to 7 the students' lowest pre-internship mean score was 4.7563 for Presenting Ideas and their highest mean score was 5.6875 for Interpersonal Communication.
- Students post-internship, perceived they were most competent in the Mentor, Monitor and Director Roles. They perceived to be least competent in the Broker, Innovator, Facilitator Roles. The students' highest pre-internship mean score was 5.5469 for the Mentor Role and the lowest mean score was 4.9286 for the Broker Role.
- Students' post-internship mean scores were higher than their pre-internship mean scores for 23 of the 24 management competencies. The exception, was 'Participation', where the students' post-internship mean score decreased from 5.1328 down to a mean score of 4.8313.
- A comparison of students' pre- and post-internship mean scores found those competencies indicating the greatest numerical difference were Presenting Ideas (+.6766), Reducing Information Overload (+.6625) and Controlling (+.6534). The management competencies indicating the least numerical difference in mean scores were Motivating Others (+.0844), Living with Change (+.0938) and Understanding Self and Others (+.1313).

Figure 4.2 provides a visual comparison of students' pre- and post-internship mean scores in each of the eight managerial roles. As seen in Figure 4.2, students' pre-internship mean scores were greater than their post-internship mean scores for all eight roles of the CVF (Quinn *et al.*, 1990). The greatest numerical difference of (+.4767) occurred in the Monitor Role with the least numerical difference of (+.0563) in the Facilitator Role. The low difference in the Facilitator Role is due to a decrease after internship in students' mean scores for the competency of Participative Decision Making.

Figure 4.2 *Comparison of Managerial Roles for Students Pre- and Post-internship*



Source: Primary-compiled for this study

Having identified the managers' expectations of graduates and students pre- and post-internship mean scores which addressed the first and second objectives of this study, Section 4.5.4 will partly address the third objective by comparing the rankings for the mean scores of both these groups.

4.5.4 Comparison of Rankings of Managers Expectations and Students Post-internship Competencies

The third objective was to determine whether the management competencies of Southern Cross University's Bachelor of Business in Tourism students meet the expectations of selected managers of organisations in four tourism and hospitality sectors.

To address this objective, the managers' and students' post-internship mean scores were ranked and compared. This comparison demonstrates the level of congruence between the managers' expectations and students' self-assessment of their management competencies, at

the completion of internship. Results of testing the second research hypothesis addressing the third research objective are presented in Section 4.7.

Table 4.8 compares the managers' mean scores for the 24 competencies in descending order, with the associated mean scores of students' self-rating of their post-internship competencies.

Table 4.8 *Rankings of Managers' and Students' Post-internship Mean Scores*

Management Competency	Manager mean A	Student mean B	Difference in means A-B	Manager rank C	Student rank D	Difference in ranks C-D
Personal Productivity and Motivation	5.6549	5.5937	-.0602	1	4	-3
Presenting Information: Writing Effectively	5.5245	5.6484	+.1239	2	2	0
Planning	5.4613	5.3984	-.0761	3	5	-2
Understanding Yourself and Others	5.3631	5.6188	+.2557	4	3	1
Goal Setting	5.3065	5.3813	+.0747	5	6	-1
Participative Decision Making	5.2493	4.8313	-.4181	6	21	-15
Presenting Ideas	5.2281	4.7563	-.4719	7	24	-18
Reducing Information Overload	5.2141	5.3250	+.1109	8	7	1
Taking Initiative	5.1373	5.2750	+.1377	9	9	0
Negotiating Agreement and Commitment	5.1008	5.1328	+.0321	10	11	-1
Interpersonal Communication	5.0649	5.6875	+.6226	11	1	10
Analysing Information with Critical Thinking	5.0343	5.0375	+.0032	12	13	-1
Creative Thinking	5.0224	4.8646	-.1579	13	19	-4
Managing Change	4.9698	4.9563	-.0135	14	16	-2
Motivating Others	4.9500	4.7688	-.1812	15	23	-8
Living with Change	4.9425	4.9938	+.0513	16	14	2
Management Competency	Manager mean A	Student mean B	Difference in means A-B	Manager rank C	Student rank D	Difference in ranks C-D
Developing Subordinates	4.9341	5.2813	+.3472	17	8	9
Conflict Management	4.9096	5.1328	+.2322	18	10	8

Building and Maintaining a Power Base	4.8915	4.9375	+0.0460	19	17	2
Team Building	4.8747	4.9219	+0.0472	20	18	2
Controlling	4.8497	4.8203	-.0294	21	22	1
Organising	4.8136	4.9688	+1.1552	22	15	7
Time and Stress Management	4.7984	4.8500	+0.0516	23	20	3
Delegating Effectively	4.7533	5.0703	+0.3170	24	12	12

Source: Primary-compiled for this study

Table 4.8 indicates in descending rank order, managers' mean scores in column (A) and the students' mean scores in column (B). Column (A-B) indicates differences in mean scores between managers and students. Columns C and D indicate rankings for managers' and students' mean scores and column (C-D) indicates the difference in the ranks.

The rankings of managers' and students' post-internship scores indicate some interesting findings. Given that students at the completion of the internship period are ready to graduate, these rankings provide valuable insight into how close the students are to meeting industry expectations, as they start their careers and seek longer term employment within tourism and hospitality industries.

Table 4.8 shows that:

- Students' post-internship mean scores were greater than managers' mean scores for 16 of the 24 management competencies. Students' post-internship mean scores were lower than managers' mean scores in Personal Productivity and Motivation, Motivating Others, Planning, Controlling, Participative Decision Making, Creative Thinking, Managing Change and Presenting Ideas.
- A comparison of students' post-internship and managers' mean scores found those competencies indicating the greatest numerical difference were Interpersonal Communication (+.6226), Presenting Ideas (-.4719) and Personal Productivity and Motivation (-.4181). The management competencies indicating the least numerical difference in mean scores were Analysing Information with Critical Thinking (+.0032), Managing Change (-.0135) and Controlling (+.0032).
- Students' highest and lowest post-internship mean scores were reasonably aligned with managers' mean scores.

Of particular interest was the managers' ranking (23) of Time and Stress Management. While reasonably congruent with the students' ranking this result conflicts with the DEETYA (1998) findings that employers see time management as important for all levels of management. According to research conducted by DEETYA, recruiters seek graduates with proven ability to manage their time effectively. It is recognised that this competency is difficult to assess. However, students who have held down a job, involved themselves in activities such as a sport and perform academically, in combination, are evidence of effective time management (DEETYA, 1998). It is noted however, that the literature examining the skills required for new graduates and trainee managers in tourism and hospitality industries, did not raise this competency as a major issue.

The rankings in Table 4.8 also show in descending order the five competencies in which students perceived they were most competent at the completion of internship. These were Interpersonal Communication, Presenting Information: Writing Effectively, Understanding Self and Others, Personal Productivity and Motivation and Planning. These are reasonably aligned with the five competencies managers expect most of graduates - Personal Productivity and Motivation, Presenting Information: Writing Effectively, Planning, Understanding Self and Others, and Goal Setting. The difference noted was that students ranked Interpersonal Communication in the top five and managers ranked Planning in the top five competencies.

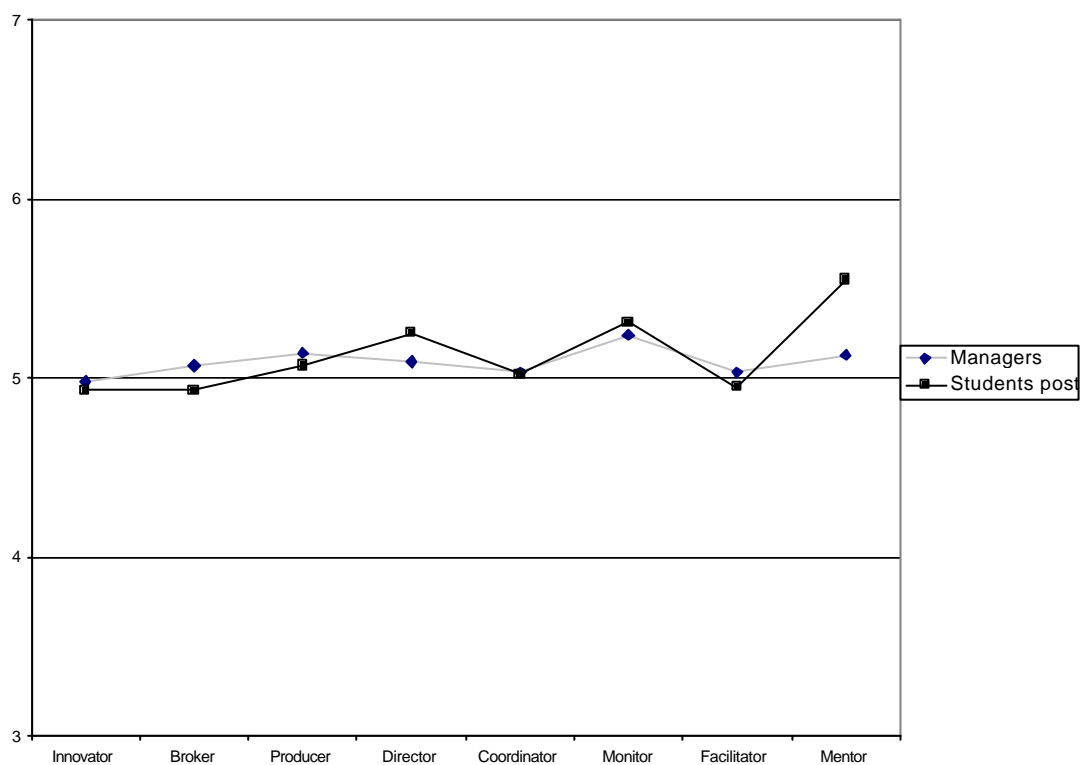
The five competencies in which students' perceived they were least competent are Presenting Ideas, Motivating Others, Controlling, Participative Decision Making and Time and Stress Management. There were some differences noted in the five competencies that managers' least expect of graduates- Delegating Effectively, Time and Stress Management, Organising, Controlling and Team Building. There were two competencies worth noting in these results. First, students perceived they were least competent in Presenting Ideas, in contrast with the literature that revealed this was an important competency not just for graduates but for all levels of managers to possess. Second, managers in this study placed less importance on Team Building over many other competencies. Again this contrasts with the literature on what the industry expects of graduates. Both these inconsistencies are discussed later in this chapter.

Overall, the differences in means in Table 4.8 shows that many of the students' mean scores were closely aligned with those of the managers. While there are a number of marked differences in rankings between managers' and students' mean scores, particularly regarding Interpersonal Communication (10), Delegating Effectively (12), Participative Decision Making (-15) and Presenting Ideas (-18), the actual numerical difference in the mean scores

is not extensive. As discussed in Section 4.7, of these four competencies, only Interpersonal Communication was significantly different and in this competency students' perceived they were more competent than what managers expected.

Figure 4.3 provides a visual comparison of students' post-internship and managers' mean scores in each of the eight managerial roles. As seen in Figure 4.3, students' perceptions were reasonably close to the managers' expectations in all of the eight roles. Students' mean scores were greater than the managers' in three of the eight roles. The largest difference was noted in the Mentor Role where students' exceeded managers' expectations with a mean difference of +.4134. The least difference of +.0092 was noted in the Co-ordinator Role.

Figure 4.3 *Comparison of Student's Post-Internship and Managers' Mean scores*



Source: Primary-compiled for this study

This section has discussed the findings of this study that specifically address the three research objectives. The results of testing the two research hypotheses for this study will be discussed in the following Sections, 4.6 and 4.7.

4.6 HYPOTHESIS ONE FINDINGS

The first research hypothesis proposed that students' pre-internship mean scores will be significantly lower than their post-internship mean scores with respect to the 24 management competencies and eight managerial roles associated with Quinn *et al.*'s (1990) CVF.

To test the first hypothesis, paired sample t-tests were performed on students' pre- and post- internship mean scores for the 24 management competencies and eight managerial roles. Significant differences at the $p=.05$ and $p=.002$ have been identified. However, only those competencies and roles with significant differences at the $p=.002$ level are examined and discussed in this section.

Table 4.9 presents the results of the paired sample t-tests used to test Hypothesis One. Appendix Eleven contains the SPSS output of these tests.

Table 4.9 *Results of Paired Sample T-Tests Comparing Students' Pre- and Post-internship Managerial Competence*

Management Competency/Role	Student Intern Status n = 32	Mean scores	Differences in means scores	t value	df	Sig. 2 tailed
Director Role	Pre-intern	4.9561	+.2984	+2.491	31	.018*
	Post-intern	5.2545				
Taking Initiative	Pre-intern	4.9688	+.3062	+2.348	31	.025 *
	Post-intern	5.2750				
Goal Setting	Pre-intern	4.9813	+.4000	+2.522	31	.017*
	Post-intern	5.3813				
Delegating Effectively	Pre-intern	4.9219	+.1484	+.915	31	.367
	Post-intern	5.0703				
Producer Role	Pre-intern	4.8272	+.2436	+2.161	31	.039*
	Post-intern	5.0708				
Personal Productivity and Motivation	Pre-intern	5.3812	+.2125	+1.641	31	.111
	Post-intern	5.5937				
Motivating Others	Pre-intern	4.6844	+.0844	+.703	31	.487
	Post-intern	4.7688				
Time and Stress Management	Pre-intern	4.4078	+.4422	+2.332	31	.026*
	Post-intern	4.8500				
Co-ordinator Role	Pre-intern	4.6093	+.4075	+3.342	31	.002**
	Post-intern	5.0168				
Planning	Pre-intern	5.1484	+.2500	+1.599	31	.120
	Post-intern	5.3984				

Organising	Pre-intern Post-intern	4.5172 4.9688	+4516	+3.485	31	.001**
Controlling	Pre-intern Post-intern	4.1849 4.8303	+.6354	+3.288	31	.000**
Monitor Role	Pre-intern Post-intern	4.8381 5.3147	+.4767	+4.095	31	.000**
Reducing Information Overload	Pre-intern Post-intern	4.6625 5.3250	+.6625	+3.416	31	.002**
Management Competency/Role	Student Intern Status n = 32	Mean scores	Differences in means scores	t value	df	Sig. 2 tailed
Analysing Information with Critical Thinking	Pre-intern Post-intern	4.7729 5.0375	+.2646	+2.452	31	.020*
Presenting Information: Writing Effectively	Pre-intern Post-intern	5.1432 5.6484	+.5052	+3.693	31	.001**
Mentor Role	Pre-intern Post-intern	5.3025 5.5469	+.2444	+2.217	31	.034*
Understanding Yourself and Others	Pre-intern Post-intern	5.4875 5.6188	+.1313	+.948	31	.350
Interpersonal Communication	Pre-intern Post-intern	5.3641 5.6875	+.3234	+2.563	31	.015*
Developing Subordinates	Pre-intern Post-intern	4.9792 5.2813	+.3021	+2.061	31	.048*
Facilitator Role	Pre-intern Post-intern	4.8956 4.9519	+.0563	+.521	31	.606
Team Building	Pre-intern Post-intern	4.7214 4.9219	-.2005	+1.663	31	.106
Participative Decision Making	Pre-intern Post-intern	5.1328 4.8313	-.3016	-1.213	31	.234
Conflict Management	Pre-intern Post-intern	4.7734 5.1328	+.3594	+2.678	31	.012*
Innovator Role	Pre-intern Post-intern	4.6885 4.9336	+.2451	-2.5319	31	.016*
Living with Change	Pre-intern Post-intern	4.9000 4.9938	+.0938	+.752	31	.458
Creative Thinking	Pre-intern Post-intern	4.6865 4.8646	+.1781	+1.741	31	.092
Managing Change	Pre-intern Post-intern	4.4734 4.9563	+.4828	+3.773	31	.001**
Broker Role	Pre-intern Post-intern	4.5517 4.9286	+.3768	+3.825	31	.001**
Building and Maintaining a Power Base	Pre-intern Post-intern	4.7984 4.9375	+.1391	+1.300	31	.203
Negotiating Agreement and Commitment	Pre-intern Post-intern	4.8359 5.1328	+.2969	+2.613	31	.014*

Presenting Ideas	Pre-intern	4.0797	+.6766	+3.415	31	.002**
	Post-intern	4.7563				

* Significance at the $p=.05$ level

** Significance at the $p=.002$ level

Source: Primary-compiled for this study

Table 4.9 shows that students' pre-internship mean scores were significantly lower than their post-internship mean scores at the $p=.002$ level, for six of the 24 competencies. These comprised Organising, Controlling, Reducing Information Overload, Presenting Information: Writing Effectively, Managing Change and Presenting Ideas. In terms of roles, significant differences were exhibited at the $p=.002$ level for three of the eight managerial roles. These comprised the Co-ordinator, Monitor and Broker Roles.

All competencies and roles that exhibited significant differences (at the $p=.002$ level) in students' perception pre- and post-internship, have been visually represented below using bar charts. These charts demonstrate the extent of the mean score differences in relation to the other competencies in the associated management role.

4.6.1 The Co-ordinator Role

Overall the Co-ordinator role comprises a total of 13 competency statements which measure the competencies of Planning, Organising and Controlling. The t-test for this role indicated a significant difference between students' pre- and post-internship mean scores where $p=.002$ and $t=-3.342$.

Students' pre-internship mean scores were significantly lower than their post-internship mean scores in two competencies in the Co-ordinator Role:

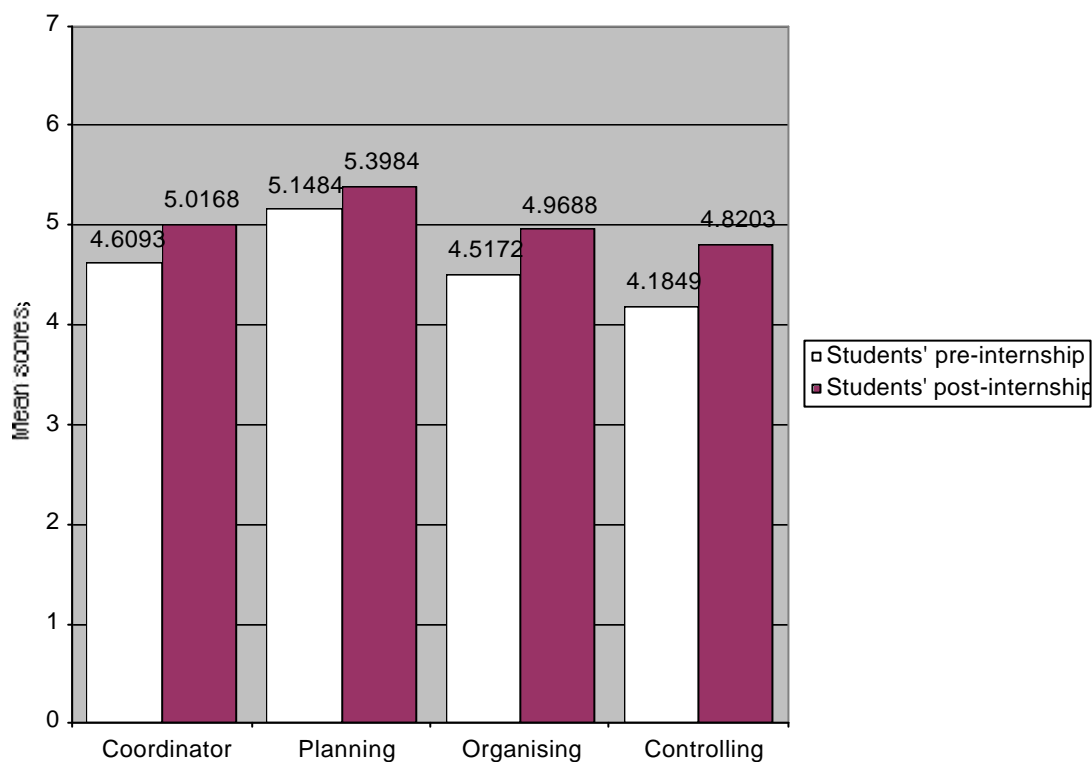
	t value	p value
Organising	-3.485	.001
Controlling	-3.920	.000

Of the 24 management competencies, Controlling also reported the third highest numerical difference (+.6354) in students' pre- and post-internship mean scores. These results indicate that students perceived they were more competent in the Co-ordinator Role,

particularly regarding Organising and Controlling, after the completion of the internship period.

Figure 4.4 presents the differences in students' pre- and post-internship mean scores, for the Co-ordinator Role and the three associated management competencies.

Figure 4.4 *Differences in Students' Pre- and Post-internship Mean Scores in the Co-ordinator Role*



Source: Primary-compiled for this study

4.6.2 The Monitor Role

Overall the Monitor role comprises a total of 14 competency statements which measure the competencies of Reducing Information Overload, Analysing Information with Critical Thinking and Presenting Information by Writing Effectively. The t-test for this role indicated a significant difference between students' pre- and post-internship mean scores where $p=.000$ and $t=-4.095$.

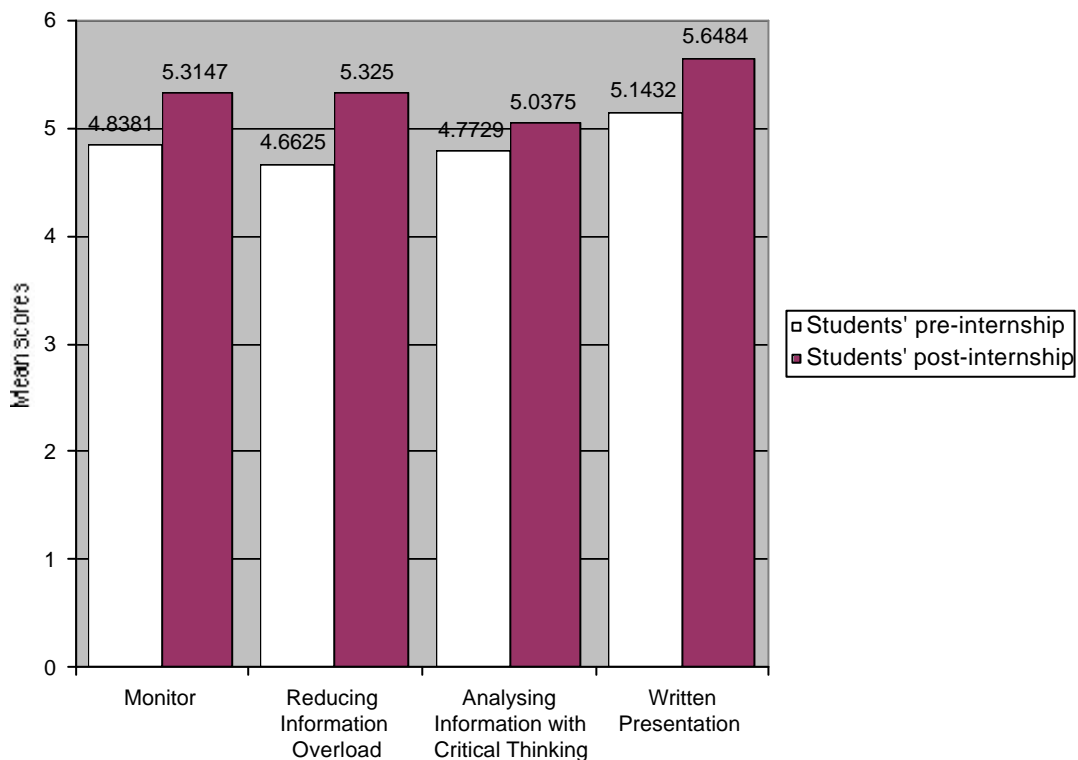
Students' pre-internship mean scores were significantly lower than their post-internship mean scores in two competencies in the Monitor Role:

	t value	p value
Reducing Information Overload	3.416	.002
Presenting Information by Writing Effectively	3.693	.001

Of the 24 management competencies, Reducing Information Overload reported the second highest numerical difference (+.6625) in students' pre- and post-internship mean scores. These results indicate that students' perceived they were more competent in the Monitor Role after completion of the internship period, particularly regarding Reducing Information Overload and Presenting Information by Writing Effectively.

Figure 4.5 presents the differences in students' pre- and post-internship mean scores, for the Monitor Role and the three associated management competencies.

Figure 4.5 *Differences in Students' Pre- and Post-internship Mean Scores in the Monitor Role*



Source: Primary-compiled for this study

4.6.3 The Innovator Role

Overall the Innovator role comprises a total of 16 competency statements which measure the competencies of Living with Change, Creative Thinking and Managing Change. The t-test for this role did not indicate a significant difference at the $p=.002$ level, between students' pre- and post-internship mean scores.

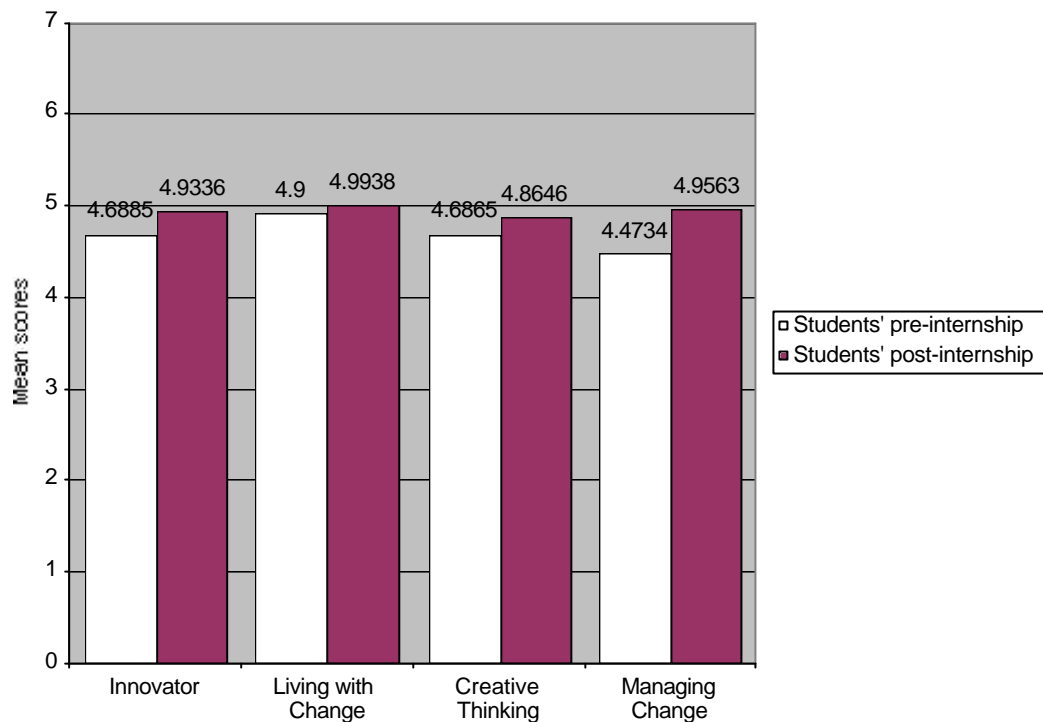
Students' pre-internship mean scores were significantly lower than their post-internship mean scores in one competency in the Innovator Role:

	t value	p value
Managing Change	3.773	.001

These results indicate that students' perceived they were more competent in Managing Change after completion of the internship period.

Figure 4.6 presents the differences in students' pre- and post-internship mean scores, for the Innovator Role and the three associated management competencies.

Figure 4.6 *Differences in Students' Pre- and Post-internship Mean Scores in the Innovator Role*



Source: Primary-compiled for this study

4.6.4 Broker Role

Overall the Broker role comprises a total of 14 competency statements which measure the competencies of Building and Maintaining a Power Base, Negotiating Agreement and Commitment and Presenting Ideas. The t-test for this role indicated a significant difference between students' pre- and post-internship mean scores where $p=.001$ and $t=-3.825$.

Students' pre-internship mean scores were significantly lower than their post-internship mean scores in one competency in the Broker Role:

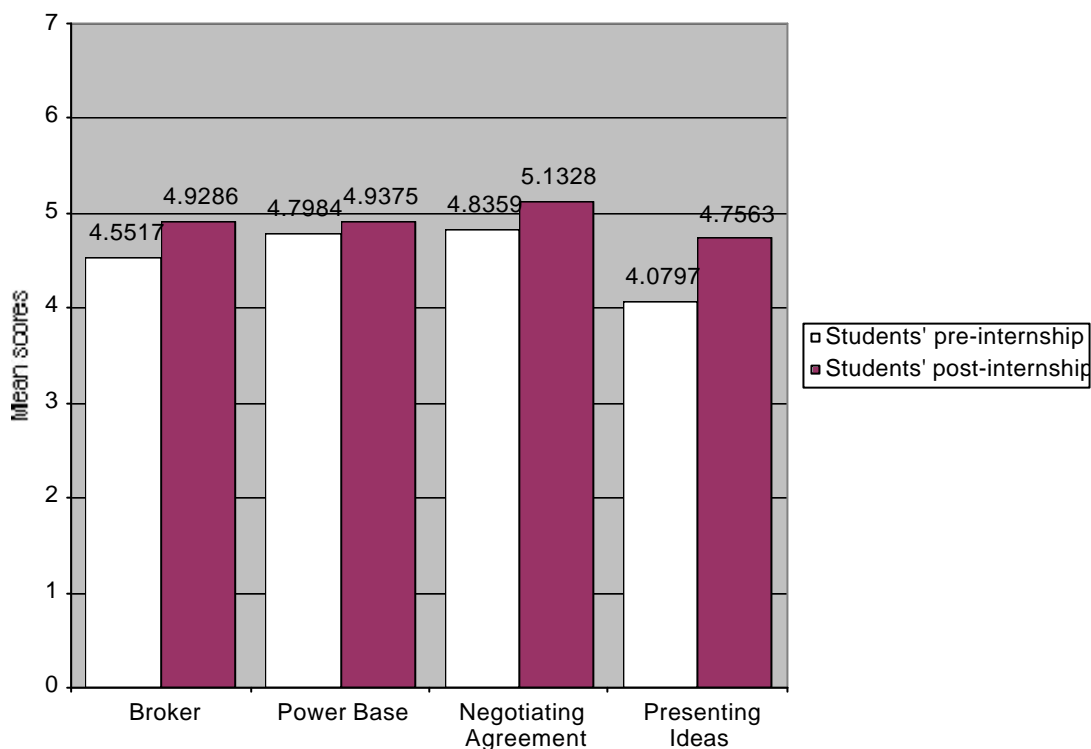
	t value	p value
Presenting Ideas	-3.415	.002

This competency reported the highest numerical difference (+.6766) in students' pre- and post-internship mean scores of the 24 management competencies. These results indicate that

students perceived they were more competent in the Broker Role after the completion of the internship period, particularly regarding Presenting Ideas.

Figure 4.7 presents the differences in students' pre- and post-internship mean scores, for the Broker Role and the three associated management competencies.

Figure 4.7 *Differences in Students' Pre- and Post-internship Mean Scores in the Broker Role*



Source: Primary-compiled for this study

4.6.5 Summary of Hypothesis One Findings

In summary, the results of the statistical analysis to test the first research hypothesis show that students' pre-internship mean scores were significantly lower than their post-internship mean scores at the $p=.002$ level, for the competencies of Organising, Controlling, Reducing Information Overload, Presenting Information: Writing Effectively, Managing Change and Presenting Ideas. In terms of roles, significant differences were exhibited at the $p=.002$ level for the Co-ordinator, Monitor and Broker Roles. These results indicate that the students in this study perceived their level of managerial competence had increased after the completion of their internship placement in six of the 24 management competencies and three of the eight managerial roles.

Therefore, the first hypothesis has only been partially supported as empirical support was found for only six management competencies and three managerial roles.

4.6.6 Discussion of Hypothesis One Findings

Discussion in relation to Hypothesis One findings will concentrate on three main areas. Firstly, it will examine whether the findings of this study support previous research into the role of internship in developing students' management competencies. Second, it will examine the specific nature and importance of the competencies and roles that students reported as having significantly improved over the internship period. The final part of this discussion identifies which of the management models of the CVF (Quinn *et al.*, 1990) students reported the greatest development in, during internship.

Comparison of Results with Research into the Role of Internship in Developing Students' Management Competencies

As discussed in Section 2.9, educators in the hospitality field, particularly the hotel sector, argue strongly that some form of practical training is a critical component of the curriculum (Casado, 1991; Petrillose and Montgomery, 1998) and suggest some form of 'on the job' training is necessary to develop students' managerial traits and skills (Knight, 1984; Tas, 1988). Furthermore, industry recruiters agree that these experiences should provide students the opportunity to develop important leadership, problem solving and customer relation skills (Petrillose and Montgomery, 1998). Students themselves perceive that an industry placement is an opportunity to develop work related, personal, interpersonal and communication skills and to gain a better understanding of organisational issues (Davies, 1990 in McMahon and Quinn, 1995).

Many other studies have consistently indicated that practical work experience is a vital component of any tourism/hospitality program, providing students with opportunities to relate theory to work place practices. Furthermore, it is argued that internships are fundamental in developing key management competencies in students. The students in this current study reported significant development in six management competencies after completing internship. These results are reasonably consistent with the literature examining this issue.

For example, LeBruto and Murray's study of US academics, hotel recruiters and students found that 'practical work experience' was an essential component of a hotel management curriculum (LeBruto and Murray, 1994). The management competencies tested in this study

included competencies in basic management, human resource management, labour cost control, effective oral communication, effective written communication, solving customer problems, professional appearance and poise, professional standards, positive peer working relationships and ethics (LeBruto and Murray, 1994). The students in the Southern Cross University (SCU) study, also reported significant development in some of these competencies over the internship period.

It is reported that a hands-on approach to educating hospitality managers not only supports management principles learnt in theory but also provides students with the opportunity to practice and review their competence and skills within a real world environment (DiMicelli, 1998). The ability to learn these competencies will depend to some extent on a number of factors such as the type of placement, level of work experience and the quality of supervision in place. Consequently, a more structured internship will greatly facilitate students development of primary competencies (Tas, 1988). It is therefore important to note that, while this sample of students exhibited significant developments in the areas stated, it may be different for another cohort of students.

Australian research in a tourism-related industry which examined the contribution that internship makes to developing students' management competencies, adds partial support to the findings of this present study. Bell and Schmidt (1996) reported the link between field practicum and skills development from the students' perspective. Their study found the strongest support for students' skill development was in the area of interpersonal communication, planning, special project co-ordination and teamwork. Research findings presented in the *Karpin Report* (1995), also add support to the findings of the SCU research. Skills may be developed in a variety of ways and most importantly, work experience plays a significant role in managers' skills development (Telechy Consulting, 1995 in Karpin, 1995).

There are many views held on the types of competencies that students can develop as a result of a practical component in their degree. In general prior research indicates that students have the opportunity to develop a range of management competencies. The results of this present study are consistent with findings in other studies, in that students developed managerial competence over some of the 24 skills associated with the CVF (Quinn *et al.*, 1990). However, it should be noted that there was no evidence of research similar to this study, published within the tourism and hospitality field where students were actually tested pre- and post-internship to assess their level of competence. Thus, direct comparisons with prior research is difficult due to different samples and instruments used and different competencies tested.

The Nature and Importance of the Specific Competencies and Roles Students in this Study Developed Through Internship

The findings of Hypothesis One also require discussion on the nature and relative importance of the roles and associated management competencies that students reported as having significantly improved over the internship period. These factors are discussed below.

The Co-ordinator Role

The Co-ordinator Role and associated competencies of Planning, Organising and Controlling are viewed as some of the basic functions of management (Boyatzis, 1982). According to Leiper (1995:220) co-ordination is the keystone role of all management and occurs at two levels: co-ordination of organisational resources and co-ordination of managerial work itself. Leiper states that, in combination, these two levels are crucial for successful management and permeate all other managerial activities (Leiper, 1995:220).

Similarly, DiPadova states that the competencies in this role have formed the basis for the concept of management over many decades (1990:147). The students in this study have improved in this role during their internship. However, it cannot be assumed that this is a causal relationship. They may have had opportunity to develop these skills within the work place environment during the internship period, but it should also be noted that these same competencies can play a role in an individual's daily life. Activities such as budgeting finances, organising home activities and career planning are all associated with competencies within the co-ordination role (DiPadova, 1990:14). Activities associated with handling their own personal affairs as a result of the internship, such as relocating to another region or having to budget and handle their finances, may have played a role in students' development in these competencies. Therefore, while students may have had the opportunity to develop these competencies in the workplace environment, there may have been contributing or additional factors.

The Monitor Role

The competencies associated with the Monitor role are also viewed as necessary skills for all managers to possess. This role involves paying attention to detail, handling of routine information, use of information systems, and extensive problem solving and analysis (DiPadova, 1990). The competencies in this role that students reported as having significantly developed during internship were Reducing Information Overload and Presenting Information by Writing Effectively. The reason for this was not investigated in this study. However, from the author's past experiences regarding feedback from students

completing internship, they often report that the functions associated with the Monitor role are areas in which they have gained the most experience. Organisations often involve students in these functions during the initial stages of the internship placement, to familiarise them with the organisation and its operations. For example, these functions may include developing and writing procedural manuals, establishing and maintaining databases such as customer records, conducting stock audits or developing, implementing and reporting on customer satisfaction surveys.

The Innovator Role

The Innovator role is associated with the ability to facilitate and adapt to change. Often managers in this role are looking outside the organisation for new ideas, monitoring the external environment and responding to environmental changes that may affect the organisation (Quinn *et al.*, 1990). The competency in this role that students reported as having significantly developed over the internship period was Managing Change.

According to DiPadova (1990), managing change is another important life skill that students may have used to some extent already. As noted in the literature review, change is inevitable and probably accelerating in many business environments. Students may have been exposed to this phenomena during their internship placement and as a result have gained a greater awareness of how to manage and implement change. As a life skill, students are personally involved with a major change associated with the transition from university life to the realities of the workplace as well as experiencing changes in lifestyles and relocation. Any of these factors may also have contributed to the development of this skill.

Broker Role

The Broker role, often seen as an executive role, is associated with the manager's ability to obtain external resources, represent and market the organisation's products and services and to negotiate and present ideas effectively (Quinn *et al.*, 1990). Of the three competencies in this role, students reported having significant development during the internship period in Presenting Ideas and Effective Oral Presentations. The ability to communicate ideas effectively whether to an audience or at a personal level, is strongly related to managerial effectiveness (Boyatzis, 1982; Carlopio, Andrewartha and Armstrong, 1997).

One of the reasons why new graduates are keenly sought by recruiters is to introduce new ideas and techniques to the organisation (DEETYA, 1998). It is argued that, because students at university have been exposed to a broad range of theoretical concepts and the

latest trends in management practice, they embark on internship eager and enthusiastic to be heard. It is suggested that internship employers welcome these fresh ideas and students are given the opportunity to present these ideas in the workplace, whether formally or informally. This may be one factor contributing to students' development in this competency during the internship period. In addition to this, the nature of tourism and hospitality industries, particularly at the front-line where the majority of these students are placed, demands a high level of 'people contact' not only with customers but with fellow workers. Also, for this group of students it is mandatory they interview managers at all levels during the internship period to gain information required in the final report assessment. These factors may have made a contribution to their development in this competency.

Management Models in the CVF (Quinn *et al.*, 1990) Developed Through Internship

In this study, students reported as having significantly developed in management competencies associated with the Co-ordinator (Organising and Controlling), Monitor (Reducing Information Overload and Presenting Information by Writing Effectively), Innovator (Managing Change) and Broker (Presenting Ideas) roles of Quinn *et al.*'s (1990) CVF. The study found that pre-internship except for Presenting Information by Writing Effectively, the students perceived these were their weakest competency areas. These findings suggest that for these students internship complemented the management competencies they developed during the coursework.

It is interesting to note that the Co-ordinator and Monitor roles, comprise the Internal Process model. The values of this model are associated with high control and internal focus where the manager's role is to maintain efficient work flows and effectively manage information. The manager in this model maintains structure and flow of systems and has a clear understanding of the unit functions (Faerman *et al.*, 1987).

Likewise the Innovator and Broker roles comprise the Open Systems model of the framework. This model has an external focus associated with a more adaptable and flexible approach to management with great emphasis on creativity and innovation. In this model a manager is responsible for facilitating change and monitors the external environment to absorb uncertainty. In this model external legitimacy is sustained through a leader who is powerful, persuasive and influential (O'Neill and Quinn, 1993). As discussed previously, the ability to manage change effectively will be an important competency for managers to master as they meet the new demands and challenges that change can bring. It is argued that a manager's success in influencing, persuading and maintaining power will greatly depend on

his or hers ability to communicate and present ideas effectively (Quinn *et al.*, 1990). Students in this study reported significant development in both these competencies during the internship period.

In the CVF (Quinn *et al.*, 1990), the Internal Process and Open Systems models are conceptualised as being in direct opposition to each other. Furthermore, while each have differing perspectives they can be viewed as essential components of managerial effectiveness. While all eight roles in the CVF (Quinn *et al.*, 1990) are associated with conflicting values and criteria, managers at different times and in different situations may draw on any of these approaches (O'Neill and Quinn, 1993). Students reported no significant developments in the management competencies associated with the four other roles that comprise the Rational Goal and Human Relations models in the framework.

It is argued by Quinn *et al.* (1990), that the behaviours associated with the eight managerial roles in the CVF (Quinn *et al.*, 1990) apply to managers at all levels. The only difference is that levels of responsibility and complexity of these behaviours may differ depending on the level (Quinn *et al.*, 1990). Results of this study indicate that the students developed managerial competence over four of these eight roles. These findings may have implications in relation to the structure and nature of a student's internship. It is important that students are provided opportunities to develop in the management competencies associated with the remaining four roles, so they have a well balanced learning experience.

In summary, the key findings in this stage of the research imply that the Bachelor of Business in Tourism internship program has proved effective in contributing towards the development of this cohort of students' management competencies. Some of these management competencies have exhibited greater development than others. However, overall it is suggested that this component of a student's tourism and hospitality education holds real educational benefits. The study demonstrates the importance of conducting empirically based evaluation to provide support to the debate on the true educational value of internship and highlights the need for further research in this area.

4.7 HYPOTHESIS TWO FINDINGS

The second research hypothesis proposed that students' post-internship mean scores will not be significantly lower than the selected managers' mean scores with respect to the 24 management competencies and eight managerial roles associated with Quinn *et al.*'s (1990) CVF. If this hypothesis is supported, it would indicate congruence between the expectations

of managers of recent tourism and hospitality graduates' management competencies and students' perceptions of their post-internship managerial competence. Table 4.10 presents the results of the independent t-tests for the Second Hypothesis. Appendix Twelve contains the SPSS output of these tests.

Table 4.10 *Results of Independent T-Tests Comparing Managers' and Students' Post-Internship Mean Scores*

student n=32, manager n=153

Management Competency/Role	Status	Mean	Mean difference	df	t value	p value
Director Role	student manager	5.2545 5.0877	-.1667	183 57.245	-1.224	.223
Taking Initiative	student manager	5.2750 5.1373	-.1377	183 65.620	-1.153	.253
Goal Setting	student manager	5.3813 5.3065	-.0747	183 50.185	-.416	.678
Delegating Effectively	student manager	5.0703 4.7533	-.3170	183 53.991	-2.026	.044*
Producer Role	student manager	5.0708 5.1367	+.0658	183 49.821	.415	.679
Personal Productivity and Motivation	student manager	5.5937 5.6549	+.0611	183 48.645	.400	.690
Motivating Others	student manager	4.7688 4.9500	+.1812	183 59.881	1.054	.296
Time and Stress Management	student manager	4.8500 4.7984	-.0516	183 43.830	-.266	.791
Co-ordinator Role	student manager	5.0168 5.0261	+.0092	183 55.469	.059	.953
Planning	student manager	5.3984 5.4613	+.0629	183 56.255	.357	.722
Organising	student manager	4.9688 4.8136	-.1551	183 51.643	-.906	.366
Controlling	student manager	4.6953 4.8497	+.0294	183 62.026	.196	.845
Management Competency/Role	Status	Mean	Mean difference	df	t value	p value
Monitor Role	student manager	5.3147 5.2379	-.0769	183 53.730	-.478	.633
Reducing Information Overload	student manager	5.3250 5.2141	-.1109	183 44.141	-.550	.583
Analysing Information with Critical Thinking	student manager	5.0375 5.0343	-.0762	183 58.512	-.018	.986
Presenting Information: Writing Effectively	student manager	5.6484 5.5245	-.1239	183 53.883	-.710	.478

Mentor Role	student manager	5.5469 5.1334	-.4134	183 70.978	-3.285	.002**
Understanding Yourself and Others	student manager	5.6188 5.3631	-.2557	183 56.370	-1.683	.098
Interpersonal Communication	student manager	5.6875 5.0649	-.6226	183 72.156	-4.540	.000**
Developing Subordinates	student manager	5.2813 4.9341	-.3472	183 78.816	-2.296	.024*
Facilitator Role	student manager	4.9519 5.0292	+.0773	183 69.660	.396	.693
Team Building	student manager	4.9219 4.8747	-.0471	183 67.099	-.281	.780
Participative Decision Making	student manager	4.8313 5.2493	+.4181	183 67.170	2.904	.005*
Conflict Management	student manager	5.1328 4.9096	-.2232	183 68.895	-1.414	.162
Innovator Role	student manager	4.9336 4.9811	+.0474	183 47.183	.370	.712
Living with Change	student manager	4.9938 4.9425	+.0513	183 46.406	-.354	.724
Creative Thinking	student manager	4.8646 5.0224	+.1579	183 42.152	1.342	.181
Managing Change	student manager	4.9563 4.9698	+.0136	183 55.095	.068	.946
Broker Role	student manager	4.9286 5.0706	.1420	183 47.935	.873	.384
Building and Maintaining a Power Base	student manager	4.9375 4.8915	-.0451	183 62.466	-.259	.796
Negotiating Agreement and Commitment	student manager	5.1328 5.1008	-.0321	183 59.799	-.171	.865
Presenting Ideas	student manager	4.7563 5.2281	+.4719	183 37.962	1.850	.072

* Significant at the $p=.05$ level

** Significant at the $p=.002$ level

Source: Primary-compiled for this study

Independent t-tests between students' post-internship and managers' mean scores were performed on the 24 management competencies and eight managerial roles. Significant differences at the $p=.05$ and $p=.002$ have been identified in Table 4.10. However, only those competencies and roles with significant differences at the $p=.002$ level are examined and discussed in this section.

Table 4.10 shows that students' post-internship mean scores were not significantly lower than the managers' mean scores at the $p=.002$ level for any of the 24 management competencies and eight managerial roles. However, for the competency of Interpersonal

Communication and the Mentor Role students' post-internship mean scores were significantly higher than managers' mean scores at the $p=.002$ level. This competency and role are highly regarded by many scholars and practitioners as essential for effective management. Therefore, these results are discussed below.

4.7.1 Mentor Role

Overall the Mentor role comprises a total of 14 competency statements which measure the competencies of Understanding Yourself and Others, Interpersonal Communication and Developing Subordinates. The independent t-test for this role reported that the students' post-internship mean score was significantly higher than the managers' mean score at the $p=.002$ level, where $p=.002$ and $t= -3.285$.

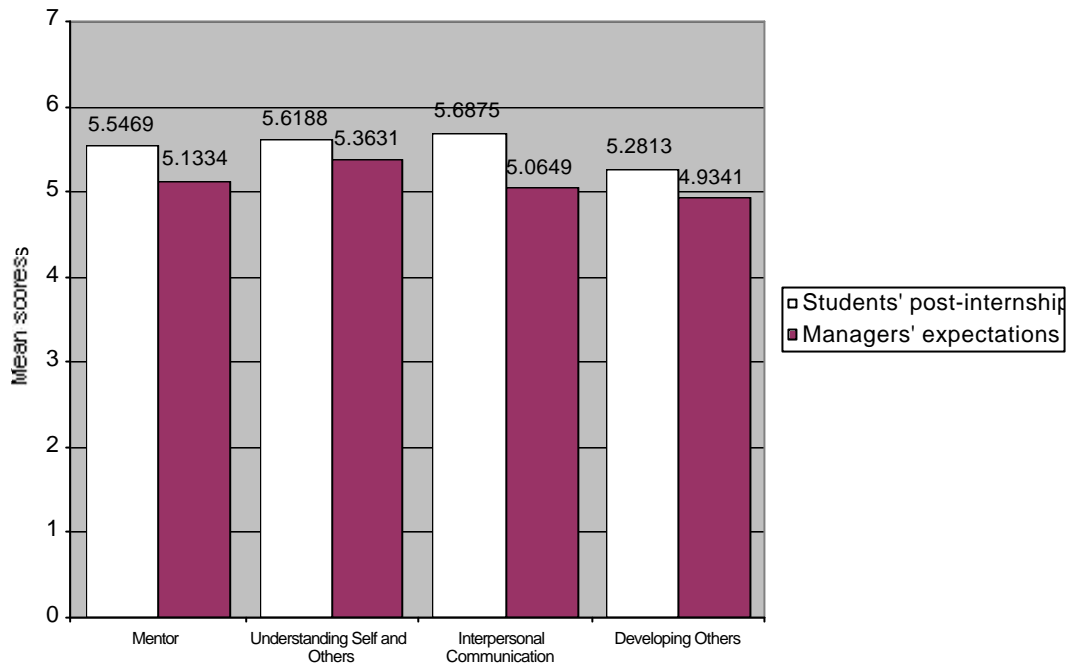
Students' post-internship mean score was significantly higher than the managers' mean score in one competency in the Mentor Role:

	t value	p value	mean difference
Interpersonal Communication	-4.540	.000	-.6226

Of the 24 management competencies, this competency reported the highest numerical difference (-.6226) between managers' and students' post- internship mean scores. These results indicate that students' perceptions of their competence in Interpersonal Communication was greater than managers' expectations of recent graduates' management competencies. It appears these students are quite confident with their ability to communicate and interact with other people effectively.

Figure 4.8 presents the differences in students' post- internship and managers' mean scores, for the Mentor Role and the three associated management competencies.

Figure 4.8 *Differences in Students' Post-internship and Managers' Mean Scores for the Mentor Role*



Source: Primary-compiled for this study

In the Mentor role the manager is concerned with the human relations aspects of the work environment. Managers in this role show concern and provide support for others, develop subordinates and have well developed interpersonal communication skills (Quinn *et al.*, 1990). As Zey notes:

Interpersonal Communication is perhaps one of the most important and least understood competencies that a manager can have-and vital to playing the mentor role. Knowing when and how to share information requires a very complex understanding of people and situations.

(Zey, 1990 in Quinn *et al.*, 1996:40)

In this study, students' confidence and ability to perform in this important role is supported by the literature. DiPadova (1990) suggests that students can relate quite strongly to the competencies associated with this role. In particular, interpersonal communication skills are viewed as necessary life competencies, regardless of an individual's career level or status.

The importance of graduates attaining this competency should not be under-estimated. According to DEETYA, employers actively seek graduates with well developed 'team

skills' and demonstrated ability to work and communicate with people at all levels. When recruiting, employers highly regard graduates who have completed an internship that brings students into contact with a range of different people (DEETYA, 1998:13). Similarly, the literature abounds with references addressing the importance of these competencies to ensure managerial effectiveness, whether they be entry-level graduates or top level management. In a service economy, students demonstrating these and other important leadership and human resource management skills will be keenly sought by organisations (Umbreit, 1993).

4.7.2 Summary of Hypothesis Two Findings

In summary, the results of the independent t-tests show that students' post-internship scores were not significantly lower than managers' mean scores at the $p=.002$ level, for any of the 24 management competencies or eight managerial roles. These results indicate that after completing internship, students' perceptions of their managerial competence were reasonably congruent with the expectations of this sample of managers.

Therefore, the second hypothesis has been supported as empirical support has been provided for the 24 competencies and eight managerial roles. That is, students' post-internship mean scores are not significantly lower than the selected managers' mean scores with respect to the 24 management competencies and eight managerial roles associated with Quinn *et al.*'s (1990) CVF.

4.7.3 Discussion of Hypothesis Two Findings

To conclude this section, discussion in relation to Hypothesis Two will examine the findings in relation to literature on the competencies expected of tourism and hospitality graduates to determine whether these competencies are in line with industries' needs. It will also relate findings to the four management models in the CVF (Quinn *et al.*, 1990) to see how students' post-internship competencies and managers' expectations of graduates' management competence compare.

Comparison of Key Findings with Research on Employers' Expectations of Graduates' Management Competencies

The findings from Hypothesis Two indicate that students perceived they were more competent in some of the management competencies than others. Similarly, managers in this study expect graduates to have greater competence in some skill areas than others. The

literature suggests that the nature of managerial work changes in relation to the level of a manager's position within the organisational hierarchy (Carroll and Gillen, 1987 in Maes *et al.* 1997; Maes *et al.*, 1997). New graduates or trainee managers are expected to demonstrate different levels of competencies upon entry into the work force compared to more experienced managers. Mullins and Davies (1991) claim the higher up the organisational hierarchy, the more conceptual skills are required, with less emphasis on technical skills. They further state that, although hospitality managers are expected to display a high level of technical expertise, this must not be at the expense of the important social and human relations skills. As the hotel industry, like all tourism and hospitality industries, is a 'people industry', they see the ability to manage people as an essential ingredient of an effective manager (Mullins and Davies, 1991). Similarly, Cichy *et al.*, found agreement amongst CEO's in the food service industry that leadership skills were important at all levels of the organisation, while at the same time identifying a relationship between an individual's level of position and skills development. In other words the higher up the ladder, the more highly developed skills are expected (1992).

The literature in the hospitality area reports commonality with respect to the skills required for entry level graduates and trainee managers. It is acknowledged that while there may be characteristics unique to hospitality industries, there are management functions common to any industry that can also be considered important to successful performance in the hospitality field (Baum, 1988; Mullins and Davies, 1991). This study examined student's competence in terms of 24 generic management competencies comprising the CVF (Quinn *et al.*, 1990), which are considered essential for managers to possess and have proven their application to a wide range of industry environments and organisational settings (O'Neill and Quinn, 1993).

Of these 24 generic competencies, many were consistent with the literature in terms of the types of competencies recruiters and employers seek and expect of recent graduates. Further, the competencies in which students' perceived they were most competent were fairly consistent with employers' tourism and hospitality needs. Research in this field over the past 10 years indicates that human relations and general management skills are considered important for new graduates to possess (Okeiyi *et al.*, 1994). The 'non technical' people skills such as leadership, conceptual and interpersonal skills that are easily transferred across departments and organisations are seen as important (Tas *et al.*, 1996). Recruiters in service industries rank oral communication, problem solving and self motivation as most important for graduates seeking employment (Maes *et al.*, 1997) while communication skills will be crucial in a service oriented economy (Buckley *et al.*, 1989).

Richins, *et al.*, (1994) studied managers and decision-makers within three industry sectors - tourism, sport and recreation. The study examined nine different skill areas including sports-related, tourism-related, recreation-related, general management, financial, legal, research-oriented, societal and community understanding and interpersonal skills. Results indicated that above all 'communication ability' was rated as a maximum priority by all three sectors, while interpersonal skills were the most universally emphasised category in all three fields (Richins, *et al.*, 1994). These results are consistent with findings of other researchers that, to be effective managers must have well developed 'people skills'. Students in the SCU study reported a high level of confidence in their human relations skills and ability to deal with people. They perceived their greatest strengths are in the competencies of interpersonal communication and written communication. The students in this study perceived they have an understanding of their own values and behaviours and are sensitive to the needs of others in the workplace.

The strong emphasis on the above skills is supported by recent Australian research (DEETYA, 1998). Recruiters seek a range of skills in new graduates, including written business communication, time management, oral communication, interpersonal, team working and problem solving. Due to the changing nature of the business and workplace environment, graduates of the future will need to be flexible and adaptable, possessing a range of transferable skills (DEETYA, 1998). Studies conducted by the National Board of Employment, Education and Training (1992:13) found that communication skills, especially oral communication skills were considered the most desired skills when recruiters assess new graduates for employment, but these same skills were also cited as being deficient among graduates. This same theme was reflected in the *Karpin Report* (1995) which suggested a range of skills that Australian managers need to improve in to remain competitive in the 'Asia Pacific Century'. These include the soft skills, such as the ability to deal with people and effectively utilise the human relation aspects of the workforce and interpersonal and leadership skills (Karpin, 1995).

As indicated above, two competency areas that recruiters in general and in the tourism and hospitality field expect graduates to possess are oral communication and team-working ability. Students in the SCU study reported their major weakness was in their ability as effective public speakers and to present ideas effectively. They were also less confident in skills associated with team building and group facilitation, an important leadership skill. These findings may have implications for future curriculum development for the Bachelor of Business in Tourism and other similar courses, to ensure that students are provided opportunities in both these areas over a range of activities such as class simulation exercises and team building exercises. It may also be beneficial to re-evaluate the effectiveness of the

current practices in teaching oral communications skills. Perhaps curriculum should place greater emphasis on enhancing and developing students' oral communication and presentation skills in an environment external to their familiar surroundings (the classroom), such as university wide forums or industry based presentations so they are more confident in this area.

Comparison of Students' and Managers' Roles Within the CVF (Quinn *et al.*, 1990)

This section will briefly examine the findings of testing the second hypothesis by relating them to the four management models in the CVF (Quinn *et al.*, 1990) to see how students' post-internship competencies and managers' expectations of graduates' management competencies compare. It also compares these findings with research by Quinn, Faerman and Dixit (1987). For ease of comparison Table 4.11 provides the rankings of students' post-internship and managers' mean scores in terms of roles and associated models of management within the CVF (Quinn *et al.*, 1990). It also provides a comparison of the findings of Quinn, Faerman and Dixit (1987).

Discussion in Section 4.8 of this study examines these comparisons more closely in terms of the particular styles of management within the CVF (Quinn *et al.*, 1990).

Table 4.11 *Comparison of Students' and Managers' Roles within the CVF (Quinn *et al.*, 1990)*

Rank	Managers' role	Managers' model in CVF	Students' role	Students' model in CVF	Quinn <i>et al.</i> 's (1987) role (a)	Quinn <i>et al.</i> 's (1987) model in CVF (a)
1	Monitor	Internal Process	Mentor	Human Relations	Mentor	Human Relations
2	Producer	Rational Goal	Monitor	Internal Process	Director	Rational Goal
3	Mentor	Human Relations	Director	Rational Goal	Producer	Rational Goal
4	Director	Rational Goal	Producer	Rational Goal	Facilitator	Human Relations
5	Broker	Open Systems	Coordinator	Internal Process	Coordinator	Internal Process

6	Facilitator	Human Relations	Facilitator	Human Relations	Monitor	Internal Process
7	Coordinator	Internal Process	Innovator	Open Systems	Innovator	Open Systems
8	Innovator	Open Systems	Broker	Open Systems	Broker	Open Systems

(a): Quinn, Faerman and Dixit, 1987 in Quinn, 1991:90-94

Source: Primary-compiled for this study

As seen in Table 4.11, while there are some differences noted between the students' and managers' rankings, similarities also exist. These are discussed below.

Firstly, the role students felt generally most confident in was the Mentor role contained in the Human Relations model of the CVF (Quinn *et al.*, 1990). In contrast managers' expect graduates to be most confident in the Monitor role contained in the Internal Process model. To recapitulate on earlier discussion, the Human Relations model emphasises flexibility and values the development of human resources, while the Internal Process model emphasises control and values consolidation and continuity (Quinn *et al.*, 1990). According to Quinn *et al.* (1990) while both models are associated with a different set of values and approach to managerial effectiveness they both have an internal focus on the organisation.

Secondly, the role students generally felt less confident with was the Broker role, contained in the Open Systems model of the CVF (Quinn *et al.*, 1990). While managers least expected graduates to be confident with the Innovator role, this role is also contained in the Open Systems model. This model emphasises flexibility, focuses on the external environment and values expansion and change (Quinn *et al.*, 1990).

An examination of the overall rankings shows that both students and managers ranked the two roles of Producer and Director contained within the Rational Goal model, in the top four of the eight roles of the CVF (Quinn *et al.*, 1990). This model emphasises control, focuses on the external environment and values productivity and maximisation of output (Quinn *et al.* 1990). Both groups also ranked the two roles of Innovator and Broker contained in the Open Systems model, in the bottom four.

The results of the findings above are fairly consistent with findings of Quinn, Faerman and Dixit (1987), who were co-developers of the CVF (Quinn *et al.*, 1990). They surveyed

295 part-time MBA students in ten different US universities to determine whether role profiles change between different levels of management. The study found little difference between levels in the Producer, Director, Co-ordinator and Monitor roles, while the remaining four roles exhibited variations between levels of management. Of particular significance to the present study, was their findings in relation to the Mentor and Broker roles. They concluded that front-line managers focus highly on the Mentor role while the Broker role had a very low emphasis (Quinn *et al.*, 1987).

As shown in Table 4.11, an adaptation of Quinn *et al.*'s (1987) research findings has been compared with findings of the present study. It should be noted that the rankings of the roles for Quinn *et al.*'s (1987) study have been interpreted from graphic representation as exact mean scores were not provided. However, as shown in Table 4.11 they demonstrate a high level of congruence with the students' post-internship mean scores. This is particularly evident in the roles that students ranked as being most confident in and the role they ranked as being least confident in.

While it is difficult to draw generalisations from these findings, they do indicate that this group of students entering the workforce perceived they were fairly confident over a range of differing values within the CVF (Quinn *et al.*, 1990) and therefore should be able to demonstrate a reasonable level of effectiveness as trainee managers. Perhaps time will allow them to develop further in the flexible and external approach required in the Open Systems model. Similarly, the managers in this study expect recent tourism and hospitality graduates to demonstrate competence over a range of differing values in the CVF (Quinn *et al.*, 1990), again indicating that the values of the Open System model particularly in the Innovator role are least expected.

It is argued that, the close alignment of the students' post-internship results with Quinn *et al.*'s (1987) research, coupled with the high level of expectation that these managers attributed to these roles and competencies demonstrates the application of the eight management roles and 24 management competencies of the CVF (Quinn *et al.*, 1990) to tourism and hospitality industries. Furthermore, it is argued that the continuing challenge facing tourism and hospitality management educators is to ensure curricula is current and relevant so that graduates effectively perform to the satisfaction of the industries' employers. Program evaluation to ensure industry needs are met is crucial for the survival of tertiary education programs. Research into skills and competencies required by industry of new graduates should continue.

This study makes an important contribution to these areas. Results indicate that students' perceptions of their managerial competence are reasonably congruent with this sample of tourism and hospitality managers' expectations of recent graduates' management competencies. Results also indicate that, as entry level graduates, this cohort of students has the ability to demonstrate competence over a range of transferable generic management competencies. Additionally, due to the generic nature of these competencies and their recognised importance by tourism and hospitality managers, this cohort of Bachelor of Business in Tourism graduates should be effectively equipped to undertake a range of managerial opportunities that may be presented to them.

4.8 STUDENTS' AND MANAGERS' PROFILES WITHIN THE CVF (Quinn *et al.*, 1990)

As noted in Chapter Two, it is possible from the results of the S.A.M.S. (DiPadova, 1990) instrument to develop profiles of management style, in relation to the eight managerial roles. These visual representations have been examined in previous research to more fully understand the differences in performance between ineffective, effective and master managers. In this study, empirical data collected from the students and the managers can be used to identify the students' management profiles pre- and post-internship and the management profiles that managers expect of recent graduates.

The bar graphs in Figures 4.9, 4.10 and 4.11 provide a summary of the students' pre- and post-internship and managers' mean scores for each of the 24 management competencies. These graphs will be referred to in the ensuing discussion.

Figure 4.9 *Students' Mean Scores Pre-internship*

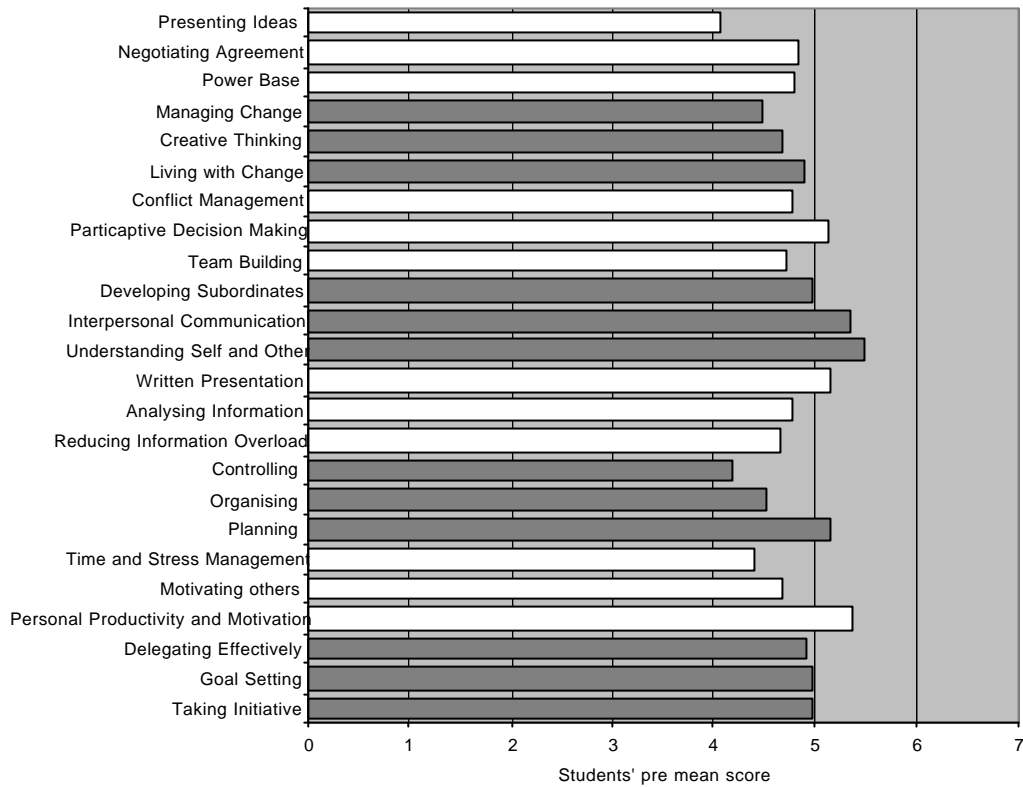
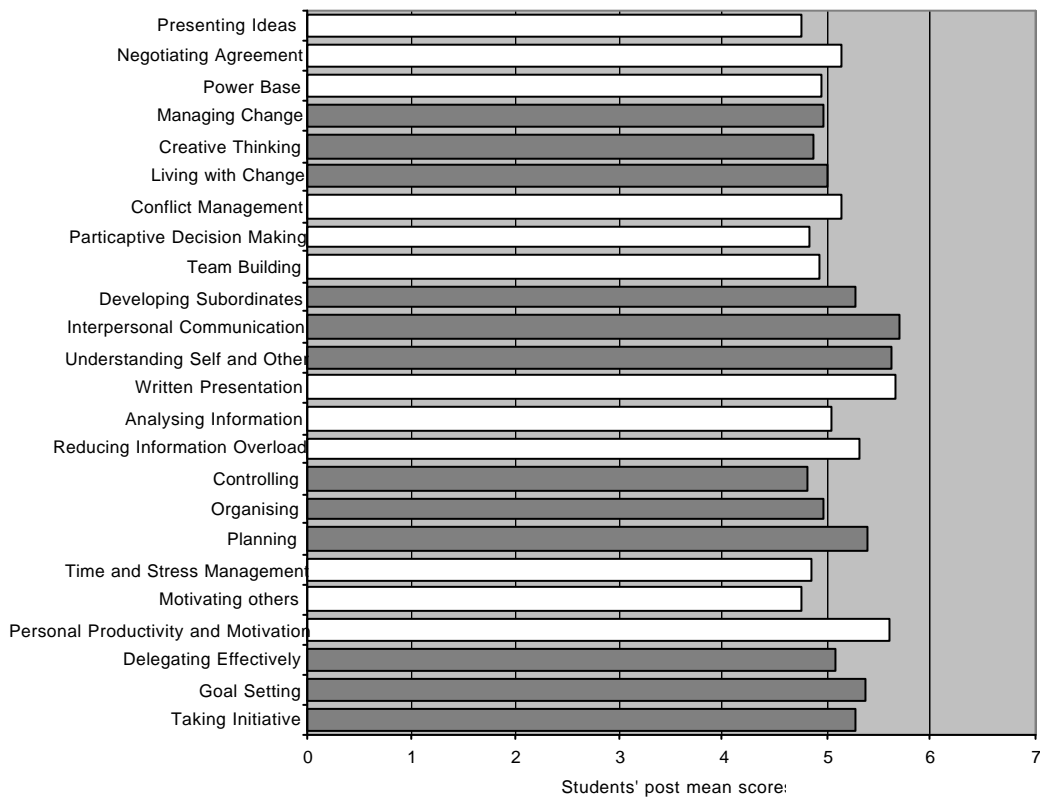
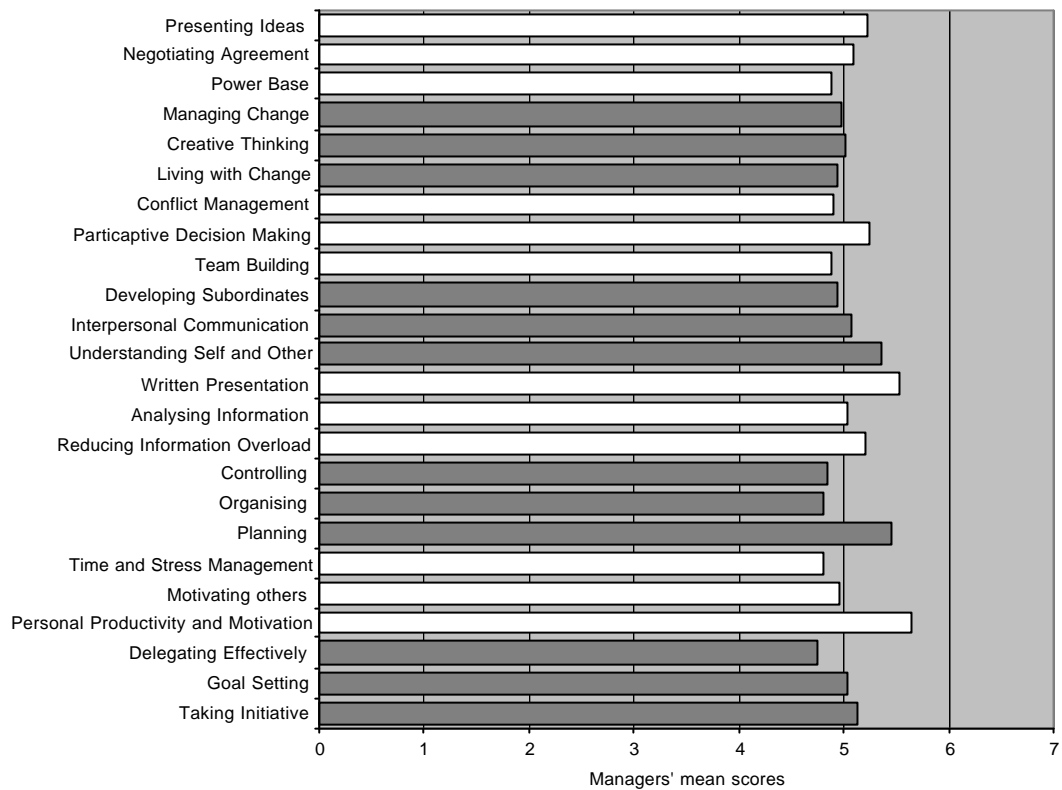


Figure 4.10 *Students' Mean Scores Post-internship*



Source: Primary-compiled for this study

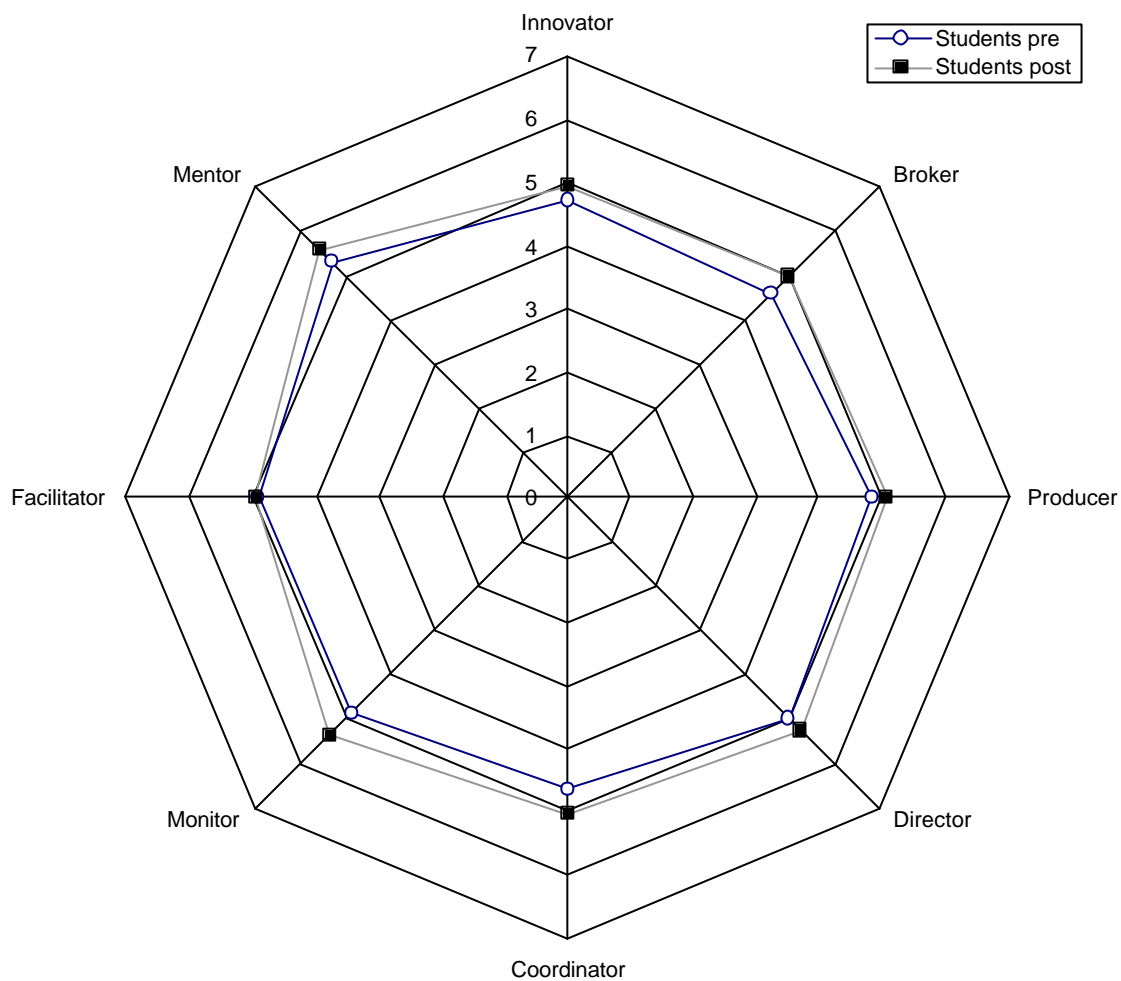
Figure 4.11 *Managers' Means Scores*

Source: Primary-compiled for this study

4.8.1 Comparison of Students' Pre- and Post-internship Management Profiles

The students' pre- and post-internship mean scores were plotted as profiles on the CVF (Quinn *et al.*, 1990). The radar graph in Figure 4.12 provides a graphic comparison of both profiles.

Figure 4.12 *Comparison of Students' Pre and Post-internship Profiles*



Source: Primary-compiled for this study

Figure 4.12 clearly demonstrates the change in students' perceptions of their pre- and post-internship management roles within the CVF (Quinn *et al.*, 1990). As discussed in Section 4.5.3, the greatest variance in roles over the internship period were in the Monitor, Coordinator and Broker roles with the least variance in the Facilitator role. Furthermore, during internship students improved in competencies of greatest weakness. These management competencies comprised the Co-ordinator role (Organising and Controlling), Monitor role (Reducing Information Overload), Innovator role (Managing Change) and Broker role (Presenting Ideas). In both time periods, the students' profile indicates they were reasonably confident in all eight roles and that balance in the overall framework was evident.

Post-internship, students perceived they were most confident with the Mentor and Monitor roles. Examination of the management competencies associated with Mentor role in Figure

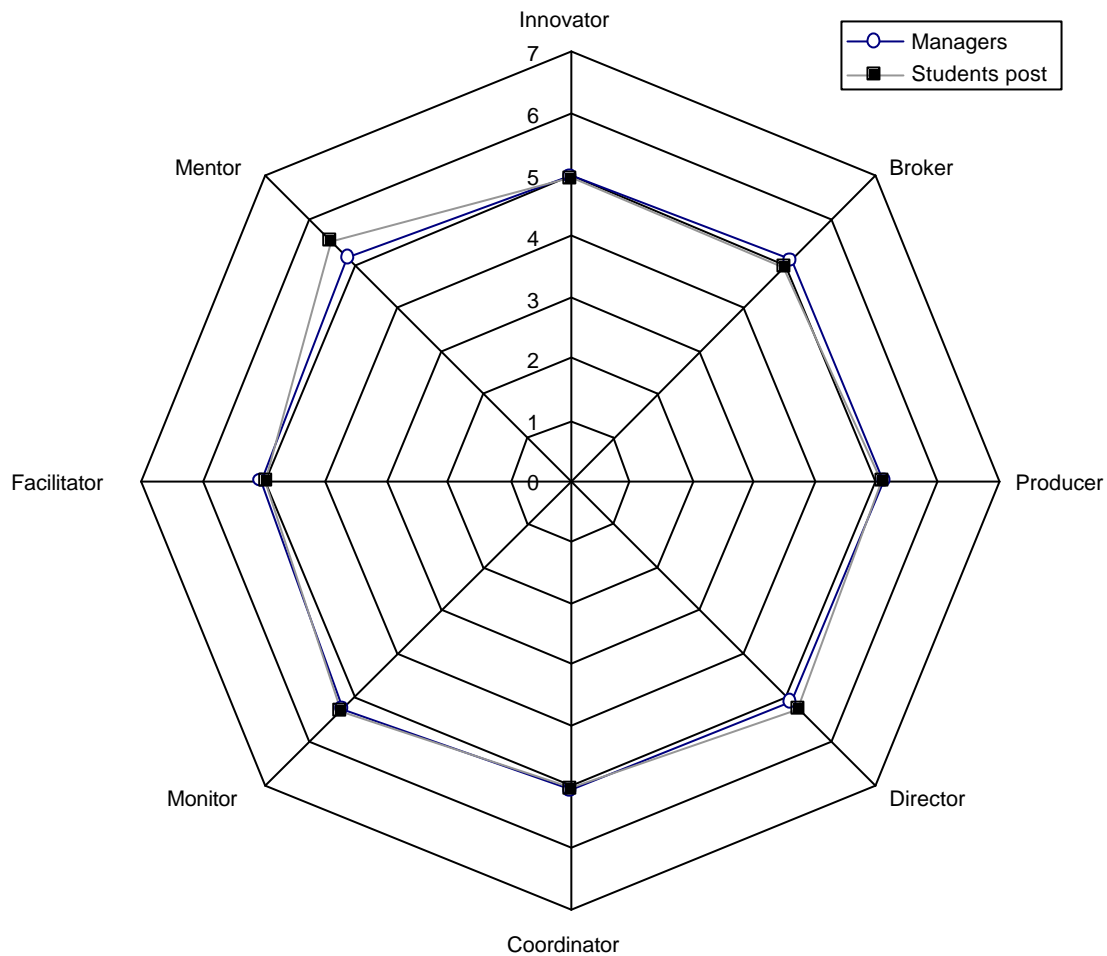
4.10 indicates that students perceived their areas of strength were in Interpersonal Communication and Understanding Self and Others with slightly less confidence in Developing Others. In the Monitor role the students' area of strength was with Written Presentation but they appeared to be less confident with Reducing Information and Analysing Information with Critical Thinking.

While the students' profiles in this study demonstrated slightly more confidence in one or two management roles, this was not to the detriment of any other role within the framework and there appears to be a balance in the roles overall.

4.8.2 Comparison of Students' Post-internship Profile and the Profile Managers Expect of Graduates

The students' post-internship and managers' mean scores were plotted as profiles on the CVF (Quinn *et al.*, 1990). The radar graph in Figure 4.13 provides a graphic comparison of both styles.

Figure 4.13 *Comparison of Students' Post-internship Profile and the Profile Managers Expect of Graduates*



Source: Primary-compiled for this study

As shown in Figure 4.13, the students' post-internship profile was reasonably congruent with the profile that this group of managers expect of graduates. Students' perceptions exceeded managers' expectations in three of the eight managerial roles - as Mentor, Director and Monitor.

These managers expected graduates to be reasonably confident in all of the eight managerial roles. However, they expected graduates to be slightly more confident in the Mentor and Monitor roles and least confident with the Innovator role. Examination of the management competencies associated with Mentor role in Figure 4.11 indicates that the managers' expected recent graduates to be reasonably confident with Interpersonal Communication

and Understanding Yourself and Others and slightly less confident with Developing Others. In the Monitor role managers expected graduates to be reasonably confident with Written Presentation but less confident with Reducing Information and Analysing Information with Critical Thinking. Managers' expected recent graduates to be least confident with the Innovator role. In this role they expect that students' greatest area of strength would be in Creative Thinking and to a slightly lesser degree in Managing Change and Living with Change.

The managers in this study expected students to be slightly more confident in one or two roles, but (like the students) this was not to the detriment of any of the other management role within the framework. Further, there appears to be a balance overall in the roles these managers expect of graduates.

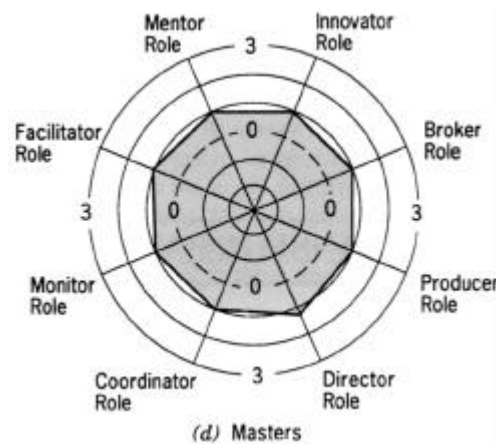
The results indicate that the students have shown and managers expect similar and reasonably high levels of competence in all roles of the CVF (Quinn *et al.*, 1990). These findings confirm prior research by DiPadova and Faerman (1993) that the roles and management competencies of the CVF (Quinn *et al.*, 1990) are applicable across all levels of an organisation, the only difference being the complexities associated with the change across hierarchical levels. For example, the assumption that only senior managers deal with outside people and have vision or that only entry level managers are concerned with the monitoring functions of management, appear inaccurate (Di Padova and Faerman, 1993). As Quinn notes:

Managers are expected to play all these roles and to simultaneously consider and balance the competing demands that are represented by each set of expectations.

(Quinn, 1991:43)

The profiles of both the students' perceptions and the managers' expectations of graduates resemble Quinn's (1991) description of a Master Manager. As shown in Figure 4.14, the Master Manager appears to have a flexible, all rounded approach employing behaviours that are represented in each of the roles within the framework. The Master Manager is free of any one definite management style (Quinn *et al.*, 1990:316-318).

Figure 4.14 *The Master Manager (Quinn et al., 1990)*



Source: Quinn *et al.*, 1990:317

As discussed in Chapter Two, ineffective managers tend to have profiles that are unbalanced and often narrowly focused on one or maybe two of the eight roles. A Master Manager is competent in all of the eight roles and has the ability to balance these competing roles appropriately (Quinn *et al.*, 1990). Quinn *et al.* (1990) contend that the Master Manager is able to effectively integrate all eight roles and has the ability to use the 24 management competencies in complementary ways. They also claim these well rounded managers tend to be in upper or top level management positions and that mastery develops with time and experience (Quinn *et al.*, 1990).

The students in this study perceived they were fairly competent over the range of management competencies and roles within the CVF (Quinn *et al.*, 1990). Furthermore, they did not appear to exhibit one preferred role in preference to others. The findings of this study do not conclude that the students in this study are Master Managers or that these managers expect graduates to be Master Managers. Rather, it has demonstrated that internship has helped them move closer to the Master Manager.

4.9 SUMMARY OF HYPOTHESES TESTING

This section presents a summary of the two research hypotheses tested in this study.

Hypothesis One

The first hypothesis proposed that students' pre-internship mean scores will be significantly lower than their post-internship mean scores with respect to the 24 management competencies and the managerial roles associated with Quinn *et al.*'s (1990) CVF.

The results of testing the first research hypothesis showed that students' pre-internship mean scores were significantly lower than their post-internship mean scores at the $p=.002$ level, for the competencies of Organising, Controlling, Reducing Information Overload, Presenting Information: Writing Effectively, Managing Change and Presenting Ideas. In terms of roles, significant differences were exhibited at the $p=.002$ level for the Co-ordinator, Monitor and Broker Roles. These results indicate that the students in this study perceived their level of managerial competence had increased after the completion of their internship placement in six of the 24 management competencies and three of the eight managerial roles.

Therefore, the first hypothesis has only been partially supported as empirical support was found for only six management competencies and three managerial roles.

Hypothesis Two

The second research hypothesis proposed that students' post-internship mean scores will not be significantly lower than the selected managers' mean scores with respect to the 24 management competencies and eight managerial roles associated with Quinn *et al.*'s (1990) CVF.

The results of testing the second hypothesis show that students' post-internship were not significantly lower than managers' mean scores at the $p=.002$ level, for any of the 24 management competencies or eight managerial roles. Overall these results indicate that, after completing internship, students' perceptions of their managerial competence were reasonably congruent with the expectations of this sample of managers.

Therefore, the second hypothesis has been supported as empirical support has been provided for the 24 competencies and eight managerial roles. That is, students' post-internship mean scores are not significantly lower than the selected managers' mean scores with respect to the 24 management competencies and eight managerial roles associated with Quinn *et al.*'s (1990) CVF.

4.10 CONCLUSION

This chapter presented the results of the empirical research conducted for this study. A demographic profile of manager and student respondents was provided in Section 4.2. Results of reliability analysis, presented in Section 4.3, showed that the S.A.M.S. (DiPadova, 1990) instrument was a reliable measure of the eight roles and 24 competencies used for this study. Section 4.4 explained the significance levels used to test the research hypotheses.

Section 4.5 presented the findings from the statistical analysis of the study and examined these in terms of the three research objectives. Section 4.6 and 4.7 presented and examined the results of the hypotheses testing, discussed key findings in relation to the literature and examined their relationship in terms of the competencies, roles and models within the CVF (Quinn *et al.*, 1990).

Section 4.8 has drawn together the main findings of the study in the context of the theoretical model used. Using Quinn *et al.*'s (1990) Competing Values Framework, it has examined students' post-internship management style and identified the style of management that the managers surveyed in this study expect of graduates.

Section 4.9 summarised the findings of testing the research hypotheses concluding that the first hypothesis was only partially supported and that the second hypothesis was fully supported.

With respect to this cohort of students, results indicated that the internship component of the Bachelor of Business in Tourism degree at Southern Cross University makes an important contribution to the development of their management competencies. Furthermore, results indicated that at the completion of internship, students' perceptions of their managerial competence in relation to the 24 management competencies of the CVF (Quinn *et al.*, 1990) were reasonably congruent with the expectations that the managers surveyed in this study have of recent tourism and hospitality graduates.

Chapter Five concludes this study by summarising the research, examining the overall implications and contributions of the study, by identifying major limitations and by evaluating the potential of this topic for future research.

Chapter Five

Conclusions and Implications

5.1 INTRODUCTION

This is the final chapter of this study. Section 5.2 summarises the study and draws together the main findings in relation to the three research objectives and two hypotheses. Section 5.3 discusses the implications of the research for education providers of tourism and hospitality management courses, for organisations within tourism and hospitality industries and for students. The major limitations of the study are presented in Section 5.4. while Section 5.5 discusses how this study has contributed to knowledge. Section 5.6 presents further research potential of the topic. Section 5.7 concludes the study.

5.2 SUMMARY OF THE STUDY FINDINGS

It is well recognised that tourism and hospitality industries which play a significant role Australia's economy face a critical shortage of skilled and managerial workers. Furthermore, both industry and educators agree that tourism and hospitality management curricula need to reflect recent and future industry needs and developments, by ensuring graduates are equipped with industry-relevant skills and competencies to meet the demands and challenges they will face as future managers. In addition, a combination of theory with practice is viewed as an essential component of a student's tourism and hospitality management education. Therefore, this study aimed to identify the management competencies employers in tourism related industries expect of recent graduates, assess whether graduates meet these expectations and assess the contribution that internship makes in developing these competencies.

Quinn *et al.*'s (1990) CVF was used to assess management competencies expected of graduates and those which students perceived they had pre- and post-internship. This model was considered appropriate due to its sound theoretical and research base and because it offered an opportunity to examine key managerial skills and competencies based on organisational theory. The model takes a more general approach to management competencies and skills necessary for managers to be effective, giving it the versatility to be applied to all industry sectors. A specific survey instrument, S.A.M.S. (DiPadova, 1990), that measures an individual's competence in relation to the 24 management competencies and eight managerial roles associated with the model, required little modification in its application to the empirical stages of this study.

A three stage approach was employed. Stage One addressed the first research objective which was to identify the management competencies that managers of organisations within

tourism and hospitality industries expect of recent tourism and hospitality graduates. It involved the collection of quantitative data from a sample of managers in tourism and hospitality industries. The main aim of the industry survey was to identify the selected managers' expectations of recent tourism and hospitality graduates' management competencies, in relation to the 24 management competencies associated with Quinn *et al.*'s (1990) CVF. Managers within four sectors - hotels/resorts, clubs, airlines and government bodies – were surveyed using the S.A.M.S. (DiPadova, 1990) instrument. Data were collected from 153 respondents.

The study found that these managers expected recent tourism and hospitality graduates to demonstrate ability in all 24 management competencies. The competencies that managers expected graduates to be most proficient in were – Personal Productivity and Motivation, Presenting Information: Writing Effectively, Planning, Goal Setting and Understanding Yourself and Others. The competencies managers expected graduates to be least proficient in were – Delegating Effectively, Time and Stress Management, Team Building, Controlling, and Building and Maintaining a Power Base.

Stage Two of the research addressed the second objective which was to determine whether students' management competencies are developed during the internship component of Southern Cross University's Bachelor of Business in Tourism degree. This involved measuring and comparing the mean scores of students' responses to the 24 management competencies before and after internship, to identify changes that may have occurred over the six month period. The student sample was limited to the 1996 cohort of third year, internal Bachelor of Business in Tourism students from the Lismore campus at Southern Cross University. Data were collected from 32 students in two phases, pre and post-internship using the S.A.M.S. (DiPadova, 1990) instrument. Analysis of this data tested the first research hypothesis that students' pre-internship mean scores will be significantly lower than their post-internship mean scores with respect to the 24 management competencies and eight managerial roles associated with Quinn *et al.*'s (1990) CVF.

The study found that these students perceived they were reasonably competent in all of the 24 management competencies, after internship. Results of testing the first research hypothesis showed that students' pre-internship mean scores were significantly lower than their post-internship mean scores at the $p=.002$ level, for the competencies of Organising, Controlling, Reducing Information Overload, Presenting Information: Writing Effectively, Managing Change and Presenting Ideas. Further, it was found that pre-internship, students perceived that these were their weakest competency areas, with one exception - Presenting Information by Writing Effectively. In terms of roles, significant improvements were

exhibited at the $p=.002$ level for the Co-ordinator, Monitor and Broker Roles. These results indicate that the students in this study perceived their level of managerial competence had significantly increased after the completion of their internship placement in six of the 24 management competencies and three of the eight managerial roles. Therefore, the first hypothesis was partially supported.

The key findings of Stage Two of the research imply that the internship program has proved effective in contributing towards the development of management competencies in this cohort of students and it has complemented the management competencies they developed during their coursework. Some of the students' management competencies have exhibited greater development than others. However, overall it is suggested that this component of a student's tourism and hospitality education holds real educational benefits in preparing them for future management roles. The study demonstrates the importance of conducting empirically based evaluation to provide support to the debate on the true educational value of internship.

Stage Three addressed the third research objective which was to determine whether the management competencies of Southern Cross University's Bachelor of Business in Tourism students meet the expectations of selected managers of organisations in four tourism and hospitality sectors. This involved comparing the managers' expectations of recent graduates with the students' responses to the 24 management competencies after internship. This stage involved statistical analysis of the quantitative data. The combined mean scores of the managers' expectations of graduates collected in Stage One were compared to the combined mean scores of the students' post-internship self-assessment of the 24 managerial competencies, collected in Stage Two. Analysis of this data tested the second research hypothesis that students' post-internship mean scores will not be significantly lower than the selected managers' mean scores with respect to the 24 management competencies and eight managerial roles associated with Quinn *et al.*'s (1990) CVF.

The study found that students' post-internship mean scores were not significantly lower than managers' mean scores at the $p=.002$ level for any of the 24 management competencies or eight managerial roles. These results indicate that, after completing internship, students' perceptions of their managerial competence were reasonably congruent with the expectations of this sample of managers. Therefore, the second hypothesis was supported as empirical support was provided for the 24 competencies and eight managerial roles.

Finally, the main findings of the study were examined in relation to the theoretical model used, Quinn *et al.*'s (1990) CVF. Empirical data collected from the students and the

managers were used to identify the students' management profiles pre- and post-internship and the management profile that managers expect of recent graduates. These profiles resemble Quinn's (1991) description of a Master Manager. The students in this study perceived they were reasonably competent over the range of management competencies and roles within the CVF (Quinn *et al.*, 1990). Furthermore, they did not appear to exhibit one preferred role in preference to others. Likewise, the managers expected students to be reasonably competent over the range of management competencies and roles within the CVF (Quinn *et al.*, 1990). Further, there appears to be a balance overall in the roles managers expect of graduates. The study does not claim these students are Master Managers or that these managers expect graduates to be Master Managers. However, it has demonstrated that internship has helped students move closer to the Master Manager.

This study has also found that the students' post-internship results were reasonably aligned with Quinn *et al.*'s (1987) research, which investigated the relationship between role profiles and different levels of management. There were high levels of congruence between the roles that students perceived they were most and least confident in and the roles of the front-line managers' competencies in Quinn *et al.*'s (1987) research. This is particularly evident in the roles that students ranked as being most confident in and the roles they ranked as being least confident in. Quinn *et al.* found that front-line managers focus highly on the Mentor role while the Broker role had a very low emphasis (1987). This present study found that, post-internship, students perceived they were most proficient with the Mentor role and least proficient with the Broker role. This, coupled with the high level of expectation that these managers attributed to these roles and competencies, demonstrate the application of the eight management roles and 24 management competencies of the CVF (Quinn *et al.*, 1990) to tourism and hospitality industries.

Given that students at the completion of the internship period are ready to graduate, these results provide valuable insight into how close the students are to meeting industry expectations as they commence their careers within tourism and hospitality industries. It is argued that, as entry level graduates, this cohort of students has the ability to demonstrate competence over a range of transferable generic management competencies. Also, due to the generic nature of these competencies and their recognised importance by this group of tourism and hospitality managers, this cohort of Bachelor of Business in Tourism graduates should be effectively equipped to undertake a range of managerial opportunities that may be presented to them.

In summary, the objectives of this study have been achieved. Firstly, the study identified the management competencies managers of organisations within tourism and hospitality

industries expect of recent tourism and hospitality graduates in relation to the CVF (Quinn *et al.*, 1990). Second, the study determined that some management competencies of the students are developed during the internship component of Southern Cross University's Bachelor of Business in Tourism degree. Finally the study found the expectations of selected managers of organisations in four tourism and hospitality sectors were met by this cohort of Southern Cross University's Bachelor of Business in Tourism students. Besides achieving these objectives, the study demonstrated the application of the 24 management competencies and eight roles of the CVF (Quinn *et al.*, 1990) to tourism and hospitality industries.

5.3 IMPLICATIONS OF THE STUDY'S FINDINGS

There were several limitations which prevent generalisations being made beyond the sample of students and managers used in this study, resulting in only tentative conclusions being drawn. However, there are implications that should be highlighted. These are discussed below.

5.3.1 Implications for Education Providers of Tourism and Hospitality Management Courses

The empirical findings of the study, supported by the literature in this area, suggest that both strong leadership and human relations skills will be important for graduates to succeed in tourism and hospitality industries. It will be important to ensure these skills areas are addressed in tourism and hospitality management curricula. The literature review revealed that the range of skills sought in graduates can change over time, highlighting the importance of continuing industry-based research and re-evaluation of curricula.

There are two competency areas of particular importance in developing future curricula. These are effective oral communication and teamwork skills. The students in this study reported reasonable confidence with Presenting Information by Writing Effectively. However, they reported Presenting Ideas and Oral Communication as the competency in which they were least confident, both before and after internship. Students also reported lower confidence with Team Building. As these two areas are highlighted throughout the literature as important skills for graduates to possess amongst other human relation skills, it is suggested that consideration should be given to assessing the effectiveness of teaching these skills in the current Bachelor of Business in Tourism curriculum.

This study has highlighted the importance of offering a curriculum in tourism and hospitality management that incorporates a blend of learning experiences that will develop and enhance students' level of management competence. The findings of this study provide valuable insight into the educational benefits of students completing a period of internship or co-op. It has argued that internship does make an important contribution to developing key management competencies in students. Tourism and hospitality educators should give serious consideration to incorporating a practical component such as internship or alternatively incorporate specialised training that will provide similar outcomes in terms of developing students' management competencies.

The literature suggests that internship is an integral component of a student's tourism and hospitality education. Graduates who have completed a practical experience are keenly sought by recruiters showing this is a major factor in the selection process. However, there is a decline in the number of universities now offering students these opportunities, mainly due to the high cost of maintaining such programs. The tentative findings of this study that internship does make an important contribution to developing key competencies in students should be seriously considered by educators in deciding current and future curricula.

5.3.2 Implications for Tourism and Hospitality Industries

The findings of this study have implications for those organisations within tourism and hospitality industries offering internship opportunities. Internships should be structured so that students are exposed to a range of opportunities that will enhance the development of their general management competencies. For example, cross training enables students to practise transferable skills across differing functional areas. This will help broaden students' learning and develop flexibility and adaptability. It is suggested that an internship that exposes students to some supervisory experience would greatly assist in developing their managerial competence. If the industry is serious about investing in and training future managers, it needs to ensure that the experiences offered provide adequate opportunities for students to develop those skills that industry requires of graduates.

The study found that this cohort of students were reasonably confident over a range of generic management competencies. Thus, with further experience they have the potential to become competent managers and supervisors. Tourism and hospitality organisations should seriously consider graduates from tourism and hospitality management degree programs when recruiting for management positions.

An important finding of this study was that students can develop several management competencies during their internship experience. It is suggested that tourism and hospitality organisations that invest time in internship programs can have direct input into the training of the industries' future managers. It is reported that internship is an opportunity for organisations to observe potential management staff without making long term commitments. Thus, involvement in such programs ensures that future employees are proficient in the skills they require for effective management.

5.3.3 Implications for Students and Graduates

The findings of this study have implications for students and graduates with respect to their own preparation for employment and future career planning. The students themselves must take responsibility for ensuring they are able to satisfy future employers in terms of the competencies required to be successful. This involves having an awareness and understanding of their managerial strengths and weaknesses and practising those requiring attention to ensure their ultimate success. The study has shown that students can effectively identify their strengths and weaknesses through self-evaluation using the S.A.M.S. (Di Padova, 1990) instrument. This then enables them to identify the strengths they know they can rely on, and also helps them to identify areas that need attention in order to be well balanced in the conflicting roles of management.

The findings also have implications for students in relation to their choice of internship position. Having identified their strengths and weaknesses, one way they can build on these is by choosing an appropriate internship placement. While not specifically investigated in this study, the literature reviewed suggests that the nature and structure of the internship position may have an influence on the types of management skills a student could develop. It is suggested when students select an internship position, consideration should be given to those experiences that have the potential to develop a wide range of managerial skills. Positions that provide students with the opportunity of supervisory roles will be of particular value. It is recommended that students plan their internship carefully and thoughtfully to gain maximum value in terms of their managerial competence development.

5.4 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

The limitations of this study are detailed in the discussion below.

This study does not claim to reach conclusions applicable to all students who complete an internship or practicum in an undergraduate tourism and/or hospitality management degree program. In terms of the student sample, the study was limited to the 1996, third year students of the Bachelor of Business in Tourism program, from Southern Cross University. Only this group of internship students was used in this study due to time and funding considerations. A more encompassing study might offer further insight into the issues raised in this study relating to the link between internship and students' management competency development.

While not investigated in this study, it is recognised there may be intervening variables or influences that may have contributed to any changes that occurred in students' management competencies during the internship period. For example, the level of training provided, the types of opportunities that were offered, the nature of the position held during the internship period or students' own personal development through other life experiences may have been contributing factors. Concerns associated with external validity have been considered when selecting the design for the study and it is recognised there are limitations to generalising results to the wider population. However, results give an indication of what changes occurred in students' management competencies for this cohort of students. While not suggesting a causal relationship, this study provides valuable insight into the relationship between internship and students' management competencies, that could be considered in further research of other students undertaking such programs.

This study has limitations relating to the representation of the tourism and hospitality industries' sample. Again the study does not generalise conclusions to all managers within these industries. Due to constraints of time and funding and the desire to maximise response rates, this study was limited to a selected sample of 200 managers within organisations who have either employed graduates of the Bachelor of Business in Tourism or been associated with the School's internship program. This sample size was a compromise between an effort to maintain statistical validity and resource constraints. Not all sectors were represented as the industry sample was limited to the top four sectors (50 in each sector) that employed the School's Bachelor of Business in Tourism' graduates at that time. The majority of organisations from these two databases were located either in New South Wales or Queensland and therefore the managers' sample was skewed towards these states.

A further limitation relates to the selection of the managers' sample in that two different methods were employed. Two sampling methods (purposive and snowballing) were employed to select the survey participants for this stage of the research. Purposive sampling was used for the hotel/resort and club sectors. However, the airlines and government

sectors failed to meet the required quota number of 50 within the two databases. Therefore, in this study the known airline and government managers were approached and asked to recommend other managers within the sector who may be willing to participate in the survey. It is acknowledged that the lack of consistency in the selection of this sample of managers may be a limitation. However, the overall response rate of 76%, which is relatively uncommon for tourism and hospitality mail survey research, does assist in justifying the use of these methods.

A limitation is also noted in that only a single approach (mail survey) was used in the empirical stages to collect data. Thus, there was no opportunity for data verification through triangulation. This presents an opportunity for future research in this area.

Finally, the study is also limited in terms of the survey instrument used. A task in this research was to find an appropriate management competency framework with suitable application to tourism and hospitality industries and to find an instrument capable of measuring and comparing both students' management competencies and managers' expectations of graduates' management competencies. A literature review found that no prior tourism and hospitality studies similar to this study had been conducted. Therefore these measurements were limited to the constructs of the S.A.M.S. (DiPadova,1990) instrument which measures 24 management competencies and eight managerial roles associated with Quinn *et al.*'s (1990) CVF, the theoretical model used for this study. Other management competencies may exist which were not measured by this instrument.

It is important to note that the findings of this study were limited to students' perceptions of their management competencies not actual competencies. Similarly, the survey instrument measured employers' expectations of graduates' management competencies not those that might actually be required on the job

5.5 CONTRIBUTION TO KNOWLEDGE

While subject to the limitations identified above, this study has made several empirical, theoretical and methodological contributions to knowledge.

5.5.1 Empirical Contribution

To the author's knowledge, this study is the first in the tourism and hospitality field that has attempted to empirically evaluate students before and after internship to determine the

contribution that internship makes to developing their management competencies. Many prior studies have examined the value of internship in terms of skills development and have argued that through internship students can develop in several key competencies (Tas, 1988; LeBruto and Murray, 1994; Bell and Schmidt; 1996). However, most studies based their findings on the perceptions and views of industry experts, students and educators rather than through actual assessment of students pre- and post-internship. Thus, this study makes an important contribution to knowledge as it builds on the prior work of other researchers and assists in validating their claims.

Additionally, this study has provided valuable insight into the management competencies tourism and hospitality employers expect of recent graduates. Prior to this study, much of the research in this area has emanated from the US and UK while empirical research in the Australian context is limited. While not specific to tourism and hospitality, DEETYA's (1998) study of employer satisfaction with new graduates provided a comprehensive evaluation of the skills and competencies required of business graduates. Research in Australia reporting an empirical evaluation of its tourism and hospitality employers is limited. Richins *et al.*, (1994) investigated the perceived training needs of sport, tourism and recreation management and concluded that more research in the Australian context needs to be conducted to assess the management skills and knowledge that graduates should learn. Although this present study was limited to only surveying four sectors of tourism and hospitality industries it makes a significant contribution to this reportedly under-researched area.

Finally, this study has provided a comparison between tourism and hospitality employers' expectations of graduates' management competencies and Southern Cross University students' perceptions of their management competence and found a high level of congruence. Again, to the author's knowledge, there appears to be no studies reporting such investigation. While the relevance of these findings are limited to Southern Cross University' School of Tourism and Hospitality Management, it demonstrates the importance of ensuring that students are equipped with competencies and knowledge required by industry as they graduate and enter employment.

5.5.2 Theoretical and Methodological Contributions

This study has also made theoretical and methodological contributions to knowledge.

First, the study utilised a general management framework, the CVF (Quinn *et al.*, 1990), to assess the contribution that internship makes to developing students' management

competencies and to identify tourism and hospitality employers' expectations of recent graduates' management competencies. The use of this model has demonstrated the importance of generic management competencies in tourism and hospitality management. As noted in Chapter Four, there is growing support in the tourism and hospitality literature to nurturing a generic rather than industry specific approach to management (Jones, 1991; Pavesic, 1993; Francis, 1996; Williams and DeMicco, 1998). This study has also shown the effectiveness and applicability of using the CVF and associated S.A.M.S (Di Padova, 1990) instrument to assess two distinct groups – students' perceptions and employers' expectations - so that meaningful comparisons can be made.

Second, the study has demonstrated the application of the CVF (Quinn *et al.*'s, 1990) and S.A.M.S. (Di Padova, 1990) instrument to tourism and hospitality industries. Prior research into skills and competencies required for effective tourism and hospitality management emphasised that a range of general management competencies are considered crucial (Williams and DeMicco, 1998). Also, diversity is important and managers will require global and entrepreneurial skills to meet the challenges of the 21st century (Su, Miller and Shanklin, 1997). Also, several overseas studies have examined the issue of management competencies required for tourism and hospitality management in relation to taxonomies of general management (Tas, 1988; Francis, 1996). This study provides further support to these studies, particularly given the high level of expectation that the managers in this present study attributed to the roles and competencies within the CVF (Quinn *et al.*, 1990). Thus, the present study has shown that the CVF can provide a theoretical basis for evaluating the effectiveness of internship programs and is also useful for conducting needs analysis of tourism and hospitality industries to determine the management competencies they require of graduates.

Finally, to the author's knowledge, this study has been the first to utilise a pre-test and post-test approach to assess students' management competencies to determine any changes that may have occurred during the internship period. It has also been the first to empirically assess students' level of management competence as they enter the workforce. As noted in section 2.11, while other disciplines have made significant advances in this area, research in tourism and hospitality is slow. Tas (1988) identified the need for research to determine whether graduate management trainees actually demonstrate the competencies required by industry. Similarly, Branton *et al.* (1991 in McDowell and Comerford, 1996) stressed the importance of empirical research to provide evidence that students' management competencies develop during internship in light of the continuing debate regarding the legitimacy of internship as an academic exercise. Thus, this study's findings will be a valuable contribution to both these issues.

5.6 RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

This study has revealed certain gaps in research into the contribution of internship to developing students' management competencies and into tourism and hospitality employers' expectations of and satisfaction with graduates. Thus, the following recommendations warrant further investigation.

5.6.1 Evaluation of Internship or Practical Work Experience

There is widespread agreement amongst educators, industry and students of the value of undertaking a practical component in preparation for a career within tourism and hospitality industries. However, as reported there is a severe lack of empirical evidence with respect to the educational benefits of internship programs that validates these claims. The debate continues regarding the legitimacy of internship as an academic exercise that will reap long-term benefits for the industry. While the results of this research make a valuable contribution to this current debate, further research investigating this issue is required for the results of this study to be verified across other student groups, tourism and hospitality educational programs and industry sectors.

This study was, for practical reasons, limited to only one cohort of students from Southern Cross University. A larger study encompassing other universities offering similar courses could be conducted to determine the contribution internship makes to developing students' management competencies and to validate the findings of this study.

As discussed earlier, there may be intervening variables that have contributed to the changes that occurred in students' management competencies during the internship period. Further studies could also investigate other possible influences such as the nature and structure of the internship or whether changes during the period were a function of the students' gender or the type of internship sector.

This study was limited to measuring students' perceptions of their pre- and post-internship management competencies. Further studies could build on the findings of this study by measuring actual, as well as perceived competencies. As well as validating the claims that internship develops student's management competencies, a combination of methods could also further validate claims that students' perceived management competencies are an accurate measure of their actual competence. In addition, studies that utilise multi-methods (for example, qualitative, case studies and focus groups) that might verify or help to explain the results more completely are recommended.

It is also suggested that a longitudinal study of the students used in this study would be appropriate to determine if they are actually demonstrating the competencies required by their industry employers and to determine the extent to which further experience has affected their level of managerial competence.

5.6.2 Evaluation of Employers' Expectations of and Satisfaction with Graduates

The literature review revealed there is a severe lack of Australian-based research in tourism and hospitality industries that investigates employers' expectations of and satisfaction with graduates from tourism and hospitality management degree programs. Thus, continuing research in this area is warranted. Also, further insights into the differences that may exist between sectors would be valuable to both students and educators to see whether the various sectors of tourism and hospitality industries have similar expectations.

Further studies investigating the relationship between a manager's level in the hierarchy and levels of managerial competence are also required. Overseas studies in the hospitality field have indicated that such a relationship does exist and that different types of competencies are required at different levels of management. This would assist students to better understand what is expected of them as trainee or junior managers.

This study was limited to quantitative data. However, qualitative research in this area is required to illuminate some of the issues raised in this study and to validate the quantitative findings. More in-depth analysis using a qualitative approach could provide valuable information about what employers are looking for in graduates, to determine how satisfied they are with their actual performance and to determine how students could be better prepared to undertake management positions in the industry.

Finally, this study investigated the managers' expectations of graduates from undergraduate degree programs. The proliferation of undergraduate degree courses is also accompanied by an increased offering of post-graduate degree programs in tourism and hospitality. For example the School of Tourism and Hospitality at Southern Cross University now offers four post-graduate course-work Masters programs with plans of more in the near future. Further research could identify the level of managerial competence the industry expects of these post-graduates.

5.7 CONCLUSION

This final chapter has provided a brief summary of the study and has drawn together the main findings in relation to the three research objectives and two hypotheses tested. The implications of the study in relation to tourism and hospitality management curriculum development, the tourism and hospitality industry and students undertaking tourism and hospitality management courses have been presented. The major limitations of the study have been specified and the empirical, theoretical and methodological contributions to knowledge have been identified. Finally recommendations for potential research based on the main findings of the study have been discussed.

As indicated in Section 1.1, tourism and hospitality industries play a significant role in Australia's economy and anticipate continuing growth over the next decade (WTTC, 1996). However the reported shortage of suitably qualified workers and managers raises concerns regarding the quality of tourism and hospitality management education in Australia and its effectiveness in producing graduates who can meet the demands of the 21st century (Umbreit, 1993).

This study has argued that, to meet these demands, graduates will need to possess a diverse range of general management skills. It has also demonstrated the need for a well balanced education that combines theory with practice to optimise students' learning and skill development. Furthermore, while this study has provided valuable insight into the relationship between internship and the development of students' management competencies, a continued research effort is required to support the claims relating to the importance of this component of a students' tourism and hospitality education. Similarly, the apparent lack of published tourism and hospitality research in the Australian context, investigating employers' expectations of and satisfaction with tourism and hospitality graduates, highlights the urgent need for both qualitative and quantitative studies to guide educators in developing relevant curricula that is responsive to industry's needs. Collaboration with industry, educators and students/ graduates is essential to ensure the goals of all primary stakeholders are being met.

In concluding, the contentions of Lewis (1992) illustrate the important role tourism and hospitality management educators have to play in the development of Australia's future leaders:

As hospitality educators, it is our mandate to seek solutions, to do research, to get involved, to be visionaries of the industry, and to teach students new ideas and new ways of doing things in preparation for their entry into industry

(Lewis, 1982:12)

It is hoped that this study has made a valuable contribution to this mandate.

References

- Argyrous, G., (1996). *Statistics for Social Research*, MacMillan Education Australia Pty Ltd, Melbourne, VIC.
- Ashworth, P. and Saxton, J., (1989). *Experiential learning during sandwich degree placements and the question of assessment*. Centre for Education Management and Administration, Sheffield City Polytechnic, Sheffield, U.K.: Sheffield papers in Education Management 82.
- Australian Department of Tourism, (1992). *Tourism: Australia's passport to growth: a national tourism strategy*, AGPS, Canberra.
- Australian National Training Authority, (1997). *Front-line Management Development Kit*, Pilot Edition, Prentice Hall, French's Forrest.
- Australian National Training Authority, (1999). *Front-line Management Initiative and the Management Enhancement Team Approach*, available at http://www.anta.gov.au/anta_prod/ABC/META.htm accessed 22 December 1999.
- Barham, K. and Antal, A., (1994). 'Competencies for the Pan-European Manager', in Kirkbridge, P., (ed), *Human Resource Management for Europe*, Routledge, London, pp. 222-241.
- Barron, P., and Maxwell, G., (1993). 'Hospitality Management Students' Image of the Hospitality Industry', *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, Vol. 5, No. 5, pp. viii.
- Barron, P., (1994). 'Students' Perceptions of the Hospitality Industry - The Impact of Supervised Work Experience', paper presented at the *Industrial Tutor Conference*, Sheffield, UK, June.
- Barron, P., (1999). 'The Theory and Practice of Industrial Placement: An Analysis of Hospitality Students' Experiences', Proceedings of the *CAUTHE National Research Conference*, Adelaide, pp. 120-130.
- Baum, T., (1988). 'Ireland: Toward a New Definition of Hotel Management', *The Cornell H.R.A. Quarterly*, Vol. 20, No. 2, pp. 36-40.

- Baum, T., (1990). 'Competencies for Hotel Management: Industry Expectations of Education', *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, Vol. 2, No. 4, pp. 13-16.
- Baum, T., (1991). 'The US and the UK: Comparing Expectations of Management Trainees', *The Cornell H.R.A. Quarterly*, Vol. 32, No. 1, pp. 79-84.
- Bell, B., and Schmidt, C., (1996). 'Field Practicums - What Influence on Graduate Careers?', in Yarrow, A., Millwater, J., DeVries, S. and Creedy, D., (eds.), *Practical Experiences in Professional Education: Research Monograph*, No 1., pp. 123-134, Queensland University of Technology Publications and Printery, Brisbane.
- Bialkowski, R., (1996). 'Change Management in Canberra Clubs', *Bulletin*, Newsletter of the Licensed Clubs Association of the ACT Inc., Vol. 3, No.5, June, pp. 5-7.
- Bloom, T., (1978). 'The Hospitality Education Advisory Committee', *Journal of Hospitality Education*, Vol. 2, No. 2, pp. 39-47.
- Boyatzis, R. E., (1982). *The Competent Manager: A Model for Effective Performance*, John Wiley & Sons, New York.
- Breiter, P., (1991). 'The value of co-operative education', *Hospitality and Tourism Educator*, Vol. 4, No. 1, pp. 31-64.
- Buckley, M., Peach, E., and Weitzel, W., (1989). 'Are collegiate business programs adequately preparing students for the business world?', *Journal of Education for Business*, Vol. 65, pp. 101-105.
- Buergermeister, J., (1983). 'Assessment of the educational skills and competencies needed by beginning hospitality managers'. *Hospitality Education and Research Journal*, Vol. 8, No. 1, pp. 38-53.
- Burbidge, D. J., (1994), 'Student Perception of Preparation for Success: A View from Europe', *Hospitality and Tourism Educator*, Vol. 4, No. 4, pp. 45-50.

- Burgoyne, J., (1989). 'Creating the Managerial Portfolio: Building on Competency Approaches to Management Development', *Management Education and Development*, Vol. 22, No. 1, pp. 56-61.
- Burgoyne, J., (1990). *Doubts about Competency*, Unwin Hyman, London.
- Burns, W., (1993). 'The Guide to Training in Australia 1993/94', *National Review*, Gore and Osment Publications.
- Candy, P., Crebert, G. and O'Leary, J., (1994). *Developing Life Long Learners through Undergraduate Education*, Queensland University of Technology.
- Carlopio, J., Andrewartha, G., and Armstrong, H., (1997). *Developing management skills in Australia*, Longman, Sydney.
- Casado, M., (1991). 'Perceptions of Corporate Recruiters, Alumni, and Educators toward Critical Factors of Hotel/Restaurant Management Programmes: A Comparative Study (Restaurant Management Programs)', *University Microfilms International*, No. 9209521, Ann Arbor, MI.
- Cichy, R. and Sciarini, M., (1990). 'Do You Fit This Profile of a Hospitality Leader?', *Lodging*, Vol. 15, No. 10, pp. 40-42.
- Cichy, R., Sciarini, M., and Patton, M., (1992). 'Food - Service Leadership: Could Attila Run a Restaurant?', *The Cornell H.R.A. Quarterly*, Vol. 33, No. 1, pp. 47-55.
- Cichy, R., Sciarini, M., Cook, C. and Patton, M., (1991). 'Leadership in the Lodging and Non-Commercial Food Service Industries', *FIU Hospitality Review*, Vol. 9, No. 1, pp. 1-10.
- Cichy, R. F., and Schmidgall, R. S., (1996). 'Leadership Qualities of Financial Executives in the US Lodging Industry', *Cornell H. R. A. Quarterly*, April, pp. 56-62.
- Coakes, S. J., and Steed, L. G., (1996). *SPSS for Windows: Analysis Without Anguish*. John Wiley & Sons, Brisbane.
- Cochran, S.B. and Spears, M., (1980). 'Student self-assessment and instructors' ratings: A comparison', *Journal of the American Dietetic Association*, Vol. 76, pp. 253-257.

- Collins, C., (1993). 'Introduction', in Collins, C., (ed), *Competencies: The Competencies Debate in Australian Education and Training*, Australian College of Education, Canberra, pp. 3-12.
- Craig-Smith, S. J., (1997). *An Evaluation of the Development of Hospitality and Tourism Programs in Australia Between 1987 and 1997*, unpublished Master of Education Thesis, University of Queensland.
- Craig-Smith, S., Davidson, M., and French, C., (1994). 'Hospitality and tourism education in Australia: Challenges and opportunities', in proceedings from the *Australian National Tourism Research and Education Conferences*, Gold Coast, QLD, pp. 311-320.
- Craig-Smith, S., and Shortland-Webb, G., (1999). 'Tourism and Hospitality Education Developments at University Level: Finding the Right Niche in a Crowded Market', paper presented at the *1999 CAUTHE National Research Conference*, Adelaide, SA, February.
- D'Annunzio-Green, N., (1997). 'Developing international managers in the hospitality industry', *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, Vol. 9, No. 5/6, pp. 109-208.
- Dawkins, J.S. and Holding, A., (1987). *Skills for Australia*, Canberra, AGPS.
- Denison, Daniel. R., (1990). 'Notes on teaching with Becoming a Master Manager: A Competency Framework', in DiPadova L.N., (ed.), *Instructional Guide to accompany Becoming A Master Manager: A Competency Framework*, pp. 23-26.
- Department of Employment, Education and Training, (1991). *The Australian Mission on Management Skills*. AGPS, Canberra.
- Department of Employment, Education, Training and Youth Affairs, (1998). *Interim Report on Research on Employer Satisfaction with Graduate Skills*, AC Nielson Research Services, Canberra.

- Deves, L., (1998). 'Developing Managerial Competence Through Cooperative Education', paper presented at the *Asia Pacific Conference, World Association for Cooperative Education*, Hong Kong, August.
- Di Micelli, P. Jr., (1998). 'Building Theory and Practical Experience: A Hands-On Approach to Educating Hospitality Managers', *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Education*, Vol. 10, No. 1, pp. 32-36.
- Di Padova, L.N., (1990). *Instructional Guide to Accompany Becoming a Master Manager: A Competency Framework*, John Wiley and Sons, New York
- Di Padova, L. N., and Faerman, S. F., (1993). 'Using the Competing Values Framework to Facilitate Managerial Understanding Across Levels of Organisational Hierarchy', in O'Neill, R. M. and Quinn, R., (eds), *Human Resource Management*, Spring, pp.141-175.
- Dillman, R., (1978), *Mail and Telephone Surveys: The Total Design Method*, John Wiley and Sons, New York.
- Dimmock, K., (1999). 'Management style and competitive strategies among tourism firms in the Northern Rivers', *Tourism Management*, Vol. 20, pp. 323-339.
- Downey, J. F., and DeVeau, L., (1988). 'Hospitality Internships: an industry view', *The Cornell H.R.A. Quarterly*, Vol. 29, No. 3, pp. 18-20.
- Emenheiser, D. A., Clayton, H. R., and Tas, R. F., (1997). 'Students' perceptions of the effectiveness of the hospitality industry internship experience', in proceedings of the *1997 Annual CHRIE Conference, USA*, pp. 221-222.
- Employment and Skills Formation Council, (1988). *Industry Training in Australia: The Need for Change*, AGPS, Canberra.
- Faerman, S. R., Quinn, R. E., and Thompson, M. P., (1987). 'Bridging Management Practice and Theory', *Public Administration Review*, Vol. 47, No. 3, pp. 311-319.
- Fayol, H., (1949). *General and Industrial Management*. Pitman, London.

- Ford, Robert, C., and LeBruto, Stephen, (1995). 'Management Education in the USA: How much practical hotel management education is necessary?', *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, Vol. 7, No. 5, pp. 1-5.
- Francis, S., (1996). 'A Profile of General Managers of International Hotels in New Zealand', *Australian Journal of Hospitality Management*, Spring, pp. 53-59.
- Gay, L. R., (1996). *Educational Research: Competencies for Analysis and Application*, (5th edition), Prentice-Hall Inc., New Jersey.
- Geissler, J., and Martin, L., (1998). 'Are We Staying Current in the Preparation of Our Hospitality Management Graduates', *Journal of Tourism and Hospitality Education*, Vol. 10, No. 3, pp. 47-50.
- Goodman, R., and Sprague, L., (1991). 'The Future of Hospitality Education: Meeting the Industry's Needs', *The Cornell H.R.A. Quarterly*, August, pp. 66-70.
- Hales, C., (1986). 'What Do Managers Do?: A Critical Review of the Evidence', *Journal of Management Studies*, Vol. 23, pp. 88-115.
- Hales, C., and Nightingale, M., (1986). 'What are unit managers supposed to do? A contingent methodology for investigating managerial role requirements', *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, Vol. 5, No. 1, pp. 3-11.
- Harter, S., (1985). 'Competence as a dimension of self-evaluation: Toward a comprehensive model of self-worth'. In R. Leahy (Ed). *The development of self*. New York: Academic Press.
- Haywood, M., (1989). 'A radical proposal for hospitality and tourism education', *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, Vol. 8, No. 4, pp. 259-264.
- Herrick, M. A., (1987). 'The effects of internship experience and participant modelling on the skill development and psychological adjustment of rehabilitation education interns', unpublished doctoral dissertation, Pennsylvania State University, *Dissertation Abstracts International*, Vol. 48, No. 06A, pp. 1398.
- Hobson, J. S. P., (1995). 'The development of hospitality and tourism education in Australia', *Hospitality and Tourism Educator*, Vol. 7, No. 4, pp. 25-29.

- Hyden, H., (1994). 'From manager to leader', *Executive Excellence*, Vol. 11, No. 12, pp. 10.
- Isles, P., (1995). 'Learning to work with a difference', *Personnel Review*, Vol. 24, No. 6, pp. 51-7.
- Johnson, D., (1976). 'Evaluation of Hotel, Restaurant and Institutional Management Graduates: A Ten Year Review', *Microfiche Ed.*, pp. 138-327.
- Johnson, H., (1992). 'The Universities and Competency-based Standards' in Anderson, D., (ed), *Higher Education and the Competency Movement*, ANU, Canberra.
- Johnson, P., (1977). 'The Corpus of Professional Knowledge' in *Hotel, Catering and Institutional Services*, HCIMA, UK.
- Jones, P., (1990). 'A Profile for Management Development and Training', *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, Vol. 2, No. 2, pp. 7-12.
- Jones, W. P., (1991). 'Another Graduate Education Model', *The Cornell H.R.A. Quarterly*, August, pp. 70 - 72.
- Ju, J., Emenheiser, D., Clayton, H., and Reynolds, J., (1998/99). 'Korean Students' Perceptions of the Effectiveness of their Internship Experiences in the Hospitality Industry in Korea', *Asia Pacific Journal of Tourism Research*, Vol. 3, No. 1, pp. 37-44.
- Kandola, B., (1996). 'Are competencies too much of a good thing?', *Personnel Management*, Vol. 2, No. 9, pp. 21.
- Karpin, D., (1995). 'Enterprising Nation: Renewing Australia's Managers to Meet the Challenges of the Asia Pacific Century', Executive Summary, *Report of the Industry Task Force on Leadership and Management Skills*, AGPS, Canberra.
- Katz, R., (1974). 'Skills of An Effective Administrator', *Harvard Business Review*, September-October, pp. 90-102.
- Kavanaugh, R., and Woods, R., (1993). 'Critical Elements: Making it in Management', *Hosteur*, pp. 8-9.

- Keiser, J. R., (1989), *Principles and Practices of Management in the Hospitality Industry*, 2nd Edition, Van Nostrand Reinhold, New York.
- Knight, J., (1984). 'Comparisons of the perceptions of educators, trainers and trainees toward selected hospitality management training techniques', unpublished thesis, *Dissertation Abstracts International*, Vol. 45, No. 10A, pp. 3078.
- Knutson, B. J., and Patton, M. E., (1992), 'How Prepared Am I to Succeed In the Hospitality Industry? What the Students are Telling Us', *Hospitality and Tourism Educator*, Vol. 4, No. 3, pp. 38-43.
- Koop, G., (1993). 'Providing for Diversity in Field Experience Curriculum', proceedings of the *ANZALS Conference*, Griffith University, Brisbane, April, pp. 124-128.
- Kotter, J. P., (1982). *The General Managers*. MacMillan, New York.
- Lamond, D., (1996). 'Karpin On Management: Is That All Managers Should Be Doing?', *Journal of the Australian and New Zealand Academy of Management*, Vol. 2, No. 1, pp. 21-35.
- LeBruto, S., and Murray, K., (1994). 'The educational value of captive hotels', *The Cornell H.R.A. Quarterly*, Vol. 35, No. 4, pp. 72-79.
- Leedy, P. D., (1985). *Practical Research: Planning and Design* (4th Edition), MacMillan Publishing Company, New York.
- Leiper, N., (1995). *Tourism Management*, RMIT Press, Victoria.
- Lewis, R. C., (1982). 'Hospitality Education at the Crossroads', *Cornell HRA Quarterly*, Vol. 23, No. 2, pp.12-15.
- Li, L. and Kivela, J., (1998), 'Different Perceptions Between Hotel Managers and Students Regarding Levels of Competency Demonstrated by Hospitality Degree Graduates', *Australian Journal of Hospitality Management*, Vol. 5, No. 2, pp. 47-53.
- Loyd, M., and Vaden, A., (1977). 'Practitioners Identify Competencies for Entry-Level Dietitians', *Journal of the American Dietetic Association*, Vol. 71, No. 5, pp. 510.

- Luke, D. and Ingold, A., (1990). 'Planning for Industry: A Study in Curriculum Design', *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, Vol. 2, No. 2, pp. 20-23.
- Luthans, F., Hogetts, R. and Rosenkrantz, (1988). *Real Managers*, Ballinger Publishing Co, US.
- Maes, J., Weldy, T., and Icenogle, M., (1997). 'A managerial perspective: Oral communication competency is most important for business students in the workplace', *Journal of Business Communication*, Vol. 34, No. 1, pp. 67-80.
- Manpower Services Commission., (1988). '*Management Competencies*' - A Classification, Draft MSC Report.
- Marginson, S., (1993). 'Generic Competencies', *Higher Education Series Occasional*, Paper 4, DEET, Canberra.
- Mariampolski, A., Spears, M., and Vaden, A., (1980). 'What the Restaurant Manager Needs to Know: The Consensus', *The Cornell H.R.A. Quarterly*, Vol. 21, No. 3, pp. 77-81.
- Martin, M. D., (1983). 'An Assessment of Changes in Leadership Styles of Interns Relating to Supervisors in an Administrative Career Development Program', *Dissertation Abstracts International*, Vol. 44, No. 04A, pp. 0939.
- Martin, G. and Staines, H., (1994). 'Managerial Competences in Small Firms', *Journal of Management Development*, Vol. 13, No. 7, pp. 23-34.
- Mayer Committee, (1992). *Employment-Related Key Competencies for Post-Compulsory Education and Training: A Discussion Paper*, Mayer Committee, Melbourne.
- Mayo, E., (1945). *The Social Problems of an Industrial Civilization*, Arno Press, New York.
- McDowell, M. and Comerford, J., (1996). 'Educational Benefits of Cooperative Education', in proceedings of the *Second Pacific Conference*, Australian Cooperative Education Society, Melbourne, July, pp. 141-148.

- McMahon, U., and Quinn, U., (1995). 'Maximising the hospitality management student work placement experience: A case study', *Education and Training*, Vol. 37, No. 4, pp. 13-17.
- McMullin, R. A., (1998). 'Comparison by Hospitality Management Graduates of Perceived Experiential-Program-Acquired Skills with Perceived Employment Needs', *Dissertation Abstracts International*, Vol. 60, No. 01A, pp. 0078.
- Metheny, William. M., (1990). 'Using Quinn *et al.* In Large Management Classes', in DiPadova L.N., (ed), *Instructional Guide to Accompany Becoming A Master Manager : A Competency Framework.*, John Wiley and Sons, New York, pp. 27-30.
- Michaelsen, D. L., (1990). 'Team Learning and Development of Leadership Competencies', in DiPadova L.N., (ed), *Instructional Guide to Accompany Becoming A Master Manager : A Competency Framework*, John Wiley and Sons, New York, pp. 31-41.
- Miller, P., (1992). *The Effects of Privatisation on Front Line Managerial Competencies*, unpublished Master of Business Thesis, University of New England-Northern Rivers, Lismore, NSW, Australia.
- Miller, P., (1998), *The Effectiveness of Competency-Based Management Development and the Relationship Between Individual and Business Performance*, unpublished Doctoral Dissertation, Southern Cross University, Lismore, NSW, Australia.
- Miner, J., (1973), 'The real crunch in managerial power', *Harvard Business Review*, Nov/Dec, pp. 146-158.
- Minister for Employment, Education and Training, (1988). *A Changing Workforce*, Australian Government Publishing Service, Canberra.
- Mintzberg, H., (1973). *The Nature of Managerial Work*, Prentice-Hall, Englewood Cliffs, NJ.
- Mintzberg, H., (1975), 'The manager's job: folklore and fact', *Harvard Business Review*, July-Aug, pp. 49-61.

- Mintzberg, H., (1990), 'The manager's job: folklore and fact', *Harvard Business Review*, Vol 68, pp. 163-176.
- Mullins, L. J., (1988). *Management and Organisational Behaviour*, 2nd Edition, Pitman.
- Mullins, L.J. and Aldrich, P., (1988). 'An Integrated Model of Management and Managerial Development', *Journal of Management Development*, Vol 7, No. 3, pp. 29-39.
- Mullins, L., J. and Davies, I., (1991). 'What Makes for an Effective Hotel Manager',? *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, Vol. 3, No. 1, pp. 22-25.
- National Board of Employment, Education and Training, (1990). *Interim report on the Benchmark Study of Management Development in Australian Private Enterprises*, NBEET, Canberra.
- National Board of Employment, Education and Training, (1992). *Skills Required of Graduates: One Test of Quality in Australian Higher Education*, NBEET, Canberra.
- National Training Board, (1991). *National Competency Standards: Policy and Guidelines*, AGPS, Canberra.
- National Training Board, (1993). *National Competency Standards: Policy and Guidelines*, 2nd Edition, AGPS, Canberra.
- Nettle, D., (1996). 'The Karpin Enquiry and the Role of Management Education in Australia: History Revisited?', *Labour and Industry*, Vol. 7, No. 2, pp. 103-121.
- Nichols, T., (1992). 'Clinical experiences in teacher preparation: a scope and sequence model', *Eric Document Reproduction Service*, No. ED 342 766.
- Norusis, M., (1992), *SPSS for Windows: Professional Statistics*, SPSS Inc., Chicago, IL.
- O'Halloran, R., (1992). 'Tourism Professionals Rate Resource and Skill Importance: A Comparison of Successful Managers', in Ruddy, J., (ed), *Direction 2000:*

- Education and Human Resource Development for the Hospitality and Tourism Industry*, Hong Kong Polytechnic, Hong Kong, pp. 292-305.
- Okeiyi, E., Finley, D., and Postel, R., (1994). 'Food and Beverage Management Competencies: Educator, Industry and Student Perspectives', *Hospitality and Tourism Educator*, Vol. 6, No. 4, pp. 37-40.
- O'Neill, R. M., and Quinn, R. E., (1993). 'Editor's Note: Applications of the Competing Values Framework', *Human Resource Management*, Vol. 32. Spring, pp. 1-7.
- Ott, L., (1988). *An Introduction to Statistical Methods and Data Analysis*, PWS-Kent Publishing, Boston.
- Paprock, K., (1992). 'Response ability versus the cult of coverage', National Conference on Creating the Quality School, *ERIC Documentation Reproduction Service*, No. ED 346 067.
- Pauze, E. F., Johnson, W. A., and Miller, J. L., (1989). 'Internship strategy for hospitality management programs', *Hospitality and Education Research Journal*, Vol. 13, No.3, pp. 301-307.
- Pavesic, D. V., (1993). 'Hospitality Education 2005: Curricular and Programmatic Trends', *Hospitality Research Journal*, Vol. 17, No. 1, pp. 284-289.
- Paxson, M. C., (1995). 'Increasing Survey Response Rates', *Cornell HRA Quarterly*, August, pp. 66 - 73.
- Petrillose, M. J., and Montgomery, R., (1998). 'An Exploratory Study of Internship Practices in Hospitality Education and Industry's Perception of the Importance of Internships in Hospitality Curriculum', *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Education*, Vol. 9, No. 4, pp. 46-51.
- Pierce, C., (1994). 'Executive Competencies: Research issues, activities and responses', *Executive Development*, Vol. 7, No. 4, pp. 18-20.
- Poole, B., (1998). *Management Education*, unpublished paper in partial fulfilment of Master of Education, Training and Development, Southern Cross University, Lismore, Australia, pp. 1-16.

- Porter, Lyman. W. and McKibbin, L. E., (1988). *Management Education and Development: Drift of Thrust into the 21st Century?* McGraw-Hill, New York.
- Quinn, R., (1991). *Beyond Rational Management: Mastering the Paradoxes and Competing Demands of High Performance*. Jossey-Bass Publishers, San Francisco.
- Quinn, R., and Rohrbaugh, J., (1983). 'A Spatial Model of Effectiveness Criteria: Toward a Competing Values Approach to Organisational Analysis', *Management Science*, Vol. 29, No. 3, pp. 363-377.
- Quinn, R., Faerman, S., and Dixit, N., (1987), 'Perceived Performance: Some Archetypes of Managerial Effectiveness and Ineffectiveness', working paper, *Institute for Government and Policy Studies*, Department of Public Administration, State University of New York, Albany.
- Quinn, R., Faerman, S., Thompson, M., and McGrath, M., (1990). *Becoming A Master Manager: A Competency Framework*, John Wiley and Sons, USA.
- Reich, A. Z., and DeFranco, A.L., (1994). 'How to teach so students learn: Part one', *Hospitality and Tourism Education Journal*, Vol. 6, No. 1, pp. 45-49
- Richins, H., Tait, R., and Hamlin, C., (1994). 'Merging needs in sport, recreation and tourism education: A pilot study in Victoria and New South Wales, Australia', proceedings from the *Tourism, Research and Education Conference*, Gold Coast, pp. 369-380.
- Roberts, L., and Whitelaw, P., (1999). 'Turning Waiters into Managers', paper presented to the *CAUTHE National Research Conference*, February, Adelaide.
- Robins, S. and Mukerji, Debu, (1990). *Managing Organisations: New Challenges and Perspectives*, Prentice-Hall, New York.
- Ruddy, J., (1993). 'Development of New-Age Hotel Managers: Needs and Key Concerns', in Ruddy, J., (ed), *Direction 2000: Education and Human Resource Development for the Hospitality and Tourism Industry*, Hong Kong Polytechnic, Hong Kong, pp. 85-97.

- Ryan, C., and Barnett, S., (1995). 'Hotel conference managers: skills and training needs in New Zealand', *Journal of Vacation Marketing*, Vol. 1, No. 4, pp. 349-359.
- Samenfink, W., (1994). 'A quantitative analysis of certain interpersonal skills required in the service encounter', *Hospitality Research Journal*, Vol. 17. No. 2, pp. 3-15.
- Sandwith, P., (1993). 'A Hierarchy of Management Training Requirements: The Competency Domain Model', *Public Personnel Management*, Vol. 22, No.1, pp. 43-62.
- Sarantakos, S., (1995). *Social Research*. MacMillan Education Australia Pty Ltd, Melbourne.
- School of Behavioural Sciences, (1987). 'Research and Design Statistics for the School of Sciences', *Course Notes, School of Behavioural Sciences*, Macquarie University, Sydney.
- School of Tourism and Hospitality Management, (1999). Submission to the *NSW Tourism Awards of Excellence: Industry Education*, Southern Cross University, Lismore.
- Sim, J., (1994). 'Relationships Among Students' Self-Perceived Competency, Knowledge and Performance-Based Competencies in Foodservice Management', *Journal of Restaurant and Foodservice Marketing*, Vol. 1 No. 2, pp. 1-11.
- Slater, W., (1992). *The Preparation of a Generic List of Supervisory Management Skills and the Feasibility of Defining and Assessing These Skills as Competencies*, Australian Institute of Management, SA.
- Smith, C., (1996). 'Best practice in management education: capitalising on gender diversity awareness', *Journal of Management Development*, Vol. 17, No. 1, pp. 6-16.
- Smith, F., (1990). 'Measuring students' self-perceived competence in home economic core areas', *Home Economics Research Journal*, Vol. 19, No. 1, pp. 17-28.
- Stefanelli, J. R., (1978). 'A Study of Interview Decision Determinants Among US Lodging Employers', *Journal of Hospitality Management Education*, Vol. 3, No. 2, pp. 17-21.

- Stigler, J., and Smith, S., (1985). 'The self-perception of competence by Chinese children', *Child Development*, Vol. 56, pp. 1259-1269.
- Stone, G., (1988). 'Personality and Effective Hospitality Management', *Symposium of the International Association of Hotel Management Schools*, Leeds Polytechnic, November.
- Su, A. Y., Miller, J., and Shanklin, C., (1997). 'An evaluation of accreditation curriculum standards for four year undergraduate programs', *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Education*, Vol. 9, No. 3, pp. 75-79.
- Tas, R., (1988). 'Teaching Future Managers', *The Cornell H.R.A. Quarterly*, Vol. 29, No. 2, pp. 41-43.
- Tas, R., LaBrecque, S. and Clayton, H., (1996). 'Property-Management Competencies for Management Trainees', *The Cornell H.R.A. Quarterly*, Vol. 37, No. 4, pp. 90-96.
- Taylor, F., (1913), *The Principles of Scientific Management*, Harper and Brothers Publishers, New York.
- Taylor, T., (1992). 'Links Between Employment Opportunities and Field Placements', in *Managing Field Experiences in the 1990's*, Conference Proceedings, Paper No. 8, Griffith University, July, Brisbane.
- Terpestra, D., (1996). 'Recruitment and Selection: The Search for Effective Methods', *HR Focus*, May, pp. 16-17.
- Thompson, M., (1993). 'Using the Competing Values Framework in the Classroom', *Human Resource Management*, Vol. 32, (Spring), pp. 111-119.
- Tourism Training Australia, (1994). *Tourism Industry National Competency Standards: Hospitality Management*, Canberra.
- Umbreit, W. T., (1992). 'In Search of Hospitality Curriculum Relevance for the 1990's', *Hospitality and Tourism Educator*, Vol. 5, No. 1, pp. 71 - 74.
- Umbreit, T., (1993). 'Essential Skills: What Graduates Need to Succeed', *Hosteur*, pp. 10-12.

- Veal, A. J., (1992). *Research Methods for Leisure and Tourism: A Practical Guide*. Longman, Sydney.
- Wallace, J., and Hunt, J., (1996). 'An Analysis of Managerial Competencies Across Hierarchical Levels and Industry Sectors: A Contemporary Australian Perspective', *Journal of the Australian and New Zealand Academy of Management*, Vol. 2, No. 1, pp. 36-47.
- Walo, M., (1999). 'The latest win - win strategy in recruiting hotel staff', *Hotel Management*, Vol. 12, No. 7, pp. 32-33.
- Waryszak, R., Morda, R. and Kapsalakis, Anthoula, (1999). 'Student Perceptions of Cooperative Education Placements in Hospitality and Tourism Industries: Theoretical Framework, paper presented at the *CAUTHE National Research Conference*., July, Adelaide, pp. 131-140.
- Wells, D. D., (1990). 'Experiential Learning in the Classroom', in DiPadova L.N., (ed), *Instructional Guide to Accompany Becoming A Master Manager: A Competency Framework*, pp. 43-49.
- West, A., and Jameson, S., (1990). 'Supervised Work Experience in Graduate Employment', *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, Vol. 2, No. 2 , pp. 29-32.
- Whetten, D. A. and Cameron, K.S., (1984). *Developing Management Skills*, Scott Foresman, Glenview Il.
- Wienstein, J., (1989). 'Schools, companies, grads create false expectations', *Restaurants and Institutions*, Vol. 99, No.32, pp. 20-21.
- Williams, J., and DeMicco, F., (1998). 'The Challenge of Multi-Department Management for Future Hospitality Graduates', *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Education*, Vol. 10, No. 1, pp. 13-17.
- Wood, D., (1977). *The Profile of Professional Management*, HCIMA, pp. 16-17.

- Wood, R. C. and Locke, E. A., (1987), 'The relation of self-efficacy and grade goals to academic performance', *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, Vol. 47, pp. 1013-1024.
- World Travel and Tourism Council (1996). *Australia Travel & Tourism: Millennium Vision*, research report, London.
- Worsfold, P., (1989). 'A Personality Profile of the Hotel Manager', *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, Vol. 8, No. 1, pp. 51-62.
- Yukl, G.A., Wall, S. and Lepsinger, R., (1990). Preliminary report on the validation of the management practices survey, in Clark, K.E. and Clark, M.B., (eds.), *Measures of Leadership*, Leadership Library of America, West Orange, NJ, pp. 223-238.
- Vilkinas, T. and Cartan, G. 1993. Competences of Australian women in management, *Women in Management Review*, Vol. 8, No. 3. pp31-35.
- Zey, M., (1990). *The Mentor Connection: Strategic Alliances within Corporate Life*. Transaction Publishers, New Brunswick, NJ.
- Zikmund, W. G., (1991). *Business Research Methods*, (3rd edition), Dryden Press, Orlando.

List of Appendices

1. Copy of the Self Assessment of Managerial Skills (Di Padova, 1990).
2. Breakdown by Sector of Southern Cross University's Bachelor of Business in Tourism Graduates' Destinations (1991-1995).
3. Copy of the Manager's Questionnaire.
4. Covering letter sent to the Tourism and Hospitality Manager Sample.
5. Follow up letter sent to Tourism and Hospitality Manager Sample.
6. Copy of Student Questionnaire, pre-internship.
7. Copy of Student Questionnaire, post-internship.
8. Covering letter sent to students, post-internship.
9. Follow up letter sent to students, post-internship.
10. ANOVA analysis output.
11. Paired Sample T-Tests output.
12. Independent Sample T-Tests output.

APPENDIX ONE

Copy of the Self Assessment of Managerial Skills (Di Padova, 1990:70-72)

APPENDIX TWO

Breakdown by Sector of Southern Cross University's Bachelor of Business in Tourism Graduates' Destinations (1991-1995)

Breakdown of Bachelor of Business in Tourism Graduates' Destinations, from 1991-1995, by Tourism and Hospitality Sectors

Sector	No. of students employed in each sector	% of total of students employed in each sector
<u>Accommodation</u>		
Hotels/Resorts	56	34.1%
Motels	3	1.8%
<u>Transport</u>		
Airlines	12	7.3%
Coaches	1	0.6%
Car Rental	1	0.6%
Cruise-lines	1	0.6%
<u>Attractions</u>		
Theme Parks	2	1.2%
National Parks	2	1.2%
Theatre Companies	2	1.2%
Cultural Attractions	1	0.6%
Clubs	17	10.3%
Casinos	4	2.4%
<u>Tour Operators/Travel</u>		
Travel Agency	7	4.3%
Tour Wholesaler	2	1.2%
Tour Operator	5	3.1%
<u>MICE</u>		
Special Events	2	1.2%
Professional Conference Organisers	5	3.1%
Convention Centres	3	1.8%
<u>Restaurant/Catering</u>		
Restaurants	4	2.4%
Catering Services	4	2.4%
Hotel Bar	2	1.2%
<u>Government/Industry Associations</u>		
Government (Local/State/Federal)	15	9.1%
Industry Associations	5	3.1%
<u>Other</u>		
Education Employment/Training	4	1.8%
Employment Agencies	2	1.2%
Human Resource Consultants	2	1.2%
TOTAL	164	100%

The sum of the percentages does not calculate to 100% due to rounding.

Source: Primary compiled for this study

APPENDIX THREE

Copy of the Manager's Questionnaire

APPENDIX FOUR

Covering letter sent to the Tourism and Hospitality Manager Sample

APPENDIX FIVE

Follow up letter sent to the Tourism and Hospitality Manager Sample

APPENDIX SIX

Copy of Student Questionnaire, pre-internship

APPENDIX SEVEN

Copy of Student Questionnaire, post-internship

APPENDIX EIGHT

**Covering letter sent to
students, post-internship**

APPENDIX NINE

**Follow up letter sent to
students, post-internship**

APPENDIX TEN
ANOVA analysis output

APPENDIX ELEVEN

Paired Sample T-Tests output

APPENDIX TWELVE

Independent Sample T-Tests output
