

**VOCATIONAL EDUCATION AND TRAINING
IN THE HOSPITALITY AND CATERING
INDUSTRY**

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by

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VOCATIONAL EDUCATION AND TRAINING IN THE HOSPITALITY AND CATERING INDUSTRY

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ABSTRACT

The hospitality and catering industry suffers from a small and decreasing workforce, not sufficiently well qualified to meet the needs of a growing industry which already contributes significantly to the wealth of the nation, but could do much more, as well as providing exciting, varied and interesting careers for the young people of the UK.

The study arises out of the above need and ultimately seeks to address the complex question of how the hospitality and catering industry came to be in the position it is in and further, how we might move to a better future? The questions are broken down into: What is the current situation? How has the situation arisen? Where might we look for ideas to help us develop a stronger industry and ultimately, what might work as a means of building on what we have now?

The broad aim of this study is to explore and explain the key factors that contribute to the increasingly small and under-qualified workforce in hospitality and catering, and in doing so to identify possible ways forward for the industry.

The research question is broken down into FIVE sub-questions:-

- (1) What trends can be identified over the last four decades in relation to the number of well qualified students joining the Hospitality and Catering Industry?
- (2) What are the perceptions and image of the Hospitality Industry amongst young people, parents and careers advisers?
- (3) What is the perception of the industry's role in the delivery of vocational education and training in the Hospitality and Catering Industry?
- (4) How does the standard of vocational education and the training system in the United Kingdom compare with SIX similar European and Anglophone countries?
- (5) How can the quality of the curriculum for the Hospitality and Catering Industry be improved, especially in terms of Vocational and professional skills?

Each of the above questions leads to a detailed research study providing in total, some important pieces of the larger puzzle, and so revealing some useful possibilities for future solutions.

DECLARATION

This work is original and has not been submitted previously in support of any degree qualification or course.

Signed
Shyam Sunder Patiar

Date: Monday, 31st July 2006

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The assistance and co-operation of the above named people in no way implies agreement with the findings and interpretation of the thesis. The Author accepts sole responsibility for the conclusions highlighted.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

This research's main focus is the study of the vocational education and training system in the hospitality and catering industry and, in particular, the issues relating to skill shortages and skill gaps. There have been myriad attempts made to resolve these challenges but unfortunately with little success.

A survey of literature on skill shortages and skill gaps has highlighted the fact that the majority of work in this field is related to the traditional manufacturing skills rather than the skills in the service industry, despite the fact that hospitality ranks as one of the fastest growing sectors in the United Kingdom's economy. Up to 10% of the global workforce employed is in hospitality related occupations, yet the industry suffers from a small and decreasing underqualified workforce. In considering what is meant by skills, Riley et al (2002) noted that:

'skill is always surrounded by controversy because perception of skills are highly subjective and relative, who is or who is not skilled is inevitably an issue'.

(Riley et al, 2002, p.143)

Bradley et al (2000) indicates that varying criteria can be utilised to define a skill such as:

- the formal qualifications held by an individual
- the amount of training needed for a job
- the individual's ability to perform complex job tasks

The concern of the current study is not so much with the skills required by the operational tasks involved but rather with perceptions of the industry and how we might deal with the skills shortage.

Burns (1997) states that the fast food industry:

'operate within a business culture where labour is seen in terms of costs which must be kept at the lowest possible level'.

(Burns, 1997, p.240)

In this situation, skills are not valued or developed. The business to which Burns refers may see only the issue of technical ability although this may be taken further. Ritzer (1993) uses a dramatic analogy for the service workplace to argue that:

'working in such an environment requires more than an ability to operate a cash register, emotional demands are made of employees to constantly be in a positive, joyful and even playful mood. An ability to cope with such demands must be recognised as a 'skill' par excellence'.

(Burns, 1997, p.240)

Poon (1993) also argues for the similar point that new employees in hospitality:

'must be trained to be loyal, flexible, tolerant, amiable and responsible – at every successful tourism establishment, it is the employees that stand out technology cannot substitute for welcoming employees'.

(Poon, 1993, p.262)

Ritzer and Poon's emphasis on emotional demand as an additional element of hospitality skills has been developed by Seymour (2002) This built upon the earlier work of Hochschild (1983), who was the first to introduce the concept of emotional work within the services economy. All areas of hospitality work require the combination of an emotional element and technical skills. The additional emotional elements in the

hospitality skills moves the profile of low level skills to a higher order of skills requiring an education rather than mere training.

The experiences of fine dining in Michelin star restaurants and staying in a five star hotel have moved the concept of the hospitality industry to an emotional industry; or one may even describe it as an experience industry. The implications of customer expectations to receive this type of service has posed a challenge to the industry and educators in providing a suitable and qualified workforce.

In this introductory chapter, the approach followed at the outset is to clarify the concept of basic and commonly used terms such as 'hospitality' and 'tourism'. The researcher firmly believes that it has added to the confusion in the perception of the hospitality and catering industry in the United Kingdom. This may not be a major issue for European and other Anglophone countries.

The next step in this chapter is a brief introduction to the hospitality industry followed by the challenges to hospitality and catering education. The notion of education and training will be discussed and the role of each will be highlighted. Finally, the rationale behind this research will be comprehensively explained.

CONCEPT OF HOSPITALITY AND TOURISM

"When I use a word", Humpty Dumpty said in a rather scornful tone,

"It means just what I choose it to mean – neither more nor less".

"The question is", said Alice, "whether you can make words mean different things."

"The question is", said Humpty Dumpty, "which is to be the master – that's all."

(Lewis Carroll, Alice in Wonderland)

(Medlik, 2003, p.vii)

The concepts of 'hospitality' and 'tourism' need to be defined and put into clear perspective for the benefit of curriculum developers and more importantly for the young entrants aspiring to make a career in the hospitality industry. This problem only occurs in the United Kingdom as there are many examples of European and Anglophone countries where such a vast distinction does not exist between the two words – 'Hospitality' and 'Tourism'. These terms are more or less synonymous in Spain, Portugal, Austria, United States of America and Canada. In France, Germany, The Netherlands, and Belgium none of the above terms are widely used, but the emphasis is on the hotel and restaurant industry.

The Concept of Tourism

The concept of 'tourism' can be analysed by considering some of the published descriptions and definitions.

"Tourism has a connotation of leisure travel and tends to be synonymous with holidays (vacations). This is also reflected in dictionaries, which commonly refer to tourism as travel for pleasure.... business usage, the language of those who earn their living from

...serving tourists; most of them see tourism in terms of the products they sell and the markets they serve.”

(Medlik, 2003, p.vii)

Travel for pleasure with an overnight stay appears to be the lowest common denominator of most perceptions of this activity. However, the final test of any definition cannot be its apparent harmony with its usage in everyday speech or, for that matter, that the definition is confined to what one would exclude. Moreover, most accepted definitions go beyond the concept of tourism as a leisure or holiday activity. One of the principal findings that came out of conference resolutions of the World Tourism Organisation, (1991) was a definition of tourism as:

“the activities of a person travelling to a place outside his or her usual environment for less than a specified period of time and whose main purpose of travel is other than the exercise of an activity remunerated from within the place visited...”

(Theobald, 1998, p.13)

A working party for the proposed Institute of Tourism in Britain (now the Tourism Society) attempted to clarify the concept of ‘tourism’ and reported in 1976:

“Tourism is the temporary short-term movement of people to destinations outside the places where they normally live and work, and activities during their stay at these destinations; it includes movement for all purposes, as well as day visits or excursions.”

(Holloway, 1987, p.2 and 3)

The International Conference on Leisure, Recreation and Tourism, held by the International Association of Scientific Experts in Tourism (AIEST) and the Tourism Society in Cardiff in 1981 concluded that:

“Tourism may be defined in terms of particular activities selected by choice and undertaken outside the home environment. Tourism may or may not involve overnight stays away from home”.

(Holloway, 1987, p.3)

Hence, there is general agreement that tourism involves travel away from home for pleasure. This is an extremely inclusive definition that must inevitably include jobs that can be seen as serving tourism.

The Concept of Hospitality

'Hospitality', too, is used by different people in different ways. Common usage of the term is reflected in dictionaries as, for example, 'the act or practice of being hospitable; the reception and entertainment of guests or strangers with liberality and goodwill' (The Shorter Oxford English Dictionary). In more recent years a particular use of the term has become evident, which denotes:

"hospitality that is the concern of the hospitality industry, also sometimes referred to as 'commercial' or 'professional' hospitality: the provision of accommodation, food and drink for people away from home for reward".

(Medlik, 2003, p. vii)

The word 'hospitality' can be defined as the provision of food, beverages and shelter. In order to trace the usage of word, there is a need to investigate it from two different contexts to clarify the concept of 'hospitality'. Firstly, through the academic perspective and secondly, through the professional/industry perspective.

In the following academic perspective, the word 'hospitality' was used from 1972 onward when the Council for National Academic Awards approved degree programmes to be run in Polytechnics (BA in Hospitality Management), However, in Scotland, when Higher National Diplomas were introduced in 1969, the title of 'hospitality' was used, whereas in England Higher National Diplomas were introduced in 1970, and the traditional title of Hotel, Catering and Institutional Management was used. The word 'hospitality' was imported from the USA, as it was believed that by replacing the word Catering with 'hospitality', the perception of the industry may be improved for the young entrants, thus making it more attractive as a career choice.

The situation in the further education sector has been slightly different. The use of the word hospitality coincided with the development of National Vocational Qualifications in 1992 as the City & Guilds of London Institute Qualifications in Hotel and Catering were replaced by over-arching National Vocational Qualification's in Catering and Hospitality.

In the 1960s, Food Service Qualifications were awarded by the Hotel and Catering Institute, but all the Cookery Qualifications were awarded by the City & Guilds of London Institute. Thus, Hotel and Catering Qualifications were regulated by two main institutions; the City & Guilds of London Institute and the Hotel and Catering Institute. In addition these two institutions took the role of the examining bodies. In the 1970s the change came by transferring the Food Service Qualifications to the City & Guilds of London Institute. The Hotel and Catering Institute focused the qualifications at Supervisory and Management Level. The qualifications became Hotel and Catering Institute Intermediate, and Hotel and Catering Institute Final Examination.

On 27th November 1971, another change emerged when the Hotel and Catering Institute and the Institutional Management Association decided to amalgamate, finally becoming the Hotel, Catering and Institutional Management Association. In 1978, the professional qualifications, which were built upon the framework of industry and education research, were reviewed; that is, Hotel, Catering and Institutional Management Association Part A and Part B professional qualifications.

There were further discussions to change the name of association to incorporate the word 'Hospitality'. In 1989 the course titles were further altered from 'Hotel, Catering and Institutional Management Association Part A and Part B' to 'Hotel, Catering and Institutional Management Association Professional Certificates Programme' equivalent to National Vocational Qualification Level 3 and Hotel, Catering and Institutional Management Association Professional Diploma equivalent to National Vocational Qualification Level 4. The members of the Hotel, Catering and Institutional Management Association resisted the change of the title being 'Hospitality Management

Association'. However, the word 'Institutional' was considered to be old fashioned and derogatory. Hence, the word 'Institutional' was replaced by 'International' in 1995. The Hotel, Catering and International Management Association still awards qualifications at Supervisory and Management Level but the titles were changed again. It is interesting to note that the word 'Hospitality' was not adopted by this association.

In 1964, the Industrial Training Act, which set up various Industrial Training Boards came into being. The Hotel and Catering Industrial Training Board was formed in 1966 with the remit of delivering training in the hotel and catering industry at Operative Level. Although the responsibility for the curriculum development and examination rested with the City & Guilds of London Institute. Unfortunately, most of the Industrial Training Boards experienced a demise in 1986. The Hotel and Catering Industrial Training Board survived, but with the change of name to The Hotel and Catering Training Board, and then a further change of name in 1989 to The Hotel and Catering Training Company. The survival of this institution became dependent upon generating commercial income which steered the Hotel and Catering Training Company into developing Caterbase qualifications for on-the-job training and assessment. The Hotel and Catering Training Company was not a registered name, so in 1991, the Hotel and Catering Training Company became a registered company limited by guarantee.

In 1992, with the advent of National Vocational Qualifications, the Hotel and Catering Training Company broadened its base and became the National Training Organisation for the Hotel and Catering Industry. In 1994, the name of the Hotel and Catering Training Company was further altered to the Hospitality Training Foundation.

The main reason this occurred was to encompass the baking and brewing industry qualifications within the remit of the National Training Organisation. Hence, the word Hospitality became firmly entrenched into the vocabulary, which is synonymous with the qualification titles of National Vocational Qualifications for Hotel and Catering Industry.

Eventually, the task of setting up Occupational Standards for the industry and the development of qualifications rested with the Hospitality Training Foundation. The award of qualifications came under a separate unit of The Hospitality Awarding Body alongside the City & Guilds of London Institute. Since then, other awarding bodies have come into force as well, such as BTEC, which is now Ed-Excel and the Royal Society of Arts. In 1997, another organisation with 200 members appeared under the Hospitality Training Foundation umbrella named Hospitality Network.

In 1994, General National Vocational Qualification's were also introduced for the Hotel and Catering Industry but the first title proposed was General National Vocational Qualification in Hospitality and Tourism. This gave rise to much resistance from the Catering Teachers and Hotel/Restaurant industry. B-TEC organised a conference for academics and employers at the Russell Hotel, London to discuss the way forward with GNVQs. Hence, the decision was made by B-TEC to offer a General National Vocational Qualification in Hospitality and Catering, and a General National Vocational Qualification in Travel and Tourism. Thus, the following three hospitality and catering qualification titles were introduced.

1. General National Vocational Qualification in Hospitality and Catering (Foundation Level).
2. General National Vocational Qualification in Hospitality and Catering (Intermediate Level) replaced First Diploma in Hotel and Catering Studies.
3. General National Vocational Qualification in Hospitality and Catering (Advanced Level) replaced National Diplomas in Hotel and Catering Operations.

In 2000, The Advanced Vocational Certificate in Hospitality and Catering was introduced to replace The Advanced Level General National Vocational Qualification. These qualifications only continued until June 2004, and The National Diploma in Hospitality Supervision was introduced in September 2003. It is anticipated that The First Diploma in Hospitality Studies will also be reintroduced in September 2005, replacing The Intermediate Level General National Vocational Qualification in Hospitality and Catering.

Interestingly, The Higher National Diploma in Hotel, Catering and Institutional Management was altered to The Higher National Diploma in Hospitality Management in 1998. Since then many BA/BSc programmes have been devised in Hospitality Management.

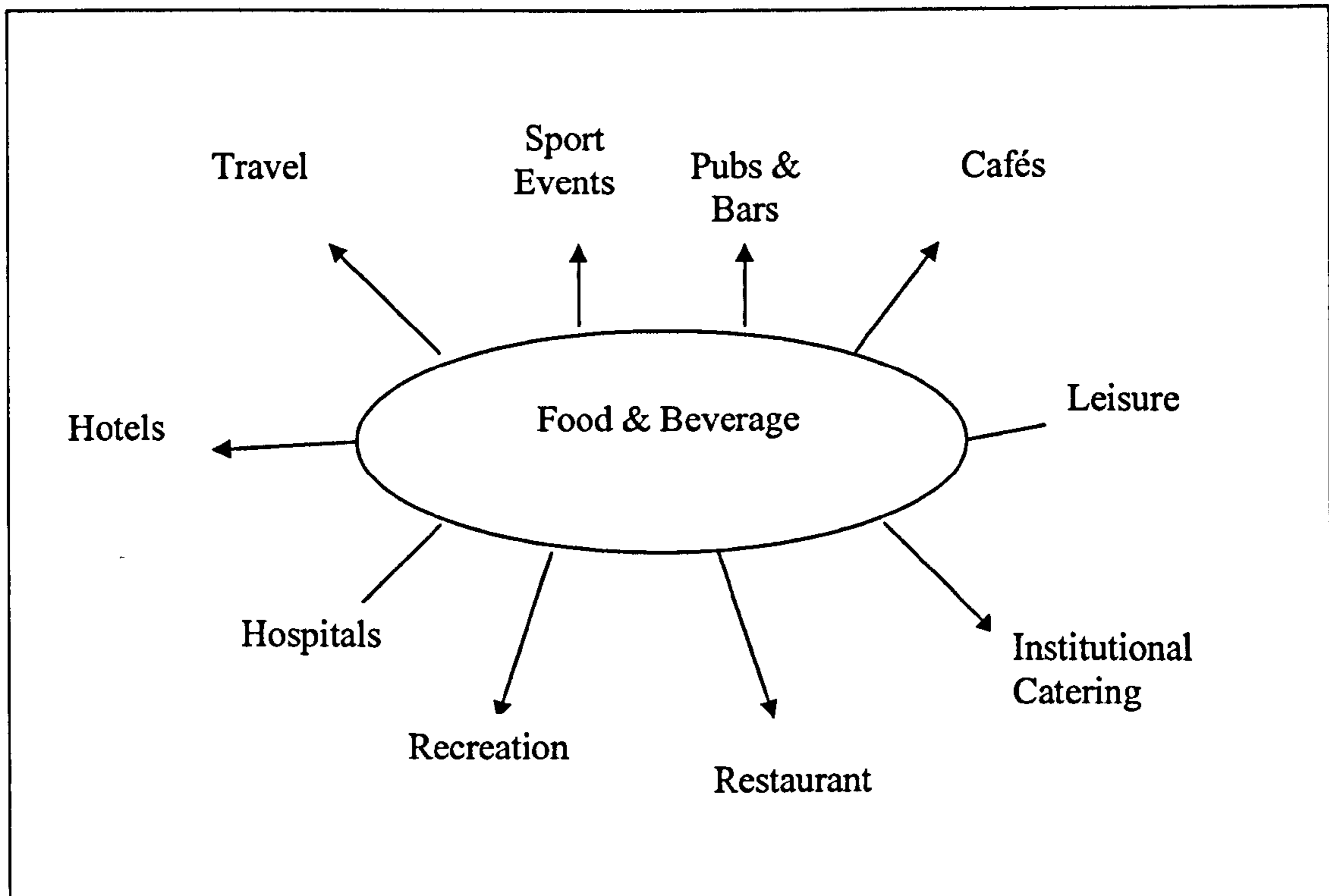
Initially, from the Hotel and Catering Industry perspective, initially, there were three main trade associations; The British Hotels and Restaurant Association (BHRA), The Caterers Association of Great Britain (CAGB) and The Restaurant Association of Great Britain. (RAGB). In 1972, The British Hotels and Restaurant Association and The Caterers' Association of Great Britain organisations amalgamated as a result of the common business thread of providing Food and Beverages as a core activity. Hence, the name The British Hotels, Restaurants and Caterers Association (BHRCA) came into being.

In January 1992, The British Hotels, Restaurants and Caterers Association decided to encompass the Hotel, Restaurant and Catering Industry into one word 'hospitality'. The association name changed to The British Hospitality Association, as we know it today. In The British Hospitality Association's view, the word 'hospitality' is defined as any public situation where somebody plays a host. From the point of view of this research, the hospitality industry being covered is Hotel, Restaurant and Catering in its strictest sense, which has two main components:

1. Food and beverage operations
2. Accommodation operations

In fact, food and beverage operations are present in almost all sectors ranging from Hotels, Restaurants, Cafés, Bars and Pubs, whereas accommodation operations are mainly in hotels, hospitals and cruise liners. Thus, the core activities of the Hospitality Industry can be defined as food preparation and the serving of food and beverages as displayed below in Figure 1.1. The main professional staff involved are Chefs, Restaurant and Bar Service Operators.

Figure 1.1: Scope of Food and Beverage Operations



It appears that current thinking is to encompass Tourism as a component of Hospitality or conversely to subsume the Hospitality Industry as part of the Tourism Industry. This is certainly true from the academic perspective, as there is a higher probability of Tourism becoming an academic subject in its own right, rather than part of the Hospitality discipline.

In UK universities, it appears that there are more Chairs in Tourism than Hospitality. This is because Tourism is considered to have more academic credibility especially in the research arena. It is an interesting phenomenon from the industry's point of view as most of the employment opportunities for Tourism graduates are available in the Hospitality Industry. In the context of this research, the main focus is on the Hospitality Industry.

The Problems of Definition

Despite the fact that the terms 'tourism' and 'hospitality' are widely used, there continues to be a lack of agreement as to exactly what each of these encompasses and as to the relationship between them. This is more evident within academic institutions as compared to the industry.

In this discussion, 'tourism' is defined as an all-encompassing term covering every aspect of people staying away from home, and 'hospitality' to be a specific aspect of this, dealing with accommodation and providing food and drinks to tourists. Of course, the hospitality industry also provides accommodation, food and drink to many people who are not tourists.

"Hospitality means more than Tourism. Tourism and Hospitality is not the same thing, says Garry Hawkes, and the sooner we alert our government to this definition, the better".

(Caterer and Hotelkeeper, April 22, 1999a, p.20)

The situation was highlighted at the successful 'Skills and Qualifications Debate Power Breakfast' held at the House of Commons, as part of the Springboard Festival on Thursday, 10th March 2005. Dr Anne Pierce FHCIMA, Managing Director of Springboard (UK) commented: "The hospitality and catering industry currently employs 2.3 million people and contributes 4% of the Gross Domestic Product (GDP). The Government's target of 25% growth by 2010 would further create 500,000 jobs in this industry. The real benefits of the hospitality and catering industry to the national economy cannot be overemphasised.

It is important that the problems relating to the definitions of tourism and hospitality are resolved and the definitions become all-encompassing, and are applied with equal validity, otherwise the difficulties will continue, and inconsistencies in understanding these terms will remain unresolved. If hospitality is the industry of the 21st Century, it certainly needs to be defined accurately.

The word Hospitality has evolved over a period of time. In modern society, this industry can also be defined as an Experience Industry or even an Emotional Industry. These days, customers go out socially, not just to satisfy their primary needs for food or drink or shelter or all three, but to have a unique and special experience away from home to satisfy their psychological needs. The basic product becomes of secondary importance, and customer experience takes priority. Hospitality, which is invisible, becomes a product in itself, but can only be experienced and consumed emotionally by the customers.

Furthermore, the whole experience of eating, drinking and sleeping is of a sensual nature which touches all the human senses. This makes the products of hospitality to be of an emotional nature. The finest examples of this sector of the hospitality industry are deluxe five star hotels, Michelin star restaurants, clubs, discos, exotic holiday resort properties and cruise liners.

In the light of this definition, the other extreme of this continuum is fast food restaurants, self-service cafes and drive-ins. In these operations the service is minimal or non-existent but there is a drive towards efficiency and the use of technology to control people. If the focus is on being efficient, it is very difficult to simultaneously be hospitable. The hospitality industry has a variety of connotations and yet there are many trends which are pointing in the opposite direction. Ritzer, (2004) presented a paper at the Council of Hospitality Management Education (CHME) Research Conference titled “The Inhospitable Hospitality Industry”.

Ritzer emphasises that the term hospitality is premised on the basis of diversity and differentiation, enchantment and humanisation. Thus, the hospitality industry is premised on offering customers service that meets their individual needs, has magical qualities and is based on human beings offering humanized services.

“Thus, it can be seen as how dynamic the definition or meaning of the word hospitality is as social emphasis is being replaced by economics. This growing contradiction poses a real threat to the industry. The challenge is to slow down or reverse the trends towards inhospitality”.

(Ritzer, 2004, p. 40-46)

One might consider the oldest terminology to be the most specific and appropriate in describing this industry as the hotel, restaurant and catering industry. It is not surprising that young people have problems in understanding the scope of the hospitality industry as a career choice as the word ‘hospitality’ gives different messages to them.

The final discussion of the meaning of hospitality could be a common thread running across the provision of food or drink or accommodation which must have a place, people and service, but the heart of the definition lies in ultimately satisfying the people’s physiological, and more importantly, psychological needs. In fact, hospitality is a product in its own right, alongside food or drink or accommodation, which happens to be invisible, but is most certainly deeply felt by people and makes the business successful.

INTRODUCTION TO THE HOSPITALITY INDUSTRY

In this thesis, the following definition of the hospitality industry has been selected.

“The serviced provision of food, beverages, accommodation, leisure and other facilities purchased out of home”.

(JHIC, 1996, p.13)

The range of services and activities provide for a myriad of occasions and styles ranging from a cup of tea, to an evening in the pub, to a sports and fitness leisure activity or a luxury hotel.

In Germany, the hospitality industry encompasses occupations in Hotel, Restaurant and Catering. It does not include tourism or recreation. There are three broad occupations within the hospitality and catering industry: Skilled Assistant, Restaurant Professional and Hotel Professions. All three professions are grouped under one governing body which sets and oversees the standards for the industry as a whole. In Germany, the industry is organised by occupations. In the USA, the hospitality and tourism industry is divided into four segments according to the frequency of guest contact: lodging services, food services, travel-related service and recreation services.

In the UK, hospitality and catering, travel services and sport recreation are three separate industries. The distinction is based on specific roles and responsibilities in the industry rather than contact with customers. The industry is one of the most important to the UK economy, employing a workforce of over 1.96 million people in England, Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland, 6.9% of the total UK workforce.

“The recent research has shown that in fact there is an increase of 7% in the numbers employed by the industry since 1999, from 1.83 million to 1.96 million in 2003. Indeed, it is envisaged that 15,000 new jobs will be created between 2002 and 2012 and an

additional 846,000 employees are forecast to be required to maintain the current size of the workforce.”

(People 1st, 2005, p.6)

The hospitality industry is as important in the USA. There were 9.5 million people employed in 2002, which is 6.78% of the total USA workforce. In the UK, there were 1.96 million people employed in 2003, which is 6.9% of the total UK workforce. The picture of new jobs is very similar in the UK and USA, but the total workforce in employment in the UK is 28.47 million as compared to 140.1 million in USA. (USA – Bureau of labour statistics, http://www.stats.bls.gov/iag/leisure_hosp.htm)

In Germany, 1.05 million people were employed in the hospitality industry in 1999, and this increased to 1.24 million in 2003. This reflects an increase of 18.1% workforce, representing 3.5% of 35.49 million of the total German workforce.

(People 1st, 2005, p.8)

It is reasonable to conclude therefore that the hospitality industry is one of the most exciting, vibrant and diverse industries in the world.

“It’s also seriously big business; in the UK alone, the hospitality and tourism sector is worth £55 billion a year.”

(Target Hospitality, 2004, p.4)

With leisure time and disposable income on the rise, these businesses are growing fast. Hospitality and related industries already employ over one in ten people in the UK, and it is easy to see why. Although there is a massive variety of different jobs across the industries, they all share many of the same basic qualities, not least the satisfaction derived from being in a fast paced, often hectic environment.

This industry provides the following:

- **Early Promotion:** This sector is pretty unique when it comes to providing opportunities for advancement early on, and many companies encourage staff to study and train further.
- **A Social Industry:** Most people in the industry say one of the main things that attracted them in the first place is the sociable nature of the work. It is also one of the youngest industries, with over 17 percent, nearly a fifth, of the workforce aged under 20. If you want to meet and work with interesting people every day, this could be the career to join.
- **Variety:** The hospitality industry offers abundance of variety in jobs. Such as Events Management – awards ceremony with celebrities attending, Inventing Cocktails aboard a Cruise Liner, Marketing a chain of restaurants, or Running a hotel.
- **Flexible Hours:** This industry provides a welcome alternative to the nine-to-five treadmill. Part-time, full-time and flexible hours are available. One is certainly not chained to a desk.
- **International Opportunities:** The hospitality business is a global industry, and so too are the opportunities; most obviously hotel chains, airlines, cruise liners and even food businesses.

(Target Hospitality, 2004)

THE CHALLENGE TO HOSPITALITY AND CATERING EDUCATION

A good education is of major importance to young people and more of them are choosing to stay on beyond school to study for further and higher education courses in some form or other (Department of Education and Science 1986). Education aims to provide them with the best opportunities available and must frequently look inwards to itself to ensure a continuing evolution of courses, curriculum and environment which will promote the best learning opportunities possible.

As the 21st Century begins, major changes in the world of further and higher education have been taking place, driven by government, formatted by awarding bodies, steered by college management and manifested through the work of practitioners who deliver the courses, with all their associated phenomena to students. These changes have taken place within a developing modern curriculum and its associated cultures, against a background of educational debate at national and local levels. The programmes offering hospitality and catering qualifications in further and higher education colleges and institutions must face these changes and adapt themselves if they are to maintain the strength, range and variety or opportunity available to young people in the world of hospitality and catering. This research will mainly examine vocational education and training for the hospitality and catering industry from secondary school to Further Education, and will be based on an appropriate theoretical framework and empirical research.

This thesis is expressly about Vocational Education and Training in Further Education which prepares students with the skills to equip them to be front line staff in the hospitality and catering industry. However, there will be some implications to Higher Education as a final destination of some Further Education students who may be able to achieve a Degree in Hospitality Management.

At one stage, there was an inclination to include Higher Education but there were significant changes in the curriculum when the Conservative government “promoted” polytechnics to the status of universities in 1992. There was an exclusion of the vocational element on the degree course. This political change was meant to encourage more school-leavers to stay on in higher education and allow polytechnic institutions the same rights to compete for academic research funding, but this initiative moved polytechnics from their original role of delivering higher vocational education to research and scholarly activities. The vocational element on higher education courses diminished and so did the direct relevance to the job market in the hospitality industry.

Higher Education in the Hospitality Industry can be compared to the medical profession, where all students need to learn technical knowledge, technical skills and interpersonal skills before becoming a professional in medicine. The same principles can be applied to hospitality graduates from universities, but this does not seem to be a common practice. These young people need to be equipped with the “Hospitality Professional” traits deemed necessary by the industry prior to their graduation.

Unfortunately, in many universities the Faculty of Hospitality Management has been merged with the Faculty of Business Management, which has led to eighty percent of modules on the degree courses to be common core modules delivered jointly. This also has financial implications, as the majority of the modules on hospitality degree courses are now under the Business Academic Subject Centre which derives fifty percent less funding per credit from HEFCE. The reduction in funding for Hospitality Degree courses encouraged universities to seek alternative solutions in the delivery of specialist modules which relate to technical and interpersonal skills development. Some universities have franchised these modules to local Further Education Colleges or, in some cases, the practical modules are covered on supervised work experience in the hospitality industry. Many universities have closed down the specialist facilities that are Training Restaurants, Bars and Kitchens.

Schwartz (2004), has rightly made the comment on the Conservatives policy in 1992, that ‘promoting polytechnics to universities has resulted in polytechnics moving away from their original role of delivering higher vocational education to competing for academic research funding’.

(Daily Mail, 2004)

Initially, there were only two universities namely; the University of Strathclyde, and the University of Surrey, which awarded degree courses in Hotel Management, but since the 1970s, there was a big thrust to develop Vocational Higher Education in Polytechnics and hence the introduction of Higher National Diploma in Hotel, Catering and Institutional Management. There was a tremendous expansion during the period 1970 to 1990 as some of the Further Education Institutions were also approved to offer these higher level courses. At this point, there was a clear divide between the universities and polytechnics which offered mainly a Vocational Higher Education course.

At an early stage the intentions for this thesis was to study the whole spectrum of Vocational Education and Training in the Hospitality Industry, but the limitations imposed by the changes in Higher Education policies led the study to focus on the courses delivered by Further Education Institutions which may include National Vocational Qualifications Level 4; Hotel, Catering and International Management Association Professional Qualifications – Professional Diploma or Advanced Diploma; Higher National Diplomas and Foundation Degrees in Hospitality Management. It should be noted that the higher education qualification delivered in universities such as, Bachelors Degree, Masters Degree and PhDs in hospitality related disciplines are beyond the scope of this research study.

Unfortunately, in the delivery of vocational education the distinction between the Further Education and the Higher Education does get blurred, especially at the beginning of Higher Education courses when students have to learn the basic vocational skills which are similar to Further Education courses. Hence, in the thesis there may be some

reference to Higher Education courses but only as regards to the curriculum delivery related to Further Education.

Education versus Training

The Government addressed the issue of vocational development for the new millennium as early as 1991, publishing their White Paper ‘Education and Training in the 21st Century’ (Department of Education and Science 1991). With the publication of this document, the challenge to hospitality and catering education began. Education and training are uneasy bed fellows, which perhaps should not sit together in the same phrase.

However, the dichotomy must be resolved if issues of quality in hospitality and catering education are to be properly addressed. Training is based on examples and involves demonstration, direction and repetition of a task. Education requires a shift from examples to principles and general methods of solving problems (O’Neil, 1996). Not only does education encompass a systematic form of instruction, but goes further to include personal development. Some of the definitions of Education and Training are given below in Figure 1.2.

Figure 1.2: Definitions of ‘Education and Training’

Education	Training
Education: n. Systematic instruction course of this; development of character or mental powers;	Training; n. Process by which one is trained for ... occupation Train...2.v. bring to desired standard of performance or behaviour by instruction and practice; undergo this process; teach and accustom to do a thing;

Source: Oxford Dictionary

O'Neil (1996) explores further the relationship between education and training. The Teutonic languages make little or no distinction between the English verbs 'to teach' and 'to learn'. In German, they are 'Lehren' and 'Lernen'; in Danish, both are referred to as 'Lehre'. Whether for education or for training, O'Neil offers the concept of a partnership between teachers and learners, travelling together through the learning activities. In attempting to separate the commonly synonymous terms of education and training within this concept, O' Neil offers the following comparisons between the two below in Figure 1.3.

Figure 1.3: Towards Clarifying the Difference between 'Education and Training'

Education	Training
Liberation of Ideas	Mechanistic Details
Rationality and Higher Order Cognition	Lower Order Cognition
Emancipation of Learner	Coercion of Learner
Autonomy	Dependency
Critical Appraisal	Uncritical Acceptance
Intellectual Development	Skill Development
Dialogue	Monologue by Trainer
Focused on 'Principles'	Focused on 'Examples'

(O'Neil, 1996)

The table offers an underpinning of the definitions of education and training presented above. The idea of systematic instruction is supported by notions of rationality, higher order cognition, intellectual development and the focus on principles. The idea of development of mental powers is supported by the liberation of ideas, the emancipation of the learner, autonomy, critical appraisal and dialogue. The position moves towards the rationale of deep student-centred learning and education as a liberating process (Biggs, 1989; Nightingale and O' Neil, 1994).

By contrast, the table's interpretation of training focuses on achievement of standards by direct instruction and practice, an idea supported by the notions of mechanistic detail, dependency, uncritical acceptance and coercion (O'Neil, 1996).

The Conservative Government of the 1980s adopted the concept of education as encompassing the 'world of work' issues which would steer educational policy development. Pring (1989) takes up the themes of education being:

"...a matter of acquiring understanding and insight...into matters of importance. And it is not just a matter of insight as such; it is a matter of being able to translate those insights into meaningful courses of action."

(Pring, 1989, p.98)

The vocational nature of hospitality and catering begs the question as to whether training is more appropriate than education. The issue is ultimately political, grounded in the long-term strategy of planning for employment which will affect corporate culture in educational organisations (Department of Education and Science, 1991).

The government initiative of competency-based education is heavily based on training. Early models were geared towards achievement in the work place, reinforcing the strategy of planning for employment rather than education 'for life' and forcing colleges into the background. "Caterbase" an early version of what was to become the NVQ (National Vocational Qualification) model, was based almost entirely on a mechanistic accreditation of a candidate's skills. There was little or no evidence of the underpinning knowledge which later were built into NVQs, which in turn were to take the first steps back towards an educational model.

(Further Education Staff College, 1987; Hotel and Catering Training Company, 1987)

Elliott (1991) examines some of the arguments in favour of training. He quotes Wolf (1989), who suggests that knowledge and understanding are inherent in any competence, "...and can therefore be directly inferred from the performance in which any given

competence is demonstrated.” (Elliott, 1991, p.122). Wolf’s argument appears to be compatible with the underpinning knowledge component established by NCVQ (National Council for Vocational Qualifications), but even this reflects a process that goes beyond just training.

The critics of competence-based education and training may reject any implication of an educational perspective existing within a training framework (Stenhouse, 1975), Elliott clearly does not agree that such training is compatible with education. He suggests that the product of training, that is the capacity of a student to perform repetitive routines without any form of reflection, constitutes habitual skill knowledge, as distinct from the intelligent skill knowledge which is the product of education:

“Within the context of a particular social practice, to act competently is to demonstrate abilities to realize the values – the obligations and responsibilities to others – which are intrinsic to good practice. The exercise of these abilities involves more than the use of habitual skill knowledge. What demarcates the competent practitioners from the rest is their ability to exercise intelligent skill knowledge in fulfilling the responsibilities associated with their particular form of social practice.”

(Elliott, 1991, p. 123)

The drive towards training in the work place encountered a serious obstacle in the hospitality and catering industry’s unwillingness or inability to operate the system. Work place training is still a significant part of many qualifications offered by colleges and universities as evidenced by the demand for and the success of work experience components of courses. (Further Education Staff Colleges, 1987; Hotel and Catering Training Company, 1987)

Repetitive, day-in-day-out work routines, which may only be demonstrated or practised once or twice in a college or university setting are only able to take on their proper meaning within a real working environment (NCVQ, 1993a, p.5). The reinforcement of competence, which such long-term training achieves, is largely beyond the capacity of

educational establishments. However, although a small percentage of the industry is made up of large organisations who are capable of designing and delivering suitable training programmes, there is still a large percentage of small hotel and restaurant operations, (for example seaside hotels, family run operations, small privately owned hotels and restaurants) that are either uninterested in such an issue, or incapable of delivering adequate training.

The needs of the economy and the world of work, a concept developed by the Thatcher Government of the early 1980's, are becoming increasingly important to the providers of education and training:

"In recent times in Britain and elsewhere, there has been much emphasis on instrumental learning, focused particularly on the needs of the economy, within certain, particularly post-school, branches of education."

(Usher and Edwards, 1994, p.103)

In addition to the other choices facing young people, such as the prestige lure of 'A' levels, it may be that there are areas of the world of work which can administer suitable training with an acceptable degree of competence and achievement (Carr and Kemmis, 1986, Grundy, 1987; Department of Education and Science et al, 1991; Hayward, 1995; BTEC, 1996). It is also clear that employees

"...would need to train and retrain throughout their working lives to keep pace with ever changing work requirements and occupational structures." (Taubman, 1994, p.77) and that such "...training and re-training...means a change in the culture of the workplace. This is the major challenge we face."

(Nicholson, 1993, p.10)

However, if skills and knowledge developed in hospitality and catering students in preparation for the world of work are to be of benefit to those students, transferable as intended and to last the hoped-for lifetime of those students, education must be brought back into the picture. Education is not simply the process of accommodating structures

of knowledge and skills, it is instead a voyage of exploration and discovery as a means of investigating knowledge, attitudes and skills in a way that will be meaningful and significant to its participants:

“Learning is viewed as the active production rather than the passive reproduction of meaning... When learning is viewed as ‘active production’, then it becomes a manifestation of human powers, eg to synthesize disparate and complex information into coherent patterns, to look at situations from different points of view, to self-monitor personal bias and prejudice..”

(Elliott, 1991, p.10)

Elliott’s interpretation of teaching is also based on a process of change in the mind and capacity of the student, “...activating, engaging, challenging and stretching the natural powers of the human mind.”

(Elliott, 1991, p.10)

Education goes beyond the realms of training to incorporate concepts and principles. Stenhouse (1975, p.80) identified four different processes involved in education:

1. Training: the acquisition of skills, resulting in capacity in performance
2. Instruction: the learning of information, resulting in retention
3. Initiation: familiarisation with the social values and norms, resulting in a capacity to interpret the social environment and to anticipate the reaction to one’s own actions.
4. Induction: introduction into the thought systems – the knowledge of the culture of an environment, resulting in understanding as evidenced by the capacity to grasp and to make for oneself relationships and judgments.

In bringing education back into the picture in this way, education in its broadest sense needs to be examined in the light of its role in society, and the wider philosophical ideas which drive society’s need for education as a foundation stone of its existence.

There are still however, other interpretations of the meaning of 'education' (Carr and Kemmis, 1986). The systems view is of hospitality and catering education and knowledge as a commodity closely linked to the provision of the curriculum, by which opportunities can be fairly provided to all. Success will create access to positions of opportunity, influence and reward in the social structure. The political-economic perspective involves shaping educational provision and practice and the historical and social dimensions of education. It includes issues that relate to the reproduction of society's social structure by education and production and distribution of knowledge within that society. Education and schooling do have an important reproductive function, in passing on the knowledge and tradition of a society so that the social structure can be maintained.

In the late 1980's, the Government recognized "...the narrowness of the post-16 curriculum and A-levels, its failure to create a viable and acceptable vocational track."(Taubman, 1994, p.78). Furthermore, in the world of education, it has not been thought possible in recent decades to be all things to all individuals, as evidenced by the contrast between the academic and vocational routes which clearly existed (Carr and Kemmis, 1986).

In the light of this, a progressive range of qualifications has developed which provided a broad spectrum of opportunities to post-16 year olds, in order that they might continue their educational development, including:

- 'A' Levels
- BTEC (Business and Technical Education Council) National and First Diploma
- City and Guilds Craft Courses
- And Others

With the millennium approaching, the opportunity was grasped to refine the multifarious qualifications into a rational structure of NVQs, based on competence and supported by underpinning knowledge (Department of Education and Science et al, 1986). These were

intended largely to replace the old style of craft courses and available across all industries at recognisable levels.

Their companion GNVQs were again to be available across all industries at recognisable levels and would replace the old style of National and First Diplomas. In planning to rationalise the assortment of vocational qualifications, the government decided to maintain 'A' levels as the 'gold standard' benchmark qualification.

However, it was prepared to recognise the difference between the academic and practical pathways. The driving force behind the new GNVQs was their recognition as 'vocational 'A' levels', offering an equivalent qualification with appropriate support for non-academic students who had different learning styles to traditional 'A' levels students. (Hayward, 1995).

Somehow, the aspirations of hospitality and catering GNVQ students were assumed to be the mental equivalent of the 'A' levels, that is to progress to higher education (Hayward, 1995). Despite development of and access to transferable skills, the inherent lack of practical content in a vocational course such as hospitality and catering (BTEC, 1996a) signalled an interpretation of the students' on-going direction to higher education rather than joining the hospitality industry as used to be the case with the previous equivalent qualification such as National Diploma Course which may or may not be accurate. It is clear by the number of universities offering two years Higher National Diplomas in a range of hospitality based titles for GNVQ and National Diploma graduates, as compared to three years Higher National Diplomas for 'A' Level students.

There are numerous challenges in the delivery of Vocational Education and/or Training for the hospitality and catering industry, which mainly stem from the confusion of the two terms that are Education and Training.

The introduction of National Vocational Qualifications saw the demise of Education in the true sense from the perspective of curriculum planning, development and delivery.

The curriculum is very narrowly focused on specific jobs presently carried out in the industry. There is a lack of breadth and depth to qualifications.

The responsibility of curriculum delivery lies with Work Based Trainers and Assessors as opposed to fully qualified and trained lecturers with pedagogic skills. This policy has most certainly diluted the educational content and social-personal development of young people.

During the last decade various initiatives have been taken to compensate for deficiencies such as the introduction of under-pinning knowledge, Technical Certificates, Basic Skills and Key Skills – literacy and numeracy. It is ironic that at times when young people are leaving with poor literacy and numeracy skills and require greater assistance than ever before, they are faced with a system embedded in a training culture.

There are similar issues observable in skills development, as the understanding element is not comprehensively developed. The other challenges are related to the young peoples' perception of Hospitality and Catering as a career choice. This has been affected by the curriculum on offer being narrowly focused rather than giving a broader knowledge of the hospitality industry as a career choice.

The other challenge has come through political insistence on the concept of "Parity of Esteem". The impact of this notion moved vocational courses towards greater inclusion of educational content found in academic subjects but these courses have been taken too far away from the vocational core that even fewer pupils opted for them. The best examples are General National Vocational Qualifications (GNVQs) at Foundation, Intermediate or Advanced Level, Curriculum 2000 – Advanced Vocational Certificate in Education. Unfortunately, these courses have failed to attract sufficient young people and the hospitality industry is not overly impressed with the quality of young entrants to the industry.

The enrolment and attainment statistics do not greatly reflect the success of these vocational courses for the hospitality industry over the last ten years. This has also had an adverse impact on the viability of Hospitality Higher Education courses in many institutions. The main reason being that the number of traditional hospitality students progressing on to Higher Education courses has fallen since the first cohort of GNVQ students certificated in 1995.

Unfortunately, the concept of Education and Training has been applied in its purest sense at the ends of continuum; National Vocational Qualifications mainly delivered as Training courses at one end, and General National Vocational Qualifications delivered as Educational courses at the other end. The optimum situation, it might be argued, would be to offer a blend of Education and Training on all courses, but to vary the degrees of Education and Training elements to ensure each course meets the needs of learners.

In reality, young people being prepared for the hospitality industry are required to possess interpersonal skills, as it is a peoples' industry which requires development of effective areas in an individual. Thus, there is a greater requirement for personal and social education to be included in the hospitality curriculum.

Education and training for the hospitality sector covers a wide range of activities within industry-training centres, schools, colleges of further education and universities. This reflects the diversity of sub-sectors within the hospitality industry, but also the varying entry levels to employment and the life-long needs of those who work in the industry. The consideration of education and training here reflects this breadth. In a general sense, training is intended to reflect the skills and technical development needs of those aspiring to, or working within the hospitality industry, while education refers to a broader development process which also takes place pre-entry, or as part of on-going learning during an individual's career.

As well as pre-entry education, the access of staff to further in-company training, and of managers and supervisors to further development is an issue. Traditionally, the hospitality industry seems to have been poor at providing further training. The research carried out by the Hospitality Training Foundation titled “Training – Who Needs It?” (1995) indicated that 45% of full-time staff and 77% of part-time staff have received no training since leaving full-time education and only 16% of managers in the commercial sectors of the industry have degrees, diplomas or professional qualifications compared with 52% in industry as a whole.

In February, 2005, People 1st, the Sector Skills Council (SSC) for the hospitality, leisure, travel and tourism sector produced yet another report on The Sector’s Skill Challenge, highlighting the labour market and skills issues facing the sector. The Strategy is being developed to ensure the industry gets maximum benefit from education and training.

(People 1st, 2005)

THE RATIONALE BEHIND THE INQUIRY

The impetus to investigate the Vocational Education and Training system for the Hospitality and Catering industry arose from the concerns about the current situation of staffing in this industry. The main aim of this research study is to explore and explain the key factors that contribute to the increasingly small and underqualified workforce in the hospitality and catering industry and, in doing so, to identify possible ways forward for the industry. There have been many attempts made to re-engineer the curriculum for hospitality and catering courses. Sadly, there has been very little impact of these curriculum changes in resolving the staffing issues.

The researcher is well aware of the steps which have been addressed so far, but this research study will focus on identifying the main issues which are acting as a barrier in providing solutions to the improvement of staffing situations. The next step will lead to the examination of the underlying reasons for these barriers so that the recommendations can be made for the way forward.

The aim of this research study is highly complex, and necessitates raising some quite dissociate, but highly relevant, research questions. This is necessary but a real challenge in order to keep this study coherent. This aspect makes the study quite unique in its nature and the success would be dependent upon bringing all the strands together.

Thus, the main aim has been divided into five specific objectives to ensure that all areas of research related to this study are fully covered and finally converge, to offer constructive recommendations to resolve at least some of the challenges faced by the hospitality industry. These objectives are discrete but they are very much inter-related. Unfortunately, the results of each objective question in isolation would not reflect the complete picture.

This thesis will probe into the main issues underlying the predicament of skill shortages and skill gaps faced by the Hospitality Industry by the following five research questions addressed:

- (1) What trends can be identified over the last four decades in relation to the number of well qualified students joining the Hospitality and Catering Industry?
- (2) What are the perceptions and image of the Hospitality Industry amongst young people, parents and careers advisers?
- (3) What is the perception of the industry's role in the delivery of vocational education and training in the Hospitality and Catering Industry?
- (4) How does the standard of vocational education and the training system in the United Kingdom compare with SIX similar European and Anglophone countries?
- (5) How can the quality of the curriculum for the Hospitality and Catering Industry be improved, especially in terms of Vocational and professional skills?

In Chapter 4, the research question is 'What trends can be identified over the last four decades in relation to the number of well qualified students joining the Hospitality and Catering Industry?

The Vocational Education and Training Qualifications are analysed and evaluated to ensure that the employment needs of the hospitality industry are adequately being met.

The human resource development plan for this industry focuses upon the qualification structure and vocational education/training policies. The type of qualifications offered, curriculum delivery, assessment process and the quality of end product compared with

the needs of industry. In the UK, there are issues of vocational qualifications having 'parity of esteem' with academic qualifications.

A quantitative analysis will be drawn up to compare the figures historically, across the range of vocational and academic qualifications. The impact of Competency Based Learning and the National Vocational Qualifications system since 1989 narrowly focused qualifications on an individual job in the industry. These qualifications lacked breadth and depth of study. In addition, numbers of students joining these qualifications have dramatically decreased as compared to traditional City and Guilds of London Institute Vocational Qualifications.

In fact, the number of students achieving Level 3 qualification has fallen drastically during the past few years. One of the reasons for this situation is the government initial intention to deliver NVQs solely at the workplace, but the hospitality industry did not achieve the National Education and Training Targets set by the government. Hence, the Further Education colleges assisted in delivering NVQs to improve the achievement of these Targets. This created many problems for further education colleges to deliver NVQs because of the requirement for a Realistic Working Environment being mandatory for the assessment process.

Many colleges managed to resource Restaurants and Kitchens as a Real Working Environment they offered only certain NVQs such as Food Preparation and Cooking, Serving of Food and Drink and Bar Service. Whereas some of the NVQs were totally out of reach of Further Education colleges, such as Front Office Operations and Housekeeping, due to the lack of facilities for a Realistic Working Environment. It is not surprising to see the very low number of qualified staff in accommodation operations subjects nationally. (Qualifications Curriculum Authority, National Council of Vocational Qualifications Statistics, 1996-2002)

In addition there are quality related issues with these qualifications. The assessment system is on a continuous basis without any formal examinations, so the assessment

process requires bureaucratic procedures and systems involving assessors, internal verifiers and external verifiers. In some cases, there are concerns regarding the assessment process which may lack consistency, reliability and validity. (Wolf, 2002)

The government has further encouraged the route of Foundation Modern Apprenticeship and Advanced Modern Apprenticeship in the industry. In fact, large numbers have been recruited and registered on these qualifications. Regrettably, the attainment rates are very low. The philosophy of the work based delivery method is appropriate but there is a lack of commitment by employers in providing resources to trainees, such as time allocation for them to attend college on part-time day release basis, and providing fair opportunities for assessment to be carried out in the work place.

The Employment in the hospitality industry is expected to expand, creating approximately 300,000 new jobs by the next decade. It is anticipated to perform relatively well up until 2010, the forecast is to grow by 1.6% per annum and out-perform the retailing industry and that of total employment in United Kingdom. It is very clear that the need for education and training is of paramount importance. The Labour Force Survey, 1999 states that there is an evidence of 37.9% of staff employed in the hospitality industry with no qualifications.

In Chapter 5, the research question is *‘What are the perceptions and image of the Hospitality Industry amongst young people, parents and careers advisers?’*

The Perception and Image of the Hospitality Industry is explored amongst school pupils, their parents and career advisers using empirical research methods. It has been suggested that this industry has an image problem, that the perception of many parents, school teachers and careers officers wrongly portrays negative messages to the young people in the school. They have very little understanding of the scope and career prospects for the young people. This may be a social or cultural phenomenon. Many of the young people joining this industry take up their career as a second choice. This attitude differs from

Europe, especially in countries like Germany, Switzerland, Austria and France. Young people have a real pride to work in the Hospitality Industry. The service culture has still to be embedded in the UK, as for a very long period, the major base of economic growth has been the manufacturing industry. There has been a steady decline in employment in heavy engineering, steel and the mining industry, but the culture shift has not been followed by unemployed people to seek jobs in the service industry.

The Hospitality Industry has to offer career progression, a suitable working environment and excellent financial rewards to attract well educated and trained people. This industry has expanded faster than any other industry and forecasts for the coming years are even better. Human resource development is of paramount importance as it forms the backbone of this industry.

Apart from the issues discussed so far, there are still problems of perception with the image of the hospitality and catering industry from the point of view of young people and their parents. They do not consider this industry to be a First Choice Career. The perceptions are embedded in the culture of British Society, as the profession is considered to be of a servile nature, giving no status or self esteem to individuals. Over the last century, British Society changed from agriculture and farming, to mining and industrial manufacturing. During the last decade Information Communication Technology has brought in rapid changes in society. Now the future appears to be in the Service Industries such as Retail, Leisure, Travel and Hospitality. This involves changes in cultural values, which is part of the educational process, although it will take some time to happen.

In the United Kingdom, ship building, mining, engineering and textile industries have succumbed to competition from abroad, taking countless jobs with them. Today, there are ominous signs that another seismic economic shift is threatening employment; this in the huge service sector. Many firms have now relocated customer call centres to other low wage countries, such as Banks and Rail Enquires in India. It is quite possible that a

whole range of white-collar jobs could be exported with the revolution in global communications.

The outlook will be bleak if Britain does not change for the better and provide a relevant vocational education and training system. The other side of this issue needs to be addressed by employers with regard to a properly structured career development and progression routes for new entrants. It is seen as a low-paid employment, with a poor working environment, a lack of a structured career progression and involving anti-social working hours with split shifts.

The employers have to improve the professionalism of this industry to attract a high calibre of graduates. This is a vicious circle at the moment, as the lack of a high-skilled workforce is supplemented by a low skilled workforce that is paid low wages and has given the industry a poor image. The situation is not improving as there is insufficient supply of highly skilled people with the appropriate attitude and personal skills.

However, the industry has to make it a virtuous circle by being more proactive, efficient, and professional to employ only high calibre staff by offering them attractive pay packages. An organisation known as Springboard UK was set up in 1997, which is funded by large employers and a government sector challenge fund from the Department of Education and Skills; its aim being to promote hospitality, tourism and leisure as a First choice career. Unfortunately, Springboard UK has had limited impact in reversing the situation. There are two reasons for this:

1. Insufficient funds available to carry on all the relevant activities
2. At times lack of co-operation and commitment from employers and educational establishments.

In Chapter 6, the research question is 'What is the perception of the industry's role in the delivery of vocational education and training in the Hospitality and Catering Industry'?

The Perception of Industry's Role in the Delivery of Vocational Education and Training in the Hospitality and Catering Industry is being discussed.

The Review of Vocational Qualifications in England and Wales (Department of Education and Science/Manpower Services Commission, 1986) recommended the establishment of National Council for Vocational Qualifications which was the first step towards integrating training into the workplace and involving employers to take full responsibility for their staff.

Regrettably, there were numerous issues regarding the achievement of National Education and Training Targets. This created opportunities to involve Further Education Colleges to deliver and assess National Vocational Qualifications which will assist the industry to achieve National Education and Training Targets set by the government.

There are also employers based training programmes being introduced, such as National Traineeships/Foundation Modern Apprenticeship and Advanced Modern Apprenticeship. The participation rate of apprentices is very poor and the attainment rate is much lower than the full-time students. The quality profile published by the Training Standards Council indicates that none of the colleges and training institutions have achieved a grade 1 in work based training and assessment. The quality profile of work based training is a matter of grave concern and needs thorough investigation.

In this chapter, an in-depth research will be carried out between the employers, supervisors and trainees, to determine the reasons for low performance of apprentices achieving the full frameworks followed by the constructive recommendations. The Chancellor of Exchequer, Gordon Brown, in his Pre-Budget Report 2003 on (www.number-10.gov.uk/su/wfd) announced that the government will extend employer training pilots from 14,000 up to 80,000 employees. This was targeted at pupils leaving school early and without qualifications. There was further allocation of £190 million in the coming year for paid time off and skills training. This is in an attempt to

ensure that Britain meets the challenges of Global competitiveness, despite the limited training undertaken by employer. The scenario in America, France, Germany and Denmark is quite different, as employers on the whole undertake the education and training of their employees very seriously.

In Chapter 7, the research question is 'How does the standard of vocational education and the training system in the United Kingdom compare with SIX similar European and Anglophone countries'?

The international perspective is exposed by carrying out a Comparative Study of Vocational Education and Training System with European and Anglophone countries. There are seven different countries systems being explored, including France, Germany, The Netherlands, Switzerland, New Zealand, USA and United Kingdom.

The performance of the UK at higher skill and qualification levels is comparable with other industrialised countries. However, there is a problem with the youth and adult vocational achievement at intermediary levels; that is Level Two. The high proportion of people in the workforce with poor skills impacts on their ability to complete training and achieve qualifications. This in turn results in a low levels skill base, low wages and hinders social mobility. There are useful lessons to be learnt from neighbouring countries, and the very first step is to study their vocational education and training system.

The comparative study will be focused on qualifications structure, curriculum content, entry qualifications, the industry's image, the role of employer, standards, regulatory body and mode of assessment. The researcher has made study visits to all the countries except New Zealand in order to gather evidence. The visits were made to the educational and training institutions, hospitality industry – hotels, restaurants and cafes, government education and training departments and trade union offices. In the case of New Zealand, most of the data was gathered via telephone, the postal service, the use of electronic mail and the internet. The International theme is the common thread running through all the

research issues which will be raised later in this chapter. The main features of international comparison are based on the research questions as follows:

- Qualifications Structure
- Perception and Image of the Hospitality Industry
- Perception of Industry's Role in Vocational Education and Training
- Quality Issues which Relate to Curriculum Content, Entry Qualification and Assessment Process.

In Chapter 8, the research question is 'How can the quality of the curriculum for the Hospitality and Catering Industry be improved, especially in terms of Vocational and professional skills'?

The Quality of Vocational Education and Training in the Hospitality Industry as an important dimension is being investigated to address the issues of skills gaps. This relates to the project on "Competence with Excellence". The initiative for this project came through the National Skills Taskforce Report (June, 2000) and David Blunkett's speech to the Annual Conference of Association of Colleges in November, 2000.

(Smeaton et al, 2001, p.1)

The sentiments were to place greater emphasis on the development of technical knowledge and skills and basic skills, to secure UK competitiveness. The present curriculum content is to be analysed and the criteria for 'Competence with Excellence' needs to be established. This will lead to the revision of programme of learning with the inclusion of additional elements. This quasi-experimental programme will be set up for six months duration. The selection of students who will participate in this project will be carried out on a voluntary basis as they will constitute the experimental group. At the end of the delivery of the enhanced curriculum, the performance of this group will be compared with the control group. The final results will be statistically analysed to observe the impact of the enhanced curriculum being offered to the experimental group.

There will be other research instruments used to compare the individual performance of students such as self appraisal questionnaires at the start of the project and at the end of the project. This instrument of self appraisal should give the objective assessment of the enhanced curriculum being offered to improve the competence of an individual. There will be opportunities for the participants on this project to enter competitions at Local, Regional, National, European and International level to assess their skills performance and display of professional attitude in the context of international competitiveness.

The researcher is very conscious of the fact that although these five questions are quite disassociated, without these different threads it is difficult to comprehensively understand the current complex situation of staff shortages in the hospitality and catering industry. Moreover, it is necessary to consider all of these strands in order to provide suggestions for a way forward that is likely to be both practicable and effective in meeting industry's manpower needs.

The success of this research would ultimately rely upon converging the conclusion of the above five research questions into one solution. Finally, **Chapter 9** offers discussions on the main findings of the five research questions being raised in this thesis. This chapter makes it very clear that this research is only a snapshot of the issues. There are many other areas which have been highlighted for further investigation.

CHAPTER 2

HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENT AND LITERATURE REVIEW RELATING TO VOCATIONAL EDUCATION AND TRAINING IN HOSPITALITY AND CATERING IN SCHOOLS AND COLLEGES

INTRODUCTION

The broad aim of the present study is to address how the hospitality and catering industry has developed to its present position as a poorly qualified industry, unable to make best use of the huge opportunities for growth and development. This Chapter seeks to place the question in its historical setting by exploring the question of, how vocational education and training in hospitality and catering developed in the last century.

In this section, the development of hospitality and catering vocational education and training is examined in schools and colleges. In Chapter 6, the focus is on the role of the Industry in the delivery of work based training.

In 1893 in the *Caterer* magazine, a French Senior Chef was asked to explain the difference between the training of chefs in France and England. He pointed out that in France a father would pay a good head chef to teach his son, who would start at the very bottom and then, having learnt one part of his profession, would be transferred to another specialist chef in the kitchen, who would also expect to receive a fee. As the chefs were being paid for their trouble, they were likely to teach him reasonably well. The foundations were well formed. Whereas in Britain, where there was a shortage of labour in the kitchens, a boy would be paid to start as a dishwasher. If he was enthusiastic and showed some intelligence he would be promoted to cook, but he would have little knowledge of the art of cooking. There was no incentive for the Head Chef

to train him. The lack of focus in quality training seems to have been a feature of the nineteenth century.

During 1910, one small step in the right direction was the creation of a hotel school at the Westminster Technical College in London. It could be said that in the UK the academic hotel education was born. After the First World War 1919-1929 The Westminster, the only British hotel school, struggled to survive for many years because of the lack of pupils.

“The Incorporated Association of Hotels and Restaurants (1910) had to raise £2,000 a year to prevent the London County Council closing the courses down. Even free training and maintenance grants have failed to attract any adequate results to the waiter’s calling”.

(Taylor D, 2003, p.219)

Sir Joseph Lyons, Sir Isidore Salmon and Sir George Reeves-Smith strongly supported the hotel school and offered scholarships because nobody wanted to pay the tuition fees. Sir Isidore Salmon supported Westminster Technical College for years, badgering the London County Council for more support and donating funds himself. He was intent on raising the standards of haute cuisine, even though his company made its fortune from far simpler fare. In 1940, the government directly intervened and encouraged the setting up of hotel schools to assist the hospitality industry by providing training facilities for staff.

“Nobody had thought it through at the outset and that was the only thing that enabled the industry to have the modicum of skilled staff they needed to manage their own unexpected growth”.

(Taylor D, 2003, p.359)

The industry could have made speedy progress if it had had a policy to recruit its share of the highly intelligent people in the country and the development of appropriate management programmes. In December 1943 it had been agreed, with government support to establish a Catering Trades Education Committee. This initiated the organisation of training courses in technical colleges and established the City and

Guilds of London Institute 150 - General Catering Course for youngsters coming into the Industry. The Education Act was passed in 1944 and subsequently in 1947 the school leaving age was raised to 15 years and a tripartite system of grammar, technical and secondary modern schools was established. Whilst in 1948, the government decided that participation in training would not be made a condition of benefits.

In May 1946 the Ministry of Education gave detailed instructions to local authorities on the setting up of hotel and catering courses. In 1946 Westminster finally started a hotel management course. By 1947, the Catering Trade Education Committee had become the National Council for Hotel and Catering Education. In turn this was dissolved and the responsibility for education rested upon The Hotel and Catering Institute, which came into being in 1949. By the end of 1954, there were 114 technical institutions offering hotel training courses to 8,000 students. This was more than the rest of Europe put together and partially reflected the enthusiasm of teachers.

“Why did so many British youngsters decide to come into industry? After all, Westminster had always struggled to get students. The most rational explanation is that the training was now available locally and there was a grant from the government to pay for it.”

(Taylor D, 2003, p.278)

Unfortunately, during the period leading up to 1952 training consisted of what was learned at the stove in the house apprenticeship system operated by some hotel companies such as J. Lyons. In 1952, the National Joint Apprenticeship Council was set up for the Hotel and Catering Industry, largely due to the initiative taken by the Hotel and Catering Institute, and the scheme was administered by the institute with the help of regional committees. This led to a five year apprenticeship scheme which later became a four year scheme. This apprenticeship system required mandatory day release attendance at the local technical college. The award of a qualification was based upon the successful completion of externally set and examined written test papers and practical examination. The accreditation of training for the chefs' profession was the single most important aim for this scheme. The certificates were awarded by the City and Guilds of London Institute.

The Industrial Training Act was passed in 1964 and this led to the establishment of the Hotel and Catering Industry Training Board in November 1966. It comprised of representatives from the employers, trade unions and education.

The purpose of the board was to encourage the adequate training of people employed or intending to be employed in the industry. Unlike other Training Boards, the scope of the Hospitality and Catering Industry Training Board was functional; that is, it covered hotels, restaurants, public houses, popular catering, holiday camps and industrial catering, irrespective of where the training was carried out. Initially, the services of the Training Board were, in general, available only to employers paying a levy based on their payroll. This excluded a large number of small firms. The levy was the sole source of the board's income and amounted to approximately £3,000,000 per annum.

About one third of the levy was used for administration and salaries (including the salaries of training staff) and the remainder reimbursed in the form of a grant to employers carrying out approved training. The Employment and Training Act 1973 fixed a normal upper limit of 1% of the payroll for levy. The boards levy was 1.25% of payroll for the period April 1971 to March 1972, 1% from April 1972 to March 1973, 0.8% from April 1973 to March 1974 and, 0.7% from April 1974 to March 1975.

Employers with payrolls under £6,000 were excluded from levy in 1971/1972. The exclusion level was £7,000 in 1972/1973 and £8,000 in 1973/1974. The exclusion level of £32,000 for 1974/1975 retained in levy about 1,500 employers, who between them employed about 80% of the employees with levy scope. On an average, across the industry, the proposed cut-off level had the effect of excluding employers with fewer than about 40 employees. All employers have been able to benefit from the Board services since 1st April 1974.

However, through the levy related grant scheme for planning training in 1974/1975 and the proposed exemption scheme for 1975/1976, the board gave an indication of the

relative importance it attached to craft, technical and management training within an overall training policy.

The Board also made available additional incentive grants for key training activities. In 1974/1975 the three key areas were:

1. Developing the ability of staff at all levels in the industry, to train others.
2. Training craft and other career trainees on courses of education and training leading to nationally recognized qualifications.
3. Training management trainees in or preparing for their first management appointment and Higher National Diploma students on the industrial component of sandwich courses.

There were many changes proposed under the Employment and Training Act, 1973. The Boards operating costs would be met by the Exchequer from April 1975. The employers demonstrating to the Board that they are training their staff in a systematic manner could be exempted from paying levy. The Board's services were made available to all employers in the Industry, irrespective of levy payment. The service offered included advice and assistance with training, short courses for instructors, trainers and management and the provision of training aids and information.

The Hotel and Catering Institute was instigated by the labour government between 1945 and 1951, with an aim to produce a better educated work force for the hospitality industry. The Hotel and Catering Institute sought the full co-operation of the Ministry of Education. A.H. Jones' work done for the Hotel and Catering Institute was the greatest contribution to the Hotel and Catering Industry. This is in addition to his full-time job as Managing Director of the Grosvenor House, Park Lane, London. In 1960, he was elected the first chairman of the most important Hotel and Catering Institute committee that is, the Associate Membership Examination Sub-Committee. The committee set out to create the curriculum and structure for the industries first management course. Jones was determined that this course would be more than a craft course.

There was an intense opposition to this concept. In his speech at the conference on catering education in 1962 he said:

“It was with the greatest difficulty that some of the subjects were accepted by the committee and the Institute....hygiene, the principles of management, the economic aspects of the industry and accounting...” (Taylor D, 2003, p.271)

He was appointed chairman of the Hotel and Catering Institute in 1959 and in 1960 he launched the very first National Diploma for the industry which came to be seen as his legacy. *“It was a four year course and so structured that the craft content of the normal course had to be cut in half to accommodate the new management subjects.”*

(Taylor D, 2003, p.272)

The work experience period was an integral component of the course as, during the first three years of the course, students worked in various hotel departments, such as kitchen, restaurant, reception, housekeeping and accounts departments.

A.H. Jones (1963) wrote in *Caterer Magazine*

“The question of training people to think for themselves is too much neglected in our industry’s training. If a young person has the capacity for thinking impersonally, impartially, without prejudice scientifically, philosophically we would have much less need to worry in the future” (Taylor D,2003 ,p.273)

Jones was very keen on the personal development of young people. He took a long term view of education and training policies, whilst his contemporaries were looking at short term solutions to satisfy the need for trainee chefs and waiters. He viewed the hotel industry in the setting of the government’s overall economic policy. Often using the Ministry of Labour demographic trends in education to argue his case Jones played a very important role in the formation of the first management course for the hotel

industry. This curriculum development led to Higher National Diploma courses, CNAAs Degree courses and eventually to under graduate programmes in the universities.

MANPOWER SERVICES COMMISSION

The Manpower Services Commission was created by the Employment and Training Act 1973, which gave it the power to make arrangements for 'assisting people to select, train for, obtain and retain employment, and for assisting employers to obtain suitable employees' (ETA, 1973, p.2). This move came from the criticism of the Industrial Training Board system, particularly from Small Medium-Sized Establishments (SMEs) to the levy-grant arrangements. It was given two executive aims, the Employment Services Agency (ESA) and the Training Services Agency (TSA), through which it would modernise and nationalise existing provision. The Manpower Services Commission became responsible for a wide range of services and institutions, ranging from the Industry Training Boards and Skill Centres, through to the Job Centres. It was required to organise any training activities of 'key importance to industries on the national economy'. The Secretary of State was given power to 'direct' the Commission and even 'modify' its functions.

The Employment and Training Act 1973 created greater centralised control and weakened the previously autonomous, more directly interventionist and industry-based training agencies. The Conservative Government responded to the pressure of small firm lobbying by replacing the levy grant system, by which Industry Training Boards raised their funds, with a levy-grant exemption system, which had the effect of making the Boards far more dependant on direct treasury support. This made them unable to intervene in individual employers' training practices.

The Manpower Services Commission was formally launched on 1st January, 1974. Unfortunately, during this period of recession, unemployment started rising to a higher level and for a longer period than expected. In October 1975, a Job Creation Programme (JCP) was introduced to create around 15,000 temporary jobs with a budget of £30 million.

In addition, the Department of Employment introduced a Recruitment Subsidy for School Leavers (RSSL), which offered employers £5 per week for six months for recruiting an unemployed school leaver. Sadly this policy displaced unemployment on to other age groups. This scheme failed to address the problem of school leavers. Hence, it was replaced by the Youth Employment Subsidy (YES) in October 1976, providing £10 per week for any young person under 20 who had been unemployed for more than six months. This scheme was no more successful than the Recruitment Subsidy for School Leavers in creating employment.

The Job Creation Programme created jobs for the high numbers of unemployed graduates and displayed no concerns for the school leavers. This scheme was supplemented by the Work Experience Programme (WEP) in September 1976. It involved providing £16.00 per week for young trainees under the age of 19 for six months duration. The retention rate was far from satisfactory. These schemes were not very successful as employers failed to recruit young people, even though the business economy increased by 10%.

The Job Creation Programme and Work Experience Programme came to an end in 1977. These initiatives were replaced by the Youth Opportunities Programme (YOP) for 16-18 year olds. The adult unemployed were given the Special Temporary Employment Programme (STEP).

These programmes were very successful, and necessitated the creation of a 'special programmes' Division within the structure of Manpower Services Commission. The expansion of the Manpower Services Commission work had an impact on the work related programmes of the Further Education Sector. The apprenticeship system came to an end, and was replaced by new initiatives, which were mainly focused on expanding training activities rather than educational activity. The Commission was bypassing the political relationship between central government and local authorities through which educational changes were previously negotiated, but without much success.

The Great Debate on education, initiated by James Callaghan at Ruskin College in October 1976, marked, at the highest political level, the end of the phase of educational expansion which had been largely promoted by his own party, and signalled a public redefinition of educational objectives. The debate was also a response to more immediate events – the acute economic crisis, escalating unemployment, cuts in public expenditure and the anticipated fall in pupils as the number of infants started to decline.

The Great Debate indicated a clear shift on the part of the Labour Leadership towards policies, which would facilitate a greater government control of the education system. This was required, as it was assumed that the quality of the labour force was a major problem encountered by industry in the economic crisis. The relationship between reforms in secondary schooling, the characteristics of young workers, and the nature of work discipline were highlighted by the growth in youth unemployment, and by the complaints of employers. This necessitated government to evolve a coherent policy for the education, training and employment provision of the sixteen to eighteen year age group. There were various reasons for the changes to youth employment such as the overall unemployment rate, general conditions of the local economy, greater numbers of young people coming on the job market, a decline in manufacturing industries, a reduction in the number of semi-skilled workers in industry and the demise of the apprenticeship system. In spite of absolute decline in the number of jobs available for young people, there was also a change in the perception of employers as to the kind of young workers in which they were interested. Young people were typified as irresponsible, poorly motivated and quick to change jobs. The employers wanted matured individuals who were loyal, responsible, hard working and consistent in carrying out their jobs.

In the late 1970's there were two significant key developments – the government involvement in training through Manpower Services Commission and increasing pressure on schools to be responsive to the needs of industry. Both these policies are an attempt to deal with the recession and youth unemployment. The necessity to inculcate positive social attitudes to industry and the 'wealth-making' process are key elements to be developed in young people whilst at school. In 1980, the Central Policy

Review Staff (CPRS) Think Tank presented a report on Education and Training and Industrial Performance which highlighted the issues related to the needs of industry.

“There are quite serious difficulties about interpreting what the needs of industry are... These (needs) are far from uniform, there are inconsistencies between what employers say they want and the values implicit in their selection process, their conception of their needs, present and future, is frequently not explicit and clearly formulated.”

(CPRS, 1980, p.7)

Also in the late 1970's, there was a greater intervention by government in training, which was demonstrated by the formation of the Manpower Services Commission and the great pressure on schools to be responsive to the needs of the industry. The main reason for these two policies was to overcome the problem of recession and the decrease of youth employment. This led schools to put more emphasis on vocational preparation and other responsibilities were taken up by the Manpower Service Commission.

The Department of Education and Science and the Manpower Services Commission piloted a jointly administered Unified Vocational Programme (UVP) to achieve a 'careful blend', a real synthesis of education and training. When the Labour government was suggesting a national system of traineeships, vocational preparation replaced older definitions of education and training. The terms 'training and education' have been commonly used as a rough and ready means of distinguishing between learning to perform specific vocational tasks (training), and the general development of knowledge, moral values and understanding required in all walks of life (education). Such definitions have shortcomings.... The Concept of vocational preparation treats the entire process of learning, on and off the job, as a single entity, combining elements of training and education to be conceived and planned as a whole. (DES/DE, 1979)

During 1978, there was an emergence of the Youth Opportunities Programme (YOP), the pilot Unified Vocational Programme (UVP) schemes, reforms to the apprenticeship system and various experiments with grants for young people staying at school.

Unfortunately, there were no common objectives within these schemes. In 1979, just before the General Election, a Consultative Paper was produced, highlighting the proposals for a comprehensive system of traineeships for all sixteen to eighteen year old starting work.

These traineeships would be aimed at the young people who were entering jobs with no further education or training. This would provide 'an integrated programme of education and training both on and off the job'. These programmes would be work-based and last from three to twelve months. There was to be 'pump priming' finance available from the government, but eventually this programme was intended to become self-financing, with employers meeting the cost themselves.

By 1979, the Labour Government was proposing to introduce a comprehensive provision of vocational preparation. The aim was to provide a day release provision for all young workers and to combat employer's complaints about the attitude and willingness of their young recruits. However, when the Conservative Party came into power in 1979 election they initiated cuts in public expenditure which resulted in the Labour Government proposals being set aside. It appeared that the new government was hostile to the Manpower Services Commission and were not very supportive to the experiment in maintaining employment figures at the correct levels by registering school leavers on traineeship programmes for the maximum period of one year. Sadly, many of the young people, after successfully completing the traineeship programme, could not continue into employment, as employers had no real vacancies to offer them full-time jobs.

In 1981, the New Training Initiative (NTI) was introduced. The Manpower Services Commission was able to replace the mixture of temporary schemes with a wide training initiative. The Youth Training Scheme (YTS) was introduced, which was further expanded into a TWO YEAR scheme (Chancellor of the Exchequer budget speech of March, 1985). This scheme absorbed most of the apprenticeship training principles with the Industry Training principles along with the Industry Training Boards which were formed under the Industrial Training Act 1964. This provided a full time bridge

between school and work to enable a smooth transition of young people to the work place.

There were Education Business Partnership formed between the schools and local employers. This initiative appeared to be worthwhile to start with but some young pupils were not ready for the specific employment at school leaving age. The emphasis was on training rather than education which created problems for employers as they complained about young pupils lacking communication, numeracy and information technology skills. This system could have operated effectively provided the employers would release the young people from the work place to attend local colleges one day per week to continue their educational development. There are examples of this type of initiative operating successfully in Germany, which shows that the country as a whole has a highly skilled workforce,

The government maintained a robust defense at all times. David Young told the magazine *The Director* in April, 1983, that:

“Training should not be confused with education. Training is about work related skills and is intimately concerned with employment. It is for that reason that training in this country must be employer dominated and employer led”.

(IoD, 1983, p.3)

Thus, it can be seen that the Government Vocational Education and Training policies are heavily biased towards training. There is a lip service being paid towards the education component. It is not at all surprising that the young people, parents and teachers find it difficult to reconcile the notion of ‘parity of esteem’ between the academic and vocational subjects.

The first major survey of employer’s reaction to YTS, ‘How the YTS helps employers’, was that it provided:

“the opportunity...to screen young people before offering permanent employment”.

(Sako and Dore, 1986, p.195)

The employers engaged workers at low wages thus making savings in labour costs. They did not want to invest in the training of these young people. In most cases, the responsibility was left to the employee to achieve the appropriate qualifications. Unfortunately, the employers gave little back and they retained control over the hiring and firing of apprentices and gave no support to a National Vocational Qualification, continuing to prefer traditional academic qualifications as an indicator of real value for responsible positions.

In 1983, the government launched an experimental Technical and Vocational Education Initiative (TVEI) under the aegis of the Manpower Services Commission to develop an integrated vocational preparation curriculum for particular groups of pupils to extend from the age of 14 to the age of 18. This programme was based in secondary schools under the control of local authorities. These authorities were influenced by the opportunities for capital investment, to update their facilities from the central government, rather than the success of curriculum delivery.

The 'Great Debate' launched in the speech by James Callaghan at the Ruskin College, Oxford, attempted to bring about change in public attitudes to education. In the 1960s the education system was in line with the human capital theorist that the expansion of education provision contributed to economic growth. This view, which had been transformed into many aspects of the education system, in fact inhibited the growth of industry. Thus, during the 1970's when new programmes were introduced to reduce unemployment figures amongst young people, control of these programmes was passed on to the Manpower Services Commission and not to the education system. This clearly indicated the Government's move towards training rather than education in the vocational context. This ideology could have worked had the employers co-operated fully in providing time and resources for young people to continue their academic personal and social development.

The essential remit of the Manpower Services Commission was to ensure that the economy's manpower needs were met, and the bonds between the youth programmes

and employment would be as tight as possible. Tomlinson, 1986 argues that the MSC's real role was partly to provide a source of cheap labour, and partly a mechanism for the manipulation of employment statistics.

The Head of the Further Education Unit, Jack Mansell thought that the YTS Leaving Certificate:

"presents itself as a most superficial document".

(Times Educational Supplement, May 10, 1984, p.16)

David Young declared that, instead of a recognised qualification, the criterion of success of the scheme would be how many people found jobs at the end of it. In fact, there was evidence that the scheme made unemployment worse. In effect, the government was subsidising industry. The MSC lacked a particular image of education. The national training system was grand, but not inclusive or particularly well founded on research. Most of the ideas came from the Further Education Unit which was established by DES in 1977.

The new conservative administration of 1979 had no clear strategy on training but was a willing listener to the MSC's proposals for a New Training Initiative which subordinated education to the service of industry. It was especially welcomed as it originally conceived that employers gaining from a set of new standards would contribute to their funding.

There were three major objectives for the nation outlined in 1981 in Training Initiative proposals:

1. To develop skill training including apprenticeship in such a way as to enable young people entering at different ages and with different educational attainments to acquire agreed standards of skill appropriate to the jobs available and to provide them with a basis for progression through further learning;
2. To move towards a position where all young people under the age of 18 have the opportunity either of continuing in full time education or of entering a

period of planned work experience combined with work-related training and education;

3. To open up widespread opportunities for adults, whether employed, unemployed or returning to work, to acquire, increase or update their skills and knowledge during the course of their working lives.

(Dale, 1985, pp. 85-86)

One of the NTI's stated aims were to reform and increase skill training in order to end the reliance on time-serving training and introduce standards to this new system of training. The reason for this change was to allow fast achievers to gain qualifications at a speedy pace. Also to provide opportunities for the employed skilled workers to achieve qualifications, by offering them accreditation of prior learning.

The transition to a standards-based or outcome-led system can be seen in the Vocational Education and Training system through the introduction of National Vocational Qualifications (NVQs). The shift to an outcome-led system of education and training thus means a qualification-led or assessment-led system. It attempts to bring together most of the progressive developments in education and training which are developed over the recent decades, particularly during the 1980's, and weld them into a coherent national system. These proposals were rapidly endorsed by governments in the White Paper "Education and Training – Working Together" (1986). The 1985/1986 Review of Vocational Qualifications in England and Wales (DES, 1986) recommended the setting up of a new body to carry through these proposals, the National Council for Vocational Qualifications (NCVQ).

Thus, NCVQ was formally established in October 1986 as an independent body, initially funded by the government, to implement the remit set out in the White Paper. NCVQ had no legal powers and could only effect change with the co-operation of awarding bodies, industrial bodies, professional bodies and numerous other agencies which were part of the standards/qualifications/education/training infrastructure. NCVQ relied on marketing the concept of NVQs and gaining wide acceptance to carry out the reform process. It relied on the government for support to introduce NVQs. The

funding and management of the programme to stimulate industry to set standards for NVQs was retained by government, operating first through Manpower Services Commission, then the Training Agency. The Vocational qualification provision was also very complex and untidy.

The Government's Review of Vocational Qualifications, Manpower Services Commission, 1986, highlighted some of the shortcomings.

- There is no clear, readily understandable pattern of provision.
- There are gaps in provision.
- There are considerable areas of actual or apparent overlap both within and between the three parts of the system (Examining and validating bodies, professional bodies, industry bodies). This overlap and duplication can be wasteful and inefficient.
- Arrangements for progression and transfer are often not well defined or practicable.
- There are many barriers to access arising from attendance and entry requirements for courses, membership regulations, or the inflexible pattern of examination schedules.
- Assessments carried out by many bodies do not adequately test or record the competencies required in employment.
- Assessment methods tend to be biased towards the testing, either of knowledge, or of skill, rather than of competence.
- There is insufficient recognition of learning acquired in non-formal situations.
- There is often insufficient rapid response to ever changing needs.
- For whatever reason (and the cause on occasion must be the perceived inadequacy or partial relevance of a qualification) there is a very limited take-up of vocational qualifications in some important occupational areas, for example, in the distribution industry.

(Raggatt and Williams, 1999, pp.53-54)

There was a need for a quantum leap in the education and training of young people to meet both their aspirations and the needs of the economy in an increasingly competitive world (CBI, 1989a).

The skills of the United Kingdom workforce compared poorly with those of our principal competitors (CBI, 1989 b).

Britain faced a skills challenge greater than any since the Industrial Revolution. Major changes in work, in the workforce, and in the global economy were creating the need to tap the potential of the workforce.

In October 1989, Neil Kinnock remarked in his speech... *“Education and training are now the ‘Commanding heights’ for every modern economy...Now and for all time in the future, human skills and human talents will be the major determinants of success or failure...not just for individuals but for a whole society in all its social, cultural and commercial life.. That was why investment in training would be the most important priority of all”*.

The MSC/NEDO (1984) Report ‘Competence and Competition’ revealed that West German employers spent three times as much on initial and continuing vocational education and training as those in the UK. Anderson (1987) noted that British companies spent an average of 0.15% of turnover on training while France, Japan and West Germany allocated between 1-2%. Constable and Mc Cormick (1987) suggested that the UK did not have a proper system for training its managers and they had insufficient knowledge about training themselves to make decisions for others.

The initial apprenticeship system in Britain died the death with the rise of youth unemployment during the 1970’s. Hence the problem was deep seated and so probably not available to a ‘quick fix’. The initiatives which were introduced came under work experience programmes such as Youth Opportunities Programmes (YOP). These programmes gained more formal training components and became Youth Trainee

Scheme (YTS). These programmes lasted until 1997 when the Foundation Modern Apprenticeship Scheme was introduced to gradually replace YTS.

In April, 1985 YTS was extended from a one-year programme to two-years. In Education and Training for young people (DE/DES, 1985), the White Paper announced the establishment of the Recognised Vocational Qualification (RVQ); it was proposed that all trainees should have the opportunity to seek RVQs. The need for good qualifications for YTS was a driving force in the RVQ as there were no qualifications available which were appropriate.

In May, 1985 the MSC charged the Hotel and Catering Industrial Training Board with developing a Caterbase scheme of work based assessment to underpin vocational qualifications in its sector. The early NVQs skewed towards a task-specific focus, reflecting the content of many YTS programmes. It is unfortunate that because of the need to certificate YTS programmes, the early development of NVQs took the lead from the already limited perspective and constricted framework of YTS. This created challenges in the development of NVQs at level 3 and level 4.

In September, 1995, Modern Apprenticeships programmes were introduced with the aim to improve the supply of technical, craft and junior management skills at NVQ Level 3, through work-based training for young people (16-24 year olds). NVQs are at the heart of these programmes and Modern Apprenticeships would not be possible without them.

The results of Coleman and Williams (1998) Evaluation of Modern Apprenticeships suggest that the majority of apprentices and employers are satisfied with the scheme. The major features are the range of qualifications, the job related training and the fact that the apprentices are paid, as positive aspects of their apprenticeships. They also agree that the scheme provides them with skills and qualifications for the future, and some of the apprentices are ambitious to progress on to a Foundation Degree:

“Employers also see this scheme as an opportunity to deliver better quality training, improve the skill levels of their existing staff and recruit better quality trainees.”

(DfEE Research Report 94, 1998a)

Research by Ashton et al (1990) highlighted the fact that employers contributed to the failure of the VET system by attracting a large proportion of 16 year olds into the labour market with low skills, low pay jobs with limited training prospects and actively rewarding the decision to leave formal schooling or college.

“What is sorely missing, however, in the programmes that followed the National Training Initiative, is that wider sense of social, civic and educational purpose, that understanding of the relationships that must be developed between knowledge, values and practical accomplishment, so evident in the thought and practice of the early advocates of work-based learning”

(Skillbeck et al, 1994, p.98)

The Further and Higher Education Act of 1992 was the first major recasting of post-compulsory education since the Education Act of 1944. It required colleges to create governing bodies or ‘corporations’ which were responsible for assets, staff and management policy. They were empowered to supply goods and services other than education and training, the services which were incidental to the provision of post-compulsory education. The corporations were funded by Further Education Funding Councils, one for England and one for Wales.

It is in the sources of funding that has had the greatest impact on colleges, since money directly impacts upon management, personnel and administration decisions, in the new ‘business of learning’ (Ainley and Bailey, 1997).

In May, 1994 Ruth Gee, Chief Executive of Association of Colleges, told the Times Educational Supplement.

“Colleges were promised freedom from control and a light touch from the funding bodies. Instead, the colleges have found themselves subjected to a regulatory regime

which demands detailed returns on individual students. Yes, there is institutional autonomy but it functions in what some might call a national straight jacket”.

(TES, May 1994, p.12)

National Traineeships were introduced in 1997 to replace the Youth Training Scheme, which had been the principal work based route for providing young people (mainly 16-19 year olds) with skills and qualifications, to at least NVQ Level 2. The National Traineeships have been well received and in 1999 indicators were that employers and trainees alike are positive about their experiences of them (Everett et al, 1999).

The industry is satisfied, as National Traineeships ensure the raising of skills levels and the programmes provide breadth of training. The young people are encouraged and motivated with this scheme, as it provides an opportunity to learn real skills in the work place environment. However, there are issues with the low attainment of full framework qualifications in the hospitality and catering industry. Some of the reasons attributed to this situation are the failure of employers to release apprentices to attend a local college one day per week, insufficient duration of training and lower funding as compared to apprentices for the hairdressing industry. In addition, there is a high turnover of apprentices in the hospitality industry, which in some cases relate to the seasonal nature of the business.

In December, 2002 Ivan Lewis Parliamentary Under Secretary of State for the Department of Education and Skills (DfES) wrote to the Qualifications and Curriculum Authority (QCA), the successor to NCVQ, asking them to liaise with the Learning and Skills Council (LSC) and the Sector Skills Development Agency (SSDA) to develop a programme of work which would lead to a more responsive and flexible national system of vocational qualifications. QCA, who were leading the process with LSC and SSDA acting as partners, has posted their proposals for this second generation review on their website (www.qca.org.uk)

There are various definitions of Vocational Education and Training. Carnegie (2000) proposes a definition in the context of the Australian Vocational Education and Training system:

“A distinguishing feature of VET is the specific learning/assessment focus, which is competency based. This approach is concerned with training and assessment to meet industry standards rather than with an individual’s achievement relative to that of others in a group. It emphasises what a person can do, not just what they know”.

A similar view is held up in United Kingdom as National Vocational Qualifications is primarily based upon these principles. Williams (1963) argues that technical education is practical, in contrast to university education, which is by implication (more) theoretical. The other point of view is expressed by Gonczi (1997) who distinguishes general education as abstract thought, and vocational education as a concrete action.

There is a reflection of this view in UNESCO’s (1997) international standard classification of education, that distinguishes between general education, which leads learners to a deeper understanding of a subject, and vocational or technical education, which leads learners to acquire the practical skills, know-how and understanding essentials for employment in a specific occupation (<http://www.unesco.org>).

Phil Willis Liberal Democrat spokesman made several constructive comments on 5th November 2003 during the commons debate on vocational education. His views were included in the White Paper, 21st Century Skills: Realising our Potential; the inspiration is coming from Europe: Germany and France with a challenge to increase the stock of vocational level 2 and 3 qualifications at all costs. (Education and Training Parliamentary Monitor, 2003)

On the other hand, in the Higher Education White Paper (2003); the inspiration for the future of Higher Education was coming from across the Atlantic in the United States and the challenge was to increase the stock of level 4 qualifications, at all costs, such as

the Modern Skills Diploma for Adults, Higher National Certificates, Higher National Diplomas and Foundation Degrees.

The problem was that there were two White Papers, not one, in circulation, and this resulted in confusion on the part of schools, colleges, training providers and universities. There were inconsistencies in these two policies. The solution for the skills White Paper was more Advanced Modern Apprentices and Vocational Level 3 programmes. The solution for the higher education white paper was Foundation Degrees. There remains two separate funding agencies: that is, Learning and Skills Council; The Higher Education Funding Council, financing two different providers of level 3 qualifications and Foundation Degrees, but delivered in the same further education colleges and addressing the same problem.

Ruth Kelly, Secretary of State for Education and Skills, stated in her first white paper for "14-19 Education and Skills" released on Wednesday 23rd February 2005, that there would be an increase in the capacity of the education system to offer vocational education. The role of centres of vocational excellence would be further extended to make excellent vocational provision available for young people. In addition, new Skills Academies would be developed as national centres of excellence in skills. Kelly also referred to boosting vocational provision in the best specialist schools by providing additional resources. Work-related learning would be a statutory requirement and the entitlement to enterprise education in place by September 2005.

The government proposal is to continue improving vocational education by replacing 3,500 separate qualifications with specialist diplomas in 14 broad sector areas. It is very interesting to note the change in emphasis on education rather than training. However, the word 'skills' is being used, which can be interpreted as education or training depending on the context. Here, the relationship between education and training is more important which is, at present, being overlooked by the issue of what employers need and what policy makers believe the country wants.

The second white paper “Skills: Getting on in business, getting on at work” was released on Tuesday, 22nd March, 2005. This white paper builds on the Government's first national Skills Strategy published in July 2003. Employers' needs will be met through the delivery of a new National Employer Training Programme (NETP).

Sector Skills Agreements will bring together employers and training providers to meet the future skill needs of the nation. Skills Academies will be the employer-led linchpin of a new network of specialist colleges and training providers. They will prepare young people and adults for successful employment in each major sector of the economy. (www.dfes.gov.uk). In autumn 2005, the government had announced four Skills Academies which are; Manufacturing, Food and Drink Manufacturing, Construction and Financial Services. The aim of these academies is to meet the skills shortages and close the skills gaps in their respective industry. Thus, eventually improving the productivity level of businesses so that they are highly competitive in the global economy. However, in order to raise the competitiveness there are two issues which need to be tackled immediately. Firstly, the articulation between education and training. Secondly, the challenges of staff recruitment. Both of these issues are not unrelated, but crucial to the improvements in the productivity level of business. Unfortunately, there will be no training if the staff cannot be recruited for the hospitality industry.

STAFF RECRUITMENT ISSUES IN THE HOSPITALITY AND CATERING INDUSTRY

Basically, for the past decade, the main issues facing the hospitality and catering industry, with no specific solutions coming forward in the near future are as follows: firstly, the hospitality industry is desperately seeking skilled staff and unable to meet its manpower needs; secondly, the skill gaps are widening, and the role of skills and skills development through training in the contemporary economy is a matter of considerable academic and political debate.

The reason for this, is insufficient recruitment of students on Hospitality and Catering courses since September 1990. It is interesting to note that during this period, whilst General National Vocational qualifications were being planned, a new curriculum area was being introduced entitled Hospitality and Tourism. There was a strong lobbying by catering teachers, hoteliers, restaurateurs and industrial caterers nationally to link hospitality with catering and disassociate it from tourism. These comments were taken into account and two distinct curriculum areas evolved: that is, Hospitality & Catering, and Leisure & Tourism.

In 1993/1994, the total number of registrations in Hospitality and Catering were 1,208 as compared to 15,616 in Leisure and Tourism. These figures peaked in 1996/1997, when the total number of registrations in Hospitality and Catering were 4,710 as compared to 32,285 in Leisure and Tourism (FEDA, 1998). By 2000/2001 the registrations went down to 1,654 in Hospitality and Catering as compared to 15,020 in Leisure and Tourism (HTF, 2003).

The imbalance demonstrated above stems partly from the way Leisure and Tourism is perceived by young people as inherently more interesting than Hospitality and Catering Courses, and partly from the fact that educational institutions find it much less expensive to offer Leisure and Tourism courses than Hospitality and Catering courses, which have a higher practical content, thus requiring heavy financial commitment. Curriculum 2000 was introduced to replace the Advanced General National Vocational Qualification with the Advanced Vocational Certificate in Education (AVCE), which were available as a Single or Double Awards. The concept was to enable students to mix and match qualifications; thus, a student could take a single Award in Hospitality and Catering, and a single Award in Travel and Tourism. This provided a greater flexibility and choice to students. However, with the introduction of the Curriculum 2000 the number of students in each of the above areas has fallen further.

During 2000/2001 the total number of registrations on the Advanced Vocational Certificate in Education in Hospitality and Catering were 48 as opposed to 469 in Leisure and Tourism and 848 in Travel and Tourism. It appears that the National Diploma qualification had a better marketing appeal than GNVQs or AVCEs for Hospitality and Catering Industry (HTF, 2002).

In employment terms, the hospitality and catering industry offers many more employment opportunities than the leisure and tourism sector. The report published by the British Tourist Authority in the British Hospitality Trends and Statistics, 2002 indicates the breakdown of annual turnover for the hospitality and tourism industry. The hospitality and catering activities account for more than 60% of the total turnover which require specialist technical skills. In fact, large numbers of students from leisure and tourism courses do seek employment in the hospitality and catering industry, despite lacking technical skills. To a certain extent this accounts for skill gaps in the industry. This situation is still not being addressed by the educational policy makers as seven Vocational General Certificate in Secondary Education (VGCSE) were introduced in September 2002, Leisure and Tourism is one of them, but not Hospitality and Catering. Moreover, new vocational 'A' levels are being developed by the Qualification Curriculum Authority in Hospitality and Catering, Leisure and

Recreation & Travel and Tourism as three separate curriculum areas which are expected to be launched in September 2005.

Humphries (1998), states in the National Skills Task Force Report:

“Productivity and social cohesion are key twin challenges facing the UK in ensuring our nation’s economic success in the 21st Century”.

“Skills are at the heart of these challenges – for the competitiveness of our business and the employability of our people.”

(DfEE,1998b)

SKILL SHORTAGES AND SKILL GAPS

Skill Shortages

The term 'Skill Shortage' is defined as referring to a situation where there is a genuine shortage in the accessible labour market of the type of skill being sought and which leads to a difficulty in recruitment. There have been other recruitment difficulties aside from skill shortages, which are at least equally important. This could be due to a number of causes including the image of some industries or occupations and the lack of 'best practice' techniques in staff recruitment by employers.

Skill Gaps

A 'Skill Gap' is defined as a deficiency arising in the skills of existing employees or new recruits which reduces business performance rather than being manifested in a current recruitment difficulty. 15% of all employers believe that there is a significant gap between the skills current employees have now and those needed to meet business objectives.

Employers repeatedly express concern about the employability and key skills of young people entering the labour market for the first time, including graduates. Employers also report a lack of practical skills relating to the application of technical knowledge in the working environment. This is consistent with the relative weakness of apprenticeship and other formal vocational training for young people in the UK compared to other European Countries such as Germany and Denmark. The challenge is to improve the levels of take-up and achievement of vocational qualifications amongst the new entrants into the Hospitality Industry and amongst the existing workforce.

Addressing Skills Gaps

The most important issue in addressing specific skills gaps is getting the general structure of the education and training system right. This can be achieved by the following action:

- Planning and improving the working of the Education and Training Market
- Improving the information base such as Labour Market & Skill Needs
- Review Funding and Performance Management Systems of Education and Training Provision, so that it meets the skill requirements of the labour market.
- Learning in the workplace – Apprenticeship Training especially in SMEs’.

There are many views expressed by industry and other organisations linked very closely with interest in human resource development. It is vital to provide responsiveness and flexibility in terms of delivery and qualifications achievable by individuals. The review of professional magazines and journals over the period of previous few years reveals a serious debate concerning skill shortages and skill gaps amongst the industry leaders. This debate has been summarised and presented in the Figure 2.1 along with the brief comments related to each quote.

**TEXT BOUND INTO
THE SPINE**

Figure 2.1 Skill shortages and skill gaps quoted in the press during the previous ten year period.

TITLE	QUOTE	REFERENCE	COMMENTS
<p>Skills Shortages Blight UK Tourism</p>	<p><i>“According to the CBI’s research, 46% of tourism businesses find it difficult to find appropriate food preparation staff, while 39% have difficulty recruiting good managers”.</i></p>	<p>Huddart, 1995</p>	<p>The problem of skills shortages in the hospitality and tourism industry is all over the U.K, especially chefs and management. There are two major reasons for this situation. On one hand the eating market is growing at a faster rate, on the other hand the number of young people entering the industry is falling.</p>
<p>Agency Tackles Chef Crisis</p>	<p><i>A London recruitment agency is to offer temporary chefs full-time employment benefits in a desperate bid to tackle skills shortages. There is a huge skills shortage. We’re now in dire straits as an industry, in London particularly. Said Hilary Archer, personnel and training manger at the London Tower, Thistle Hotel</i></p>	<p>Archer, 1996</p>	<p>London is the world’s leading eating capital and it has been described as the gastronomic paradise. The Restaurant industry contributes 23% of tourism spending annually according to the British Hospitality Association Annual Report 2003. The businesses are attempting to implement innovative strategies to recruit staff but without much success. The problem also lies in fewer young people applying for courses in colleges.</p>

TITLE	QUOTE	REFERENCE	COMMENTS
Skills shortage boosts top food service salaries	<p><i>"Skills shortages in the food service management industry helped boost salaries for management and chefs by an average of 14% last year, according to an annual survey. In the Manpower statistics there is the monthly total of advertised job vacancies, compiled by Salary Survey Publication. This again shows an increase in the number of vacancies year on year, with February 1996 ahead by over 11% at 3,971 jobs, compared with 3,568 in February 1995".</i></p>	Caterer and Hotelkeeper 1996	The shortage of staff situation is very similar in the Food Service Management Industry. This is in spite of this sector having many employment advantages over the commercial restaurants and bars, such as more regular and fewer unsocial working hours. The industry's poor career profile exacerbates the problem of staff shortages.
Are There Specific Skills/Staff Which Employers Have Difficulty Obtaining?	<p><i>"The problem of skill shortages is exacerbated in Wales, especially South Wales, by the unprecedented growth in jobs in the hospitality industry over the past two years, a phenomenon that is predicted to continue to grow with skill shortages becoming ever more pronounced in Cardiff and the Vale".</i></p>	Stevens et al, 1998	<p>The scenario of staff shortages in Wales is very similar to London, specifically with the development of hotels and restaurants in Cardiff, the Capital of Wales.</p> <p>In addition, the marketing by Welsh Food Promotions Limited to raise the profile of Welsh food and drinks has encouraged the growth of fine restaurants in Wales. The pool of staff available to recruit chefs and managers is very restrictive which can only be resolved by Welsh Assembly investing in vocational education and training.</p>

TITLE	QUOTE	REFERENCE	COMMENTS
<p>Hotel and Restaurant schools</p> <p>- Competition or Capacity?</p>	<p><i>“Butlers Wharf Chef School (BWCS) opened in 1995 because Sir Terence Conran spoke publicly about the difficulty of recruiting chefs with the right skills for his restaurants – in fact, he was recruiting from as far a field as Australia and New Zealand. So BWCS was born out of lack of chefs with appropriate skills in London”.</i></p>	<p>Harbourne, 1999</p>	<p>This suggests that the present vocational education and training system is not producing chefs in sufficient numbers to keep pace with demand and the situation has worsened since 1995. There is a powerful argument for increasing the number of chefs trained in further education colleges, and the industry is united in calling on provision for precisely this reason</p>
<p>Back to Basics with Hospitality Training</p>	<p><i>“ This is not a skills shortage, in which there are not enough skilled people in the labour force: it is a skills gap, in which people in employment don't have the skills their businesses need. These needs could include any from a long list of basic skill, including literacy, teamwork, craft skills, management skills and essential underpinning knowledge crucial to the job. What can we do about it?”</i></p>	<p>Webster, 1999</p>	<p>This particular issue highlights a vital aspect of training, which is the lack of hospitality skills in young people which should be the basic requirement for any new entrant to the industry.</p> <p>In college training programmes, there should be a focus on personal professional development including appropriate attitude formation, courtesy, personal appearance, communication and awareness of emotional intelligence.</p>

TITLE	QUOTE	REFERENCE	COMMENTS
<p>A Report on the Chef Conference Skills crisis “could set UK restaurants back 15 years”</p>	<p><i>“During a Question Time-style session, TV chef Antony Worrall Thompson said the lack of skills in the industry was having such a negative effect that despite the current food boom in Britain, skills shortages would eventually set hospitality back 10 or 15 years. “Colleges are closing down craft courses, there’s no cooking in schools and fewer mums are cooking at home, he said”.</i></p>	<p>Afiya, 2000</p>	<p>The government is not allocating appropriate resources in the vocational education and training at the moment. The career advice and guidance service needs to be focused in recommending courses to young people where there are good job opportunities and prospects for sustainable employment.</p>
<p>All stand together to rescue education for bureaucracy</p>	<p><i>“At this year’s Chef Conference, a panel of distinguished culinary experts blamed the catering colleges for the skills shortage in kitchens. “Colleges don’t teach the students what they need to know, “ said the illustrious chefs.</i></p>	<p>Mutch, 2000</p>	<p>The colleges are confined to the curriculum approved by Qualifications and Curriculum Authority; the qualifications are time-based and allocated a fixed funding calculated on the basis of maximum teaching hours. The selection of young people on courses cannot be too restrictive as demand for staff is outstripping the supply of a skilled workforce from colleges. The way forward will be for the colleges and the industry to work together in resolving skills shortages by being innovative.</p>

TITLE	QUOTE	REFERENCE	COMMENTS
Skills Gaps	<p><i>“Occupations most affected were chefs and cooks, waiters and waitresses and bar staff – the occupations also most affected by skills shortages” ..</i></p>	HTF, 2000	<p>A very influential organisation namely the Hospitality Training Foundation (HTF) representing the National Training Organisation for the hospitality industry also confirms the worsening of the skills gaps situation especially with the key operational positions.</p>
Skill Shortages	<p><i>“We are desperately short of skilled people; not enough of the right kind of education and training they need, and not enough political clout to do sufficient about it” .</i></p>	Battersby, 2000, pp.28-30	<p>It is surprising to note that David Battersby, Chief Executive of Hospitality and Leisure Manpower Services Commission also confirms the skills shortages and quality issues related with education and training.</p>

“Despite the industry wide skills shortage a new survey has revealed that over one third of all adults in the UK consider setting up in business for themselves, with catering and hospitality businesses now topping their list of dream ventures”.

(The Hotelier, 2003)

Lawyer Locator.co.uk, Martindale-Hubbell's online directory of solicitors and law firm's, which helps start-ups navigate the legal issues involved in setting up a new venture, commissioned the study using a sample of 2,110 adults across the United Kingdom. This survey found that 16% of those wanting to run their own business selected restaurant, pub or hotel companies.

Phillippe Rossiter, Chief Executive, Hotel and Catering International Management Association (HCIMA) highlights in his column “Mind the gap!” that there are growing concerns about the forecast growth for the hospitality industry mainly due to the real issue of labour scarcity:

“The multiple impacts of ageing population, competition from other sectors and a lack of training at the appropriate level are the factors culminating to create a vacuum in the staffing structure of the hospitality industry.”

(Rossiter, 2005, p.2)

On Wednesday, 7th March; 2005 a power breakfast was co-hosted by the HCIMA and Springboard at the House of Commons with the theme “Get Qualified”. There were senior representatives from education, training providers, schools, industry and the Sector Skills Council. There were discussions against the backdrop of an expanding growing industry and major changes in the U.K. education policy. The consensus of opinion was that the status of vocational qualification needed to be improved if colleges and universities were to attract young people to their courses and, ultimately, into the hospitality industry.

INTERNATIONAL CONTEXT

Professor Michael Porter in his interview with Jeremy Paxman in BBC programme: Newsnight on Thursday, 23rd January, 2003 highlighted that in the UK there has been a substantial under-investment in human resources, human capital and skill development which is a competitive weakness of the country in an international context. Professor Porter believes that the UK has the opportunity to leap ahead of those other economies provided some of British Industry would move into new era and change for the better. In the recent BBC programme: Newsnight on Tuesday, 9th December 2003, it was highlighted by British Industry that the biggest challenge facing them is the shortage of a skilled labour force to run the businesses, not the customers nor the availability of capital.

The US approach relies upon balancing the demand and supply of skills in order to determine the stock of skills. The employers pay higher wages for skills in short supply. Parents respond by encouraging their children to pursue training courses in areas which are in demand and also pressurise colleges to provide appropriate courses. The employees invest in their own skill development and employers provide company specific job skills.

The federal government can influence the supply of intermediate level skills by increasing the responsiveness through the community colleges in order to meet the skill needs of local employers. Otherwise, the responsibility for delivering training is that of employer and individual. The employers identify the national skill needs. (Finlay et al, (eds), 1998)

There are two problems associated with the US system. Firstly, it is slow to operate as market signals take time to bring about changes in the educational structure. It only looks at the immediate needs of industry. Secondly, this system ignores the longer term needs of the economy as a whole. The global challenges are met by government funding of community colleges to increase the participation and attainment of intermediate skills amongst the labour force and to deliver the new skills required by industry. This has produced a number of innovative schemes at the local level.

There are two good practices in the US vocational and education and training system: the first in the field of community college education and business partnership; the second is the development of information sharing systems at the local level to facilitate the operation of the market, the one-stop-shop idea. These bring together under one roof, a choice of education, training and employment programmes.

(<http://www.careerconnect.va.us/112nova/about.htm>)

The only challenge in the system is lack of control of community colleges by the federal government which results in inconsistent quality being delivered. Local control results in some colleges being very good whereas others are mediocre. The same principle applies to one-stop-shop some are excellent and innovative others are weak.

In Germany, the market to deliver skills is within the context of a highly regulated occupational labour market based on the apprenticeship system. The apprenticeship system has been established through the joint regulation of the state, employers and unions, which is underpinned by the legal system. This provides a period of a three/four year apprenticeship for two thirds of young people. The emergence of new occupations and the demand for new skills have presented real challenges to the long established apprenticeship system.

The German System results in a high status for vocational qualifications. The dual system of on-the-job practical training under a qualified Meister, and off-the-job theoretical training in college has provided Germany with the highest level of intermediate skills in the advanced countries. Over half the working population in Germany (50.6%) in 1997 had a level 3 qualification compared with 18% in the UK (PIU, 2001)

“The very strength of the German system, namely its institutionally dense framework means that changes take a long time to be agreed by many partners. This has resulted in slow response to the challenges of globalisation”.

(Ashton et al, 2001)

In France, the skills are delivered in the context of a highly centralised national education system and strong employer based internal labour markets. The educational policy is strongly influenced by the employers and the unions at national level. The state plays a secondary role in this field. In French culture, the qualifications have a significant importance.

There are two main policy approaches:

1. The centralised education system is used to improve the overall level of general and vocational skills of those entering the labour market.
2. The employer based training is increased through a training tax.

The French have successfully increased the number of young people into the labour market with intermediate level skills. The training tax system has succeeded in increasing investment in training. The biggest challenge is to meet the demand for new skills which is not being achieved by either the education system or the training system.

There are two weaknesses in the system. Firstly, the low skilled and unemployed have little access to training and are therefore at risk of being marginalised. Secondly, there are issues of using the centralised educational system as a preparation for work, especially in the new occupations where skills are most appropriately acquired at the work place.

There is agreement between the employers, unions and the state that changes need to be made in the system to overcome the above two weaknesses. A distinctive element here is to note that the French Government leaves it to employers and unions to come up with a solution, which proves very time consuming.

Kent (2000) highlights, in the Comparative Study Report on European Approaches to Hospitality Education and Training, that there is no sign of convergence on Vocational Education and Training policy at a European Union Level. This is due to the fact the education is naturally linked with the culture of the country.

The issue of language teaching needs to be considered, as there is an insufficient emphasis placed on foreign languages within the hospitality courses in the UK. This problem does not exist in France, Germany, Austria, Switzerland, Spain and The Netherlands as it is compulsory for each student to learn English and one other foreign language. In the light of hospitality and tourism being a global industry there needs to be more collaboration in curriculum development and sharing of best practices with European Hotel Schools.

CONCLUSION

In this chapter the origin of hotel and catering education has been examined from the opening of Westminster Technical College in 1910 to the establishment of the Hotel and Catering Institute in 1949. These two institutions are still in existence providing a strong foundation for the educational development of young people entering into the hospitality industry.

In 1960, A.H. Jones, the first Chairman elect of the Hotel and Catering Institute conceived the National Diploma course; the very first management qualification for the industry. The Hotel and Catering Institute also assisted in the setting up of the National Joint Apprenticeship Council in 1952, which introduced the apprenticeship system, mainly for chefs. This led to the establishment of the Hotel and Catering Industrial Training Board in November 1966 under the auspices of the Industrial Training Act 1964.

During the early seventies there was a recession and the rate of unemployment amongst young people increased, which made the concept of a levy-grant system imposed by the Industrial Training Boards (ITBs) unattractive to employers. This led to the criticism of ITBs especially by SMEs as they could not control the supply of staff once trained. The Conservative Government passed the Education and Training Act 1973 which created the Manpower Services Commission in January 1974 and abolishing the Industrial Training Boards.

The move towards the reform of vocational qualifications was initiated by the MSC in 1985 by establishing the working group in conjunction with the Department for Education and Science, to examine and make recommendations for the improvement of the system of vocational qualifications.

The main impetus for MSC in this initiative was for the purposes of YTS certification which led to the inception of NVQ policy and the establishment of the NCVQ as a regulatory body in late 1986, following the recommendations made by the Review of

Vocational Qualifications in England and Wales Working Group and the provisions of the subsequent White Paper, Working Together (MSC/DES, 1986, DE/DES, 1986). The first 'proper' NVQs-based on lead body standards of competence – were accredited in 1988. It is important that the qualifications are competence based to be accredited as NVQs. The establishment of National Council for Vocational Qualifications ultimately saw the demise of MSC in November, 1987.

Skills shortages are a measure of the skills lacking in staff applying for jobs. The National Employer Skill Survey (NESS) in 2003 indicates that five percent of employers in the hospitality, leisure, travel and tourism sector have some sort of skill shortage vacancy. This is slightly higher than the average of four percent for the whole economy.

Skills gaps occur when members of the existing workforce do not have the necessary skills that are required to meet business objectives. The hospitality sector has the highest percentage of establishments reporting skills gaps; that is twenty percent when compared with the whole economy which is twenty two percent.

Hospitality, Leisure, Travel and Tourism Sector Skills Council, People 1st recently carried out research which concludes that nearly a third of employers in the UK are experiencing skills gaps.

“Skills shortages are posing a threat to the future of these £21.5 billion industries, with more than 12,000 job vacancies remaining unfilled because of a lack of candidates with the skills needed. The main skills that employers reported as lacking were customer care, communication and team working skills, the very skills which are so essential to driving the success of businesses operating in these sectors”.

(The Hotelier, 2005)

This research also reveals that an undersized workforce causes failure to deliver the appropriate customer service which leads to lower levels of productivity. However, the National Employer Skills Survey interviewed around 5,800 employees in the

hospitality sector which highlighted that only over half of the employers had provided any training opportunities for their staff in the past year. The government has licensed People 1st to act as a voice for the employers. Focus groups were conducted by People 1st which highlighted their concerns about skills and the need for guidance through the myriad of qualifications that are on offer in the sector.

“In Tomorrow’s Tourism Today, Culture Secretary Tessa Jowell recently laid out the Government’s plan to work with delivery partners to propel tourism from a £76 billion a year to a £100 billion a year industry by 2010. The paper spells out the need to put the visitor “at the heart of everything we do” and one of the four key focuses it identifies as driving the tourist industry is workforce skills. People 1st is working with businesses in the sector to help the workforce gain the skills it needs to improve the tourist experience and thereby increase the number of visitors to Britain”.

(The Hotelier, 2005)

Skills are significant factors in having the potential to increase or decrease the performance of the hospitality sector. The skills gap in the UK economy contributes as much as a fifth of the productivity gap between the UK and Germany. The Institute of Fiscal Studies (IFS) suggests that an increase of five percent in the proportion of workers trained raises the value added per worker by four percent.

As a result of skills gaps, forty two percent of employers in England reported difficulties in meeting customer service objectives and a similar percentage reported difficulties in meeting quality standards. In fact, twenty percent of employers directly linked skills gaps with a loss of business to competitors.

Thus, the need to eradicate the skills shortages and skills gaps cannot be over emphasised. The staff shortages problem will be further exacerbated as the hospitality and tourism service sector is already projected to expand by at least fifty percent by the year 2020. Unfortunately, this industry cannot be migrated, like manufacturing or call centres, to countries like China or India where there is a plentiful supply of cheap

labour. The tourists all over the world visit the UK to experience the culture and social life on a little green island in the Atlantic Ocean.

“The on-going skills problem may already be holding back the performance of the sector. United Kingdom tourism contributes 3.4 percent of Gross Value Added to the economy. This is higher than both the United States and Canada, but lags behind the tourism sector in France, which contributes 7.3 percent to their economy”.

(DCMS 2003)

Surely, there is an issue of better education and training in the UK schools and colleges to change the culture and perspectives of young people for employment in service industries.

This chapter has attempted to explore the barriers to the future development of the Hospitality and Catering Industry by first examining the development of the current situation with vocational qualifications. Here, it has been shown that the current system, arising as it does from a complex history of funding and a confused notion of the nature of education/training, is not likely to provide the best trained staff to face the international competitiveness scene.

There has been quantitative analysis carried out on the output of each qualification over the period of four decades and comparison made with the output of previous years, comparison made between the different qualifications and with other but similar sectors such as Hairdressing and Beauty Therapy to observe the trends. These analyses would give some indication to the reasons for some of the problems faced by the industry. Hopefully, constructive suggestions will be given to overcome the problems.

The second issue concerns the recruitment challenges facing the hospitality industry which has led to analysing the perception of young pupils, their parents and career advisers. This would help in determining some of the obstacles to recruitment in terms of skill shortages and skill gaps.

The third issue relates to the perception of industry's role in the delivery of training. The aim here is to analyse the employers' contribution in the training of their employees. It is anticipated that this study would reveal the reasons for low attainment rates on apprenticeship programmes.

The fourth area of study is the comparison of vocational education and training in an international context. The salient features of the vocational education and training system in each country would be studied. It is hoped that some good practices will be highlighted to enhance the number of people joining the hospitality industry and suggestions to enhance the quality of vocational education.

Finally, the quality of vocational education and training is being critically examined with a view to enhancing professional and technical skills. This would be carried out by conducting a quasi-experimental study.

The next chapter focuses upon the research methods to be followed for each of the above research questions. The selection will be made of the most suitable research method(s) for these research questions which are so varied, yet contribute to the single challenge of resolving the skill shortages and skill gaps in the hospitality industry.

It is anticipated that the outcome of the above research questions will provide an answer to the hospitality industry's long awaited challenge of recruiting a well qualified workforce in sufficient numbers to meet the needs of the ever growing industry.

CHAPTER 3

THE RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

INTRODUCTION

In Chapter 1, the broad background to the Vocational Education and Training system in the Hospitality and Catering Industry was explored as it approached the 21st Century while in Chapter 2 the focus was on a literature review in the field of Vocational Education and Training. From this it has been concluded that the Vocational Education and Training System is not fully meeting the skill needs of the Hospitality and Catering Industry in the UK and hence there are skill shortages and skill gaps.

The previous chapters have highlighted a number of issues which need to be understood if a viable and affordable solution to the skills gap is to be found. There is no single solution. The problem can only be addressed by the multi-faceted approach. It would seem that the current qualifications structure is confusing and inappropriate to the task, whilst at the same time the status of the hotel and catering industry as a career path is low, hence not attracting the best candidates. A vocational and fast changing industry requires flexible staff in meeting the needs of the industry. Meeting these needs is paramount and yet the role and commitment of employers to vocational education and training is unclear. This needs further consideration, including a more detailed look at other systems and approaches to vocational education and training.

This research study aims to take a rounded view of the complex question “How can vocational education and training in the hospitality and catering industry in the UK be developed to meet the current and future human resource needs of the industry?”

This is quite a broad question to explore so it is broken down into smaller questions which will make the research of manageable size. There are five sub-questions being asked the answers to which may help to provide appropriate solutions to the issues being faced by the industry.

1. What trends can be identified over the last four decades in relation to the number of well qualified students joining the Hospitality and Catering Industry?
2. What are the perceptions and image of the Hospitality Industry amongst young people, parents and careers advisers?
3. What is the perception of industry of their role in the delivery of vocational education and training in the Hospitality and Catering Industry?
4. How does the standard of vocational education and training system in the United Kingdom compare with six similar European and Anglophone countries?
5. How can the quality of curriculum delivery for the Hospitality and Catering Industry especially in terms of vocational and professional skills be improved?

Each of these research questions is further examined within this chapter and the options considered as to the most appropriate research methodology to be adopted in individual circumstances. The research methodology is discussed and also the best means for collection and analysis of data considered. A variety of research methodologies are applied during the course of study in order to address the related but very different research questions.

THE NATURE OF THE RESEARCH

Educational Research seems to fall into two philosophically competing groups. One is a scientific model for understanding educational practice (positivist); the other emphasises that society cannot be the object of science and that research must focus upon the “subjective meanings” of the subjects studied (interpretivist). These two groups tend to be labeled as qualitative and quantitative research although there can be overlaps between the two areas.

Pring (2000) makes a contrast between quantitative research which he believes is appropriate to the physical world (and wrongly applied to the personal and social) and qualitative research which he believes addresses that which is distinctive of the personal and social, namely the meanings through which personal and social reality is understood. He states that the latter simply cannot be quantified; “it is not that sort of thing”.

Pring (2000) argues that the recent history of educational research has been dominated by the apparent conflict between the positivist and interpretivist traditions. He reinterprets the word “positivist” as meaning the systematic study of what is clear, factual and open to observation. He continues to say that Auguste Comte, the nineteenth-century French philosopher most closely associated with the positivist tradition made a major contribution by extending the positivist agenda to the study and explanation of society, social structures and human affairs. He believed that a positivist account must embrace not only the phenomena of the physical world but also those of the social world, there was to be a science of society. This viewpoint was linked to the benefits which the proper study of society could bring to the improvement of society.

Comte’s view of the value of a science of society is echoed by Easterby-Smith et al (1994) who states that “knowledge is only of significance if it is based on observations of this external reality”. This is a positivist viewpoint which requires a clear distinction between the aims and values of education on the one hand, and the means of researching those ends, on the other. Matters of value are not open to empirical enquiry, whereas the means of reaching those values are.

Middlewood et al (1999) believe there are two basic research paradigms using Usher's (1996) definition of paradigm.

Paradigms may be defined as:

“frameworks that function as maps or guides for scientific communities, determining important problems or issues for its members to address and defining acceptable theories or explanations, methods and techniques to solve defined problems”.

(Usher, 1996, p.15)

Middlewood et al (1999) are quite precise in their definitions of the two paradigms. They state that in the positivist approach quantitative methods are likely to be used. The methodology is based on the use of scientific method with the idea that the researched world exists externally and aspects of it can be measured through objective methods. They continue by saying that in positivist thinking a social reality exists and it is possible through empirical research to establish sets of social facts. There is likely to be an attempt to identify causality. The implication is that the observer is independent of what is observed and that the research is value free.

Middlewood et al (1999) suggest that the interpretive paradigm, which can also be known as relativist or phenomenological, is likely to be used where complex issues are involved. For example in research where the interplay of social, cultural and political factors has meant that methods such as life history, interview and observation have been the most appropriate methods of research. The stress has been on the subjective reality for individuals. In this approach:

“The principal concern is with an understanding of the way in which the individual creates, modifies and interprets the world in which he or she finds himself or herself”.

(Cohen and Mannion, 1994, p.8)

It is clear from the above discussion that the two paradigms can be seen either, as reflecting very different world views or as two approaches suited to very different types of problem. This more pragmatic view is reflected in the arguments put forward by

Lawrence Stenhouse who did not concern himself unduly with the debate between positivist and interpretive paradigms.

Stenhouse (1984) regarded educational research as a systematic activity that is directed towards providing knowledge, or adding to the understanding of existing knowledge which is of relevance for improving the effectiveness of education. However, he then goes on to say that it is “systematic activity which is made public” and introduces the idea of an audience, thus, implying that research can and should have some practical value.

“The whole point of researching is to find out something that we did not already know. In this sense all research is a contribution to our own knowledge. We think that making a public claim to knowledge is more than contributing to personal knowledge. It implies that we have something relevant to say that others in the public arena will find useful and that we have convincing evidence to support what we claim to know” (Stenhouse, 1985, p.10 Cited in McNiff et al 2000).

It can be observed from Stenhouses comments, his focus is not in positivist research, on observability and measurability nor simply qualitative work. The emphasis is on explainability or interpretability. The nature of the data collected might be seen as different in kind.

Cohen et al (2003) believe that positivist and interpretive paradigms are essentially concerned with understanding phenomena through two different lenses. They state that:

“positivism strives for objectivity, measurability, predictability, controllability, patterning, the construction of laws and rules of behaviour, and the ascription of causality; the interpretive paradigms strive to understand and interpret the world in terms of its actors. In the former, observed phenomena are important; in the latter, meanings and interpretations are paramount”.

(Cohen and Mannion, 1994, p.28).

The key features of positivist and interpretive paradigms are shown in the Table 3.1 below.

Table 3.1: Comparative Table of Positivist and Interpretive Paradigms

Positivist	Interpretive
The world is external and objective	The world is socially constructed and subjective
The observer is independent	The observer is part of what is observed
Science is value free	Science is driven by human interests
The focus is on facts	The focus is on meaning
Search for causality	Try to understand what is happening
Reduce to simplest elements	Look at the totality of the situation
Formulating concepts for measurement	Using multiple methods to establish different views of the phenomena
Large samples	Small samples looked as in depth or over time.

Source: Adapted from Easterby-Smith, 1994, p. 80 and published in Middlewood et al, 1999, p. 11.

The above table implies that positivist and interpretivist approaches are in opposition whereas the two approaches are often used together. In practice, educational research may encompass elements of the two apparently opposed paradigms.

Johnson (1994) states that:

“A growing body of social research takes a stand somewhere between the two schools of thought. It is recognised that no piece of social research can be entirely objective, since no researcher is value free. Even in an overtly rigorous quantitative, head-counting study, some implicit decisions have already been made as to which heads are worth counting”.

(Johnson, 1994, p.7)

Researchers are likely to adopt a flexible approach to the gathering of data, complementing a questionnaire with a more in-depth qualitative research approach. They

are likely to make use of both qualitative and quantitative techniques; thus adopting a position which either knowingly or unknowingly incorporates some elements from both of the two basic paradigms.

Undoubtedly there are situations where a 'scientific' quantitative approach is called for, and others where a qualitative naturalistic study is appropriate. There are '....still others which will be better served by a marriage of the two traditions', (Bryman 1988, p.173). Bryman argues that many of the differences between the two traditions are in the minds of philosophers and theorists, rather than the practices of researchers. For example he concludes that

"The suggestion that quantitative research is associated with the testing of theories, whilst qualitative research is associated with the generation of theories, can.....be viewed as a convention that has little to do with either practices of many researchers within the two traditions or the potential of the methods of data collection themselves".

(Bryman 1988, p.172)

The view that differences between the two traditions can best be seen as technical rather than epistemological, enabling the researcher to 'mix and match' methods according to what best fits a particular research question, is the starting point taken in this study.

LIMITATIONS OF QUALITATIVE RESEARCH

Qualitative research is often treated as a relatively minor methodology. Such that it should only be considered at 'exploratory stages' of a study where qualitative research can be used to familiarise oneself with a setting.

"Field research is essentially a matter of immersing oneself in a naturally occurring...set of events in order to gain firsthand knowledge of the situation".

(Singleton et al., 1988, p.11)

The emphasis on "immersion" suggests that this type of qualitative or field research is identified with "exploration" and "description" and the use of field research, "when little

is known about the subject under investigation.” Such studies are often strong on long descriptive narratives rather than on statistical information. This raises the problem of reliability.

“Reliability refers to the degree of consistency with which instances are assigned to the same category by different observers or by the same observer on different occasions”.

(Hammersley, 1992, p.67)

The issue of consistency particularly arises as many qualitative studies provide the reader with little more than brief, persuasive, data extracts. The second criticism relates to how sound are the explanation it offers. This is referred to as the problem of anecdotalism which is expressed very clearly by Bryman.

“There is a tendency towards an anecdotal approach to the use of data in relation to conclusions or explanations in qualitative research. Brief conversations, snippets from unstructured interviews....are used to provide evidence of a particular contention. There are grounds for disquiet in that the generality of these fragments is rarely addressed”.

(Bryman, 1998, p.77).

This criticism of “anecdotalism” questions the validity of such qualitative research. The term “Validity” usually refers to what constitutes a credible claim to truth. There are two types of validity. Firstly, the internal validity which relates to the degree to which experimental findings correctly map the phenomenon in question. In other words, do the experimental treatments make a significant difference in the specific experiments under observation? Secondly, the external validity refers to the degree to which experimental findings can be generalised to other settings similar to the one in which the study took place. In other words, do the demonstrable effects can be repeated if the same experiment treatment is given to a similar population? The doubts about the reliability and validity of qualitative research have led many quantitative researchers to downplay its value. Often a qualitative approach is used to get to know the context before using more hard edged quantitative approaches that can give less equivocal findings.

LIMITATIONS OF QUANTITATIVE RESEARCH

Arguments about the limitations of quantitative research often revolve around suggestions that these approaches can amount to a “quick fix,” involving little or no contact with people or the “field.” In addition, since statistical correlations may be based upon “variables” that, in the context of naturally occurring interaction, are arbitrarily defined the validity of some studies is questionable. After the fact speculation about the meaning of correlations can involve the very common sense processes of reasoning that science tries to avoid.

The pursuit of “measurable” phenomena can mean that unperceived values creep into research by simply taking on board highly problematic and unreliable concepts such as “intelligence.”

“While it is important to test hypotheses, a purely statistical logic can make the development of hypotheses a trivial matter and fail to help in generating hypotheses from data.”

(Glaser and Strauss, 1967)

Qualitative researchers often think that reliance solely on quantitative techniques may neglect the social and cultural construction of the “variables” which quantitative research attempts to correlate. Considering research into attitudes depends on making a whole series of analytical assumptions. Kirk and Miller (1986) argue that

“The survey researcher who discusses is not wrong to do so. Rather than the researcher being wrong if he or she fails to acknowledge the theoretical basis on which it is meaningful to make measurements of such entities and to do so with survey questions”.

(Kirk and Miller, 1986, p.15)

The research methods used in this thesis utilise qualitative and quantitative methods to ensure that the conclusions derived from literature survey interviews, questionnaires and experiments are fully supported with appropriate evidence either of a qualitative or quantitative kind, although quantitative approaches have tended to dominate as a result both of the questions being posed and the kinds of answers needed. This mixture of two

approaches should enhance the validity and reliability of data being analysed to draw up the final conclusions.

A Likert Scale is frequently used and, in the analysis and evaluation of final results, wherever appropriate statistical techniques such as the Chi-Square Test and 't' Test of significance have been applied to illustrate confidence in the result. Each research question required the use of specific research instruments designed for the collection of data and to test any hypothesis. Copies of these instruments are available in appropriate appendices which are signposted in the relevant sections dealing with the above questions. This research study has adopted a hybrid methodology approach.

SAMPLING

In the design of any survey, there are three main pre-requisites. Firstly, the exact purpose of the research; secondly, the population on which the research should focus and thirdly, the resources that are available, such as, finance and time. The focus in this section would be on defining the population upon which the survey has to be focused. This involves making a decision regarding the selection of samples. The implications of finance and time restricts to obtain measures from a population. Therefore, the researcher has attempted to collect the information from a subset of the population in such a way that the knowledge gained is representative of the total population under study. This smaller group or subset is a "sample". The appropriate approach is to start with the total population and work down to the sample.

There are two main methods of sampling:

1. Probability samples – the probability of selection of each respondent is known. However, there is a limitation in the application of this method. A comprehensive list of the population is required which is not always readily available.
2. Non-probability samples – the probability of selection is unknown. This method also has some limitations. It is not very convenient for large-scale survey. The finding from such survey have constraints to be generalised.

The main features of various sampling methods available under the two main methods that is, Probability Samples and Non-Probability Samples are illustrated in Table 3.2. In addition, the application of sampling methods to each of the research questions is summarised in Table 3.3.

Table 3.2: Main Features of Sampling Methods

<u>1. PROBABILITY SAMPLES</u>	
<u>SAMPLING METHODS</u>	<u>MAIN FEATURES</u>
<p>Simple Random Sampling</p>	<p>Each member of the population under study has an equal chance of being selected.</p> <p>The sample should contain subjects with characteristics similar to the population as a whole.</p>
<p>Systematic Sampling</p>	<p>This method is a modified form of simple random sampling.</p> <p>It involves selecting subjects from the population in a systematic manner such as if a sample of 20 is required from the population of 100 then every fifty persons would be chosen. Initially, this method stands as a random sampling.</p>

Stratified Sampling

This method involves dividing the population into a homogeneous groups, such as males and females.

The group containing subjects with similar characteristics.

Even in this method a random selection of subjects from males and females must be made to ensure a sample representative of the whole population in relation to gender.

Cluster Sampling

In this method a random selection is made of specific number of institutions and all the subjects in those selected institutions are sampled, such as schools or colleges or career offices.

Stage Sampling

This method is an extension of cluster sampling which involves selecting the samples in stages.

This means taking the samples from samples, such as selecting a number of schools at random and then from these selecting specific classes and from within these classes selecting a number of pupils at random.

<p align="center"><u>2. NON-PROBABILITY SAMPLES</u></p>	
<p align="center"><u>SAMPLING METHODS</u></p>	<p align="center"><u>MAIN FEATURES</u></p>
<p>Convenience Sampling or Accidental Sampling</p> <p>Quota Sampling</p> <p>Purposive Sampling</p> <p>Dimensional Sampling</p>	<p>It involves selecting the nearest individuals to serve as respondents. This process is continued till the required sample size has been obtained by the researcher. In this method, captive audiences mainly serve as respondents.</p> <p>This method is very similar to stratified sampling. It attempts to obtain representatives of the various elements of the total population in the proportions in which they occur.</p> <p>In this case, the researcher handpicks the subjects to be included in the sample based upon his judgement.</p> <p>This allows the researcher to collect a satisfactory sample specifically to his needs.</p> <p>This method is a refinement of Quota Sampling as various factors of interest in a population are identified.</p> <p>The selection of subject is based upon at least one respondent of every combination of those factors.</p> <p>In this method, the sampling plan might take the form of a multi-dimensional table.</p>

Snowball Sampling

The researcher identifies a small group of individuals who have the appropriate characteristics.

These individuals are then used as informants to identify others who have the required characteristics.

Table 3.3: Application of Sampling Methods to The Research Questions

<u>RESEARCH QUESTION</u>	<u>SAMPLING METHOD</u>	<u>SAMPLE SIZE</u>	<u>SEQUENCING OF CONTACT</u>
1. Courses and Qualification Structure	The whole population in further education concerning Hospitality and Catering curriculum during the period 1968 to 2002		Not applicable
2. Perception and Image of the Hospitality Industry	Stage Sampling and Convenience Sampling	2 Local Education Authorities with 3 schools in each	Selection of Schools
	Stage Sampling	3	Selection of cohorts – Year 10, Year 11 and Year 12
	Stage Sampling	50 (50 x 6 = 300)	Selection of pupils in each school including their parents
	Cluster Sampling	5	Selection of career centres
	Simple Random Sampling	10 (10 x 5 = 50)	Selection of career advisers in each centre
3. The perception of industry's role in the delivery of vocational education and training	Purposive Sampling	50	<u>Interviews</u> Selection of work-based trainees

	Purposive Sampling	50	Selection of work-based supervisors
	Convenience Sampling	200	<u>Postal Questionnaires</u> Selection of employers
	Convenience Sampling	300	Selection of work-based trainees
4. International Comparative Study	Purposive Sampling	6	Selection of European and Anglophone countries
5. Quality of curriculum delivery	Cluster Sampling and Purposive Sampling	3	Selection of curriculum area
	Cluster Sampling and Purposive Sampling	3	Selection of college for each curriculum area
	Simple Random Sampling	12	Selection of Experimental Group
	Simple Random Sampling	12	Selection of Control Group

The first question is concerned with the trends that can be identified over the last four decades in relation to the number of well-qualified students joining the Hospitality and Catering Industry.

The initial step will be to carry out historical research into the development of qualifications related to hospitality and catering being offered in the schools and Further Education colleges for young pupils from 14 to 18 years of age which are equivalent to academic qualifications, that is, GCSEs and 'A' Levels. The Vocational qualifications specifically in hospitality and catering offered in schools are mainly at GCSE level. There have been various subject titles used in the school curriculum such as Domestic Science, Home Economics, Food Technology, Hospitality and Catering and Food and Drink. The research was further strengthened by the collection of statistical data for the selected period of study from 1968 to 1993 through various awarding bodies examination reports. This information has supported an assessment of the trends of school pupils successfully achieving catering qualifications.

The qualifications in Further Education Institutions will be studied from its evolution in 1943 to the present day. The study will be carried out at three levels, that is, Occupational, Supervisory and Professional Management. The major emphasis will be on occupational qualifications which are heavily orientated towards vocational skills. This will encompass all the occupations at various levels, such as Food Preparation and Cooking, Food Manufacturing, Food and Beverage Service, Bakery and Confectionery, Housekeeping and Reception. The statistics will be summarised for each of these qualifications at all levels available covering the period 1970 to 2002 using the Examination Reports from The City and Guilds of London Institute and Qualifications Curriculum Authority.

In this research, a comparison will be made of the attainment of NVQs in the hospitality and catering industry with the hairdressing and beauty therapy industry. This is to examine the salient features and any common issues faced by these industries in the operation of the NVQ system. In fact, the hairdressing occupation pioneered the introduction of NVQs in 1989, and it would be very useful to share their experiences of good practice and any issues in delivery.

The second level of research will explore the full cycle of development concerning the Supervisory Qualifications from National Diplomas, GNVQs, Curriculum 2000 to AVCEs and finally reverting to National Diplomas. The emphasis is on an explanation of the political reasons for the changes in educational policies such as to offer tripartite routes to young pupil at the age of 16 years, that is, NVQs or GNVQs or 'A' Level courses. The motives for designating Vocational qualification as a 'parity of esteem' with 'A' Levels in order to make an impact on increasing the number of students following vocational programmes.

Finally, the growth in Professional qualifications will be examined through the literature research and statistical data. In exploring an answer to the first research question, secondary data will form an integral part of study. Most of this data will be collated from the archives of City and Guilds of London Institute, Hotel Catering and International Management Association and Qualifications Curriculum Authority. This data has been a useful source to indicate the trends and successes of qualifications. It has also represented a rich source in the formulation of this hypothesis.

In the main, there are two research methods employed in determining a solution to this question, that is, historical literature research and secondary statistical data analysis. Thus a hybrid approach is adopted using both qualitative and quantitative methods of research.

The researcher is conscious of the limitations in this research enquiry with regard to the accuracy of secondary statistical data especially related to NVQs. This is the reason for obtaining data directly from the Qualifications Curriculum Authority rather than from four different awarding bodies and then collating it. The four awarding bodies involved are the Hospitality Awarding Body, the City and Guilds of London Institute, Ed-Excel and the Royal Society of Arts. Great care has been exercised in the accuracy of data collection and its representation in the graphic forms to ensure the conclusions drawn are as reliable and valid as possible within the limitations of the Qualification Curriculum Authority data collection methods.

The second question considers the perceptions and image of the hospitality industry amongst young people, parents and career advisers.

Parents and career officers have a great influence on young people in the selection of their career so an attempt is made to assess the perceptions of all three groups about the hospitality industry. If the parents and career officers have a positive image of the hospitality industry, they will be encouraging young people to choose hospitality as a career.

This is the biggest challenge to overcome, as it firstly impacts on the number of young people choosing hospitality courses and then creating the pool of well qualified and skilled staff available to meet the human resource needs of the industry. It is vital to explore the attitudes, beliefs and values of individuals towards the hospitality industry. The prime issue is whether the word 'hospitality' is clearly understood by the parents, career advisers and young people; otherwise responses might distort the conclusions drawn.

Oppenheim (1992), Moser and Kalton (1971) have summarised the advantages and disadvantages of this approach. There are five main advantages in using the postal questionnaire as the method of data collection. Firstly, the postal questionnaires are the most economical to administer, especially when the survey sample is geographically widely dispersed. This applies here where the questionnaire was designed to determine pupils' and their parents' perception and image of the Hospitality Industry across six varied secondary schools spread across two local authorities. There will be a saving of time and cost of travel.

Secondly, the postal questionnaires are quick to administer as a large number of self-completion questionnaires can be sent out through the post or personally delivered. There are of course, concerns about the percentage of returns of completed questionnaires, and also the issue of the length of time it takes to receive them back. The researcher has very little control over the returns of completed questionnaires and the speed at which they are received.

Thirdly, there are fewer opportunities for any bias in the replies to postal questionnaires. Sudman and Bradburn, (1982) suggest that postal questionnaires work better than personal interviews because the respondents are not pressurised to answer the questions within certain time limits and they are anonymous. In addition, there is no influence of an interviewer during the completion of questionnaires to give rise to any prejudices or bias.

Fourthly, in this research method there is no interviewer variability as self-completion questionnaires are answered independently by the respondents, and they can be absolutely forthright and disclose personal or sensitive information, provided the questionnaires are anonymous and not identified with any codes. Finally, this procedure is convenient for respondents as they can complete the questionnaires at the time and speed which suits them.

However, there are some disadvantages as well with the postal questionnaires research method which are as follows:

- There is no prompt available to respondents. Therefore, the questions must be clear and unambiguous. In addition, great attention must be paid to ensure that the questionnaire is easy to complete.
- This research method does not provide any opportunity to probe respondents to elaborate on answers or correct any misunderstandings especially when open-ended questions are being asked.
- The postal questionnaires do not allow many questions to be asked that are open-ended and not salient to respondents.
- It is impossible to have control over the intrusion of others in responses, for example, parents or teachers may influence pupils in answering questions.
- There is a greater risk of missing data, especially when a respondent does not understand the question or the question appears boring or irrelevant. This can create variables which might have an impact on conclusions.
- There is no possibility to collect data or assessment based on direct observation as valuable background information to discuss the responses.

- The postal questionnaires are also expensive to administer because of the cost of piloting, printing, stationery and postage.
- The most damaging limitation is that surveys by postal questionnaire typically result in lower response rates than comparable research interview method. The significance of a response rate is that, unless it can be proven that the non-respondent does not differ from those that do then, there is likely to be a risk of bias by Scott, 1961 (cited in Moser and Kalton, 1971).

The above limitations clearly indicate that any conclusions drawn from these findings need to be viewed with caution. It would have been very appropriate to organise some focus groups with the respondents to acquire deeper understanding of their feelings about the perception of the hospitality industry. Unfortunately, due to the lack of time and resources the researcher could not organise the focus groups.

Primarily, the postal questionnaires will be used to gather the information. In designing these questionnaires three points of view were considered; firstly, the purpose of the enquiry, secondly, the targeted population and thirdly, the availability of resources.

The purpose of the enquiry is to establish the perception and image of the hospitality industry especially held by the young people and other career influences namely, the parents and the Career Advisers. The aim is also to examine the factors which distract them from joining the hospitality industry.

There will be three career questionnaires designed for School Pupils, Parents and Careers Advisers, respectively. The questionnaire for school pupils will be focused on the gender choice in their selection of a career, and at which year of study. Then, there will be a specific question related to their progression planning at Year 11, and which Career areas they would consider from a comprehensive list adapted from COIC "Working in Series", 1999. An option will be provided to pupils in answering this question as 'Yes' or 'Maybe' or 'No'. The other area of investigation will be to determine if they understand the true meaning of the word 'Hospitality' and the job roles associated with the hospitality industry. Finally, their perception is examined by questioning them to identify

the positive and negative aspects of the hospitality industry. These exploratory questions will determine the motives of young people in the selection of a career choice.

The parent's perception of their Children's Career Choices questionnaire will consist of some common questions already posed in the earlier questionnaire, such as the year group of the child and gender. Questions asking if their children receive any career guidance at school and who are the influential people in children career choices. Do the children change their career choice over a period of time, if yes, the questionnaire will explore the reasons for this change in career direction, and how many times they think they will change careers in their working life. The other area will be to focus on the importance of various criteria in choosing a career and to what extent these criteria are reflected in the hospitality careers. Finally, the careers of parents will be explored and they will be required to recommend in order of priority three career choices for their children. In addition, parents will highlight any personal experience they have had in the hospitality industry.

The Career Adviser questionnaire will be constructed to assess their role as a Career Adviser and how they provide the service to school pupils; whether on an individual basis, or on a group basis. There will also be a question on their source of career information and any application of computer software packages. The questions will also be posed on the approach of school pupils towards the career information they seek, the popularity of career in the hospitality industry amongst the enquirers and the reasons for this. There will be some questions posed to the career advisers which are similar to the school pupil's questionnaire such as the definition of the 'Hospitality Industry' and their perception about the positive and negative aspects of this industry. In addition, their views will be sought on how the industry should be promoted and inviting some practical suggestions to increase the number of school pupils choosing hospitality as a career.

The selection of population for this research is mainly school pupils and their parents from the local schools in the North Wales region. The selected population was evenly distributed over the six schools in two local education authorities. There were fifty sets of questionnaires distributed to six schools for completion by Year 10, Year 11 and Year 12 pupils and their parents respectively. The other career influencers chosen were the

Career Advisors across the Career Wales Regional Offices. In all, fifty questionnaires were posted to five Career Offices for their Career Advisers to complete and return.

The questionnaire for school pupils was designed with a blend of structured questions/answers and open-ended questions. This questionnaire was piloted on a sample of ten pupils attending a career open day at a further education college. These pupils were also given a questionnaire for their parents to complete and return in the pre-addressed and stamped envelope. The questionnaire for Careers Adviser was similarly piloted at a seminar 'Career Opportunities in the Hospitality Industry' organized for fifteen local Careers Advisers at a further education college. Prior to the introduction of the seminar, the questionnaires were distributed to Career Advisers for completion. All the questionnaire responses were collated and examined. As a result a few amendments were made to the initial questionnaires prior to carrying out a formal study.

It was decided to select a sample of SIX Secondary Schools in North Wales region across two counties. Three of these schools are based along the coastal belt and three of them are located inland. The target population for this study across the levels was Year 10, Year 11 and Year 12 pupils. The researcher made a personal visit to each school and discussed the aim of this research with the head teacher. A set of fifty questionnaires was left at each selected school for random distribution to pupils across the levels and gender range. Each school pupil also had a letter for their parents along with a specific questionnaire for them to complete. This was to ensure that the parents were well informed about this research and also to collect their opinion regarding the career choices for their children. A copy of the letter to the headteacher, career questionnaire for school pupils, a letter to the parents and parents questionnaire is in Appendix A.1 and A.2.

The completed questionnaires were collected from the careers teacher in each school two weeks after the initial visit. In all, ninety questionnaires were returned from school pupils and parents. This gives the response rate of thirty percent overall which is on the low side.

A pack of ten Career Adviser questionnaires was sent to the managers of five Career Wales Centres across the North West Wales for random distribution to their Career

Advisers. A copy of the career adviser questionnaire is in Appendix A.3. Each questionnaire had a covering letter explaining the purpose for this research along with a pre-addressed and stamped envelope for the return of completed questionnaire. Altogether, fifty questionnaires were sent out and thirty five questionnaires were completed and returned for analysis. There are ten Career Advisers in each of these Career Wales Centres. The total response rate from Career Adviser appears to be seventy percent which is highly satisfactory.

The feedback from these questionnaires was collated and analysed manually. There was a fair blend of structured questions/answers and open ended questions for the school pupils. In the parents questionnaire, there were mainly structured questions/answers and very few open ended questions, as it was considered that the parents focused view on certain aspects of career choices would be very advantageous. On the other hand, the Career Adviser questionnaires mainly consisted of open ended questions and very few structured questions/answers as it was considered that they might prefer to provide detailed answers to certain areas of career choices.

In the design of questionnaires, it was considered necessary to blend the open ended questions with the structured question. The choice of question type is very much governed by the character of the responses and information required by the researcher; for example, in the School Pupils Questionnaire, the question on the selection of career choices was structured in such a way as to allow objective evaluation. Whereas the questions on the definition of hospitality industry, positive and negative aspects of the hospitality industry are attempting to gather the perceptions, feelings and attitudes about individuals which tend to be of qualitative nature.

The parents questionnaire consists entirely of structured questions because the parents response to each question can be coded with a value attached to each possible response. The aim being to analyse the collated data statistically. In the main, the Likert Scale will be applied to test the significance of various influences in the careers decision making process for their children. On the other hand, the Career Adviser questionnaire is very similar to the School Pupils Questionnaire as almost all the questions are open ended. The other consideration in the choice of a specific type of question is also based upon the

background and capabilities of respondents to the questionnaires. The main aim here is to collect all the responses and examine the attitudes, values and beliefs of Career Advisers in relation to the hospitality industry. It would be feasible to compare their responses with the school pupils and any common themes or variances between the two different sources of information can be examined.

The responses from the three questionnaires will determine the understanding of the word 'Hospitality' along with the positive and negative features of the hospitality industry from the point of view of school pupils, their parents and career advisers. An attempt will be made to establish the main influencers on school pupils in their choice of a career. It is also anticipated to gather information about the consideration of criteria used by school pupils in the selection of their career choices and also to examine the extent to which these criteria's are reflected in the hospitality careers. The background to parents' careers will be explored and three preferred career choice by parents for their children will also be obtained as well as will the extent of the role played by career advisers to give well informed advice to school pupils. The career advisers suggestions regarding the ways to improve the perception and image of hospitality industry will be seriously considered, as will the proposed measures which should be adopted to increase the number of school pupils choosing hospitality as a first choice career.

Thus, this research question specifically engages with the hybrid methodology of qualitative and quantitative nature. It is hoped that the final conclusions drawn from this question will be reliable and valid, and will not only be consensus of opinions, but also proven in certain areas with the statistically significant claims.

An evaluation of the responses from these questionnaires has been drawn using qualitative and quantitative methods. The open ended questions have been summarized as their attitude, beliefs, values and understanding of hospitality industry is considered to be especially significant.

These are very subjective statements and the reliability of any conclusions drawn can only be compared with the social reality as it exists.

TRIANGULATION

Within the subjective field of social science, reality exists only in the minds and conceptions of members of a society. In the search for truth, it is difficult to claim absolute truth or reality without transgressing into the realms of positivism (Burrell and Morgan, 1979). The inquiry being undertaken, however explores the perceptions and image of the industry in six different types of secondary schools and these will doubtless be perceived differently by different members of those societies. Subjective truth as perceived by the individuals contributing to this inquiry will offer a shared vision of what is likely to prove to be multiple realities within the subjective dimension (Berger and Luckman, 1967, pp.14-15). Triangular techniques will develop a holistic approach to the study, supporting the investigation of complex phenomena. The method can be used to collect data from different participants to form a consensus of how the interpretation of hospitality industry is understood (Shipman, 1985; Grundy, 1987; Cohen and Manion, 1989; Elliot, 1991). Triangulation can also use two or more methods of data collection, reducing the vulnerability and potential bias of the single method approach and supporting or refuting the validity of the research proposal (Mouly, 1978).

The flexibility of this qualitative approach enabled triangulation to be applied to the research. Banister et al (1994) suggested that triangulation facilitates richer and potentially more valid interpretations. Decrop (1999) highlighted the problems surrounding the use of qualitative research in hospitality as opposed to the prevailing quantitative research, based on the fact that qualitative researchers often fail to explain the soundness of their methods. He proposed triangulation as a way of implementing the criteria of trustworthiness in qualitative research. Triangulation enables "illumination from multiple standpoints, reflecting a commitment to thoroughness, flexibility and differences of experience" (Banister et al, 1994 p.145). It implies that a single point is considered from three disparate and separate sources. Decrop (1999) outlined the foundation of triangulation, which was initially introduced as a synonym for convergent validation (Campbell and Fiske, 1959) and cultivated (Webb et al, 1966; Jick, 1979) to advocate combining qualitative and quantitative methods as complimentary rather than opposing research methods. Later triangulation received more attention as a way to

establish the acceptance of qualitative approaches (Denzin, 1978; Rossman and Wilson, 1985).

Decrop (1999) argued that triangulation can limit personal and methodological biases and enhance the generalisability of a study because information is derived from different angles. The qualitative approach adopted in this research facilitated the use of method and data triangulation. Decrop (1999) identified method triangulation as being the use of multiple methods to study a single problem. Banister et al (1994) suggested that all methods have their limitations and “a danger of using only one method is that the findings may merely be an artifact of the method” (Banister et al, 1994 p.147). They argue that using different methods can help ensure that the material is more than a product of the method. “Using multiple methods paves the way for more credible and dependable information” (Decrop, 1999 p.159).

Methodological triangulation will employ the variety of contrasting data collection methods to study the same phenomena, increasing confidence in the findings. In order to establish the perception of industry’s role in the delivery of vocational education and training, there were three different research methods employed. These were interviewing, questionnaires (structured interview questionnaires and postal questionnaires) and direct observation of portfolios. The techniques employed are an application of methodological triangulation. This study also encompassed collection of data from three independent subjects, work-based trainees, supervisors and employers. Thus, demonstrating the application of another form of triangulation, that is data triangulation. The data will be collected over a period of two years to accommodate the effects of changes in social environments.

Data triangulation involves collecting accounts from different participants involved in the study. Banister et al (1994) suggested that insights which rely on one source of data are limited and whilst accounts from different participants are unlikely to fit neatly together, they will enable extension and depth of description. It is an attempt to obtain a “true” fix on a situation by combining different ways of looking at it or different findings. In this research, the perception and image of the hospitality industry has been assessed from three different view points such as school pupils, their parents and career advisers. This

is an example of data triangulation as qualitative information and has been gathered from three different questionnaires completed by three independent subjects.

Denzin has moved beyond the use of multiple methods to study the same phenomena, and has introduced the notion of 'multiple triangulation' which is implemented at the level of the overall research design. Multiple triangulation refers to a typology of strategies which can be confined in one investigation: Methodological triangulation; data triangulation; investigator triangulation and theoretical triangulation.

The proponents of triangulation have claimed that this technique is one way to strengthen confidence in the research findings. Initially, few commentators disagreed with that argument, but Fielding and Fielding (1986) have challenged Denzin's views that triangulation strategies do actually function to reduce bias and improve validity.

"theories are generally the product of quite different traditions, so when they are combined one may get a fuller picture but not a more 'objective' one. Similarly, different methods have emerged as a product of different theoretical traditions and therefore combining them can add range and depth, but not accuracy. In other words, there is a case for triangulation, but not the one Denzin makes".

(Fielding and Fielding, 1986, p.33.)

This is based on an adherence to the assignment that different paradigms are different in terms of theoretical underpinning. The main advantage of triangulation is that it can increase confidence in results and strengthen the completeness of study. The researcher is much closer to the research situation, contributing to a better understanding of the focus of study.

However, there are some disadvantages of triangulation, as it can be time consuming and expensive on resources. In addition, researchers may not be technically competent in particular methods, and they may attempt to make inconsistent data sets artificially compatible, in order to create a more logical account.

In order to strengthen the integrity of conclusions, quantitative methods have been applied to the structured questions/answers as the responses can be quantified. The use of attitude scale is made in certain questions specifically Likert Scale (Likert, 1932). The Likert scale is used to ascertain what parents perceive or feel about the career choices for their children. The parents are asked to respond to a series of statements by indicating whether he or she strongly agrees (SA), agrees (A), no opinion (NO), disagrees (D), or strongly disagrees (SD), with each statement. Each response is associated with a point value, and an individual's score is determined by summing the point values for each statement. The following point values are assigned to responses to positively statements. SA = 5, A = 4, NO = 3, D = 2, SD =1. A high point value on a positively stated item would indicate a positive attitude and a high total score on the test would be indicative of a positive attitude (Gay, 1981, pp. 126-128).

However, there are limitations in the use of Likert's Scale. It is not a perfect scale to measure. Firstly, knowing how a respondent interprets the words used in items is difficult. Secondly, Likert's Scale seldom provides context whereas each item is embedded in a context. Thirdly, Likert's items do not carry with them good ways for assessing the depth with which respondent hold a belief.

"When asked, people are usually willing to give an opinion even on matters about which they have never previously thought".

(McGuire, 1969, p. 151)

In the questionnaire for school pupils, there is a question which relates to the career choice made by males or females. A copy of this questionnaire can be found in Appendix A.1 (Question: 6). In analysing the responses to this question it is vital to determine if the distribution of career choices in either male or female having a tendency towards a specific career, are significantly different.

The most suitable test of significance for this particular situation is Chi Square which is a two-dimensional Chi Square (χ^2). This test provides a measure of the degree of statistical independence of two variables, or put simply a measure of the relationship between two variables when data is categorical (two or more categories). This procedure is appropriate

when one sample from a population can be cross classified into two or more categories on two variables. The Null Hypothesis is that the two variables are independent, that is no relationship exists between them. Chi Square is a test of homogeneity, a test of the quality of the distribution of two sets of proportions.

The statistical instruments used to draw up quantitative evaluation will be explained in greater depth in Chapter Five, prior to the illustration of calculations and drawing up of any conclusions.

In conclusion, there is an application of two different research methods, qualitative and quantitative in assessing the perception and image of the Hospitality Industry from the point of view of school pupils, parents and Career Advisers. Thus, a hybrid approach once again applied to the second research question.

“increasingly authors and researchers who work in organisations and with managers argue that one should attempt to mix methods to some extent, because it provides more perspectives on the phenomena being studied”.

(Easterby-Smith, 1991, p. 31)

The impersonal nature of data collection has been one of the limitations of this methodology. The researcher would have preferred to have organised focus groups with the respondents to further clarify some of the responses made. Unfortunately, the researcher did not have sufficient time and resources to initiate this activity. This aspect could be borne in mind if research of a similar nature is to be actioned in the future.

The previous question has examined the perception and image of the hospitality industry amongst young people. The issue of insufficient young people choosing hospitality as a career may be attributed to the role played by the industry in the delivery of work based learning.

The third question considers the perception of the industry’s role in the delivery of vocational education and training in the hospitality and catering industry.

The first step will be to carry out the historical literature research in this area to see how the apprenticeship system has evolved starting from the inception of the National Joint Apprenticeship Council for the hotel and catering industry in 1952. The survey of political influences and changes in the work based training over the last fifty years will be examined in order to inform interpretations of employer's behaviour in supporting apprentices in the current context.

It is clear from the discussions in Chapter Two that, although full-time courses based in educational institutions have existed for many years, the majority of training in Hospitality and Catering is gained in the workplace. The systems for supporting and accrediting such training have changed over the years. Currently the system is the 'Modern Apprenticeship' Scheme.

In order to set the scene in terms of the size of the apprentice base in the Hospitality and Catering Industry, a quantitative analysis of the numbers of apprentices registered in Hospitality and Catering will be undertaken.

"Historical research has been defined as the systematic and objective location, evaluation and synthesis of evidence in order to establish facts and draw conclusions about past events".

(Borg, 1963).

Historical research does have some features in common with normative and interpretive paradigms. In the case of normative paradigm, it shares the pursuit of objectivity and attempts to reduce any bias and distortion. Whereas in relation to the interpretive paradigm, it describes all aspects of a specific situation and seeks for the whole truth.

The act of historical research involves the identification of an area of study or formulation of an hypothesis or set of questions; the collection, organisation, verification, validation, analysis and selection of data; testing the hypothesis or responding to the questions. This leads to understanding of the past and its relevance to the present and future.

Hill and Kerber have categorised the value of historical research as follows:

- It enables solutions to contemporary problems to be sought in the past.
- It throws light on present and future trends.
- It emphasises the relative importance and the effects of the various interactions within all cultures.
- It allows for the revaluation of data in relation to selected hypothesis, theories and generalisations that are presently held about the past.

(Hill and Kerber; 1967)

The historical research method is useful for all sorts of scholarly activities and research as its ability to employ the past to predict the future, and to use the present to explain the past, gives it a dual and unique quality. Following from the historical and quantitative study, a field study will be conducted by concentrating on trainees in the work place and their work based supervisors. This study will take the form of semi - structured interviews with an interview schedule completed by the researcher.

Having set the scene in terms of the historical background to the current role of the employer in the training of young people and, having explored the extent of the apprenticeship scheme which must rely on the contribution from the employer, the study moves on to attempt to address the question of the industry's perception of their role.

It is certainly feasible and important to ask a number of employers directly about how they see their role in the training process. However, it is clear that a very good indicator of the perception of industry's role must come from direct or indirect observation of how they carry out their training function.

Hence, in this study the trainees themselves are interviewed and all the paperwork associated with their training is interrogated. Again a triangulation of data is gained through interviews with trainees, workbased supervisors and the employers.

In a sense this aspect of the project is in the form of a case study. All the trainees were from one college in Wales. This is essential in order to minimise any variations resulting

from different college systems, but also in terms of cost reduction and increased opportunities for access. Prior to the discussion of the interviews, a brief description of the college system will be given to indicate what the system expects of employers and to explain the paperwork involved.

The researcher was opportunistic in taking full advantage of the internal quality system already in operation which took the form of the self assessment review by his institution. Supplementary questions were included in the interview schedule to support the current study. Furthermore, the interviews conducted between the researcher and the work based trainee/work based supervisors were in greater depth focused towards exploring answers to the research question.

In addition, further evidence will be collated by the observation and scrutiny of trainees NVQ portfolios. The aim of this inspection being to assess the standard and quality of written work. Firstly, the standard and variety of evidence supplied in the portfolios by trainees, which should indicate the role being played by the industry in education and training. Secondly, verifying the reliability and validity of assessments carried out by college instructors, work based assessors and supervisors. This hard evidence collected will contribute in reducing any undue influence being introduced during the interviews because of the power relationship between the researcher and trainees or even work based supervisors. The researcher has appreciated the lengthy process of evidence collection and acknowledges the fact that these interviews are really semi-structured.

A sample size of fifty trainees and their work based supervisors has been chosen with an interview being planned to last for approximately one hour with the trainee and one hour with the work based supervisor to collect data. The first part of the Interview Schedule seeks the views of trainees on their perception of the training programme, learning support, assessment procedures and reviews. The second part of the questionnaire is focused on work based supervisors to assess their involvement in training, monitoring progress, support provided, availability of resources and the inter-relationship with college assessors. A copy of this research instrument is in Appendix B.1.

The trainees have been selected to provide appropriate representation of Foundation Modern Apprenticeship and Advanced Modern Apprenticeship across various sectors of the catering industry representing Hotels, Restaurants, Wine Bars and Cafes located in and around North Wales coast. This study was carried out over the two academic sessions, 2001 to 2003.

The responses from interviews with trainees and work based supervisors were recorded immediately to ensure the accuracy of information without missing any important comments. As the questions posed were mainly open ended, this made analysis highly qualitative and subjective dependent upon the views of the interviewer. A great caution has been exercised to record the statements objectively, as far as possible, by avoiding personal prejudices, biases or idiosyncrasies playing any part in it.

INTERVIEWING

The interviewing research technique is quite universal as it could be applied to Quantitative Research as a “survey research”, using mainly fixed choice questions to random samples or to Qualitative Research employing open-ended questions which are mainly subject to small samples. The interviews in qualitative research are unstructured with the main aim being to understand experience. There are, of course, some limitations in the application of either research method as regards to reliability or validity of data. But these issues can be resolved by carefully constructing systematic research instruments.

This research technique is time-consuming to conduct and to analyse, interviews nonetheless have a vital role in generating productive sources of information rich in valuable data, which will support observations made during the research inquiry (Cohen and Manion, 1989; Elliot, 1991). The strengths of the interview as a research technique include extensive opportunities for asking and probing for information, although these may be more limited by the use of professional colleagues as interviewers. A high rate of return is also achieved, due to active participation in the process. The drawbacks include the expense - both in time and in money – of collecting the data in the first instance, the relative magnitude of data reduction and possible sources of error based on the

interviewer, the questionnaire itself and subsequent coding of responses. The expense, both in time and money was possible in this case because the interviews formed part of the college's own self assessment exercise. Thus, trainees and supervisors were to be interviewed, and additionally their portfolios scrutinised. The present study was able to make use of that exercise and so reduce the additional time and financial burden. However, the value of interviewing technique is favourable to the nature of data generated for this research and has therefore been used extensively.

A strong element of trust is needed to establish a firm relationship between the interviewer and the interviewee and to support the achievement of a common goal. Curiosity is a strong motivating force and can generate a genuine desire to learn the views of individuals who are participating in the interview process; positively encouraging participants to overcome the assortment of difficulties which beset the completion of a successful interview. A natural and unobtrusive approach will enable the interviewer to record data as pure information transfer, securing what is in the minds of the interviewees. Habermas' freedom of communication without distortions is of prime importance during this process (Carr and Kemmis, 1986; Grundy, 1987). This research method will be extensively used in collating data from the work based trainees and supervisors in determining the role of employers in vocational education and training.

The risk of bias – "...a systematic or persistent tendency to make errors in the same direction..." (Cohen and Manion, 1989, p.318) – is ever present in the social process of interviewing. The controls built into the structure of the interview process will limit the potential of this uncertainty, although data will have to be monitored for evidence of eagerness to please, underlying antagonism, or responses which indicate support for preconceived notions.

Using the interview as a method of data collection, two key scenarios are envisaged as part of this inquiry. The familiarity of the localised environment and participants will counterbalance any reticence on the part of the trainees to be open and honest with their interviewer. Appropriate guidelines will formulate a closely structured interview, allowing a significant degree of control. Second, follow-up interviews with the trainees

and the establishment supervisor will offer a different perspective supporting the strategy of triangulation and broadening the platform of data on which the research is based.

Structured Interviews

The structured interview is one of a variety of forms of research interviews. It is the most commonly employed in survey research. The aim of the structured interview is to ensure consistency in the responses from the interviewees so that differences between interviews in any research project are reduced. In the social research interview, the aim is for the interviewer to elicit from the respondent, all types of information: interviewees' own behaviour or that of others, attitudes, beliefs and values.

A structured interview, sometimes termed a standardized interview necessitates the use of an interview schedule or a standardized questionnaire by an interviewer. The aim is for all interviewees to be given exactly the same context of questioning. This ensures that each respondent receives exactly the same interview stimulus as any other. The aim of this style of interviewing is to be sure that the question replies from respondents can be aggregated with reliability and this can only be achieved if identical cues are given to interviewees. Interviewers are supposed to read out questions exactly, and in the same order as it appears in the questionnaire. Questions asked are usually very specific and offer the interviewee a fixed range of answer.

This research method will be mainly employed in Chapter Six, to assess the perception of industry's role in the delivery of vocational education and training in the Hospitality and Catering Industry, which is the government expectation from the industry. Unfortunately, the researcher finds the delivery of the vocational education and training agenda by employers very difficult, especially by the small and medium sized establishments whilst they have limited capacity. The only solution available to employers is to join a partnership with a local Further Education Colleges. The use of standardised questionnaires will support the interviews with work based trainees (employees) and work based supervisors (first line managers).

“Interviewing is undoubtedly the most widely applied technique for conducting systematic social inquiry” (Holstein and Gubrium, 1997, p. 107). Bannister et al (1994) state that one of the advantages of interviews is that they allow complex issues to be explored which may prove difficult to investigate through quantitative research. The interview approach is less structured than a questionnaire which allows responses to be investigated. As a result, interviews are an open and flexible research tool, which allow “the respondents to say what they think and to do so with greater richness and spontaneity”. (Oppenheim, 1992, p.81).

Structured interview questionnaires are produced by selecting questions that are mainly closed ended, thus, limiting too many choices for answer. Each question is further broken down into very specific sub-questions to maintain the focus on prime issue. There are a couple of open ended questions at the end of the interview, allowing respondents to express themselves freely.

The research interview has been defined by Cannell and Kahn, (1968) as ‘a two-person conversation initiated by the interviewer for the specific purpose of obtaining research relevant information’. This research method differs from the questionnaire as, in an interview the data is gathered through direct verbal communication between the interviewer and respondent. The interview method has both advantages and disadvantages. Some of the advantages are that it provides an opportunity to collect data in greater depth and allows an interviewer to probe much deeper, the issues of main concern. The response rate in this method is very good as it does not rely on the writing skills of the respondents.

In this research study, almost all the questions are open-ended, although the whole process of interviewing is structured with standardised broad questions (Cohen and Manion, 1992, p.313). Kerlinger, (1970) defines these questions as ‘those that supply a frame of reference for respondent’s answers but put a minimum of restraint on the answers and their expression’. The only constraint is the subject and structure of the question, which is driven by the nature of the problem under investigation. There is a total flexibility on the contents and manner of reply.

Kerlinger, 1970 quotes from the study by Sears, Maccoby and Levin, 1957 'an open ended question is the funnel as it starts with a broad question and then narrows down to more specific ones'.

However, there are some limitations to the interview method. There is the possibility of bias on the part of the interviewer or interviewee. The respondent may have a tendency to give socially desirable answers, or at least answers that they believe the interviewer might want to hear. This has been addressed by the interviewer by preparing very well prior to the interview and making respondents feel at ease. In fact, there could be a bias in the way a question is phrased. This can be minimised by the careful structuring of questions and testing them out beforehand.

The second limitation relates to the negative features of interpersonal transactions. The interviewer needs to have skills to recognise non-rational factors governing human behaviour such as emotions and interpersonal influences. There is the impact of power relations too during the process of interviewing. In this particular study, the researcher is well aware of his position of power in conducting the interviews with the trainees and work-based supervisors. The importance of objectivity is vital to ensure that the conclusions drawn are valid and reliable. Therefore, the need to attempt to avoid any prejudices or bias during the interviews especially with the trainees, will be seriously considered. It is very much in the interest of the researcher to portray the social reality as it is seen by the trainees, and not to be skewed towards any preconceived conclusions.

Cicourel, (1964) has also discussed five of the unavoidable features of the interview situation and states them as follows:

- 1. There are many factors which inevitably differ from one interview to another, such as mutual trust, social distance and the interviewer's control.*
- 2. The respondent may feel uneasy and adopt avoidance tactics if the questioning is too deep.*
- 3. Both interviewer and respondent are bound to hold back part of what it is in their power to state.*

4. *Many of the meanings which are clear to one will be relatively opaque to the other, even when the intention is genuine communication.*
5. *It is impossible, just as in everyday life, to bring every aspect of the encounter within rational control.*

The solution to these issues is that the interviewer must be aware of them and take relevant factors into account whilst conducting interviews. Thus, reducing potential problems to sound research and ensuring that the responses are valid.

Cannell and Kahn, (1968) have reported that there is a persistent problem of validity with interviews as a research method. This is mainly due to the presence of bias which is sometimes related to the structure of questions; that is, whether the questions asked look as if they are measuring what they claim to measure. This is known as face validating. The other way of validating interview data is to compare it with another measure that is shown to be valid. This kind of comparison is known as convergent validity. If the two measures agree, it can be presumed that the validity of the interview is comparable with the proven validity of the other measure. This is the very reason for sending the postal questionnaires, consisting mainly of structured questions, to trainees and employers alongside the research interview, so that the validity of responses is confirmed as far as possible. The postal questionnaire also tends to be more reliable, because of the anonymity which encourages greater honesty.

Kitwood, (1977) discusses the notion of reliability and validity in relation to the research interviews. There is a direct conflict between these two notions. In order to increase the reliability, the elements of interview have to be rationalised and controlled which will transform the interviewer into being detached, calculating and rational. This will brand the interviews to be perceived as less friendly transactions and responses are going to be calculated, thus reducing the validity of the claims. It is suggested that the solution to the problem of reliability and validity may lie in a 'judicious compromise'. However, there is a view that the reliability and validity can become 'redundant notions', as every interpersonal situation may be said to be valid, irrespective of how the participants communicate and feel about each other.

The other problem with open-ended questions during the interview is of recording the responses. Tuckman, (1972) emphasises that an interviewer should explain to the interviewee the manner in which the responses will be recorded. In the event of the interviewer planning to tape record, they should obtain the respondents consent in order to avoid any bias. If the interviewer is writing during the conversation then there is a danger of bias being introduced and the interviewer only recording what is of main interest. On the otherhand, if the recording is left to the end then there is a danger of the interviewer failing to record an important issue. The researcher was conscious of these constraints and ensured that there was an interval between the trainee and supervisors interview. The maximum duration for each of these interviews was limited to one hour which also included the review of the trainees portfolios. The questions were posed at a steady pace without unduly pressurising interviewees. The recording of responses was carried out simultaneously. The interviewees were also given an assurance that all responses recorded were totally confidential and that the individual's anonymity would be maintained at all times.

The perception of the industry's role in the delivery of vocational education and training will be looked at from three different perspectives; that is trainees, work-based supervisors and employers. Principally, the research method employed will be of interviewing but is well supported with postal questionnaires. It is anticipated that by using the interviewing method some complex issues can be clarified which may not be possible by just using the postal questionnaires to gather information. In addition, by using the interviewing technique the questions can be tailored according to the individual context such as hotels, restaurants, cafes and bars, thus providing a wider scope for responses. In fact, this type of approach is unique in nature as the researcher has no possibility of comparing this work with any previous study which could have given some guidance.

The researcher feels confident that the gathering of the responses by an interviewing method will be thorough and detailed, as opposed to just relying on the use of postal questionnaires. Moreover, the trainees expect to be visited at the workplace by a tutor to monitor their portfolios and discuss the progress, so it would be natural to widen the scope of this visit to explore some of the issues in far greater depth.

In addition, the inspection of trainee portfolios gave another dimension to the evidence regarding the standards of attainment. This is a crucial piece of evidence validated by internal and external verifiers. In order to close the loop, the views of work-based supervisors were also sought as the trainees are under their close supervision for the majority of the time. The support, guidance and resources provided by the work-based supervisors are invaluable towards the success of these trainees.

It was also decided to use the postal questionnaires for trainees and employers. A copy of the postal questionnaire sent to trainees and employers is included in Appendix B2 and B3 with full details of questions posed to them. The questions formulated for these questionnaires were mostly structured in nature with very few open-ended questions. The aim of this study was to obtain the personal views of trainees and employers without offering any prompts. There were three hundred questionnaires sent to the trainees over the period of two years in Wave 1 and Wave 2 during the two academic sessions 2001 to 2003. There were 107 completed questionnaires returned by trainees. Thus, giving a response rate of 35.7%. In the case of employers, two hundred questionnaires were posted during the same period and sixty-eight completed questionnaires were sent back. Thus, making a response rate of 34.0%. The description of range of employers who responded to the postal questionnaires is in Appendix B.4.

The responses from structured interviews were analysed and collated with the assistance of a computer package. The qualitative and quantitative replies were cross-examined with a view to drawing up valid and reliable conclusions. There are, once again, views collected from three completely different sources, that is; trainees, supervisors and employers.

It is regrettable to note that the attainment rate of qualification delivered as work based training in the hospitality and catering industry is much lower than other industries. There are issues concerning quality which will be examined in the fourth and final research question. The next research question focuses on the international comparative study to see if any useful lessons can be learnt.

The fourth question addresses how the standard of the vocational education and training system in the United Kingdom compares with six similar European and Anglophone countries.

There were six countries selected for this comparative study. The first main aim being to select the major and similar industrial economic performance countries which are comparable to the United Kingdom, such as France, Germany and The United States of America. It was also decided to include Switzerland, as they have an excellent reputation with regard to the vocational education and training of top quality professional chefs. In order to obtain an objective international comparison, there were two other countries included; that is, The Netherlands and New Zealand. Fortunately, in the majority of these countries English is spoken fluently thus, there were no linguistic issues being encountered. This included The United States of America, New Zealand and The Netherlands. The French language did not present any problem as the researcher had the linguistic skills to collate the information in France and French speaking Switzerland. However, the German language did place constraints on the researcher because of minimal German linguistic skills. However, this was overcome by obtaining most of the documentation in the English language.

The comparative study was further strengthened by including the countries in the Western World which are both democratic and enterprising. There were also other considerations taken into account, such as countries with a large population, big cities, a large migrant population and fairly equivalent GDP per Capita income.

The research study was carried out to broadly compare the following:

1. Chef's Profession Curriculum Development
2. Curriculum Delivery and the Role of Employers
3. Standard and Quality of Curriculum
4. An overview of the Standards of Vocational Education and Training System being

compared.

The researcher was able to undertake study visits to most of these countries (France, Germany, The Netherlands, Switzerland and The United States of America). A visit involved spending time at the educational establishments, employers' organisations and trade union associations and discussing the issues relating to hospitality and catering education and training. The researcher acknowledges that some of the views presented in this thesis are from the personal experiences of the countries being visited. The schedule of visits to the above countries is indicated in Appendix F.

The final research question focuses upon how the quality of the curriculum for the hospitality and catering industry can be improved, especially in terms of vocational and professional skills.

Unfortunately, there are a myriad of issues related to the quality of delivery such as educational policies, curriculum design, funding methodology and the nature of entrants. In this sphere, a great interest has been expressed by the employers for the quality of performance. In addition, the National Skills Task Force Report, 2000 concluded with the need to identify Further Education Colleges which meet the criteria for Centres of Vocational Excellence in the specialist subject areas, which will subsequently act as a path finder college or a 'Beacon College' from which other colleges can take the lead. Thus, the notion of 'Competence with Excellence' came into being. It is absolutely essential for Further Education Colleges to strive for the highest quality grade in the sphere of vocational education and training. As David Bell, Her Majesty's Chief Inspector of Schools, Ofsted, remarked at the Association of Colleges conference in Birmingham on Thursday, 17th November 2005 that the 'satisfactory' quality grade is just not good enough for the colleges to achieve, but that Further Education Colleges should strive for 'Excellence'. In vocational skills terms, it means that 'Competence with Excellence' should be the basic threshold for quality. This is essential in the context of global competitiveness and especially if the UK economy is to be among the top five performers in the world. This provided the researcher with an opportunity to explore this area of study in greater depth. The project was designed highlighting activities with

detailed costing to carry out an experiment specifically for his research. It was very encouraging to receive the funding of £8,000 towards this experiment from LSDA.

The very first step was to set up a project team consisting of four professionally qualified and experienced academics to agree the criteria of what constitutes a 'Competence with Excellence' and to develop a course based on these criteria. Once the criteria was unanimously agreed between the project team members, a model for the delivery of an enhanced curriculum was developed. The competencies of the National Vocational Qualifications were compared with the skills identified as being essential requirement for the performance of an individual at an excellence level. The gaps identified in this comparison were included in the curriculum delivery plan for the Experimental Group. This new curriculum delivery plan would reflect 'What constitutes an excellence' and 'How excellence can be achieved', irrespective of the students background. It would be an ideal course from which some lessons could be learnt with the intention of achieving excellence. The course details including the Action Plan, Schemes of Work along with Time Schedules for Restaurant and Kitchen were produced and are attached in Appendix C.2, C.3 and C.4 respectively. The duration of this project was limited to twenty four weeks during the period September; 2001 to March, 2002.

The essential feature of experimental research is that the researcher intentionally controls and manipulates the experiment conditions in such a way that it produces results in which the researcher has an interest. This, at its simplest, involves making an alteration in the value of one variable – called the independent variable and observing the impact of that change on another variable known as the dependent variable.

The Quasi-Experimental Method applied in this research study necessitated the formation of two distinct groups from the same cohort of students studying for NVQ Level 3 in Hospitality and Catering on a random selection basis. All the students were given a presentation, briefing them about the aims and objectives of this quasi-experiment. For one of these two groups it was planned to deliver additional curriculum, that is the independent variable. This group was termed as an Experimental Group. The other group was termed the Control Group which would undertake the normal NVQ Level 3 course without the influence of any additional intervention. The researcher ensured that

both the Experimental and Control Group members were selected from the same population and are of equivalent standard of ability, knowledge and skills. The Control Group was needed for comparison purposes, to determine what impact of the additional curriculum input (independent Variable) had on the Experimental Group, if any.

The independent variables for the Experimental Group comprised of the following four main activities:

1. The Residential Weekend to develop individuals self confidence, team building and leadership skills, as these softer abilities are very important to give the participants independence whilst working effectively with others, and leading the team to ensure job readiness when entering the world of work. These are the essential requirements of the employers. The questionnaires were used for the participants at the beginning and at the end of the residential weekend to measure the impact.
2. The inclusion of additional lectures and practical classes in kitchen and restaurant would give students opportunities to further master the technical skills.
3. The use of practical examination for the Experimental and Control Group to determine the effect of additional elements, an independent variable.
4. The participation of students in competitions at local, regional, national and European level to see the influence of additional elements in the performance of students.

The main research methods being implemented in determining the result to this research question are Literature Research, Quasi-Experimental Method and Self-Completing Questionnaires. There is also an employment of quantitative methods whilst comparing the performance of the Experimental and Control Groups during the practical examination. It is absolutely vital to confirm that the difference between two groups represents a true difference and not a chance difference. In order to ensure

this, a statistical technique the 't' test of significance for independent samples has been applied in the analysis of examination marks.

The 't' test of significance, one tail test is the most appropriate statistical technique employed for this quasi-experimental method to test the hypothesis that the experimental group will perform significantly better than the control group in the vocational setting. Thus, amalgamations of qualitative and quantitative research methods are used in the pursuit of ways to improve the quality of vocational education and training.

The researcher is well aware of the fact that there is a limitation to this research method, for example, as regards the size of the Experimental Group. Unfortunately, due to the constraints on finances, the nature of the research, the availability of resources and the time allowed to carry out this experiment, there was no scope to increase the size of the group. However, the main principles of study being identified remain the same for the future application of this methodology. The main focus of this experiment for the researcher, is merely to provide an indication of what could be done to improve the quality of curriculum delivery, but this experiment does not provide an exclusive answer to all the quality issues as it is not sufficiently rigorous and impervious to criticisms.

The basic purpose of experimental method is to exercise control over the conditions which would otherwise cloud the true impact of independent variables upon the dependent variables. Campbell and Stanley (1963) and Bracht and Glass (1968) have identified the conditions impacting on the validity of the experiment incidentally with a greater consequence to the validity of quasi-experiment and more typically in educational research.

These conditions have been further distinguished between internal validity and external validity, which are taken into consideration in the design of this experiment.

Internal validity is concerned with the question, what difference do the experimental treatments make in the specific experiment under investigation? Some of these conditions are as follows:

History: There are events other than experimental treatments which occur during the period of experiment in the educational research. These events may produce effect which can mistakenly be attributed to differences in treatment.

Maturation: The students may change in different ways during the period of experiment. These changes can produce differences that are independent of the experimental treatments. This issue of maturation is more acute in extended educational studies.

Exclusiveness: The twelve students in the experimental group may feel special and so work harder. These students are 'special' so they get an extra advantage and a better course. The other students in the control group might have felt 'not special' and so worked less hard than they might have otherwise have done. The other area of concern could be that the teachers get to know the students in the experimental group better so they may give them higher marks. This could have a serious impact on the final conclusions.

Hawthorne Effect: The "Hawthorne effect" was not named after a researcher but rather refers to the factory where the effect was first observed and described: the Hawthorne works of the Western Electric Company in Chicago, (1924 – 1933). The Hawthorne effect phrase was coined by Landsberger in 1955 and gave a new interpretation of the results of the original Hawthorne experiments. He defines the Hawthorne effect as:

"An experimental effect in the direction expected but not for the reason expected, that is, a significant positive effect, that turns out to have no causal basis in the theoretical motivation for the intervention, but is apparently due to the effect on the participants of knowing themselves to be studied in connection with the outcomes measured."

Frits Roethlisberger and William Dickson give a great amount of detail but little interpretation. Elton Mayo of Harvard Business School gives a shorter account, including the interpretation that positive attention and self governance offered to the subjects created a positive group climate which then resulted in improved output.

H. McIlvaine Parsons (1974) redefines “the Hawthorne effect as the confounding that occurs if experimenters fail to realise how the consequences of subjects’ performance affect what subjects do” [that is, learning effects, both permanent skill improvement and feedback – enable adjustments to suit current goals].

The researcher had been aware of such an influence and took greater precautions in ensuring that the participants in experimental group were made to feel normal like any other students, but it is not possible to get rid of the Hawthorne Effect absolutely. However, the impact of these factors have been recognised and will be considered in discussing the findings and drawing conclusions

Instrumentation: There is an issue of human error as teachers or judges may have a lack of concentration or changes in their skills over the course of the experiment. This can introduce serious errors of judgment in the final scores.

External validity: is concerned with the degree to which generalisations can be made from this particular experimental conditions to other population or settings. Some of the factors discussed below may limit the external validity of this experiment unless due considerations are taken into account of these factors during the experiment.

Failure to describe Independent Variables explicitly: The independent variables need to be adequately described so that the experiment can be replicated in future under the same conditions. The researcher has taken great care to identify the additional elements in depth, with a comprehensive structure of curriculum delivery and evaluation of results.

Lack of representativeness of available and target populations: The participants in the experiment were representative of the available population following NVQ courses in

the institution where the experiment was conducted. It was ensured that it also represented the population to which the researcher seeks to generalise the findings. Atherton argues that

“most educational innovations work. At least they do when they are first introduced. This generalisation may be because we never hear about the ones which are total disasters, but the positive aspect is likely to be because they are promoted by their advocates, and advocates are enthusiasts”.

(Atherton, 2003)

The most significant (and unaccounted) variable in educational innovation is enthusiasm. Given enough of it, most things work, however wrong headed. When teachers have not got it, they might as well pack up and go home, regardless of the sophistication of their strategies and tactics.

PARTICIPANTS IN THE INQUIRY

The eclectic structure of this research, located in the subjective paradigm (Burrell and Morgan, 1979) involves various research methods, participants, and social players of the education system, the hospitality and catering industry whose subjective world is to provide the data on which the research is based. This research involved secondary schools, colleges, employers as well as individuals – pupils, trainees, parents, employers, workbased supervisors and career advisers who make up the above mentioned social players. The study of pupils' career paths from school to further education following diverse modes of learning and then employment in the hospitality industry will contribute to the interpretation of a range of aspects related to this research.

“The concept of multiple realities exists even within the same culture.”

(Berger and Luckman, 1967, pp. 14 - 15).

Other members of an educational establishment, hospitality professional bodies and the catering industry will also make a valuable contribution to the assessment of skills shortages, skill gaps, perception and image of the hospitality industry, the perception of employers in their role in training and issues related to the quality of vocational education and training by offering different insights and views of reality. Without the close involvement and commitment of these participants in the research process, the final solution to these research questions is unlikely to be achieved.

Finally, observers of this research will also become valuable participants in the inquiry. In addition to gathering evidence for the research with direct participants, important advances can be made by engaging with a critical community of professional colleagues in education and industry who are willing to contribute to shaping this thesis. During the research period, a close dialogue will be maintained with the experts in various aspects of this research and their views will be examined to compare with the conclusions being drawn for this research. This is to ensure that the final recommendations made are reliable and valid.

POLITICS AND ETHICS OF THE RESEARCH

Politics plays an important role in social research as there is an issue of funding research and perhaps unfortunately, much funding for social research is provided by government departments. These organisations may or may not have a vested interest in the results of the research but they can have political influence on the final results. In some cases the research may not be funded by the government but still the aim is to expect pre-decided outcomes. It would be interesting to highlight the success of National Vocational Qualification system which is contrary to the numerous issues raised by practitioners in the operation of the National Vocational Qualification system.

Ironically, none of the government reports conclude that it has an over-bureaucratic assessment system. Even organisations like the biggest sources of funds for social research, the Economic and Social Research Council (ESRC) increasingly tend to focus their research programmes towards the topics of direct concern to society, but in reality, ESRC itself is involved in the political process of securing funds from the government. Fortunately, this research study has been carried out independently without, as far as is possible any Political influence or bias. The researcher is genuinely keen to investigate the deep reasons for the low number of new entrants into the hospitality industry and to develop a strategy for improving the quality of hospitality education and training in UK.

The ability to obtain access to information is also a political process. Access is usually mediated by gatekeepers, who are concerned about the researcher's motives, what the organisation can gain from the research, what it will lose by participating in the research in terms of staff time and other costs and potential risks to image. Often the gatekeepers will seek to influence how the investigation takes place, the types of questions which can be asked, who can be asked, and who can be the target population, the interpretation of the findings and the form of any report to the organisation itself. The researcher had to satisfy his employers about the value of this study and the benefits it will accrue to them in the formulation of future policies in relation to the delivery of vocational education and training. This will in turn assist the organisation in achieving their mission.

The German socialist Max Weber, (1964) pointed out in the early years of the last century that all research is contaminated to some extent by the values of the researcher. Weber further stresses that the conclusions and implications to be drawn from a study are largely grounded in the moral and political beliefs of the researcher. It would be necessary to state that the government vocational education and training policies over the last forty years based on previous research have not delivered the desired results expected by the hospitality and catering industry. This can be viewed through the implementation of the Industrial Training Act, 1964 involving the formation of the Hotel and Catering Industrial Training Board in 1966, the setting up of the Caterbase System for work-based training, the introduction of National Vocational Qualifications in 1990; General National Vocational Qualifications in 1993; Curriculum 2000 leading to Advanced Vocational Certificates in Education but soon replaced by National Diploma Courses in 2003, which were originally developed in 1969. In this research great care has been exercised to take account of the influence of any personal values on the judgments being made, thus maintaining objectivity throughout the study. However, the researcher is very strongly driven by a desire to suggest the modification of the present vocational education and training policies so that it will satisfy employers needs in quantitative and qualitative terms.

Professional ethics (Mouly, 1978; Carr and Kemmis, 1986; McMillan and Schumacher, 1989) particularly in the field of research involving participation and collaboration, is now recognised as an important area for consideration, especially in the social sciences, where there is a direct social and moral bearing (Mouly, 1978, p.50).

Jennifer Mason, (1996, pp. 166 – 167) discusses two ways in which such ethical issues impinge upon the qualitative researcher:

1. The rich and detailed character of much qualitative research can mean intimate engagement with the public and private lives of individuals.
2. The changing directions of interest and access during a qualitative study mean that new and unexpected ethical dilemmas are likely to arise during the research.

Mason suggests that one way to confront these problems is to try to clarify the intentions while formulating the research problem. The importance of informed consent cannot be over-emphasised, that is ensuring that participation is voluntary and giving comprehensive information about the research which is relevant to subjects' decision about whether to participate. There needs to be a fine balance in giving information to subjects, but not "contaminating" the research by informing subjects too specifically about the research question to be studied. Where subjects are less than sixteen years of age, consent would need to be obtained from their parents and schools.

The purpose of this research, which is deeply embedded in existing social organisations, is to publish its findings to as wide an audience as appropriate. There have already been two publications in journals related to the international comparison of standards and a report on the project, 'Competence with Excellence', to inform the audience of the results of the research and also to reduce potential misunderstandings and misinterpretations.

Personal values and the right of a participant to privacy are important. Informed consent will be sought where the participant fully understands the purpose of the research and the nature of his or her role, with adequate guarantees of confidentiality where appropriate. In assessing the perception and image of the hospitality industry amongst school pupil especially at Year 10, Year 11 and Year 12 a letter was sent to their parents detailing the motives behind this research and to obtain the consent for including their children in this research study. In addition, a letter was also sent to the headteachers, requesting permission to include their school pupil in the sample. This was followed up with the personal interviews by the researcher prior to the distribution of questionnaires in the school; thus, explaining in detail the purpose and motives of this research study. The final responsibility for adherence to ethical standards lies with the researcher. The openness and honesty will be maintained with all the participants throughout the research period.

It is vital for ethical purposes that people should not be coerced into participating (Carr and Kemmis, 1986). These pressures would devalue any participation, as well as incurring unwelcome distortions. All participants will have access to the final results of the research and will be allowed to see their contribution to this research study on the

basis of fairness, relevance and accuracy. The references to individual establishments will only be made using pseudonyms, supporting the assurance made that individual establishments would not be formally identified. Presentation of case study data related to students will adopt the informed consent of the individual participants and institutions in order to present data in sufficient detail (Adelman, Jenkins and Kemmis, 1980; Carr and Kemmis, 1986; Cohen and Manion, 1989).

CONCLUSION

This chapter has established the broad theory of research and examined the hybrid methodological approach adopted that is both qualitative and quantitative. The salient features and limitations of these approaches have been compared earlier on in this Chapter. The research approach to each of the five sub-questions being addressed is further developed incorporating multiple research methods in some instances.

The first research question will be answered by employing the historical literature research method and secondary statistical data, focusing on the qualifications structure over the last four decades. This study is designed to cover the whole breadth of occupational, vocational and professional qualifications delivered in secondary schools and Further Education Colleges encompassing the 14 to 19 year age group. An additional dimension is introduced, by comparing the trends in qualification structure, recruitment and attainments with the hairdressing and beauty therapy curriculum.

The second question addresses the issue of the perception and image of the hospitality industry amongst young pupils. Three self-completing postal questionnaires were designed to be distributed to school pupils, their parents and career advisers. These questionnaires included a blend of open-ended and structured questions. The analysis of responses from these questionnaires involved the use of statistical techniques such as, 'The Likert Scale' and 'The Chi-Square Test'.

The third question, looking at the perception of industry and their role in the delivery of education and training, relied on a literature search, a structured interview and postal questionnaire approaches to collate the information. In this part of the study the emphasis is on qualitative methods to examine and evaluate the responses. The interview schedule has been designed with standard questions for the interviewer with views gathered from three different sources; that is trainees, workbased supervisors and trainees' portfolios. The postal questionnaires would be targeted at the trainees and employers to bring together their opinions on this issue.

The fourth question examines the Vocational Education and Training system in England and Wales in an international context. A comparative study was undertaken with six other European and Anglophone countries. The research methods employed include an initial literature search followed by educational study visits to most of the countries being compared. It was anticipated that some valuable lessons would be found to offer solutions to the challenges faced as regards to the delivery of Vocational Education and Training in the United Kingdom.

The final question, focusing on the quality of curriculum delivery in terms of vocational and professional skills development, involved literature research and quasi-experimental method involving the setting up of an experimental and control group on a random basis. The aim was to apply an additional rich curriculum experience to a group of students delivered on the basis of set criteria for what constitutes 'Competence with Excellence'. The self-completing questionnaires will also be distributed to the participants of the experimental group. The use of mixed methods here allows some use of statistical analysis including 'The 't' test of significance', to evaluate the responses from the quantitative research methods.

There is also a consideration of the participants in the inquiry such as school pupils, parents, career advisers, trainees, workbased supervisors, employers and students. The importance of adopting an ethical approach has been briefly discussed.

The next chapter will commence with a historical literature research in the development of qualifications structure over the last four decades and the study of trends in relation to the number of qualified students each year. This would be followed up by comparing the performance of the hospitality and catering curriculum with hairdressing and beauty therapy.

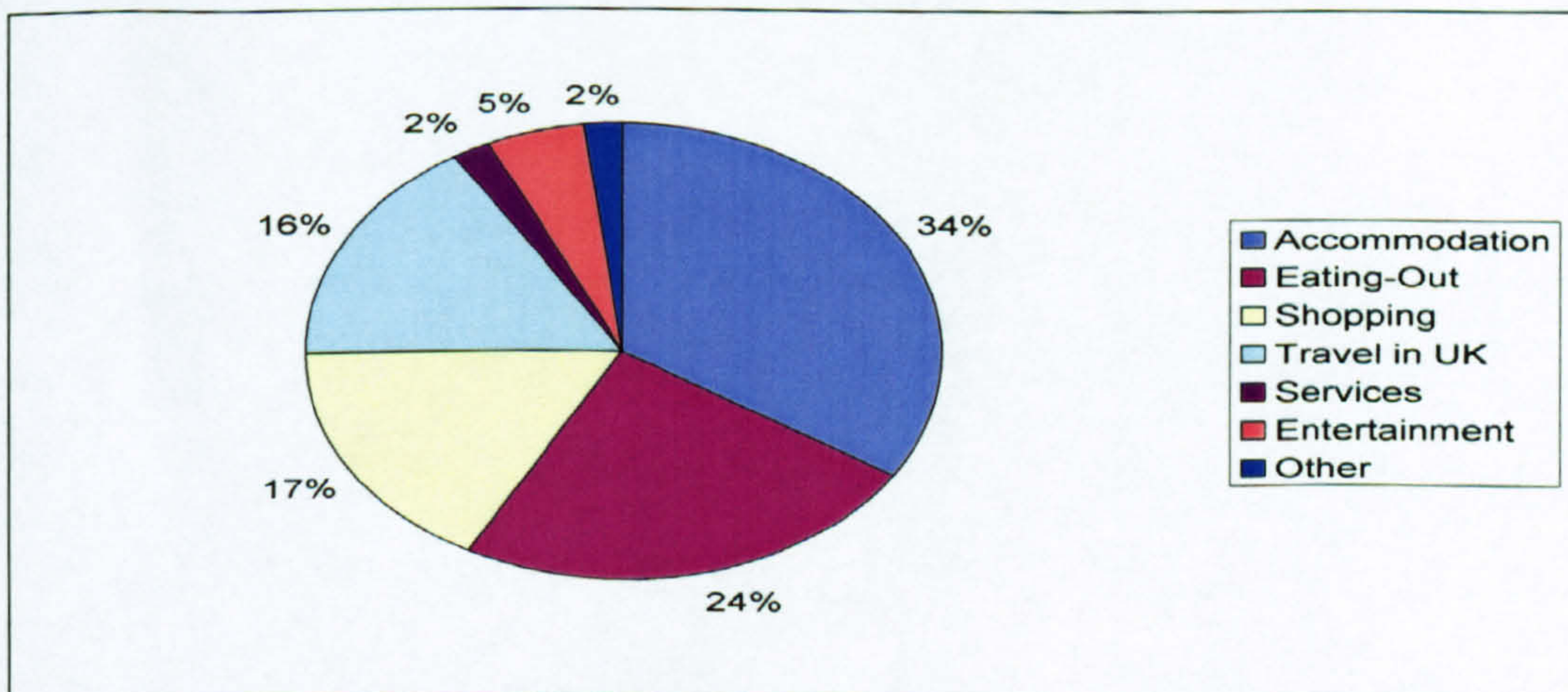
CHAPTER 4

QUALIFICATIONS STRUCTURE IN THE DELIVERY OF VOCATIONAL EDUCATION AND TRAINING

INTRODUCTION

The aim of this investigation is to draw attention to the nature of the hospitality industry, to compare this with the pattern of hospitality education in the United Kingdom, to examine the historical qualification structure, present developments and to suggest possible future action. The hospitality industry for which education is provided embraces activities concerned with the provision of accommodation, food, beverages and hospitality services. In most colleges in the U.K., there is an over-emphasis on food and beverages qualification as opposed to accommodation operations. This is partly because of a lack of hotel facilities in colleges such as a suite of bedrooms (The other reasons for these differences will be explored in this chapter). A closer examination of turnover for the hospitality industry indicates that turnover in the accommodation industry is ten percent higher than food and beverage operations, suggesting that the under-emphasis on the teaching of accommodation operations in the colleges could be a problem. The following breakdown as highlighted in Figure 4.1

Figure 4.1: Hospitality and Tourism Turnover for the Year 2002



Source: British Hospitality Association: Trends and Statistics 2002

It needs to be stressed that food and beverage operations are very labour intensive and demand highly complex technical skills. In addition, with the advent of the NVQ system which requires facilities for a Realistic Work Environment, Further Education Colleges have found it difficult to provide resources for the assessment of accommodation operations qualifications such as Front Office and Housekeeping qualifications. Hence, the number of students taking these qualifications is low, as trainees need to be on work based training programmes. However, this problem does not exist with Food Preparation and Food and Beverage Service qualifications as most colleges already have provision for Restaurants and Bar Facilities as a Realistic Working Environment.

Hospitality education can provide, within the structure of the national education system, a wide range of courses designed to satisfy the needs of the student, although the balance of provision may not be ideal. All of these courses include a balance of technical related and contrasting studies, which ensures that the student receives an education which prepares him/her well for occupations in one or more of the many sectors to meet the changing human resource needs of the industry.

The qualification structure within the Hospitality and Catering Industry could be analysed at three different levels:

1. Occupational Qualifications which are highly skill based and essential for operatives in the industry.
2. Supervisory Vocational Qualifications which are necessary for supervisors or line managers at middle management level
3. Professional Management Qualifications which are vital for managers aspiring to senior management positions in industry.

However, this research study will limit the analysis to qualifications delivered in Further Education Colleges because the main interest of this exercise is to consider how an adequate supply of skilled workforce at operative level can be ensured. Thus, excluding management qualifications at level 4 and above which are traditionally delivered in the universities or higher education institutions.

OCCUPATIONAL QUALIFICATIONS

City and Guilds of London Institute

The City and Guilds of London Institute pioneered the curriculum development and qualifications for the hotel, restaurant and catering industry at the craft level. City and Guilds of London Institute 150 "*General Catering Course*" was the very first cookery qualification established in 1943. In the first instance, the basic qualifications offered by City and Guilds were only for the chefs' profession. These qualifications codes were altered over the years without much change in the curriculum content.

In September 1974, the City and Guilds of London Institute 720 "*Kitchen Supervision and Organisation*" became part of the National Examinations Board in Supervisory Studies (NEBSS) titled "*Supervision for the Catering Industry*".

Traditionally, Food and Beverage Service qualifications have been awarded by the Hotel and Catering Institute namely "*Intermediate Waiting Certificate*" and "*Advanced Waiting Certificate*". In September 1969, the City and Guilds of London Institute launched brand new Food and Beverage Service qualifications which were altered to 700 series in September 1972. In September 1970, "*Housekeeping and Hotel Uniformed Staff*" were brand new qualifications launched by the City and Guilds of London Institute. At the same time the City and Guilds of London Institute also introduced the "*Hotel Reception Certificate*" programme which was previously awarded by the Hotel and Catering Institute. These qualifications were altered to the 700 series in September 1972. The summary of changes in the above qualifications code is summarized in Figure 4.2.

Figure 4.2: Hospitality and Catering Occupational Qualifications

Course	Title	Initial Code	September 1969	September 1970	September 1972
Food Preparation and Cooking	General Catering Course	150	441		705
	Basic Cookery for the Catering Industry	147	147		706/1
	Cookery for the Catering Industry	151	151		706/2
	Advanced Cookery for the Catering Industry - Kitchen - Larder - Pastry	152	469		706/3 706/4 706/5
	Kitchen Supervision and Organisation		353		720
Food Service	Food Service Certificate		452		707/1
	Advanced Serving Techniques		454		707/2
	Alcoholic Beverages Certificate		453		707/3
House Keeping	House Keeping Certificate			481	708
Front Office & Reception	Hotel Reception Certificate			460	709
Uniformed Staff	Hotel Uniformed Staff Certificate (Part 1 & Part 2)			480	710

Source: City and Guilds of London Institute, Course Syllabus (1969 – 1972)

All these craft qualifications were solely offered by the City and Guilds of London Institute until the session 1991/1992 thus surviving for almost 40 years. Prior to 1972, these qualifications were only awarded after the successful completion of written examination papers and practical tests.

When the City and Guilds of London Institute altered the code numbers of qualifications in September 1972 many new qualifications were added to the list. At this point, written examinations were retained but the practical tests were supplemented with continuous assessment. This continued until 1992 when NVQs were introduced, the whole philosophy of examinations changed and was substituted by continuous assessment which encompassed the testing of technical skills and underpinning knowledge as an on-going process of learning.

The introduction of National Vocational Qualifications in the hospitality and catering sector began fairly early during the session 1989/1990 within certain subject areas such as Food Preparation and Cooking and Serving of Food and Drink, but from 1992/1993 NVQs entirely replaced all other craft qualifications such as Housekeeping, Hotel Reception & Bakery and Confectionery Courses.

National Vocational Qualifications - Why were they invented?

In 1981 the Manpower Services Commission (a predecessor to the Department for Education and Employment) made its first statement about competence-based standards and qualifications, published as "A New Training Initiative". Two of the main themes of that document were about occupational standards and young people. From that point, the U.K. started to develop occupational standards within each industry, with each industry taking responsibility for itself.

Also in the early 1980s, unemployment amongst young people was becoming a serious issue. The existing programme for youth training, funded by the Government, had been expanded but still could only offer uncertificated training which left employers unsure of what these potential employees could actually do, and the trainees often unable to convince employers about the depth, range and quality of what they had learned.

In 1985 the Government published the White Paper "Education and Training for Young People" announcing a Working Group to review vocational qualifications in England and Wales.

In April 1986, the Review of Vocational Qualifications in England and Wales (RVQ) Working Group chaired by Oscar de Ville submitted its findings to the Government recommending the introduction of NVQs to address weaknesses in the then current systems of vocational qualifications. Amongst the weaknesses it identified were:

- *no clear, readily understandable pattern of, and considerable overlap, duplication and gaps in, vocational qualifications provision;*
- *many barriers to access to vocational qualifications and inadequate arrangements for progression and transfer of credit;*
- *assessment methods biased towards testing of knowledge rather than skill or competence;*
- *insufficient recognition of learning gained outside formal education and training;*
- *limited take-up of vocational qualifications.*

The conclusion reached by the RVQ working group was that a clear, coherent and comprehensive system of vocational qualifications should be developed that were directly relevant to the needs of employment and the individual. These National Vocational Qualifications (NVQs) should be *"a statement of competence clearly relevant to work and intended to facilitate entry into, or progression in, employment, further education and training...incorporating the assessment of:*

skills to specified standards;

relevant knowledge and understanding;

the ability to use skills and to apply knowledge and understanding to relevant tasks."

How were they developed?

In 1986, following the publication of the White Paper "Working Together: Education and Training", the National Council for Vocational Qualifications (NCVQ) was set up. The Council developed a framework of NVQs that consisted of five levels and eleven occupational areas. The Government funded the Industry Training Organisations to develop the occupational standards on which NVQs are based with awarding bodies developing the assessment and quality assurance arrangements to criteria set by NCVQ. The May 1994 White Paper "Competitiveness: Helping Business to Win" quoted the CBI as finding that a majority of employers were either using or expected to benefit from NVQs and that 40,000 managers were undertaking NVQs as evidence of lifetime learning. The content and structure of all NVQs and SVQs would be reviewed by April 1996. Gordon Beaumont subsequently undertook this review.

The Beaumont Review

The Beaumont Review in April 1996 found widespread support for the concept of NVQs amongst employer with over 80% considering competence-based standards right for vocational qualifications.

The review report identified the following areas where there was room for further development:

- *the language used in national occupation standards was difficult and further compounded by the form and structure in which they were written*
- *clarity and detail in the specifications of knowledge and understanding*
- *assessment, particularly where college-based and training providers offered government-funded training schemes that were inappropriate. In considering external assessment, the Beaumont Review found that the key feature of externality was the independence of the assessor from the candidate.*

(Beaumont, 1996)

There were concerns about how external assessment might affect access to the qualifications, definitions of the roles, service and performance levels of those involved in delivering NVQs. Tensions between the DfEE responsibility for funding standards development and NCVQs/SCOTVEC's responsibility for accrediting qualifications had led to some narrow and overlapping qualifications.

The Dearing Review of qualifications for 16- to 19-year olds

The Dearing review in March 1996 recommended that NVQ designers consider what key skills requirements were appropriate for their NVQs.

Developments since 1996

After the Beaumont and Dearing reviews, there were a number of changes that are impacting on current NVQ development:

- *NCVQ produced a revised version of the awarding bodies' Common Accord which required a customer service statement. This was taken forward in the regulatory authorities' common code of practice*
- *responsibility for the national occupational standards programme was devolved to the regulatory authorities in April 1998*
- *standards-setting bodies are encouraged to write standards in plain language and were given more freedom in terms of format and presentation. They were also encouraged to adopt a more flexible approach to the structure of an NVQ by having mandatory and core units*
- *standards-setting bodies are required to develop assessment strategies for NVQs, recommending the external quality control of assessment, defining which national occupational standards must be assessed in the workplace, the extent and characteristics of permitted simulation, and the occupational expertise requirements for assessors and verifiers*
- *standards-setting bodies are required to sign-post key skills to national occupational standards.*

(Dearing, 1996)

The National Qualifications Framework developed by Qualifications Curriculum Authority, particularly the introduction of regulated vocationally-related qualifications, should help to take forward the 1986 aim for a coherent and comprehensive system of vocational qualifications.

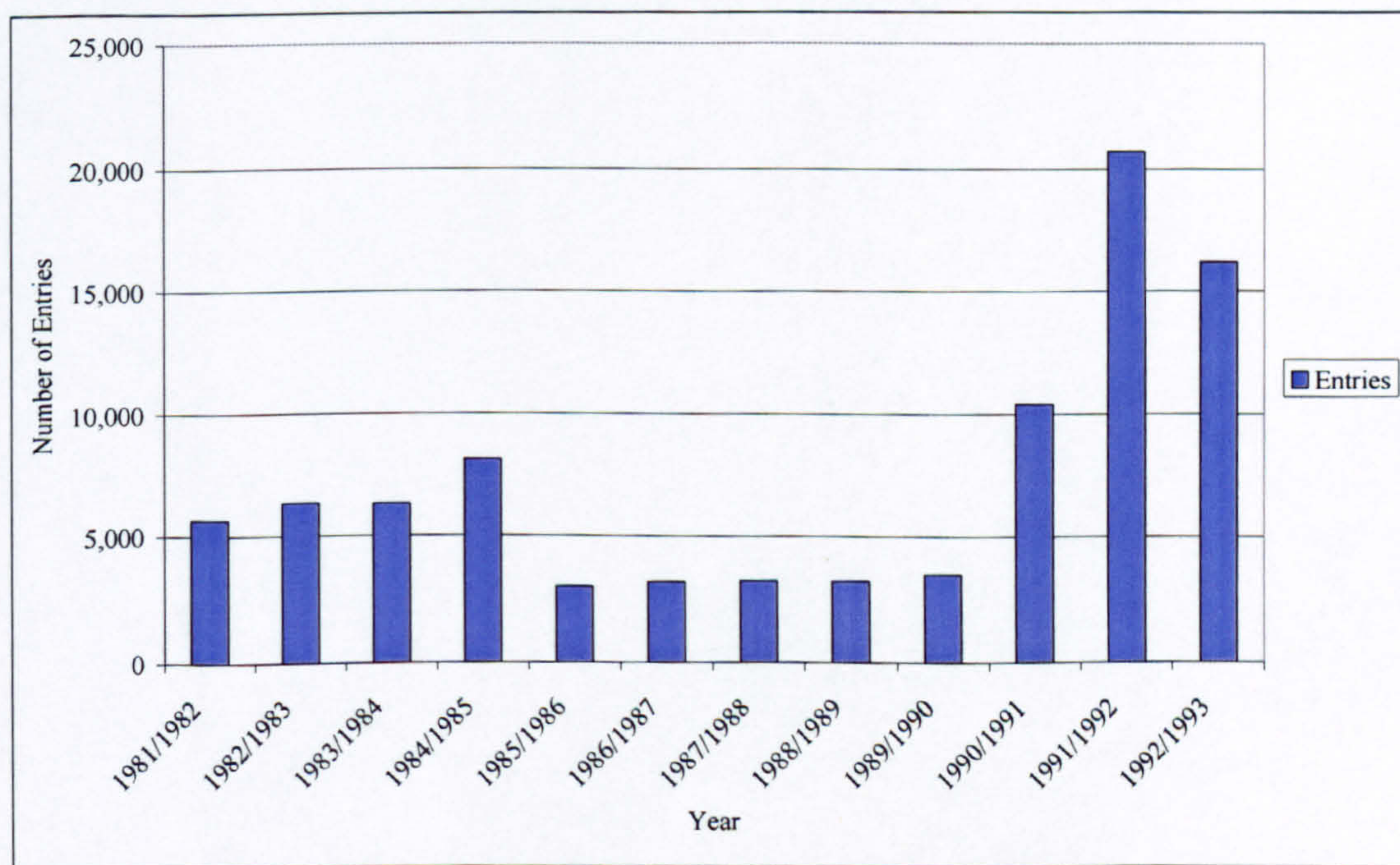
Hospitality and Catering in the School Curriculum

It would be useful to analyse the curriculum development in the school system related to hospitality and catering subjects amongst the fourteen to sixteen age group of pupils. The curriculum for these subjects delivered in schools was developed by City and Guilds of London Institute from the Session 1968 to 1993. This analysis may give some reasons for the degree of motivation amongst young pupils to pursue a career in the hospitality and catering industry.

The curriculum related to Domestic Subjects, Food Technology and Catering was popular in schools during the late 1960's and early 1970's, although numbers were three to four times higher in Food Technology than Domestic Subjects in schools. There were changes in the offer of Domestic Subjects as in 1972/1973 the title of the course was changed to Home Economics and Creative Studies. Unfortunately, the number of pupils studying this subject declined by almost half of the numbers in 1980/1981 as compared to the numbers in 1968/1969.

In 1981/1982 a further attempt was made to re-name the course as Creative Studies and Home Economics. Thus, by giving precedence to creative studies as opposed to home economics in the title of the course, there was a significant improvement as the number of students almost doubled in 1984/1985. The reason for the increase in number could not be conclusively assigned to this factor as there could be many other reasons. Unfortunately, the numbers declined during the period 1985/1990 but they escalated again which lasted for three years until 1992/1993. These trends are highlighted in the Figure 4.3 and the statistics are in Appendix D.1.

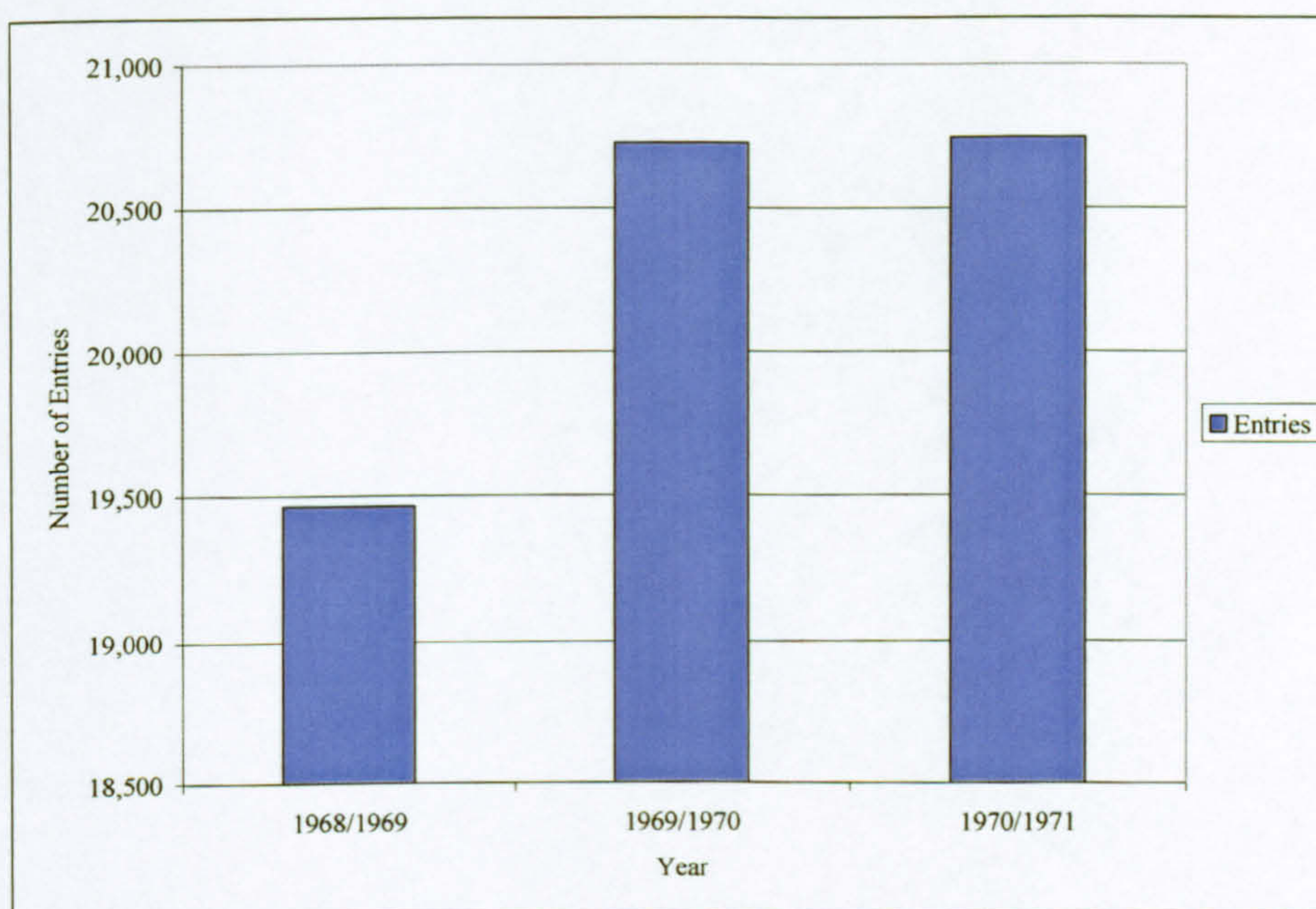
Figure 4.3: Number of Entries Domestic Subjects



Source: City and Guilds of London Institute, Examination Statistics (1982 – 1993)

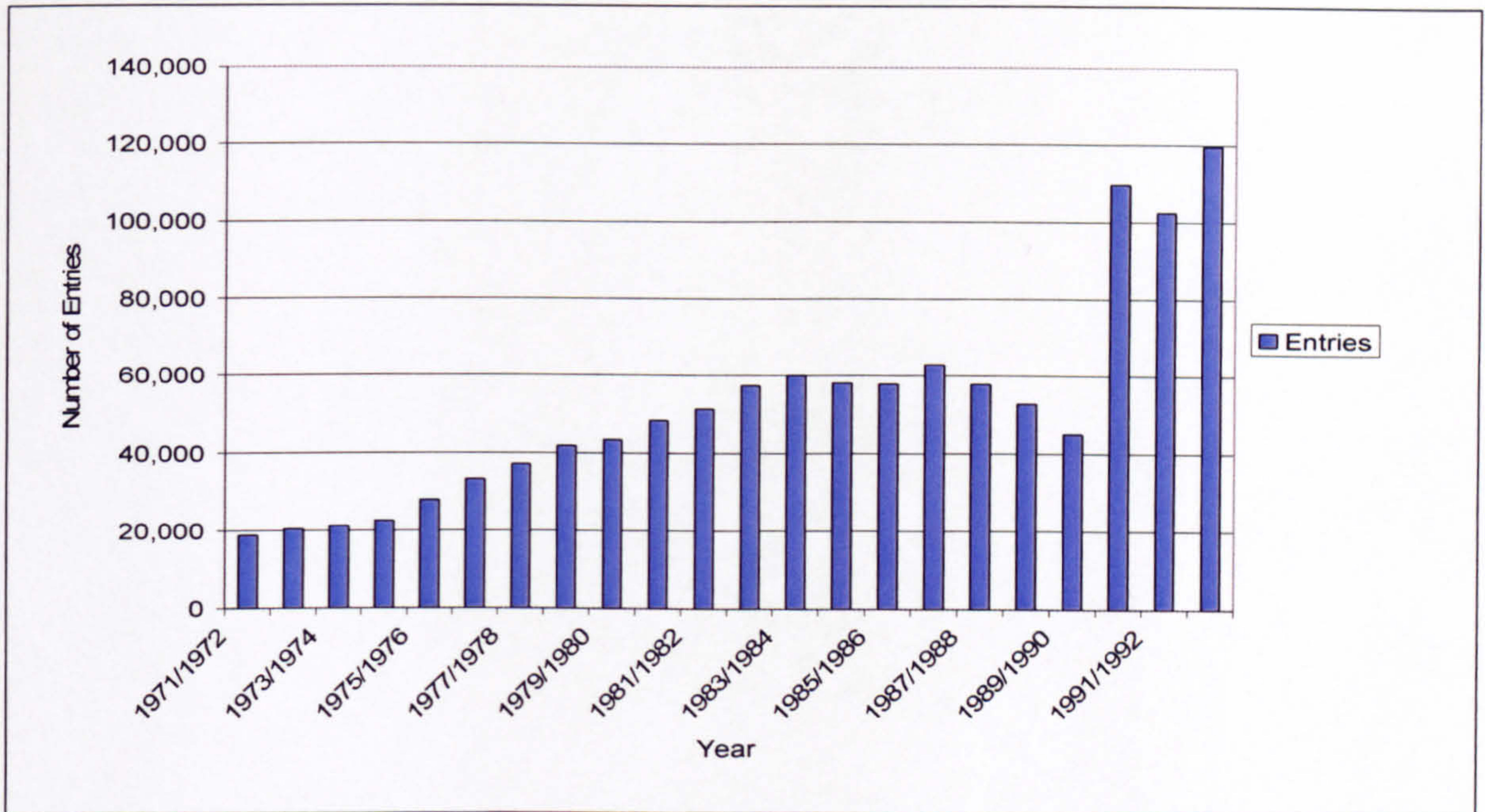
In schools, there was also the Food Technology and Catering curriculum on offer but in 1971/1972 it was divided into the two branches of Hospitality and Catering and Food and Drink. The number of pupils joining the Food and Drink Option was between 10% -15% of Hospitality and Catering, which took the major share. The food and drink option reached its peak in 1989/1990 and came to an end. The hospitality and catering option continued until 1992/1993 when numbers were startlingly high at 119,526. These trends in the delivery of the Food Technology and Catering curriculum in schools are displayed in the Figure 4.4, 4.5 and 4.6. The statistics are in Appendix D.2.

Figure 4.4: Number of Entries Food Technology and Catering



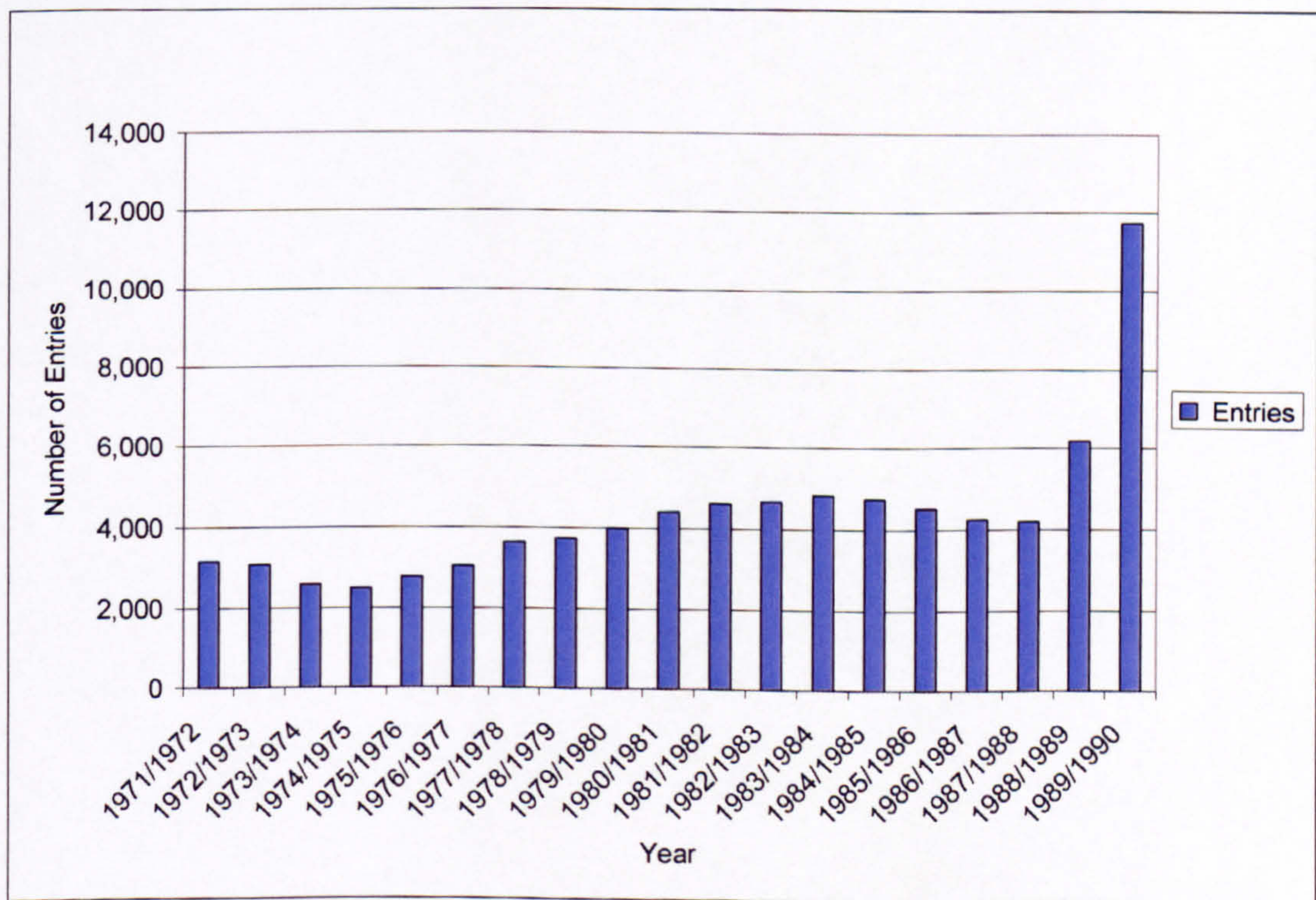
Source: City and Guilds of London Institute, Examination Statistics (1968 – 1971)

Figure 4.5: Number of Entries Hospitality and Catering



Source: City and Guilds of London Institute, Examination Statistics (1971 – 1993)

Figure 4.6: Number of Entries Food and Drink



Source: City and Guilds of London Institute, Examination Statistics (1972 – 1990)

At this juncture, General National Vocational Qualifications were piloted in Hospitality and Catering at Foundation, Intermediate and Advanced Level which offered an alternative route to vocational courses in lieu of academic subjects for pupils studying for GCE. There were 14 different vocational choices available to school pupils. Regrettably, amongst the vocational areas on offer, hospitality and catering and leisure and tourism competed for students with similar interests.

The statistics gathered for GNVQ courses at Foundation and Intermediate level relating to these two vocational areas has indicated very strongly that only 449 students chose hospitality and catering, and 3447 selected leisure and tourism courses during the session 2000/2001, which in total only represented 3.3% of the total numbers for hospitality and catering, in 1992/1993. It is interesting to note that only 239 students certified in hospitality and catering as compared to 2062 in leisure and tourism at GNVQ Foundation and Intermediate level during the session 2000/2001, which is 11.6%. This is in complete contrast to the statistics discussed earlier, which reflected 90% of students choosing an option for Hospitality and Catering and 10% opting for Food and Drink.

This statistical analysis is very significant in identifying the reasons for the decline in hospitality and catering numbers. Firstly, there is a greater breadth of vocational choices available to school pupils at 14-16 years now; these include 14 different vocational routes to select from for GNVQ programme. Secondly, the competition of choice between the two very similar vocational routes, but with entirely different curriculum content, culture and philosophy in the delivery of curriculum; that is, hospitality and catering and travel and tourism. The former is heavily biased towards technical skills, whereas the latter is taught as academic subjects. Finally, the philosophy of GNVQ curriculum in hospitality and catering is that the students need only appreciate the practical skills inherent in the hospitality business rather than being proficient in practising these skills. At the outset GNVQs were designed to provide a route either to higher education or to employment and further vocational training. Alan Smithers (1993) has always believed that the latter has been neglected. He is sceptical of the dual aims and argues that the training of technicians is not being well served by GNVQs.

Early in 1994 NCVQ showed some concern about the higher education route becoming too dominant, and John Hillier claimed that unlike "A" Levels, GNVQs "were primarily for entry into employment" (THES, 1994). BTEC has shown that 70% of its GNVQ students are staying in full-time education and 25% take up employment. It has been shown beyond doubt that students see GNVQs primarily as an educational route providing progression to

higher education. Hyland, 1994 (FEU, Institute of Education and Nuffield Foundation, 1994) has argued that GNVQs have become more and more distant from their older cousins, NVQs. There was also a broad consensus that GNVQ will not be able to provide a bridge between “the academic and vocational training tracks”.

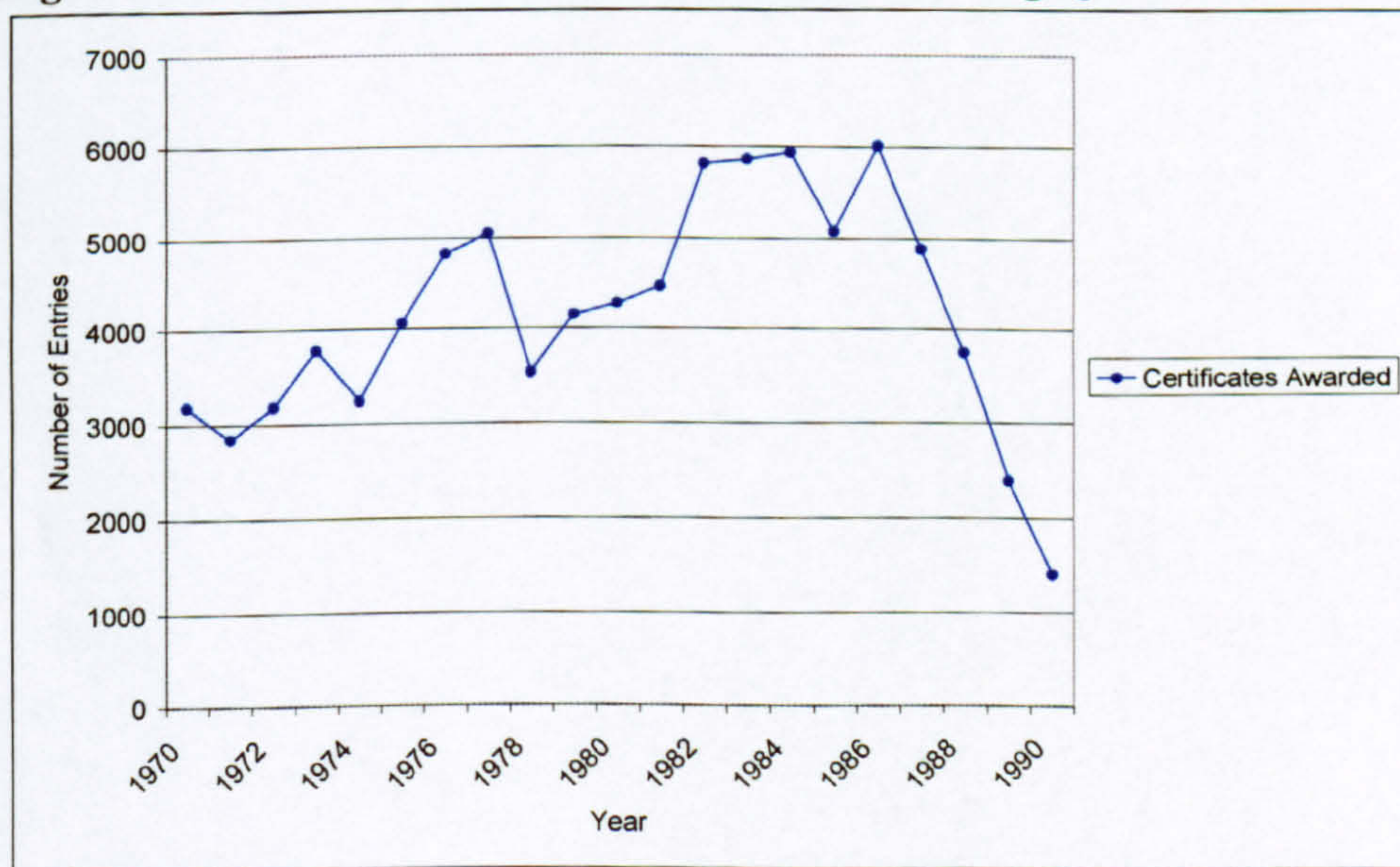
General Catering Certificates

The “*General Catering Course*” was the very first initiative taken by the Catering Trades Education Committee which was formed in 1943. This course was titled as City and Guilds of London Institute 150. It was designed as an Introductory or General Catering Course for young people to have an appreciation of the various skills involved in the catering trade such as Food Preparation and Serving of Food and Drink.

In September 1969, the course was updated and re-titled as the City and Guilds of London Institute 441; the main emphasis on this course being a diagnostic or taster course which only lasted for three years. The impact of this course was great, as the number of entrants doubled during this period.

The basic philosophy of this course continued and transformed into an Induction Course and was titled as the City and Guilds of London Institute 705. The curriculum was further broadened and enriched by the inclusion of Housekeeping and Reception aspects.

Figure 4.7: Number of Successes in General Catering Qualifications



Source: City and Guilds of London Institute, Examination Statistics (1970 – 1992).

This course proved very popular as the numbers increased by approximately 88.9% in 1985/1986 to 6,011 as compared to 1971/1972 when the numbers were only 3,183. The trends in number are displayed in Figure 4.7 and statistics are in Appendix D.3. Unfortunately, with the advent of NVQs in 1989/1990 this course began to lose its popularity and the numbers fell to 369 in 1991/1992 which was 11.6% of the numbers in 1971/1972. Eventually, this course was stopped as the curriculum content did not meet the NVQ Course requirements for the specific vocational area and it was considered to be of very general content. This decision to stop the diagnostic course was to leave a serious gap in the curriculum.

However, the Hospitality Awarding Body is in the process of developing a similar course for new entrants to the Hospitality Industry, which will be categorised as a Vocationally Related Qualification instead of a National Vocational Qualification. There is also an initiative by the Ed Excel Awarding Body to develop a First Diploma in Hospitality Operations to be introduced in September 2005. This is to meet the growing needs of young pupils who wish to follow a general course prior to choosing the specific route to join the Hospitality and Catering Industry.

Chefs Certificates

For the past 33 years an attempt has been made to review and compare the total number of students successfully completing chefs' courses at various levels. It is not easy to compare the past cookery qualifications with NVQ levels as the new NVQ qualifications are not quite the equivalent as far as the depth of knowledge is concerned. However, the new NVQs have been designed to replace the old qualifications.

Level 1 – The qualification at Level 1 has altered from CGL1 147 to CGLI 706/1 and then to CGLI 706 Part 1 prior to the introduction of NVQs. The student numbers have been increasing progressively from 1970 until 1992. However, the student numbers achieving this qualification have fallen to 4,740 in 2001/2002 whilst the peak was 14,232 in 1986/1987. The number of qualified chefs at this level has fallen to almost one third of the peak numbers. The introduction of NVQs in 1992/1993 could be the reason for the drastic reduction in student numbers.

Level 2 – The qualification at Level 2 has altered from CGLI 151 to CGLI 706/2 and then to CGLI 706 Part 2 prior to the introduction of NVQs. The student numbers have been on the increase from 1970 until 1992, but the student numbers achieving this qualification

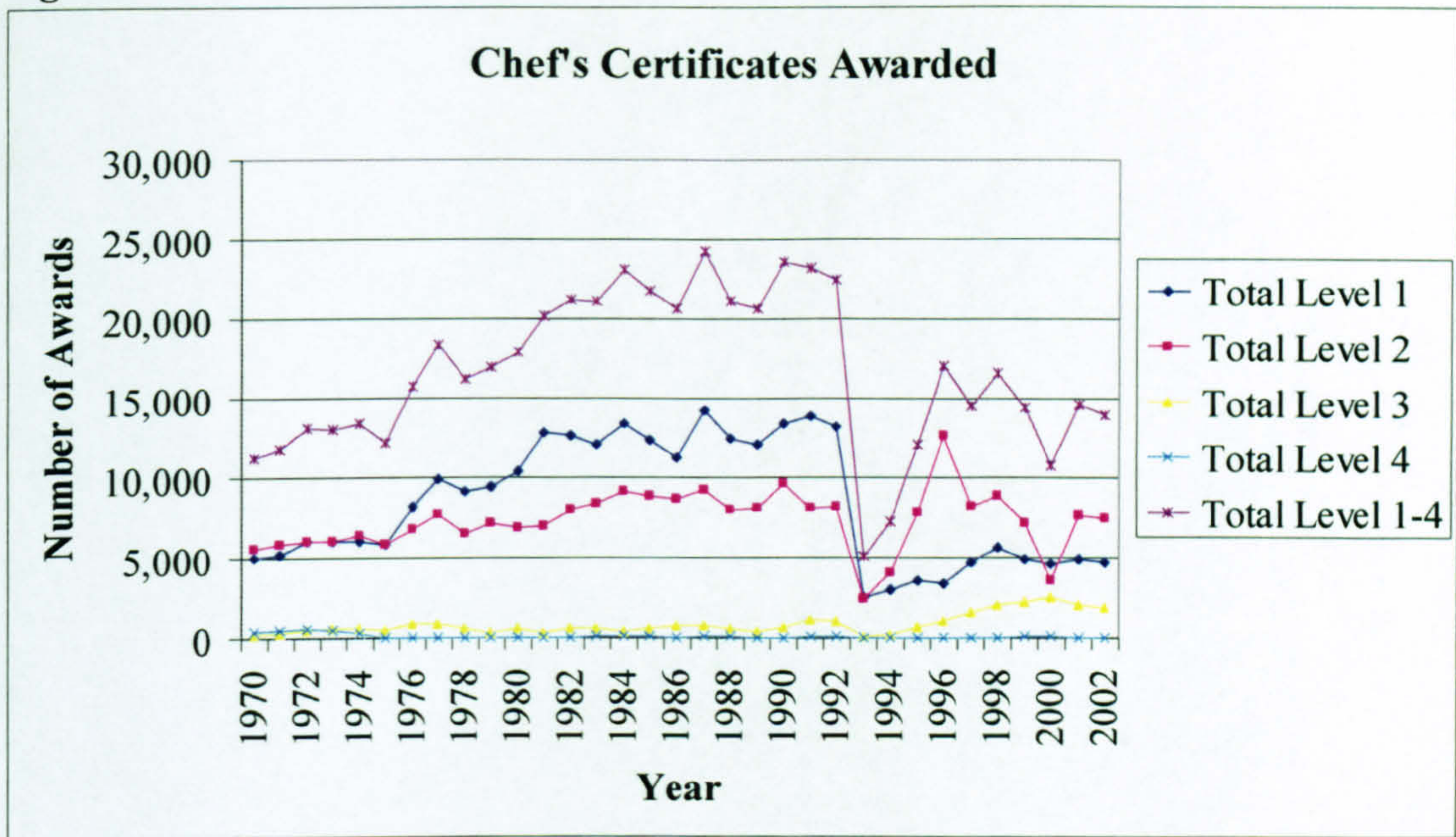
peaked in 1995/1996 to 12,602 and numbers have fallen in 2001/2002 to 7,415. The introduction of NVQs in 1992/1993 could be the factor for the fluctuation in the number of qualified chefs at this level.

Level 3 – The qualification at level 3 has altered from CGLI 152 to CGLI 469 and then to CGLI706/3 with the offer of specialisation in Kitchen, Larder and Pastry. Prior to the introduction of NVQs the student numbers have been steadily increasing from 1970 until 1992. This is the highest level of craft qualification available for the chefs' profession and the number of students successfully completing this qualification soared in 1999/2000 to 2,508 with a gradual drop in 2001/2002 to 1,853 which is almost one third. Overall, the number of chefs qualified at this level has increased since 1970, but the worst fall in student numbers to 86 during 1992/1993 could be due to the introduction of NVQs.

Level 4 – There are controversial views on this qualification as employers would like to see Level 4 as a Master Craftsman qualification, but curriculum developers view level 4 as a generic management qualification instead of technical skills development at a high level. Unfortunately, these statistics do not demonstrate any confidence in meeting the human resource needs of the industry. It appears that thirty years ago the student numbers were buoyant as this course was primarily aimed for Executive Chefs. In fact, the numbers have been falling intermittently over the years especially since 1993. The introduction of NVQs in 1992/1993 could be the factor for the drastic fall in student numbers.

It would be useful to look at the total number of chefs certificates awarded each year by accumulating all levels. In 2001/2002, 14,007 chefs certificates were awarded. These were almost half the numbers qualified in 1986/1987 when there was a peak of 24,243 chefs successfully achieving qualifications from further education colleges. The real drop in numbers occurred in 1992/1993 at the time of introduction of NVQs. Since then the supply of qualified people has been progressively increasing, but not sufficiently to meet the needs of the hospitality and catering industry which will be argued later. The above trends are highlighted in the Figure 4.8 and the statistics are in Appendix D.4. The data for this graph is drawn from a range of sources.

Figure 4.8: Examination Statistics Chefs Certificates Awarded



Sources: City and Guilds of London Institute, Examination Statistics (1970 – 1992).
 National Council of Vocational Qualifications, Registration and Attainment Statistics (1990 – 1995).
 Qualifications Curriculum Authority, NVQ Statistics (1996 – 2002).

This situation is extremely serious and requires an urgent review of vocational education policies as there are insufficient people being trained for this profession. It is not surprising that the hospitality industry is constantly reporting in the press about the skill shortages in chefs' profession. The introduction of the NVQ philosophy in the training of chefs has certainly not been a successful story of new curriculum development. There are other obvious issues such as the complexity of skills requirement in the hospitality and catering industry not being appropriately addressed. There is a subject specialisation at far too early a stage, thus lacking breadth and depth of knowledge and skills. In addition, the hospitality and catering industry has expanded, with the turnover reaching £76 billion employing 1.6 million people, which is expected to further increase the turnover by 2010 to £100 billion with the creation of 500,000 additional jobs. The industry produces £12 billion in foreign exchange and provides £12 billion in direct taxation receipts to the government: (BHA, 2004). This expansion in business desperately needs skilled staff to meet consumers demand.

Food and Drink Manufacturing Operations Certificates

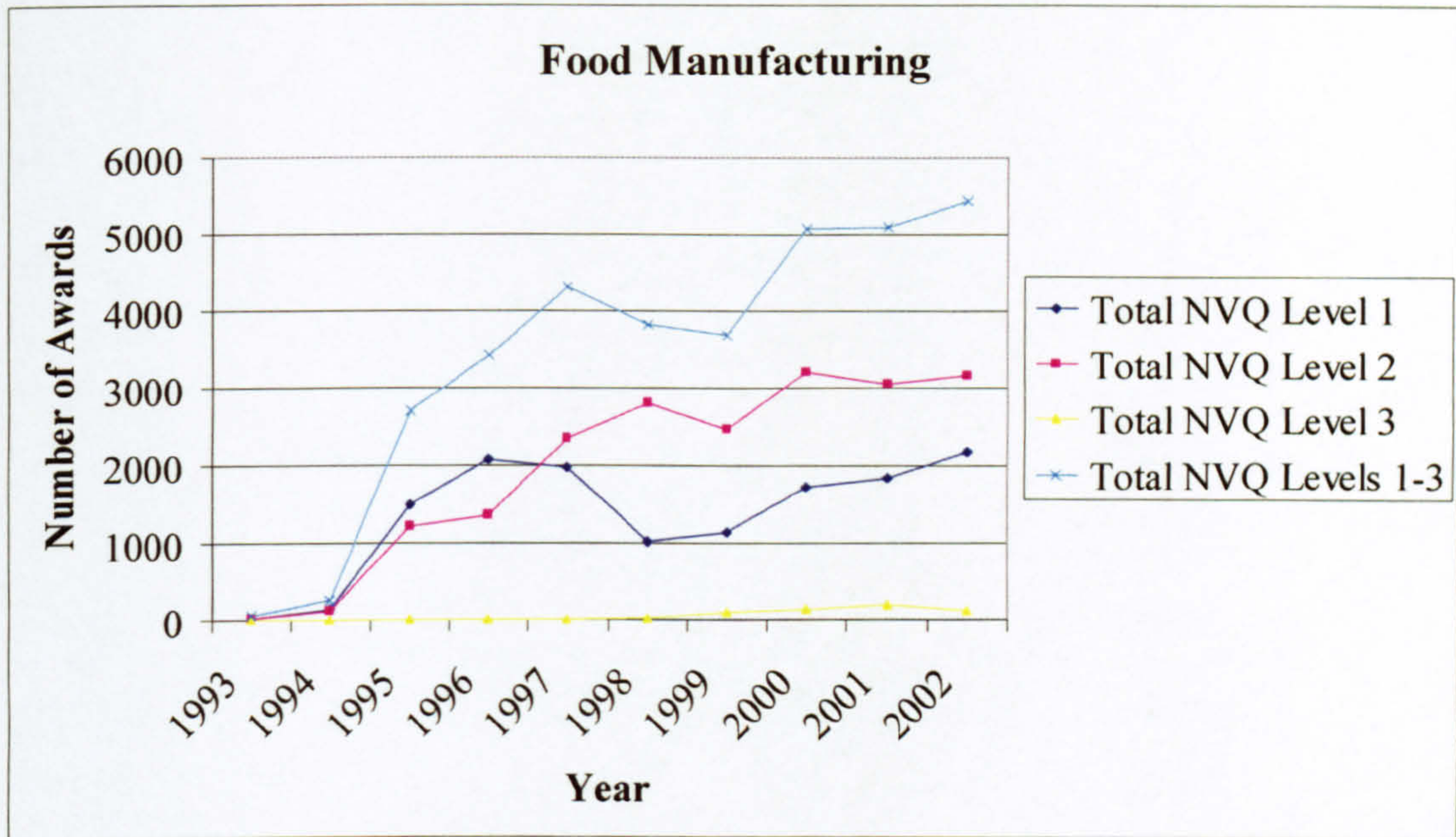
A new curriculum initiative was launched in 1992 since the conception of NVQs. It signified a new trend in the food industry emphasizing the application of science and technology in the food preparation areas. This could be a move away from culinary arts to culinary science. There is certainly a change in life style living, where super food retail stores such as Tesco, Sainsbury's, Asda and Marks & Spencer were responding by providing a wide range of ready prepared meals. In addition, the hospitality industry had adopted extensive use of convenience part prepared food in its catering operations.

Level 1 and 2 – The qualification at levels 1 and 2 had been very popular as the number of students successfully completing had increased over the ten year period with the exception of a slight decline in numbers during the period 1997 to 1999. This was because of an initiative to offer specialization in Distilling and Laboratory Operations at Levels 1 and 2. Unfortunately the uptake was not significant, so it was decided to discontinue these options.

Level 3 – The qualification at Level 3 was introduced in 1996 at the time of the establishment of the Qualifications Curriculum Authority. The number of successful candidates had increased over the period of six years but the total number of certificates awarded each year had been fairly conservative.

It would be interesting to look at the cumulative total of certificates awarded each year for level 1, 2 and 3. There has been a significant increase in the number of candidates gaining qualification from 54 in 1992/1993 to 5,439 in 2001/2002 over the period of ten years. The above trends are highlighted in Figure: 4.9 and the statistics are in Appendix D.5. These are positive outcomes of NVQs in the new concepts of food production which may partially account for the displacement of culinary skills from traditional kitchens to food laboratories and manufacturing units.

Figure 4.9: Examination Statistics Food and Drink Manufacturing Operations



Sources:

National Council of Vocational Qualifications, Registration and Attainment Statistics (1992 – 1995).
 Qualifications Curriculum Authority, National Vocational Qualification Statistics (1996 – 2002).

Bakery and Confectionery Certificates

The Bakery and Confectionery curriculum area is included in this research as the Hospitality Training Foundation, the National Training organization for Hospitality and Catering. Industry was responsible for the development of occupational standards at the introduction of NVQs. The other reason being that most Hospitality and Catering departments in Further Education Colleges have been delivering Bakery and Confectionery qualifications as part of the Catering Curriculum.

Level 1 - This qualification became extinct from 1990/1991 onwards as no NVQ Level 1 was being offered. During the period 1969-1990 a peak occurred in 1982/1983 with numbers reaching 1,424 but by 1989/1990 there were only 60 candidates successfully completing this qualification.

Level 2 – This qualification has been the most popular one as the numbers grew very healthy especially with the introduction of NVQs. The NVQs in Bakery and Confectionery

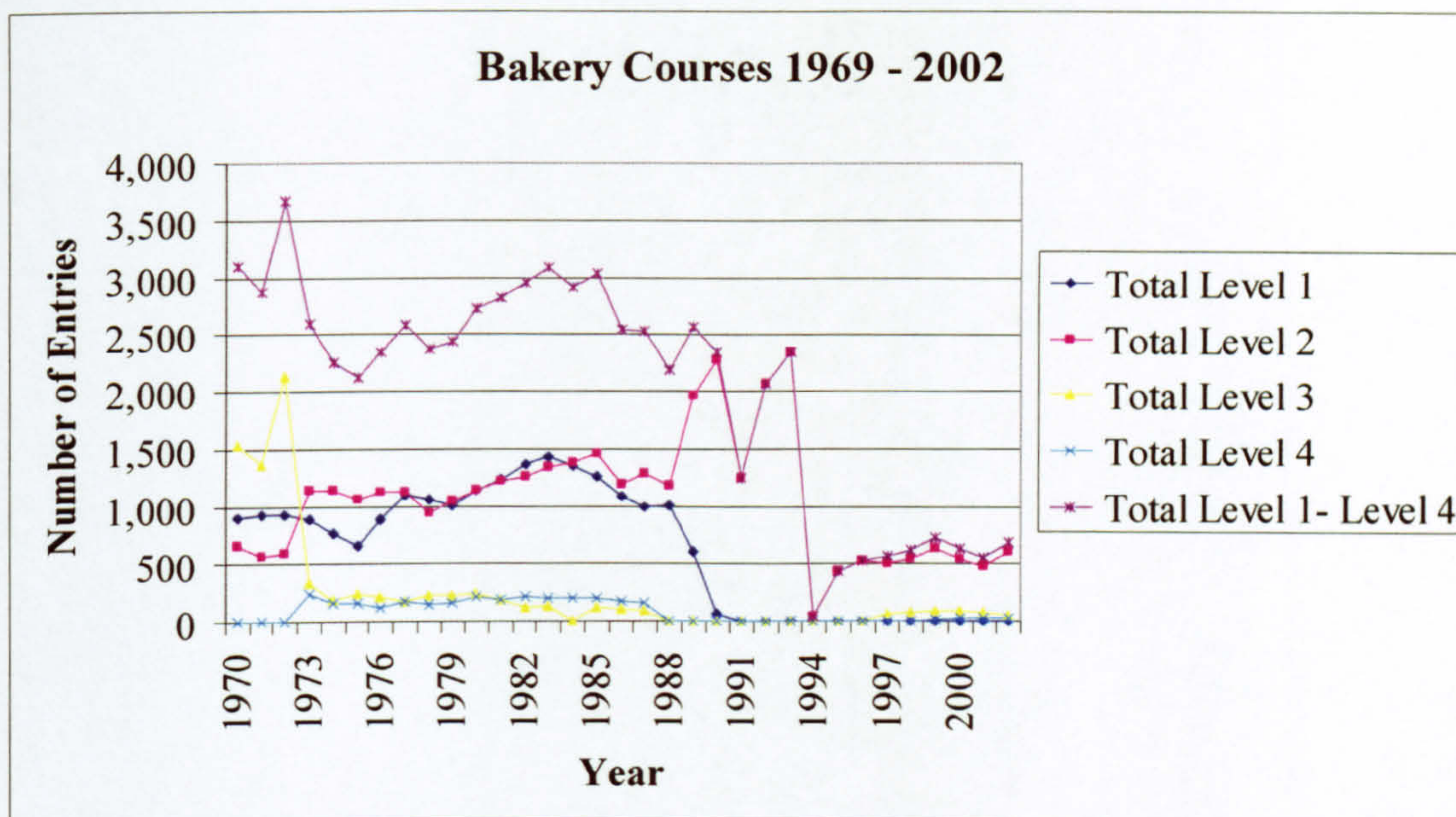
were the very first to be introduced in 1988/1989, achieving considerable success. The total numbers reached the peak of 2,348 in 1992/1993. Unfortunately, since then there have been too many changes in qualification title and the number of candidates achieving NVQs in 2001/2002 went down to 609 which represented 25.94% of the peak numbers in 1992/1993. The total number of certificates achieved gradually fell as shown in Figure 4.10.

Level 3 – There were large number of candidates between the periods 1969 to 1972 but since then the figures have declined. Unfortunately, a gap occurred between 1987 and 1996 as there was no qualification available at level 3. In 1996, NVQ Level 3 in Craft Bakery Technical Operations was introduced, but the take up of NVQ certificates has remained fairly small during the six year period.

Level 4 – The number of students qualifying each year has been low but remained fairly constant between 1972 and 1987 with a wide gap for eleven years till NVQs were introduced in 1998 but the numbers achieving certificates have been very small ranging between 18 and 30.

Overall, the total number of students successfully completing Bakery qualifications remained quite high and static until the introduction of NVQs. The numbers have fallen from the peak of 3665 in 1971/1972 to 686 in 2001/2002 which represents a decrease of 81.28%. This has meant the closure of the bakery section in many Further Education Colleges during the past ten years. In spite of this, NVQs in bakery are being offered as Foundation Modern Apprenticeships and Modern Apprenticeships. The situation has not improved as there has been a demise of too many Bakery and Confectionery businesses on high streets in towns and cities. This is due to the fact that supermarkets such as Asda, Tesco, Sainsbury's and Safeways have incorporated freshly baked and prepared Bakery and Confectionery products at reasonable prices. The overall trends of qualified bakers and confectioners are displayed in Figure 4.10 and statistics are in Appendix D.6.

Figure 4.10: Examination Statistics Bakery Certificates Awarded



Sources:

City and Guilds of London Institute, Examination Statistics (1970 –1992).

National Council of Vocational Qualifications, Registration and Attainment Statistics (1989 – 1995).

Qualifications Curriculum Authority, NVQ Statistics (1996 – 2002).

Food and Beverage Service Certificate

A review has been undertaken to compare the total number of students achieving Food and Beverage Service Certificates at various levels for the past 33 years.

Level 1 – The total number of students gaining this qualification in 2001/2002 has fallen to 3,242 from the peak years of 1984/1985 when numbers were 7,127. This is a drop of 54.51%. The low intake of this course came at the point of introduction of NVQs. The numbers did increase slowly for the next few years, but fell again as this qualification was far too elementary as compared to previous City and Guilds standards.

Level 2 Food Service Courses –There has been a steady increase in numbers, considering 248 candidates in 1969/1970 and reaching 7,080 certification in 2001/2002. In fact, the numbers were even higher in 1999/2000 amounting to 8,236. This is an excellent contribution to the hospitality industry, which needs well trained front of house staff.

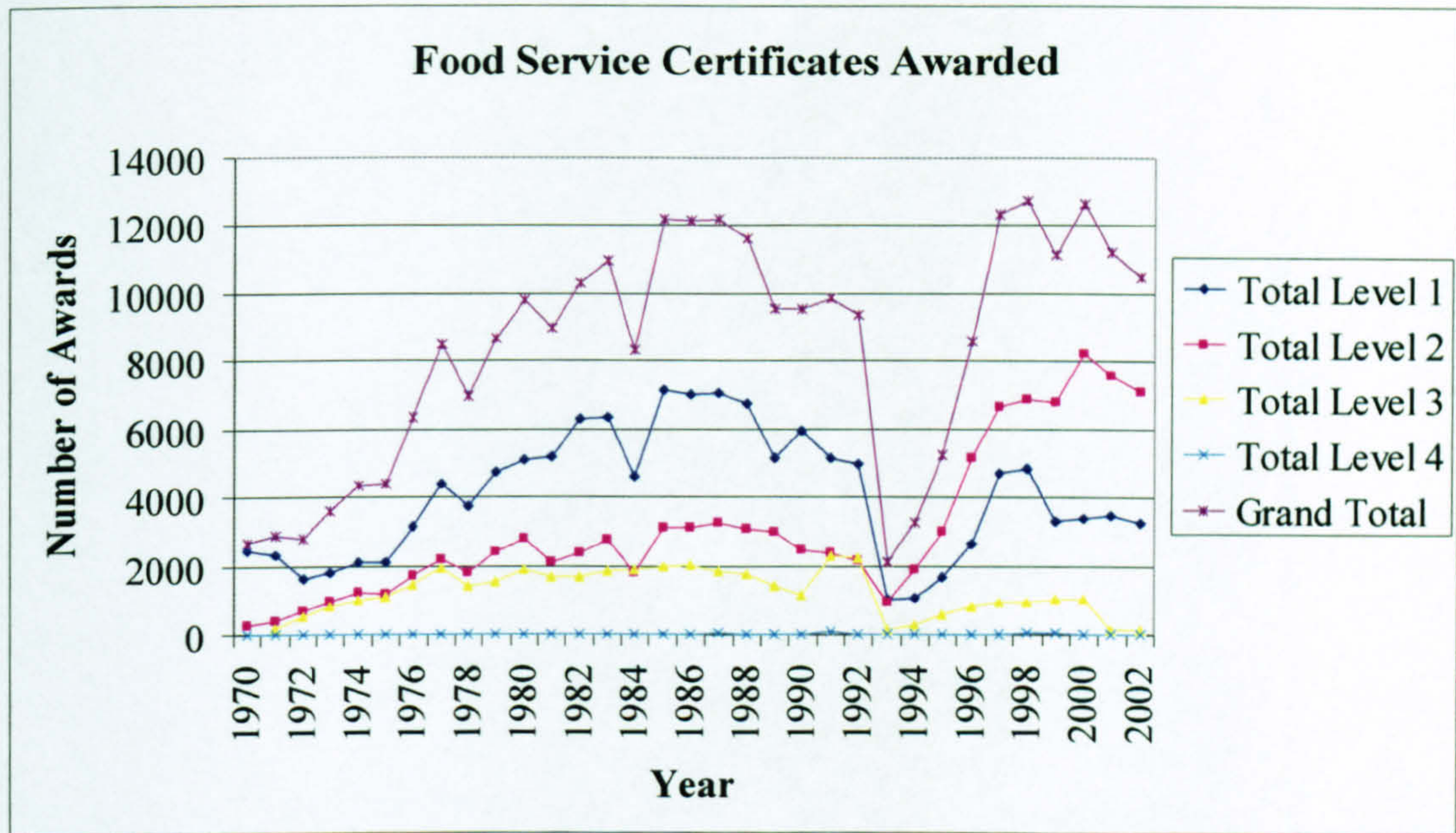
Level 2 Beverage Service Courses – There has been a steady increase in the number of students successfully completing this course considering 161 certificates were awarded in 1970/1971 which rose to 2,201 in 1991/1992. This curriculum area suddenly disappeared when NVQs in On Licensed Premises were introduced and replaced this course. In fact, some parts of the Beverage Service Curriculum are now covered by courses accredited by Wines and Spirits Education Trust and The British Institute of Innkeepers.

Level 3 – This is the highest craft qualification available in Food and Beverage Service which was introduced at the conception of NVQs in 1990/1991. The number of students soared in 1998/1999 to 1,012 but unfortunately, due to the lack of interest in Food and Beverage Service, the numbers declined to the lowest point in 2001/2002 to merely 154 which is a drop of 84.78%. This proved a disaster for the industry as its inability to provide first class customer service in the fine dining restaurants. The introduction of British Institute of Innkeepers Licensed House courses also had some impact on the decline of NVQ Level 3 On Licensed Premises Course as well.

Level 4 – This qualification was popular in 1990/1991 with 89 candidates but at the introduction of NVQs the demand for this course dropped to very low numbers in 2000/2001. This qualification did take various titles but competition from the Higher National Certificate course totally declined the market for this qualification.

It would be useful to overview the total statistics in food and beverage service qualifications by amalgamating all levels. The total number of qualified food and beverage service operators was 10,476 in 2001/2002 as compared to 2,704 in 1969/1970 which is almost four times more, thus making a positive impact of new qualifications. In analysing the statistics further, the total number of qualified students went as high as 12,704 in 1997/1998, but there was a serious dip in 1992/1993 when numbers fell as low as 2,119. This is the year when NVQs were introduced in the Food and Beverage Service Curriculum. The above trends are highlighted in Figure 4.11 and the statistics are in Appendix D.7.

Figure 4.11: Examination Statistics Food Service Courses



Sources:

City and Guilds of London Institute, Examination Statistics (1970 – 1992).

National Council of Vocational Qualifications, Registration and Attainment Statistics (1990 – 1995).

Qualifications Curriculum Authority, NVQ Statistics (1996 – 2002).

Reception Certificates

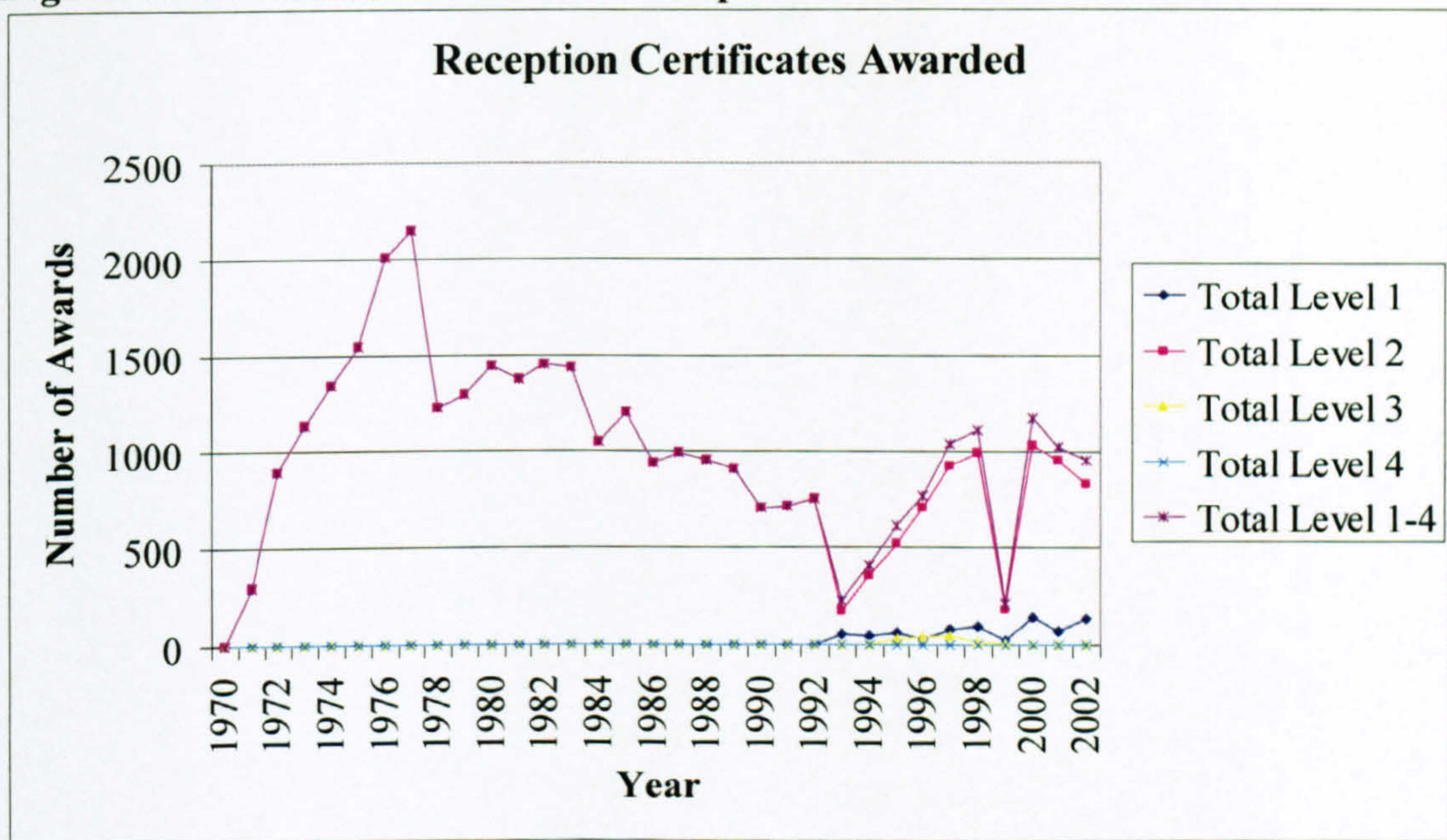
Level 1 -There has been no qualification at this level prior to the introduction of NVQs in 1992. At first, NVQ level 1 was introduced in Reception and Porterage which survived for only four years. This course was later split into Reception and Porter Service as two discrete qualifications. Unfortunately, NVQ level 1 in Porter Service did not last very long but the numbers on the Reception course did rise but were still on the low side.

Level 2 – This has been the main qualification prior to the introduction of NVQ. The peak number of candidates was in 1976/1977 when the figures reached 2,151. Unfortunately, since then, numbers have been declining and even with the introduction of NVQs the total number of candidates certifying has not increased. In 2001/2002 there were only 828 candidates successfully completing this qualification.

Level 3 – This qualification was introduced at the commencement of NVQs but it has not been a popular qualification as the number of candidates enrolled each year was not sufficient to justify continuance. The qualification was discontinued in 1999/2000.

Level 4 – This qualification only came into existence with the introduction of NVQs in 1990 but it has struggled to recruit. The main reason being the low numbers on the feeder course at NVQ Level 3. In addition, this course also suffered from direct competition with the Higher National Certificate, which is much broader qualification.

Figure 4.12: Examination Statistics Reception Certificates Awarded



Sources: City and Guilds of London Institute, Examination Statistics (1970 – 1992).
 National Council of Vocational Qualification, Registration and Attainment Statistics (1990-1995).
 Qualifications Curriculum Authority, NVQ Statistics (1996 – 2002)

The overall trend of this qualification is far from satisfactory as there is a decrease of 50% in successful candidates in 2001/2002 compared to 1976/1977. The above trends are indicated in Figure 4.12 and the statistics are in Appendix D.8.

This reduction is at the time when the Hotel Industry has expanded over the last twenty five years and requires more qualified staff. In the delivery of this qualification one needs to consider the constraints faced by Further Education Colleges. It is mandatory for colleges to provide Realistic Working Environments to assess these NVQs, which is the availability of hotel facilities. Of course such an expensive resource is not within the reach of any Further Education College in the U.K. Hence, the consequence is a failure to deliver NVQs

in Reception as a full time course. The only mode of curriculum delivery available is work based training, thus the statistics presented above relate to the work based trainees.

Housekeeping Certificates

Level 1 – There was no qualification available at this level prior to the introduction of NVQs, in 1991/1992. The peak of attainment was reached in 1997/1998 when the numbers of qualified staff were 995. Unfortunately, the numbers declined to 663 in 2001/2002, which is a fall of 33.4% which can only be attributed to the lack of popularity of this course.

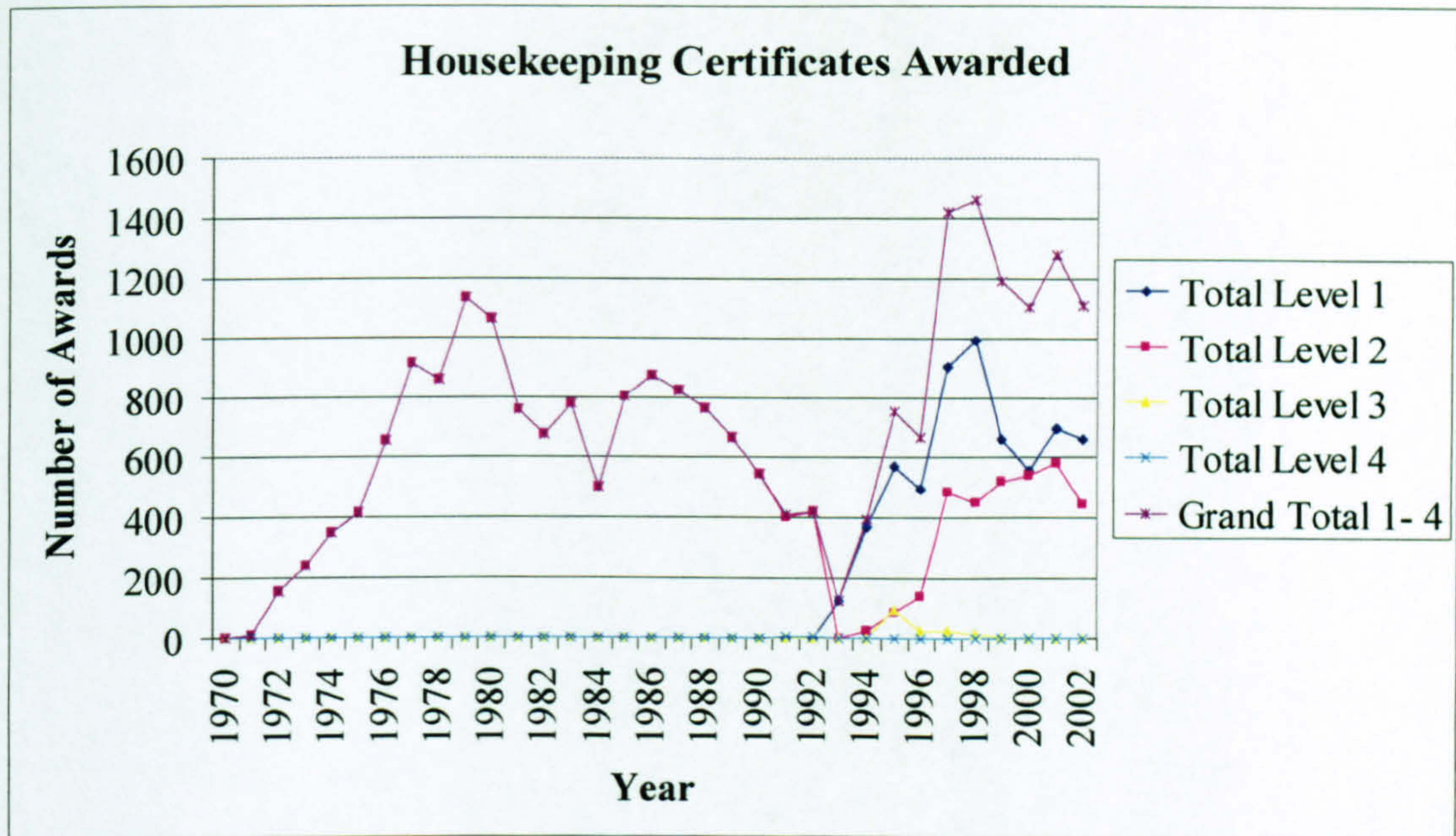
Level 2 – This area of curriculum has not been very popular even in the early 1970's. However, the numbers peaked in 1978/1979 to 1135 but by 2001/2002 the numbers declined to 446 which is a reduction of 60.70%. There was also a serious dip at the introduction of NVQs in 1992/1993. These trends are displayed in Figure 4.13 and the statistics are in Appendix D.9.

Level 3 – This qualification only came into existence with the introduction of NVQs in 1994/1995. The uptake of this qualification has been very poor as the total numbers of certificates awarded have gradually decreased over the years.

Level 4 – The aspiration to introduce this level came in 1990/1991 and the take up remained in single numbers for the period of ten years. The main reason being the direct competition of this qualification with Higher National Certificate which is a much broader qualification.

The overall picture of this qualification indicates a growth at level 1 and level 2 provision. Unfortunately, there was no curriculum on offer at level 3 and level 4 prior to the introduction of NVQs which shows a low intake at these levels. However, the total number of NVQs delivered in 2001/2002 was 1,109 which is an increase of 85.85% in comparison to the numbers in 1971/1972. On the other hand, the numbers peaked to 1,459 in 1997/1998. The above trends are highlighted in Figure 4.13 and the statistics are in Appendix D.9.

Figure 4.13: Examination Statistics Housekeeping Certificates Awarded



Sources:

City and Guilds of London Institute, Examination Statistics (1970 – 1992).

National Council of Vocational Qualifications, Registration and Attainment Statistics (1990 – 1995).

Qualifications Curriculum Authority, National Vocational Qualification Statistics (1996 – 2002).

There is an issue which needs to be considered when analysing these statistics as Further Education Colleges have been constrained in the delivery of NVQs in Housekeeping. The initial philosophy behind the delivery and assessment of NVQs was designed only for the work place. In 1996, Hyland drew on Beaumont’s findings that most managers would prefer to recognize NVQs awarded by other employers. He recommended that NVQs “should be returned to the workplace and removed from all courses in schools, colleges and non-workplace training institutions”. This view is based on his assertion that standards after all, represent an assessment regime not a programme model of learning.

“the costs of work-based NVQs, in general, are high compared to the other forms of training”.

(Hyland and Matlay, 1998, p.407)

“this deters small firms who are also discouraged by views of NVQs as top-down, prescriptive and with little evidence that they lead to improvements.”

(Welsh, 1996)

Interestingly, the hospitality and catering industry consists of very large proportion of small firms which may account for the low number of qualified staff. In fact there has, for some time, been scepticism about the delivery of NVQs in Colleges. In 1996, Gordon Beaumont touched upon the worries that NVQs delivered in colleges were not able to replicate the real conditions of employment, though he fell short of recommending that “simulations” should be banned.

Although, Alan Smithers (1993) argued that the ambition of offering NVQs which could be attained in the workplace was doomed to failure, and should never have been undertaken. He believes that better quality would arise in colleges and other formal training centres if syllabus-based qualifications were used. Unfortunately, the government National Education Training Targets were not being met by the industry which led colleges to assimilate the industry to provide NVQ courses. However, the educational effectiveness of this form of curriculum delivery can be questioned. This made it mandatory for colleges to provide a Realistic Working Environment to assess these NVQs; that is, the provision of hotel facilities. Of course, this is an expensive resource which is not within the reach of any Further Education Colleges in the U.K. The only mode of curriculum delivery available is work based training and the statistics presented above are related to work based trainees only.

HAIRDRESSING AND BEAUTY INDUSTRY QUALIFICATIONS

Hairdressing and Beauty is the most popular curriculum area in the implementation of NVQ policies. It appears that the overall impact of NVQs has not been as satisfactory in the curriculum area of hospitality and catering. The Government's initial intention was for the introduction of NVQs to increase the number of qualified people in the industry and also to ensure that a higher proportion of youngsters participate at level 3 and higher qualifications. However, in 1995 Jones reported in the article that the take up of NVQs has been pitifully low as it only reached a million NVQ certificates. This is only 4% of the workforce and the majority of these certificates have been awarded to those on Government funded programmes. There has been little impact on the employed workforce and the critical area of lifelong learning – precisely the area that NVQs were designed for.

In 1999, there were only 1.86% of the workforce trained in the hospitality and catering industry whereas 16.0% of the workforce was trained in the Hairdressing and Beauty Industry. The reason for comparing the NVQ certification with Hairdressing and Beauty Industry is mainly because of its high success rate in achieving NVQ certificates, and also this industry piloted the very first NVQs in 1989. It would be useful to analyse the salient features of their success and explore the application of good practices.

Further, analysing the statistics of qualifications for the hospitality and catering industry, an attempt has been made to compare the impact of National Vocational Qualifications on Hairdressing and Beauty Industry. The period of comparative study chosen is the thirty two years from 1970 to 2002. The total number of qualifications in the Hospitality and Catering Industry has increased from 20,482 in 1970 to 33,043 in 2002 which is an increase of 61% where as in Hairdressing and Beauty Industry the total number of qualifications has increased from 4,755 in 1970 to 33,435 in 2002 which is an increase of 603% The breakdown of these numbers is given below in Figure 4.14 and 4.15.

Figure 4.14: Hospitality and Catering Industry

Total Number of Qualifications Awarded

Year	1970	2002
Qualifications Title		
General Catering	3179	369
Chefs	11,184	14,007
Food Manufacturing	-	5,439
Bakery	3,105	686
Food and Beverage Service	2,704	10,476
Reception	300	957
Housekeeping	10	1,109
Grand Total	20,482	33,043

Sources:

City and Guilds of London Institute, Examination Statistics (1970).

Qualifications Curriculum Authority, NVQ Statistics (2002).

Figure 4.15: Hairdressing and Beauty Industry

Total Number of Qualifications Awarded

Year	1970	2002
Qualifications Title		
Hairdressing	4,707	21,720
Beauty Therapy	48	11,715
Grand Total	4,755	33,435

Sources:

City and Guilds of London Institute, Examination Statistics (1970).

Qualifications Curriculum Authority, NVQ Statistics (2002).

This chapter has examined the qualification structure and the examination statistics related to the Hospitality and Catering Industry over the past thirty two years. A comparison is being drawn historically to see the trends in the success of various qualifications and analysing the issues which might have had an impact on the changes in curriculum. A comparison has also taken place between the various occupational specific courses and at the different levels of each course.

As the focus is on vocational education and training, it was decided to compare the salient features that are affecting the hospitality industry with a similar service industry. The most appropriate choice was to select the Hairdressing and Beauty Industry because of the similarities in professional disposition. Both the professions provide service to the client which is of very personal style and emotional in nature. In each of these industries, the client is looking for an experience which very much rests on an individual's perception and preferences. There is a wide scope for creativity, imagination, initiative and entrepreneurship from the employee point of view. Recently, the Quality Inspectorate has clustered the curriculum areas for inspection and it is interesting to note that Hospitality, Catering, Hairdressing and Beauty Therapy have been grouped within the same cluster. The main principle behind this grouping relates to the direct customer orientation in the curriculum delivery of both disciplines. The main aim of this comparison is to examine the size, scope and structure of both industry and match up the success of learners with the employment needs of each industry.

A comparative study of statistics between the Hairdressing and Beauty Industry and the Hospitality and Catering Industry is being drawn in Figure 4.16 covering the following criteria:

- Annual turnover in 1999;
- Total number of people employed;
- Contribution to Treasury;
- Contribution to GDP;
- Number of establishments;
- Average turnover per employee;
- NVQs awarded in 2001/2002;
- Wages.

Figure 4.16: A comparative study of statistics between Hairdressing and Beauty Industry and Hospitality and Catering Industry.

	Hairdressing and Beauty Industry	Hospitality and Catering Industry
Turnover (1999)	£3.4 billion	£43.0 billion
People Employed (1999)	208,794 full time	1.8 million full time
Contribution to Treasury Through Taxation	£1.7 billion	£21.5 billion
Contribution to GDP	0.2%	4.5%
Number of Establishments (1999)	Hairdressers – 34,000 Beauty Therapy – 4,800 Beauty in Hotels – 800 Total 39,600	Hotels 60,949 Restaurants 15,954 Fast Food 31,491 Pubs 54,723 Total 163,117
Average Turnover per employee	£12,349	£21,000
NVQs Awarded in 2001/2002	Hairdressing 21,720 Beauty Therapy 11,715	General Catering 369 Chefs 14,007 Food Manufacturing 5,439 Bakery 686 Food Service 10,476 Reception 957 Housekeeping 1,109
Total Number of NVQs Awarded	33,435	33,043
Wages	Junior Stylist - £3.28 per hour Stylist - £4.60 per hour Senior Stylist - £17.60 per hour Beauty Therapist - £4.69 per hour Beauty Therapist Salon Manager - £6.60 per hour	Junior Chef - £5.00 per hour Chef de Partie - £6.50 per hour Senior Chef - £20.00 per hour Restaurant Manager - £12.00 per hour

Source:

British Hospitality Association Trends and Statistics 2000.

Hairdressing and Beauty Industry Authority – Annual Report, 2000.

There is a different rate of economic growth in the context of annual turnover as it was £3.4 billion in the Hairdressing and Beauty Industry as compared to £43.0 billion for the Hospitality and Catering Industry which is 12.65 times more. The total number of people employed in the Hospitality and Catering Industry is 8.62 times more than the Hairdressing and Beauty Industry. The contribution to GDP is 4.5% by the Hospitality and Catering Industry as compared to 0.2% by the Hairdressing and Beauty Industry.

Further examination of statistics in Figure Number: 4.16 indicate that 16.0% of the workforce is qualified in the Hairdressing and Beauty Industry as compared to 1.86% in the Hospitality and Catering Industry. These outcomes conclusively confirm the issues of trained staff in the Hospitality and Catering Industry. However, there is a wide choice of NVQs available in the Hospitality and Catering Industry as compared to the Hairdressing and Beauty Industry. The number of units is a lot more in the Hospitality and Catering NVQs and the same applies to competencies and ranges within the units. The Hospitality and Catering Industry is also very complex, seasonal and varied in job roles. All these features have added further challenges in the delivery of NVQs. There are, of course, many other reasons for these differences which will be explored in the following chapters. In the light of such significant differences in performance indicators, it is evident that there is absolutely no correlation in the funding for education and training between these two service industries. It is obvious from these comparisons that the Government needs to invest more financial resources in the vocational education and training for the Hospitality and Catering Industry as this industry contributes 22.5 times more than Hairdressing and the Beauty Industry towards the GDP.

Hairdressing Certificates

Level 1 – There was no qualification available at this level prior to the introduction of NVQs in 1992/1993. The total number of NVQs awarded at level 1 in 2001/2002 was 6,389 as compared to 426 in 1992/1993 which is an increase of fifteen times This qualification proves to be a success.

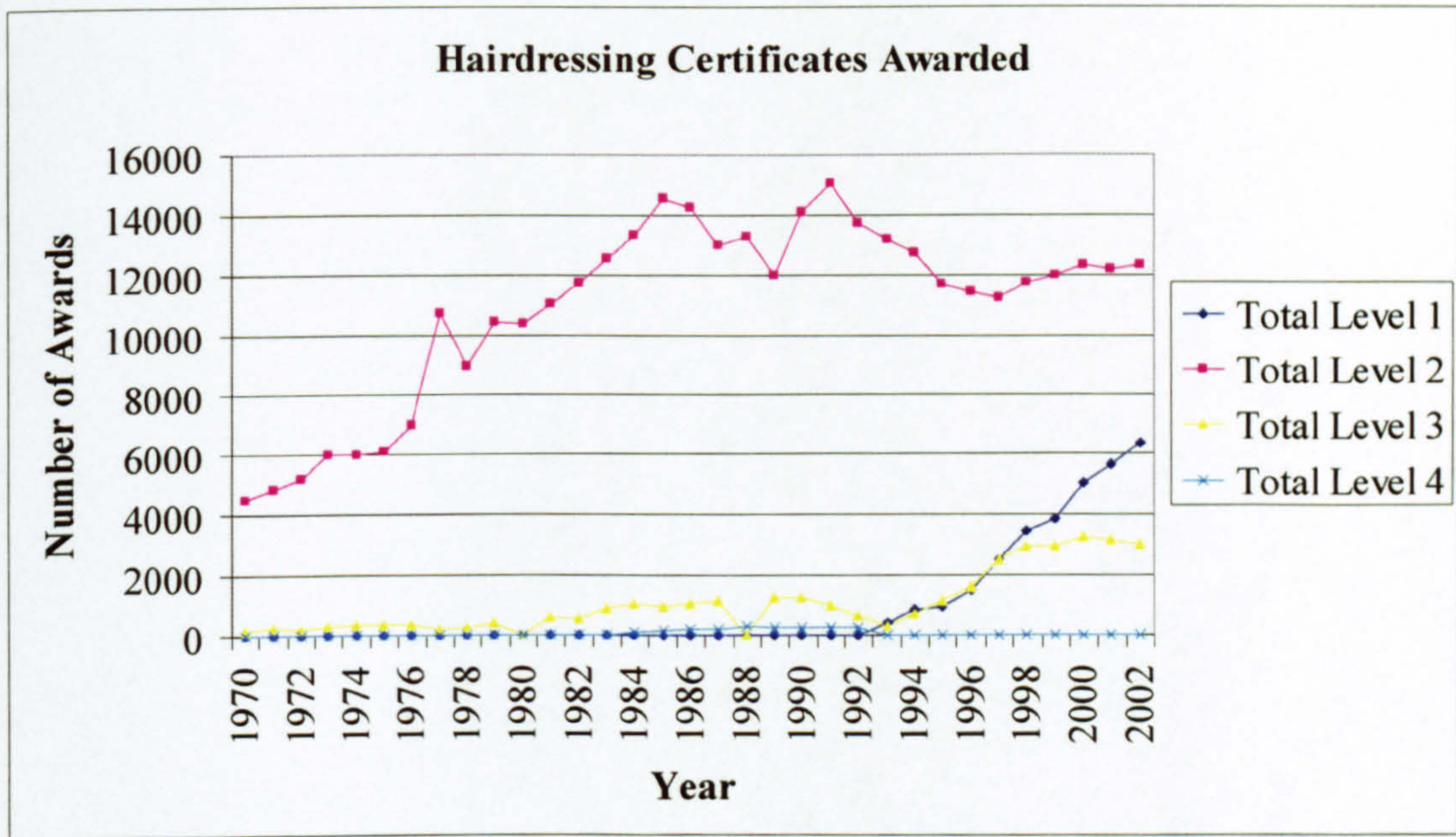
Level 2 – NVQs were introduced in hairdressing at much earlier stage in 1989/1990. In fact, NVQs ran alongside the City and Guilds qualification for three years. The total number of NVQs at this level increased to 12,321 in 2001/2002 as compared to 4,532 City and Guilds of London Institute awards in 1969/1970. The growth of certificates being awarded at this level has been highly satisfactory.

Level 3 – There were very small number of awards at this level prior to the introduction of NVQs. In 1969/1970, there were 175 candidates registered on the City and Guilds qualification which gradually increased to 3,010 awards in 2001/2002. The numbers were rising slowly prior to the introduction of NVQs but after 1992 the number of awards each year increased rapidly, which is an excellent achievement.

Level 4 – This qualification has not been replaced with NVQ. The City and Guilds of London Institute award was available from 1983/1984 when there were 98 candidates and the numbers were increased to 297 in 1987/1988. Unfortunately, after this period the numbers gradually started to fall to 255 in 1991/1992 when this qualification became extinct.

The overall number of qualified people in hairdressing profession has gradually increased from 4,707 candidates in 1969/1970 to the peak of 21,720 in 2001/2002 which is 4.6 times more output of qualified people in the Hairdressing Industry. This achievement is over the period of approximately thirty years. The other success in this vocational area is at NVQ Level 3 provision, where the number of certificates awarded has increased tremendously. The trends are displayed in Figure 4.17 and the statistics are in Appendix D.10.

Figure 4.17: Examination Statistics Hairdressing Certificates Awarded



Sources:

Qualifications Curriculum Authority, NVQ Statistics (1992 – 2002).

City and Guilds of London Institute, Examination Statistics (1970 – 1992).

Beauty Therapy Certificates

Beauty Therapy – This curriculum area is a fairly modern concept and has only been in operation since 1969/1970. In the beginning, there was only one qualification namely, ‘Beauty Therapy’ with a small number of candidates. The majority of the candidates who took this qualification were following Hairdressing as their main programme and undertook Beauty Therapy as additional studies.

It was not until 1975/1976 that further specialisms were added to the main Beauty Therapy qualification, such as Manicure, Electric Epilation and Cosmetic Make-up in 1978/1979.

Level 1 – This was a brand new qualification which was introduced when NVQs were launched in 1992/1993. This qualification took a few years before it reached its peak in 1997/1998 and then the number of candidates dropped very low in 1999/2000. At this stage the qualification was discontinued which only lasted for eight years as this qualification was considered to be too elementary.

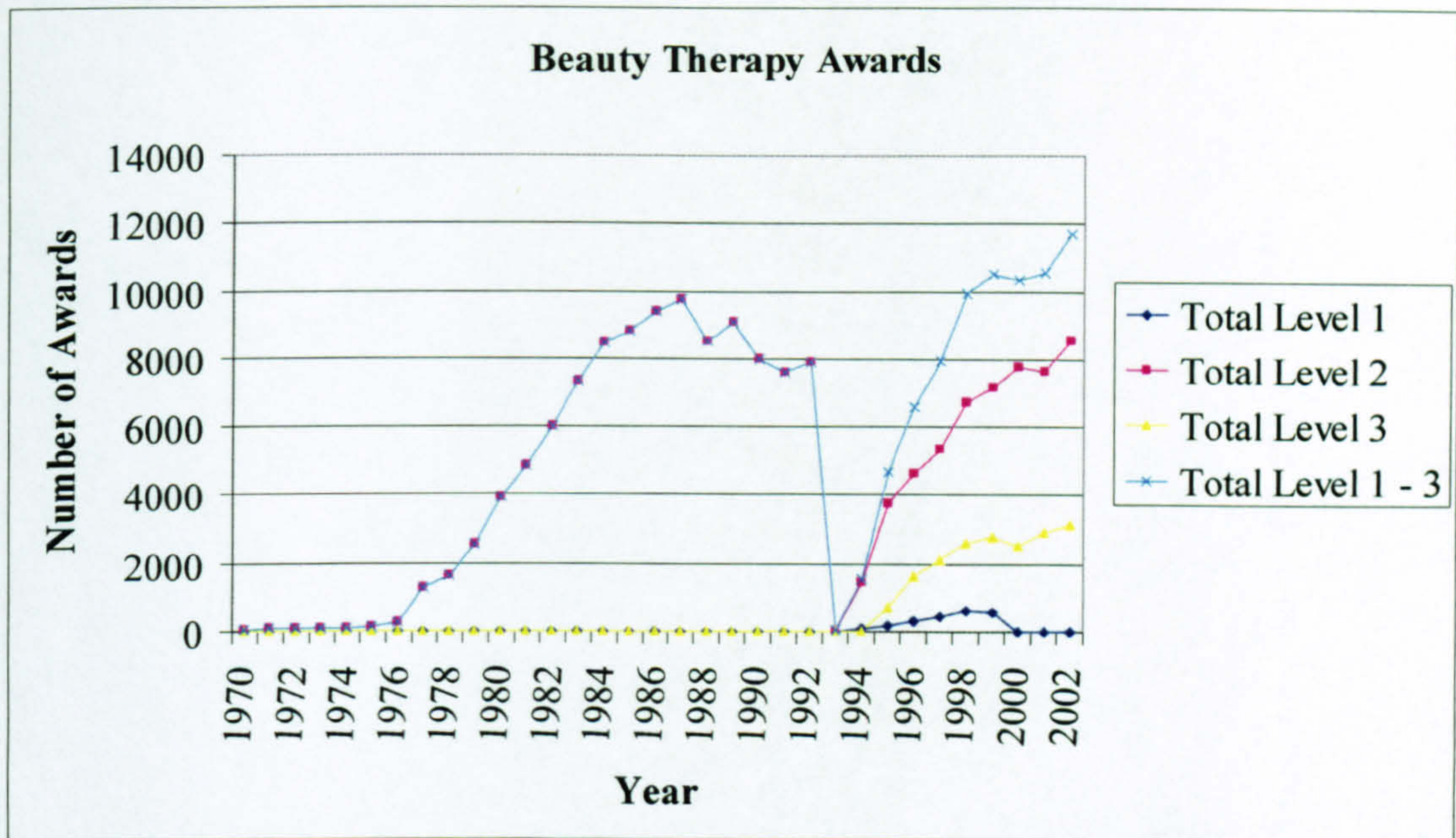
Level 2 – The old system of City and Guilds qualification had various specialisms of Beauty Therapy such as Manicure, Electric Epilation and Cosmetic make-up but there were no specific levels identified as in the NVQ system. This is another NVQ success story as the total number of certificates awarded had increased from 48 in 1969/1970 to 8,558 in 2001/2002. Unfortunately, there was a serious dip in 1992/1993 when the NVQs were launched but the numbers did gradually increase each year.

Level 3 – This is another brand new qualification introduced in 1994/1995. The number of candidates registering on this course gradually grew in numbers over the period of eight years from 712 to 3,157 in 2001/2002. This is a success story and the trends are indicated in Figure 4.18.

Level 4 – This qualification has not been introduced in Beauty Therapy curriculum.

Overall, the picture is very healthy as the total number of certificates awarded in 2001/2002 was a record breaking 11,715. However, there were concerns in 1992/1993 when the number of candidates fell to the lowest level. The reason has already been explained as it was the point of transfer from the Old City and Guilds qualification to the new NVQ system. Fortunately, it did not take very long for the numbers to pick up and gradually increase over the years. The other reason for the increase in the qualification is because of changes in the life style of society as more and more people are conscious of their appearance, well being and how they feel. The Beauty Industry is booming and has greatly expanded over the last ten years. In some ways, the service is very similar to the hospitality industry, especially when one refers to it as an experience industry or emotional industry. These trends are reflected in Figure 4.18 and the statistics are in Appendix D.11.

Figure 4.18: Examination Statistics Beauty Therapy Certificates Awarded



Sources:

Qualifications Curriculum Authority, NVQ Statistics (1993 – 2002).

City and Guilds of London Institute, Examination Statistics (1970 – 1992).

VOCATIONAL QUALIFICATIONS

National Diploma Qualifications

The education and training for the hospitality and catering industry basically started at the operative/craft level that is, chefs and waiters profession from 1950's onwards. The very first single level National Diploma in Hotel keeping and Catering came onto the scene in 1960 and was a Four-Year course offering craft and management education simultaneously.

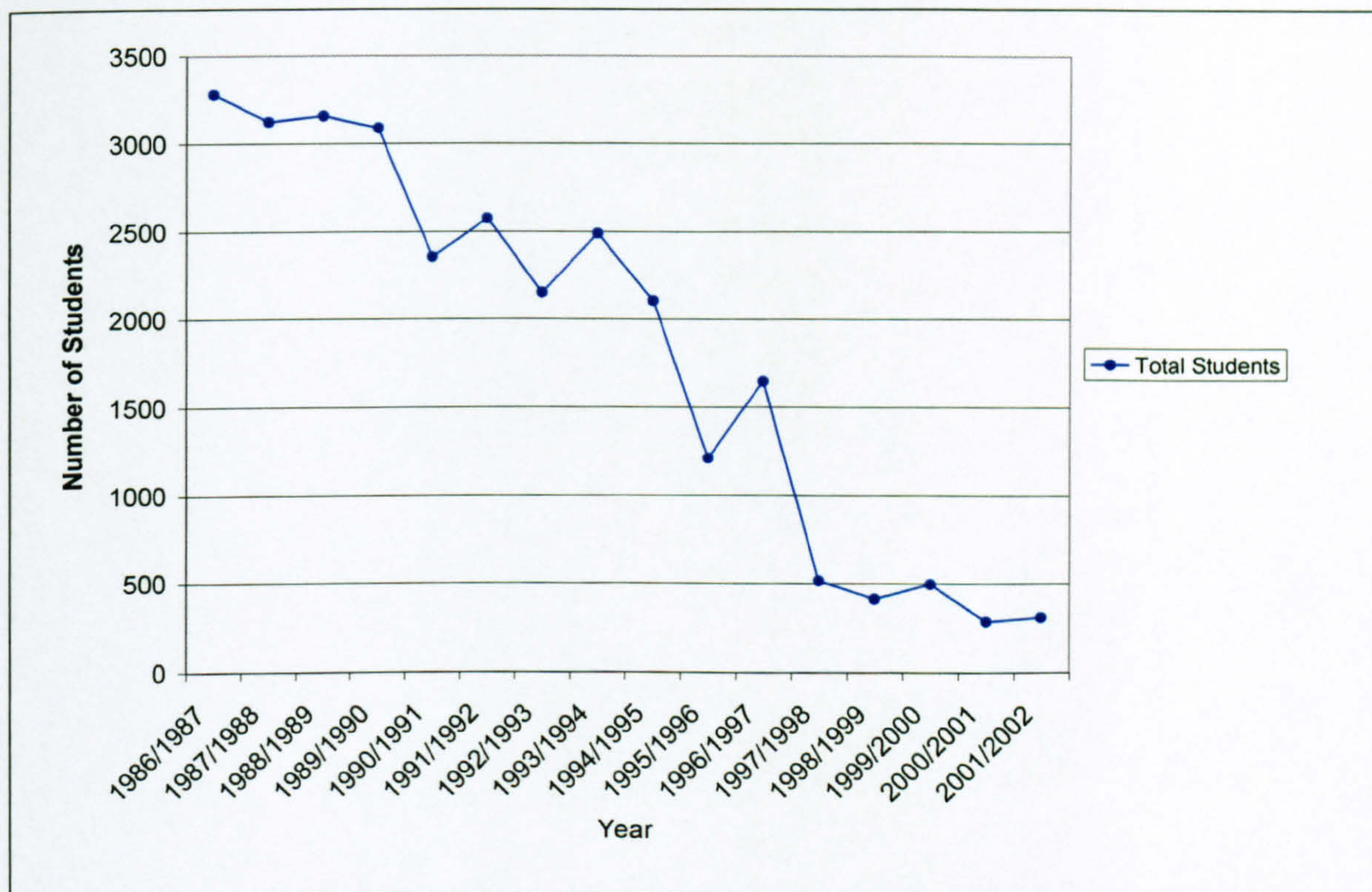
In 1969, there were two tiers of the National Diploma course introduced; that is, Ordinary National Diploma (Two Year Course) and Higher National Diploma (Three Year Course). Both of these courses were accredited by the Joint Committee for National Diplomas in Hotel, Catering and Institutional Management.

In 1973 there were a number of curriculum developments in technical education which had an impact on catering education. The most significant was the formation of the organisations which would be responsible for co-ordinating technician education at the Technicians Education Council and business education at the Business Education Council. These councils took over the responsibility from the Joint Committee for the accreditation of the Ordinary National Diploma and the Higher National Diploma. The philosophy behind these changes was to provide a more flexible programme of education economically and to maintain closer links between various fields of study.

There was a significant power shift from the Joint Committee for National Diplomas in Hotel, Catering and Institutional Management (National Accrediting Body Award) to Technician Education Council which eventually merged with the Business Education Council and became the Business and Technician Education Council (BTEC). This was later formed as the Business Technology Education Council whilst still retaining the same initials BTEC. This body eventually became Edexcel but kept the use of BTEC as the title for National Diplomas and Higher Diplomas since the 1980's. The number of students enrolling on the National Diploma programme during the mid -1980's and 1990 remained fairly static at around 3,000 students. (Governments White Paper Education and Training for the 21st Century, May 1991). Unfortunately, the number of National Diploma awards started to fall from the mid 1990s and eventually the numbers reduced to 311 in 2001/2002 from the peak of 3,279 awards in 1986/1987 which is merely 9.5%.

The main reason for the decline in National Diploma awards has been the introduction of new initiatives such as GNVQs in 1994/1995 and AVCEs in 2000/2001, which in their own right have not been a success story. The trends in National Diploma Awards are displayed in Figure 4.19 and the statistics are in Appendix D.12.

Figure 4.19: National Diploma in Hotel Keeping and Catering



Sources:

Hotel Catering and International Management Association, National Diploma Statistics (1986 – 1994).

Hospitality Training Foundation, National Diploma Statistics (1995 – 2002).

It is encouraging to observe the return of the National Diploma qualification in 2003/2004 after the demise of GNVQ and AVCE curriculum initiatives. This was a respectable qualification for the hospitality industry and entry to higher education course in lieu of traditional A' levels.

GNVQ Qualifications

During the 1990's, there were new educational policies which led to the rationalization of "A" levels and vocational qualifications; the aim being to implement a national curriculum across the vocational education and to introduce parity of esteem between academic and vocational qualifications. General National Vocational Qualifications (GNVQs) were introduced in direct response to the Government White Paper, "Education and Training for the 21st Century", published in May, 1991.

The main aims of this qualification were as follows:

- *offer a broad preparation for employment as well as an accepted route to higher level qualifications*
- *be of equal standing with academic qualifications at the same level*
- *be clearly related to occupational specific NVQs but sufficiently distinct from occupational specific NVQs.*

(Hayward, 1995, p.7)

It can be seen that these aims were challenging and offered dual objective at each stage especially the parity of esteem with "academic" qualifications like GCE "A" Levels and GCSEs. GNVQs were renamed in 1993 as Foundation (Level 1 – Equivalent to 4 GCSEs at a lower grade), Intermediate (Level 2 – Equivalent to 4/5 GCSEs at A-C grade) and Advanced (Level 3 – worth 2 "A" Levels) GNVQs. This led to the label of "Vocational A Level" being attached to Advanced GNVQ by politicians and the press. GNVQ Advanced to be "specifically designed to meet a standard comparable to A and AS level qualifications".*

(NCVQ, 1993a, p.5)

These GNVQs are available in 14 vocational areas which are unit based qualifications assessed through a combination of continuous portfolio assessment and short test papers. Students can be awarded certificates for each unit as they achieve it or given the opportunity to complete the full award. General National Vocational Qualifications were first introduced in 1992 as part of the national framework. The pilot was run in Leisure and Tourism curriculum area in September 1992 followed by pilot in Hospitality and Catering in September 1993.

The initial stages of GNVQ pilots in 1992 led to many of the qualifications being reviewed in 1993/1994. Despite some of the criticisms by Professor Alan Smithers (1993) such as the lack of an appropriate syllabus for GNVQ qualification, insufficient rigour in the assessment process and issues related to grading of units, yet GNVQs continued to survive.

It was envisaged that these programmes will be delivered in Secondary Schools and Further Education Colleges. Unfortunately, due to the lack of practical resources and physical facilities to deliver vocational education, some of these programmes could not be delivered in schools. There were few schools which attempted to deliver practical biased GNVQs but with unfavourable consequences, to the extent that it had a negative impact on school pupils to follow up a vocational route. These views were clearly expressed at the careers open day in colleges especially in relation to the hospitality and catering profession.

In 1990, at the initial curriculum development stage it was proposed to introduce GNVQ Hospitality and Tourism as one of the vocational areas. There were consultation meetings organised to invite constructive comments by Ed-Excel, the awarding body for the industry, representatives and educationalists. Unfortunately, there was a strong lobbying from the hospitality industry representatives and catering teachers to diversify the hospitality pathway from tourism, Thus, GNVQ in Hospitality and Catering and GNVQ in Leisure and Tourism were suggested as two discrete vocational areas. This was the beginning of a real challenge for the hotel and catering industry to attract students on the courses whilst in direct competition with the Leisure and Tourism vocational area for the very first time in the history of Further Education.

In September, 1992, GNVQ in Leisure and Tourism was introduced as one of the five GNVQ pilots programme which happened to be very attractive for schools, as it could be delivered without any large investment of funds to acquire resources. In addition, teachers were very passionate to recommend this qualification to youngsters as it followed the classroom teaching of subjects such as Geography, History and Culture as demanded by the curriculum. It was also very attractive for young people to embark on this course being a novel curriculum and the words like Leisure, Travel, Recreation and Tourism suited the perception of young pupils. This trend will be later confirmed by the total number of student registrations

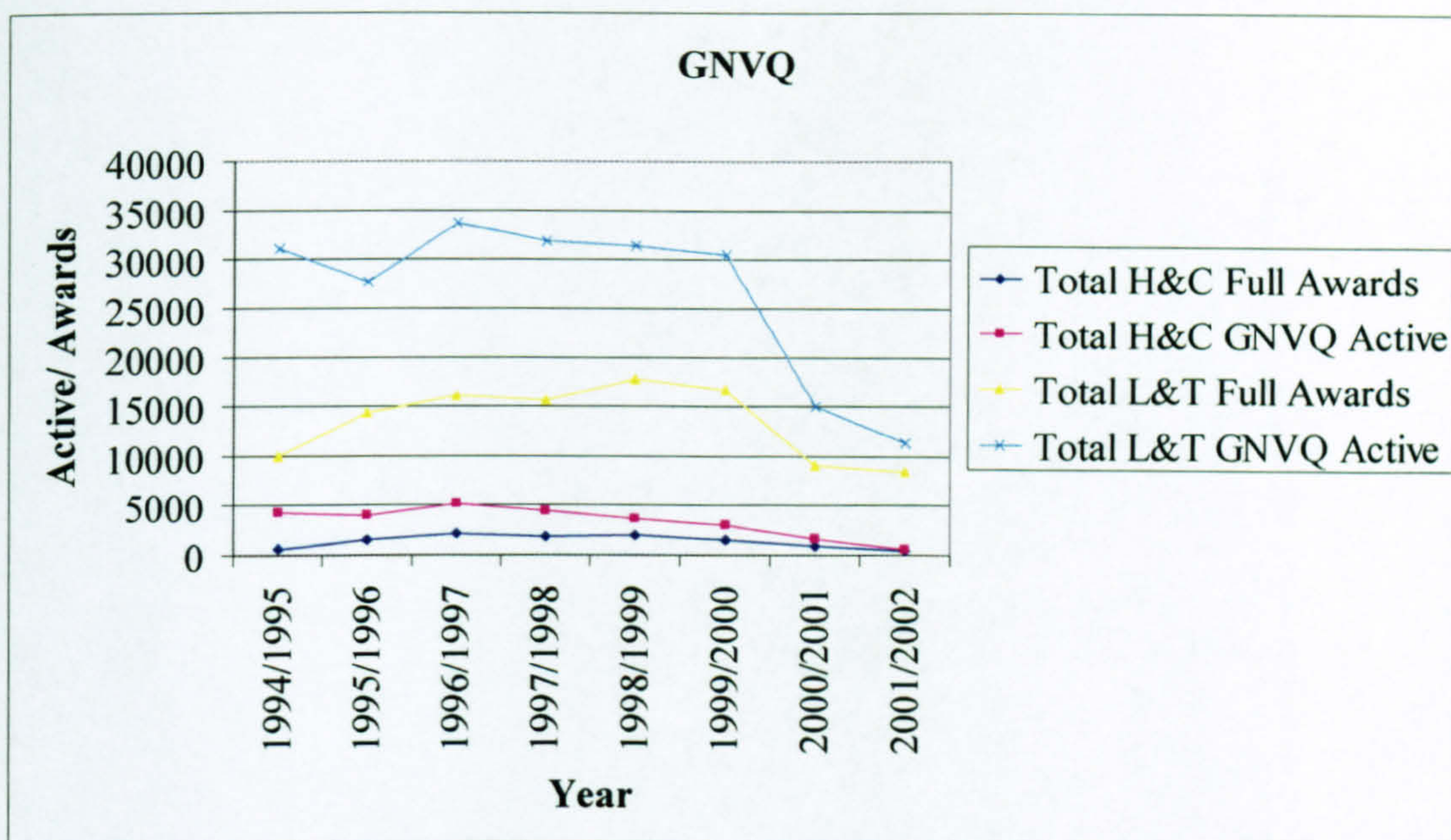
The recruitment figures for both these courses are represented for the past ten years. There is a clear indication that the total number of students recruited each year on Hospitality and Catering courses was below 13.46% as opposed to 86.54% and more students recruited on GNVQ in Leisure and Tourism. The peak was in 1996/1997 and thereafter numbers kept falling in both the curriculum areas until 2001/2002. The trends of overall GNVQ recruitment is identified in Figure 4.20 and the statistics are in Appendix D.13.

It is quite interesting to note that some Further Education Colleges still continued with the National Diploma course in Hospitality and Catering. Although, the numbers have invariably fallen on the National Diploma course as well, especially since GNVQs were introduced.

The statistics relating to recruitment and full awards of GNVQs in Hospitality and Catering, and Leisure and Tourism are further analysed according to three levels, which is Foundation, Intermediate and Advanced. GNVQ in Hospitality and Catering statistics indicate the growth in numbers in 1996/1997 and then gradually decline. This is applicable at all levels. Furthermore, the comparison of full awards in relation to the recruitment figures indicate below 50% success rate. The trends are displayed in Figure 4.20. The detailed statistics are available in Appendix D.13.

It was decided to compare the trends in the Hospitality and Catering qualification with the Leisure and Tourism figures. GNVQ in Leisure and Tourism statistics indicate the growth in recruitment in 1996/1997 as well, and then gradually decline. Furthermore, the comparison of full awards in relation to the recruitment figures similarly shows a low percentage success rate. These trends are shown in Figure 4.20. The detailed statistics are provided in Appendix D.13.

Figure 4.20: Total Hospitality & Catering and Leisure & Tourism GNVQ Active Students & Full Awards



Sources:

Hospitality Training Foundation, GNVQs Recruitment and Attainment Statistics (1995 – 2002).

Qualifications and Curriculum Authority, GNVQs Recruitment and Attainment Statistics (1996 – 2002).

The conclusion from this analysis reveals that although number of students being recruited increased in 1996/1997, yet numbers gradually declined over the next five years with the extinction of GNVQ courses in 2001/2002. The biggest impact had been on the survival of Hospitality and Catering courses, as this vocational area failed to recruit healthy numbers and, in addition, the poor success rate of achieving full awards.

From the outset, parity of esteem and of standards between GNVQ level 3 and “A” level was regarded as very important. There was an attempt to match GNVQ structures to “A” levels by regulating the size of units. Advanced GNVQ were to consist of 12 units and were to be equivalent to 2 “A” levels. Thus each GNVQ unit was to be comparable with one-sixth of an “A” level or one-third of an “AS” level.

“The assessment of units became quite an issue as the Government insisted on the use of conventional examinations but NCVQ successfully opposed this and so did two-thirds of the further education colleges. The Association of Principals of Colleges believed that imposing external tests was to give a mythical “academic respectability” and would be a retrograde step in vocational education. It also counteracts the philosophy of flexibility, accreditation of prior achievement and the assessment procedures for NVQs.”

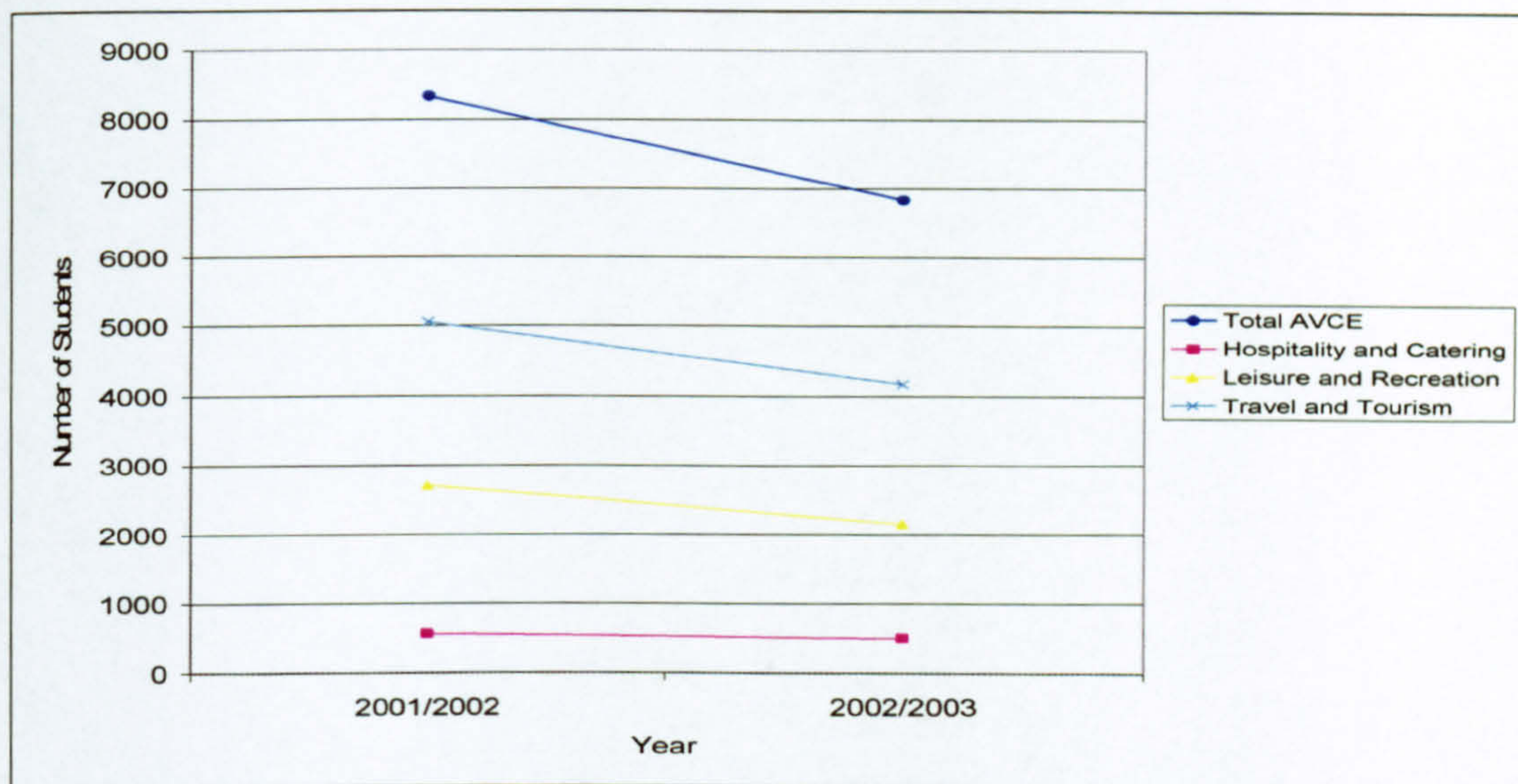
(Harrop, 1992, pp. 37-38)

AVCE Qualifications

In the year 2000, there was yet another change with the introduction of CURRICULUM 2000. This initiative was designed to replace Advanced GNVQ programme with Advanced Vocational Certificate of Education (AVCE). Thus, GNVQ in Hospitality and Catering was replaced by AVCE in Hospitality and Catering. However, GNVQ Leisure and Tourism curriculum was sub-divided into AVCE Leisure and Recreation and AVCE Travel and Tourism at the point of change over to the AVCE qualification.

The student recruitment figures for just AVCE in Hospitality and Catering indicate a very small proportion as compared to the total AVCE recruitment in Hospitality and Catering, Leisure and Recreation and Travel and Tourism. In 2001/2002, AVCE in Hospitality and Catering only represented 6.90% of the total AVCE awarded in Hospitality and Tourism cluster of qualifications, which is really negligible considering the size and scope of the hospitality and catering industry. The overall trend for AVCE course is indicated in Figure 4.21 and the statistics are in Appendix D.14.

Figure 4.21: Total AVCE recruitment in Hospitality & Catering, Leisure & Recreation and Travel & Tourism



Source: Qualifications Curriculum Authority, AVCE Registration and Attainment Statistics (2000 – 2002).

Sir Ron Dearing in the report ‘Qualifying for Success’ in October, 1997 strongly recommended the introduction of the AS level which intended to broaden students’ horizons. This reform of Curriculum 2000 provided a qualification as a half-way house to “A” level. Unfortunately, the implementation of this initiative was rushed by the government which did not provide sufficient time for examination boards and schools to put the reforms in place. In June 2001, Estelle Morris, the Education Secretary, asked David Hargreaves, Head of the Qualification and Curriculum Authority to carry out a review of “Curriculum 2000” changes.

In fact the Qualifications Curriculum Authority had already been carrying out curriculum development to replace AVCE with Vocational “A” levels and the option of Vocational AS levels in order to conform to the structure of academic “A” levels by September 2004. The researcher acted as a consultant to QCA and was actively involved in the discussions to formulate these new qualifications. This initiative never came to fruition and this qualification in Hospitality and Catering reverted back to the National Diploma course in 2003/2004 following with the introduction of the First Diploma course 2005/2006.

PROFESSIONAL QUALIFICATIONS

Professional Qualifications

There is only one main professional body for Hospitality and Catering Industry, which is the Hotel, Catering and International Management Association which was initially formed as the Hotel and Catering Institute. This body has been responsible for the professional examinations for the past 47 years. During this period the qualification has altered five times as indicated below:

1956/1957 Associate Membership Examination

1965/1966 HCI Intermediate Membership Examination

HCI Final Membership Examination

1978/1979 HCIMA Part A

HCIMA Part B

1990/1991 HCIMA Professional Certificate

HCIMA Professional Diploma

2001/2002 HCIMA Advanced Certificate

HCIMA Advanced Diploma

The development of hospitality and catering qualifications has been very closely linked with the conception and growth of two professional bodies namely. Since 1995 The Institutional Management Association and The Hotel and Catering Institute which, formed the Hotel, Catering and International Management Association (previously known as the Hotel, Catering and Institutional Management Association – 27th November 1971) which continued to have considerable influence on catering education. The Institutional Management Association had been operating in its particular field of activities since before the war. A committee of representatives of employers, employees and educationalists with the support of the then Ministry of Education was responsible for educational developments in Institutional Management and in 1944 a Certificate of Institutional Management was introduced.

The Hotel and Catering Institute was established in 1949 as a professional body responsible for awarding qualifications. The initial Associate Membership Examination consisted of six externally set and examined papers. However this qualification was modified and offered in two stages; that is, Intermediate and Final examination from September 1965 with externally set and examined written papers. In 1972, the first major review of the association's qualifications began. There were many consultations with employers and leading members of HCIMA. In 1974, 'Tomorrow's Managers' report was published which formed the base for further developing the HCIMA professional qualification.

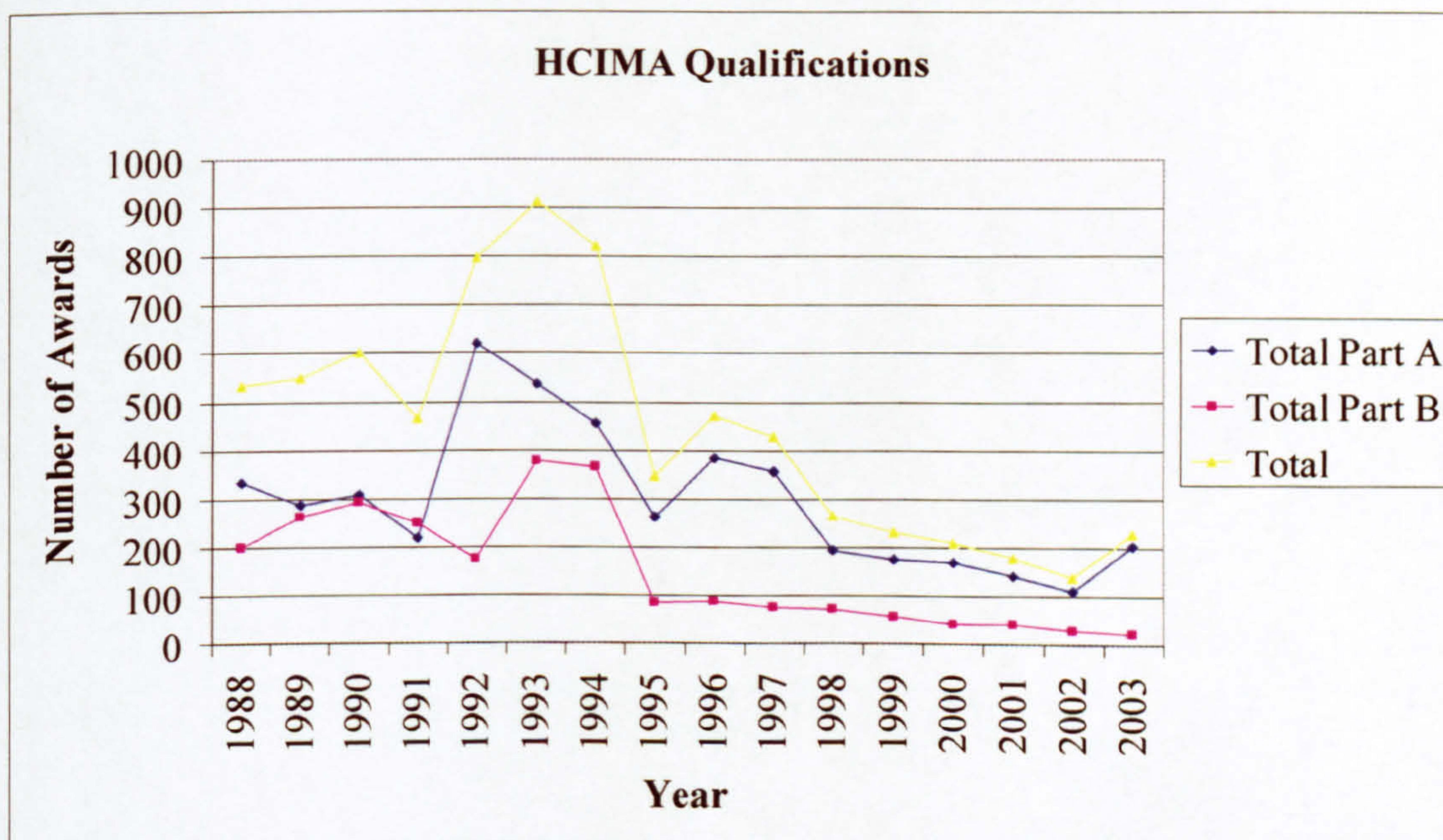
In 1977, HCIMA published Corpus of Knowledge and in 1978, new professional qualifications were introduced which were built on the framework of industry and education research – HCIMA Part A and Part B qualification. In 1984, HCIMA further updated Corpus of Knowledge and in 1989 the professional qualification was once again modified to HCIMA Professional Certificate and Professional Diploma Programme. In 2001 these qualifications were re-titled as HCIMA Advanced Certificate and Diploma. These courses are still on offer but unfortunately, due to the competition from other Higher Education courses such as Higher National Diploma, and Foundation Degree Programmes, the enrolments have been seriously affected. In addition, the withdrawal of mandatory grants for HCIMA courses did not help the cause for improving the student recruitment. The attainment on these courses has been examined and analysed for the past fifteen years since 1987/1988. The numbers have grown, but inconsistently over this period.

However, the peak was hit in 1991/1992 for the HCIMA Professional Certificate Programme, figures reaching as high as 621. Then the numbers declined to 109 in 2001/2002, but with sudden increase to 203 in 2002/2003. Unfortunately, the number of certificates dropped by 32.69% from the peak figures.

There is a similar picture being portrayed when cumulative figures of certificate and the Diploma Programme are examined. The peak was in 1991/1992 and 1992/1993 but thereafter the numbers gradually declined until 2001/2002. Surprisingly, in 2002/2003 there was a sharp rise in numbers because of additional HCIMA Professional Certificate Programme awards.

HCIMA Professional Diploma qualification hit the peak of awards to 376 in 1992/1993 and then the numbers gradually declined reaching the lowest level of 23 in 2002/2003 which is just 6.12% of peak figures. The above trends are reflected in Figure 4.22 and the statistics are in Appendix D.15.

Figure 4.22: HCIMA Professional Certificate and Diploma



Sources:

Hotel, Catering and Institutional Management Association, Survey of enrolments and attainments (1987 – 1994).

Hotel, Catering and International Management Association, Enrolment Statistics (1994 – 2003).

CONCLUSION

The extensive investigation in carrying out the analysis of qualification structures related to the hospitality and catering industry over the last four decades has revealed significant concerns.

The change in the school curriculum related to hospitality and catering has had a serious impact on enrolments. During the period 1968 to 1971, the number of school pupils studying for Food Technology and Catering increased, while there was a decline in the numbers on Domestic subjects. In 1972, there were changes in the title of subjects, as Domestic Subjects became Home Economics and Creative Studies, but the numbers still kept on declining whereas Food Technology and Catering was altered to Hospitality and Catering with a huge increase in numbers from 18,818 in 1971/1972 to 119,526 in 1991/1992. At this stage GNVQs in Hospitality and Catering were introduced which contributed to the lack of popularity of these courses. The recruitment on GNVQs in this curriculum area was 1,208 in 1993/1994 which rose to 5,250 in 1996/1997 and finally declined to 551 in 2000/2002. These figures need to be compared with the new curriculum of Travel and Tourism being offered at the same time, which should have been closely related to Hospitality and Catering, but the contents of these two courses set them apart. GNVQ in Travel and Tourism were introduced in 1992/1993 with 1,470 candidates which went up to 33,755 in 1996/1997 and eventually falling to 11,940 in 2001/2002. Unfortunately, the curriculum decisions in schools have had marked consequences on the Hospitality and Catering courses enrolment in Further Education colleges.

The introduction of NVQs in Hospitality and Catering has had a further detrimental affect on the qualifications structure. The demise of General Catering Certificates, which acted as a diagnostic course, has compelled young entrants to specialise at the age of sixteen. It is far too early for young people to make a career choice. The career opportunities in the Hospitality and Catering industry have just been focused on a chef's profession or food service, which is not portraying the right image of industry. The curriculum has become very narrow and lost its depth with the implementation of a competency based model.

NVQs in specialist areas were further examined, which indicate a serious decline in the number of candidates achieving chefs' qualifications. In 2001/2002 14,007 chefs were qualified compared to 24,243 in 1986/1987. It is interesting to observe that the Food and Beverage service area has become much more popular and the number of students qualifying has increased. This could be due to the emphasis given to customer service in the hospitality industry. There were 10,476 qualified food and beverage service operators in 2001/2002 as opposed to 2,704 in 1969/1970.

The number of candidates with Bakery qualifications has seriously declined, especially with the introduction of NVQs. In 2001/2002, there were only 686 qualified Bakers as opposed to 3,665 in 1971/1972. This has led to the closure of the Bakery section in many further education colleges. Now, the most popular route available to young people is work based training, especially with large employers as a great number of small bakers on the high street have closed down because of strong competition from Superstores.

The delivery of NVQs in Reception and Housekeeping is only confined to work based training as further education colleges have not been able to provide a Realistic Working Environment. The result has been a decline in the number of qualified hotel receptionists over the years. However, there is a slight increase in the number of qualified Housekeeping staff which is due to the availability of work based training.

A comparison has been drawn between the Hairdressing and Beauty Industry and Hospitality and Catering Industry which has certainly revealed the success of the NVQ system in the Hairdressing and Beauty curriculum area where 16.0% of the workforce in industry is qualified. This is in comparison to 1.86% of the workforce being qualified in the hospitality and catering industry. There are curriculum issues relating to hospitality and catering with regard to the competency based model. The breadth of knowledge and practical skills required in hospitality and catering are far greater than hairdressing and beauty. However, the resources invested in financial terms and the duration of a training period in hairdressing and beauty are far greater in relation to any other vocational areas.

There seems to be a tension emerging between the academic and vocational route. In the hospitality and catering education, traditionally there has been a pure vocational route such as the City and Guilds Craft qualifications which are now superseded by NVQs. These qualifications satisfied the skills requirements at an operative level. In addition, there has been a supervisory route such as First and National Diplomas which were substituted by GNVQs and AVCE. These qualifications initially prepared young people for a supervisory/technician role in the hospitality and catering industry.

The impact of changes in these courses has been immense because of completely new philosophies and values being introduced. The Government's original intention was to deliver Vocational qualifications absolutely in the work place. Unfortunately, the employers could not meet the Government National Education and Training Targets because of lack of planning in the introduction of NVQs and limited resources for training in the industry such as the availability of time, qualified trainees and finances. The biggest challenge was faced by Small Medium Enterprises as these establishments managed on the optimum number of employees with very little slack in their operations.

The Government approached Further Education Colleges and private training providers to deliver NVQs. This involved the setting up of Realistic Working Environments which is mandatory for the delivery and assessment of NVQs. This meant large capital expenditure for colleges, which led to the delivery of NVQs in only some occupational areas of the hospitality industry. It is ironic to see the demise of Housekeeping and Reception courses in colleges because of the inability to provide hotel facilities to the students in Further Education Colleges. Hyland (1996) recommends that:

“NVQs should be returned to the workplace and removed from all courses in schools, colleges and non-workplace training institutions”

(Hyland, 1996, p.359)

On the contrary, Smithers, 1993 is adamant that NVQs should only be delivered in Further Education Colleges and not in the work place. In spite of many NVQ reviews being carried out by the Government, there are still tensions in the delivery of NVQs.

The Times Higher, on 17 October 1995 reports that Dominic Cadbury, Chairman of the Confederation of British Industry's Education Committee said that the NVQ remains too costly, too bureaucratic and too much geared to larger employers who have the resources to turn it to their advantage.

The Employment Policy Institute also reports that employers do not want people with narrowly based vocational qualifications, and are better served by an improved general education of the workforce than by a proliferation of narrow vocational qualifications. The initiative was taken to introduce Technical, Certificates alongside NVQs and development of key skills such as communication and numeracy within the assessment of NVQs.

The assessment process used in the accreditation of National Vocational Qualifications is very much reliant on the completion of portfolios and assessment by observation in the Realistic Working Environment by instructors and assessors, as opposed to the formal written and practical examinations which were mainly administered by City and Guilds of London Institute. Furthermore, there is a greater emphasis on the sampling of a candidate's portfolio and sampling of observation by the External Verifiers. The NVQ assessment system has issues related to consistency as different Realistic Working Environments will have their own standards. In addition, the majority of the students attracted to NVQ courses tend to be of low academic ability. It is interesting to note the findings of recent Quality Inspection Report, March 2005, states that:

“the writing and research skills of NVQ leavers are weaker as they have fewer opportunities to undertake project and assignment work”.

(ESTYN, 2005, p.24)

Corney (2001) has reported that there are conflicting targets set by the Government such as, the 50% Higher Education participation targets for 18-30 year olds. This has implications for level 3 achievement, as expressed in targets for participants in the Modern Apprenticeship Scheme. Higher Education institutions need to attract a greater percentage of Level 3 achievers to meet their targets. However, the present data indicates that the number of 21-30 year olds achieving Level 3 is likely to be small. Even if all of them opt for higher education through the apprenticeship route the Government targets will still not

be met. There may also be a conflict with the academic ability of Modern Apprentices to achieve Higher Education qualifications. This could be partly due to the change in the underpinning philosophy of NVQs, which represents a shift from the blend of academic and technical skills content to much more technical skills focused programmes.

The National Diploma in Hotel keeping and Catering was an excellent qualification with 3,279 awards in 1986/1987 but with the introduction of Advanced GNVQ in Hospitality and Catering in 1994/1995 the total number of GNVQ awards fell to 649 in 2000/2001. At this point, AVCE in Hospitality and Catering was introduced which lasted until 2002/2003 and the numbers fell to 512. Interestingly, the National Diploma course continued alongside the delivery of GNVQ and AVCE courses but due to competition, the number of successful candidates were only to 311 in 2001/2002.

Unfortunately, there have been too many curriculum changes in Vocational education over the last ten years, with the introduction of GNVQs, Curriculum 2000 and AVCEs. These government initiatives have not just been unsuccessful but caused great confusion to employers, especially in the hospitality and catering industry. The National Diploma course has at last survived and now replaced the new initiatives which were introduced between 1994 and 2003.

In March 1996, Sir Ron Dearing submitted a report to the government on the 'Review of Qualifications for 16-19 year olds'. The government decided to introduce greater breadth and flexibility into the post-16 curriculum. The "Qualifying for Success" reforms of September 2000, commonly known as Curriculum 2000, introduced a range of new qualifications, whilst offering opportunities to combine academic and vocational study. The Advanced General National Vocational Qualification (GNVQ) was replaced by the new Advanced Vocational Certificate of Education (AVCE) giving a life span of seven years for GNVQs.

In Colleges, most of the students chose AVCE double awards as their main programme of study in September 2000. There were opportunities for students to study vocational programmes alongside academic programmes and vice versa, but only a minority of students followed a mixed programme. Where students did follow the main programme of study in the colleges, it had a poor retention rate and there was a pattern of students

dropping from the additional studies. In spite of the Curriculum providing increased choice, breadth and flexibility, the enrolment of students on AVCE courses remained very low.

The other fact which emerged from this initiative was that mixed programmes were mainly followed by students on Vocational programmes to study 'A' Level or 'AS' in foreign languages. There was very little initiative from students primarily on an academic programme to follow a vocational module. The Department of Education, February 2002 cites that several of the Further Education Colleges report that retention rates have deteriorated since the introduction of Curriculum 2000. The main reason being given, is the lower ability profile of the students entering further education and the unrealistically high standards of the course assessments.

The Qualifications Curriculum Authority 2002, Report on the Second Year of Curriculum 2000 Experience concludes that the concerns appear more serious in colleges than schools. The judgment must be made on the growth which has been very low since September 2000, and the attainment rate on this qualification is not significantly better.

This, AVCE in Hospitality and Catering lasted for merely three years during the period 2000-2003 with even lower enrolments than the Advanced GNVQ Programmes. In September 2003, the National Diploma in Hospitality Supervision eventually succeeded the new initiative courses after ten years. There has been a lot of damage done to the academic credibility of National Diploma Courses by the policy makers introducing the motion of parity of esteem between academic and vocational qualifications.

On 6th June, 2005 Alec Turner comments in his paper 'Modern Vocationalism' at the Educational Forum:

"So, is it vocational?"

The worthy bodies overseeing this new vocationalism have always shown concern that this new batch of qualifications have credibility with employers, the students and the world at large, most famously espoused by Sir Ron Dearing in his 1996 review of 14-19 qualifications when he talked of parity of esteem between academic and vocational

qualifications and that everyone should understand the framework. Immediately, confusion was introduced as the BTEC First and National Diplomas never attempted to make that claim. Employers and everyone else understood them as vocational training. They were not in competition with or aping academic qualifications. Why then wasn't the provision of these diplomas massively extended? After all, employers still value them today".

(Turner, 2005)

There has also been a reduction in the total number of candidates successfully completing HCIMA Professional Qualification over the last ten years. In 1992/1993, 913 candidates successfully qualified, but this fell to 226 in 2002/2003. The main reasons for the reduction in the number of awards for the professionally recognised qualifications since 1992/1993 can be attributed to the following factors:

- The impact of national curriculum in the field of vocational and professional education.
- The initiatives such as NVQs and GNVQs did not have a positive affect on recruitment.
- Government decision to withdraw mandatory funding for the professional qualifications actually discouraged Further Education Colleges to offer HCIMA courses.

It is interesting to view the statistics presented by the British Hospitality Association over the period of eight years from 1994 to 2002. The number of Hotel and Catering students, including Tourism in Further Education has increased from 230,300 in 1994 to 453,715 in 2001, which is an increase of 197%, but analysing the figures under discrete curriculum areas, the number of students has declined in Hospitality and Catering from 132,000 in 1994 to 62,915 in 2001, which is a decrease of 47.66% whereas in Leisure and Tourism, the number of students has increased from 98,300 in 1994 to 390,800 in 2001 which is an increase of 397.6%. This leaves no doubt that the hospitality and catering industry is facing crucial skill shortages.

In view of the growth in the hospitality and catering industry, and the skill shortages highlighted in Chapter Two, the government spending on further education is not achieving the desired results. There is an abundance of young people studying for Travel and Tourism courses in Further Education colleges but not acquiring the relevant skills sought by the hospitality and catering industry where the real employment opportunities exist. The other

consequence of this, is that the Travel and Tourism students are seeking employment in the hospitality industry which would lead to enormous skill gaps.

In August 2002, the Qualifications and Curriculum Authority commissioned a study through S5 Consulting to identify qualification requirements for the hospitality and catering industry. The main terms of reference for this study were as follows:

- To provide recommendations on the requirements for qualifications from entry level to level 3 across the three pathways that is, General, National and Vocational Qualifications Framework.
- To identify issues arising from the relationship between the different pathways.
- To take account of the sector needs and different candidate requirements and progression routes.

S5 Consulting findings of the study were alarming, as there are more than 100 qualifications that serve the current need of industry. They are heavily focused on food and beverage service and food preparation. The purpose of the National Qualifications Framework is clearly not understood by employers, as there is a belief that the quality of learning delivered by City and Guilds 705 and 706 awards had worthy intentions which are now lost in the current competence-based model.

There is an urgent need for the Foundation Programme in Hospitality and Catering to lay a platform of intellectual understanding and practical skills. This will also assist in promoting the Career Opportunities to young people. It is vital to include academic professionals in vocational education and training reviews and discussions. This should bring about the desired changes required in qualification structures and curriculum contents to resolve the issues raised in this chapter.

The most up to date portfolio of occupational and supervisory qualifications available for hospitality and catering are summarised as a progression chart which is given in Figure 4.23. This diagram encompasses all qualifications currently being delivered at Further Education Colleges and in Industry.

This chapter has carried out an extensive analysis of the qualifications structure for the past four decades. The impact of changes in qualifications, especially related to occupational qualifications delivered in schools for 14-16 year olds, and in Colleges for 16-18 year olds has been studied and conclusions drawn to suggest the improvements to be made. In the delivery of NVQs a comparative study was sketched with the hairdressing and beauty

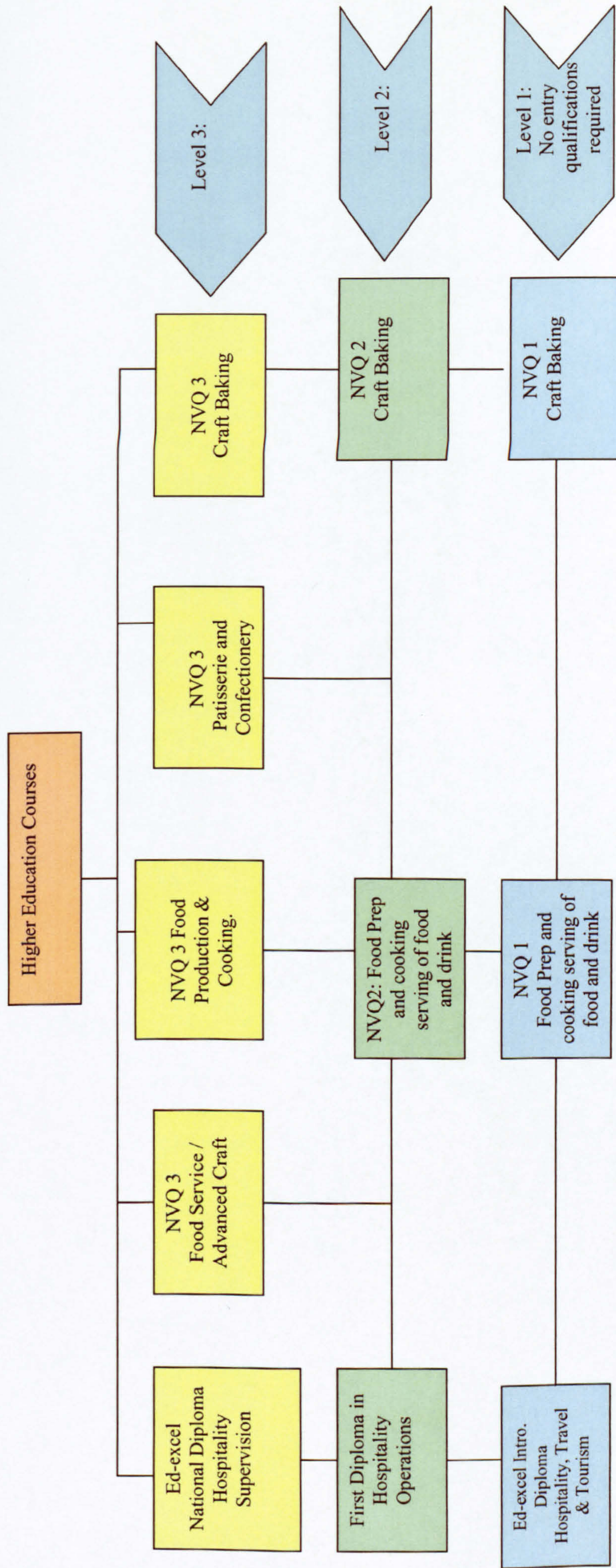
therapy qualifications to examine the reasons for low take-up of hospitality and catering qualifications.

The other focus in this chapter has been on the supervisory/vocational qualifications namely, National Diplomas, Advanced General National Vocational Qualifications, Curriculum 2000 and Advance Vocational Certificate in Education. The impacts of various Government initiatives have been studied especially from 1990 to 2004. The notion of 'parity of esteem' has been explored since the introduction of GNVQs through to Curriculum 2000 and the introduction of AVCEs. The initiative of bringing together vocational and academic routes has not been successful. In fact, considering the enrolment on vocational courses and attainment rates, the 'parity of esteem' notion had a detrimental effect on the young people.

This leads the researcher on to the next chapter to examine the perception and image of the hospitality industry amongst young people and determine the reasons for low take up of qualifications for the hospitality and catering industry.

Figure 4.23:

HOSPITALITY AND CATERING – PROGRESSION CHART



CHAPTER 5

PERCEPTION AND IMAGE OF THE HOSPITALITY INDUSTRY

INTRODUCTION

In the previous Chapter the analysis of the qualifications structure has confirmed that the number of candidates registering on the courses has been seriously falling. This is at a time when the hospitality industry has been expanding and needs additional staff rather than to just compensate for the replacement staff.

The Hospitality Industry in the United Kingdom and the world over is faced by a problem that is almost perennial – the dearth of manpower. It is ironic that at one end of the spectrum, there are a sizable number of people unemployed, while at the other end, there is a shortage of manpower. It appears that the educated middle class today, which is the biggest labour force in the country, do not wish their children to join the hospitality industry. The other problem lies with some of the small establishments employing fewer than five people, which represent around 75% of the total establishments in the hospitality industry, who are unable to provide a formal structured career progression to ambitious young people. This image has not been helpful in the staff recruitment for such a thriving, buoyant and expanding industry.

It is very important to highlight the propensities of the industry. There are excellent career opportunities available in this industry, with initial positions attracting good salaries. Some employers are also providing free meals, a separate furnished flat, electricity, gas bills paid for and in some cases laundry facilities provided. The hospitality industry has also to take into account the competition from other industries in respect of staff recruitment initially.

On 21st June 2001, at the launch of the report “Hospitality into the 21st Century – A Vision for the Future”, organised by the Joint Hospitality Industry Congress at The Hilton Hotel, Park Lane, London, Charles Allen, Chief Executive, Granada Group as a member of the panel group discussion quoted an example of two similar jobs advertised by the firm, one in media, and the other in leisure. The former attracted 14,000 applicants, the latter less than 200, the main rivals being the Retail Industry and Information Technology. It appears that many new graduates join the hospitality industry as a stepping stone and then move to other industries for better salaries and career prospects. These are serious issues of staff retention as the labour turnover is pretty high in the hospitality industry. Many of the industry’s problems relate to its low staff retention rate.

The hospitality curriculum also has an issue with academic credibility. It is considered that hospitality education teaches students how to “do” but not how to think. This state of our academic image and professional credibility is of great concern to hospitality educators. A poor image has a negative impact both on hospitality education and on the hospitality industry. The prevailing anti-professional education attitude can be explained. The more “applied” or “practical” the subject matter is, the lower it is on the academic totem pole. It is considered that if skills are taught to students there is no teaching of values, ethics, concepts or the appreciation of culture. In summary, it is felt that students are not taught to think. Clearly, these views can be argued and the attitudes of academics influenced to improve the status of hospitality education amongst the professional educators. The hospitality industry is about people, and students who are serious about working in the hospitality industry will be challenged to search for new answers to solve people-related problems.

In the case of continental Europe this is an established and well-regarded sector of employment, backed by a variety of formal training and education geared to the particular needs of the hospitality industry. This contrast was summarised by one industry leader. “It is difficult to find anyone in the UK who has been trained. In Germany, it is hard to find anyone who has not been trained” (JHIC, 1996, p.45). There is a need for more effort

and investment in employment and training given the increased demand for skilled manpower. The view that training is a cost rather than an investment must be overcome.

The way in which the industry is perceived as a career option has major implications on college enrolment figures, and the aptitudes and skills of those coming onto courses or directly into the industry. The research carried out by the Hospitality Training Foundation (Kent, 2000, p.17-19) indicates how the issue of perception impacts on the recruitment of staff into the hospitality industry within following countries:

Germany – The problems with the perception of the industry did not seem to be emerging as strongly as in the other countries. The Federal Government believed this was due to the emerging importance of the service industries in general, away from the traditional manufacturing base, upon which Germany has relied. Another important issue, affecting different states in Germany is the difference in pay and culture. Those working in the new länder receive 20% less than those in the old länder. This was highlighted by the Federal Government, where employees in the education ministry, in the former East, receive less than a colleague doing a comparable job in the former West. This is due to the cost of living differences between the two parts of the Federal Republic. Cities such as Munich and Frankfurt were also felt to have more problems recruiting staff, rather than cities like Berlin, which had a large populace of unemployed that surrounded the city.

France - Hospitality has traditionally been viewed as an essential part of French culture, with great pride being shown in their top chefs and waiters. This does seem to be changing with the advent of pre-prepared food and changing lifestyles. Two employers felt that potential recruits were worried about the hours they would be working, which is of great significance to France with the new law, limiting people to working 35 hours in order to try and reduce the number of people who are unemployed. The industry's view seems to be that the hours and the nature of the industry is a fact which cannot be changed and this should be accepted by people who wish to work in the industry.

Netherlands – The perception of the hospitality industry is a crucial issue facing recruitment into the hospitality industry. Unfortunately, while Amsterdam and the centre

of the country do not have too many problems recruiting staff, cities such as Maastricht do experience problems.

United Kingdom – The perception of the hospitality industry is very similar to the Dutch in the UK. This was acknowledged by the employers interviewed, and they felt that hospitality students from the UK were more likely to go into traditional ancillary occupations such as marketing or accountancy, rather than traditional craft occupations such as food and beverage and front office. Obviously a major pitch is currently underway by Springboard UK, who are a specific careers' company for the hospitality and tourism industries.

The research survey suggests that the recruitment of personnel in the hospitality industry generally presents no problems in Europe, but the UK and perhaps the Netherlands, is experiencing the predicament of staff recruitment.

This chapter will examine the perception and image of the Hospitality Industry amongst young people, their parents and career advisers in the UK. It will endeavor to identify the key 'influencers' upon young people's attitudes to pursuing careers in the hospitality and catering industry.

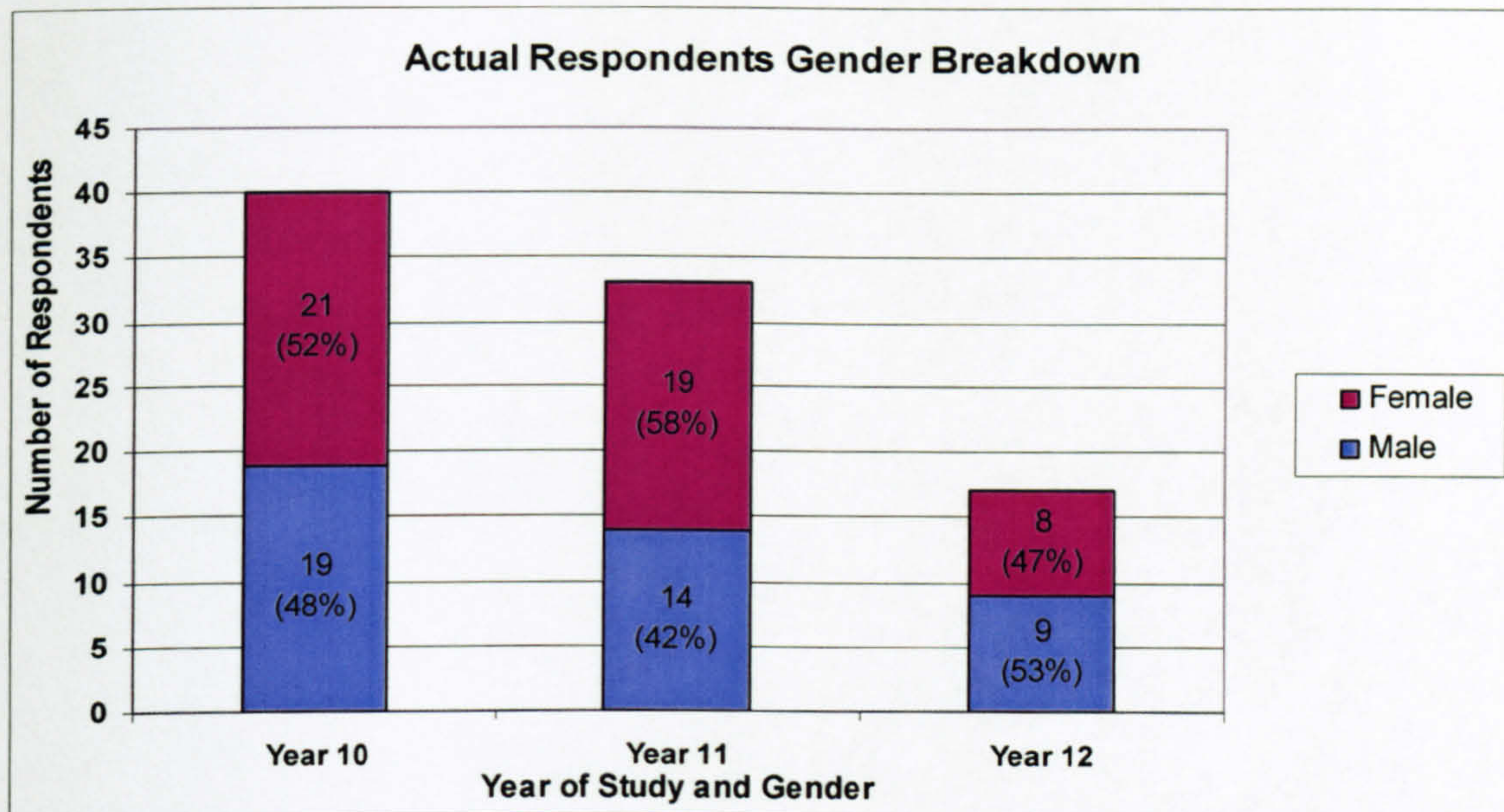
PERCEPTION AND IMAGE OF THE HOSPITALITY INDUSTRY FROM THE STUDENTS' POINT OF VIEW

It is absolutely vital to ascertain the views of school pupils to establish their perception and image of the hospitality industry, as they will soon be embarking upon choosing a career either by following a course or entering into the world of work.

In carrying out this aspect of research, the Stage Sampling Method was applied by selecting the samples in stages. This meant taking the samples from samples. At the first instance, the selection of six secondary schools was made in North Wales. This could also be termed as the Convenience Sampling Method. The next stage involved selecting the classes Year 10, Year 11 and Year 12 which could be referred to as the Purposive Sampling Method. Finally, the distribution of fifty questionnaires to pupils across the above three years could be labeled as the Random Sampling Method. A copy of the questionnaire can be viewed in Appendix A.1. In total, ninety questionnaires were completed and returned. The researcher is very aware of the limitations of the small sample of respondents and will be guarded in drawing up conclusions. The respondents consisted of 47% male and 53% female between the ages of 15 to 17 years Item 2, Appendix A.1.

The distribution of male and female respondents amongst year 10, year 11 and year 12, Item 3, Appendix A.1, has been analysed, and indicates that the response from school pupils was broadly random and the sample is represented by year of study and gender (Figure 5.1). It was worth recognising that there is a gradual decline in the number of respondents from Year 10 to Year 12. This can perhaps, be attributed to the fact that the majority of the school pupils have made a career choice by the time they reach Year 11 and Year 12 and therefore have less interest in the questionnaire. It has been suggested that the questionnaires are filled in by people who are interested in the topic. However, there appears to be a change in trend at Year 12 as, prior to this, more female pupils have responded as compared with male pupils.

Figure 5.1: Distribution of Respondents According to Year of Study and Gender



The questionnaire was designed to obtain responses on the following four main themes in order to explore the awareness of young pupils about the career opportunities available in the hospitality industry;

- (1) Aspirations of school pupils at the end of the current year of study.
- (2) Indication of career choices made by school pupils and any significant difference between gender choices.
- (3) Understanding the concept of the hospitality industry and the careers available in this industry.
- (4) Views on the positive and negative aspects of the hospitality industry.

Theme 1: Aspirations of School Pupils

The analysis of responses Item 4, Appendix A1 relates to pupils aspirations at the end of the current year (Year 11) and reveals the following order of preference (Figure 5.2):

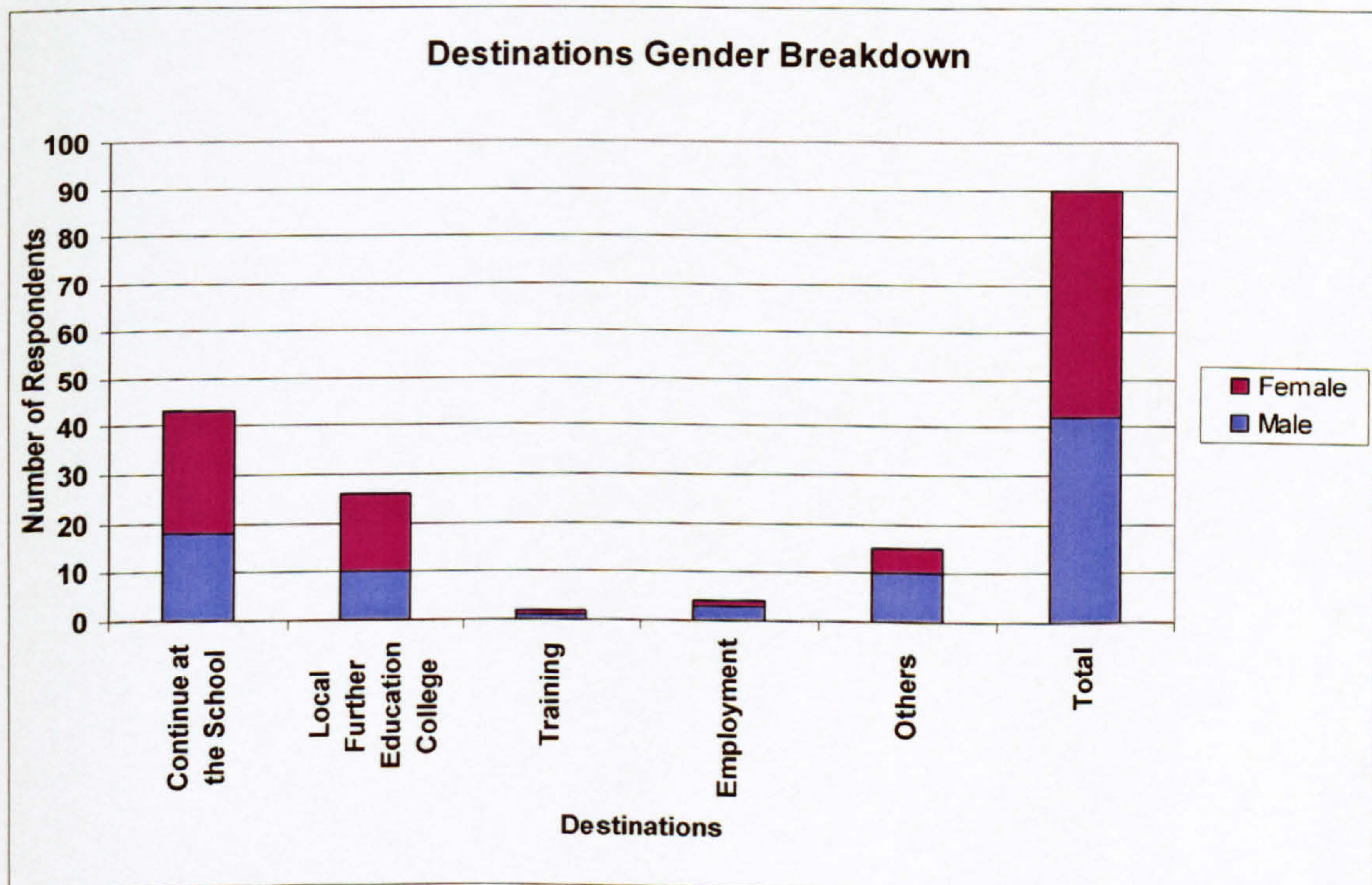
- Continue at the school.
- Local further education college.
- Other.
- Employment.

➤ Training.

It is significant to note that about half of school pupils (48%) aspire to continue at the school and 29% desire to join the local further education college. There were 17% hoping to enter universities. The percentage of school pupils wishing to gain employment were 4% and only 2% indicated any interest in joining a training scheme.

These results are further analysed according to gender with the conclusion that 58% of female pupils wish to continue at the school as compared to 42% of male pupils, 62% of female pupils have a desire to join the local further education college as compared to 38% of male pupils. In contrast, only 33% of females have aspirations to gain admission into universities and 25% of them to secure employment as opposed to 67% of males having aspirations to join university and 75% of them to gain employment respectively. Unfortunately, 50% of male and 50% of female move into on-the-job training. This is represented in the Figure 5.2.

Figure 5.2: Final Destinations Result at the End of Current Year 11 at School.



Theme 2: Indication of Career Choices Made by School Pupils

It is encouraging to note that 90% of the school pupils have an idea of the career they wish to follow Item 5, Appendix A1. Further analysis of the responses according to gender indicate that 88% of males and 92% of females had made a career choice.

The most interesting aspect of the study is the overall career choices made by school pupils Item 6, Appendix A1. The initial questionnaire required school pupils to reply by indicating 'YES', 'MAYBE' and 'NO' for each career area. In order to further analyse the results 'YES' and 'MAYBE' have been combined to represent a positive answer. The interpretation and evaluation of the data shown under Item 6, in Appendix E.1 has been carried out on this basis (Tables 5.1 and 5.2). Considering only their first choice, the order of preferences is indicated in Table 5.1.

Table 5.1: Respondents first choice career in the order of preferences.

Careers	Positive Respondents.
Police Services	25%
Information Technology	17%
Law	16%
Sports and Fitness	16%
Teaching	16%
Social Work	14%

These results have been further analysed according to gender, and indicate the inclusion of other careers as shown in Table 5.2.

Table 5.2: Male and Female first career in the order of preference.

Male		Female	
(n = 42)		(n = 48)	
Careers	Positive Respondents	Careers	Positive Respondents
Police Services	35%	Teaching	27%
Information Technology	27%	Social Work	25%
Sports and Fitness	27%	Nursing	18%
Engineering	22%	Hospitality	16%
Construction	22%	Tourism	16%
Law	16%	Performing Arts	16%

It is interesting to note that in the overall response, hospitality does not appear as the primary career choice amongst the six most popular careers, but on further analysing the results according to gender, a good number of female respondents have considered hospitality as their first choice career, and it appears in fourth position followed by tourism.

In comparing gender differences, the most suitable test of significance for this particular situation is Chi Square which is a one-dimensional chi square (χ^2). It is the easiest statistic of all. The one sample χ^2 (Chi Square) test of independence (Goodness-of-fit test) is often considered as a correlation type statistic for nominal data. Goodness-of-fit refers to the extent to which observed frequencies correspond to expected frequencies.

This test provides a measure of the degree of statistical independence of two variables, or put simply a measure of the relationship between two variables when data is categorical (two or more categories). This procedure is appropriate when one sample from a population can be cross classified into two or more categories on two variables. The Null Hypothesis is that the two variables are independent; that is, no relationship exists between them. Chi Square is a test of homogeneity, a test of the equality of the distribution of two sets of proportions (Peers, 1996, p.123 and 124).

Table 5.3 shows the results of Chi-Square analysis on each of the categories by gender. Significance is shown by asterisk: * (p<0.05), ** (p<0.01) and *** (p<0.001).

Table 5.3: Significant Differences in male and female choosing a specific career (n = 90).

Career Area		Yes/Maybe	No	X ² Significance
Agriculture	Male	11%	89%	
	Female	5%	95%	
	Total	8%	92%	
Armed Services	Male	49%	51%	*
	Female	25%	75%	
	Total	36%	64%	
Banking and Finance	Male	46%	54%	
	Female	27%	73%	
	Total	36%	64%	
Beauty and Hairdressing	Male	3%	97%	***
	Female	39%	61%	
	Total	22%	78%	
Construction	Male	49%	51%	***
	Female	7%	93%	
	Total	26%	74%	
Engineering	Male	62%	38%	***
	Female	7%	93%	
	Total	32%	68%	
Fashion	Male	14%	86%	***
	Female	52%	48%	
	Total	35%	65%	
Hospitality	Male	30%	70%	**
	Female	59%	41%	
	Total	46%	54%	
Information Technology	Male	59%	41%	
	Female	39%	61%	
	Total	48%	52%	
Journalism	Male	24%	76%	
	Female	27%	73%	
	Total	26%	74%	
Law	Male	62%	38%	
	Female	43%	57%	
	Total	52%	48%	

Continued

Table 5.3: Significant Differences in male and female choosing a specific career (n = 90) (continued).

Career Area		Yes/Maybe	No	X ² Significance
Medicine & Dentistry	Male	22%	78%	
	Female	32%	68%	
	Total	27%	73%	
Music	Male	32%	68%	
	Female	32%	68%	
	Total	32%	68%	
Nursing	Male	5%	95%	***
	Female	52%	48%	
	Total	31%	69%	
Performing Arts	Male	19%	81%	
	Female	20%	80%	
	Total	20%	80%	
Police / Emergency Services	Male	65%	35%	**
	Female	32%	68%	
	Total	47%	53%	
Social Work	Male	22%	78%	*
	Female	48%	52%	
	Total	36%	64%	
Sport & Fitness	Male	57%	43%	**
	Female	23%	77%	
	Total	38%	62%	
Teaching	Male	27%	73%	
	Female	48%	52%	
	Total	38%	62%	
Tourism	Male	30%	70%	
	Female	36%	64%	
	Total	33%	67%	
Veterinary Medicine	Male	14%	86%	
	Female	16%	84%	
	Total	15%	85%	
Other (Please specify)	Male	22%	78%	
	Female	11%	89%	
	Total	16%	84%	

For the X² significance, the following code has been used

*p<0.05

**p<0.01

***p<0.001

At the 5% level of significance the difference between male and female choices is significant as indicated in Table 5.4. A career in the Police/Emergency Services, Engineering, Sports and Fitness, Construction and Armed Services was chosen by more males than females, whereas a career in Hospitality, Fashion, Beauty/Hairdressing, Nursing and Social Work was chosen by more females than males.

Table 5.4: Significant differences between male and female dominated careers at 5% level of significance.

Male Dominated Careers	Percentage Respondents		Female Dominated Careers	Percentage Respondents	
	Male	Female		Female	Male
Police Services	65%	32%	Hospitality	59%	30%
Engineering	62%	7%	Fashion	52%	14%
Sports and Fitness	57%	23%	Nursing	52%	5%
Armed Services	49%	25%	Social Work	48%	22%
Construction	49%	7%	Beauty/Hairdressing	39%	3%

At the 1% level of significance the difference between male and female choices is highly significant as displayed in Table 5.5. The following careers fall under this category.

Table 5.5: Highly significant differences between male and female dominated careers at 1% level of significance.

Male Dominated Careers	Percentage Respondents		Female Dominated Careers	Percentage Respondents	
	Male	Female		Female	Male
Police Services	65%	32%	Hospitality	59%	30%
Engineering	62%	7%	Fashion	52%	14%
Sports and Fitness	57%	23%	Nursing	52%	5%
Construction	49%	7%	Beauty/Hairdressing	39%	3%

Where as at 0.1% level of significance the difference between male and female choices is very highly significant which is shown in Table 5.6. The following careers fall under this category.

Table 5.6: Very highly significant differences between male and female dominated careers at 0.1% level of significance.

Male Dominated Careers	Percentage Respondents		Female Dominated Careers	Percentage Respondents	
	Male	Female		Female	Male
Engineering	62%	7%	Fashion	52%	14%
Construction	49%	7%	Nursing	52%	5%
			Beauty/Hairdressing	39%	3%

In this study, there are many careers which did not demonstrate any significant differences in gender choices, such as Agriculture, Journalism, Medicine, Dentistry, Music, Performing Arts, Tourism and Veterinary Medicine.

Unfortunately, in the event of any Expected Value being less than 5, the chi square test cannot be successfully applied as the interpretation of statistics is not meaningful. This has occurred in the career area of Agriculture, as the total number of respondents is only 6, it gives a very small sample. As Agriculture had the least number of respondents amongst all the career areas, and the Expected Value being under 5, it will not make a significant difference in the ultimate result. It accepts the Null Hypothesis; that is, the Career choice between male and female is non-significant.

Theme 3: The Concept of Hospitality Industry and Careers Available

It is disheartening to note that majority of school pupils do not really understand the concept of the hospitality industry Item 7, Appendix A.1. This might be attributed to the unfavourable media impression being portrayed to the public at large. There are still cultural issues which do not take into consideration the much improved and dynamic hospitality industry, with excellent career opportunities, available to young people. However, some respondents have mentioned hairdressing, entertainment, leisure, tourism, looking after people, providing services to enable people to enjoy their time and customer service as being part of the hospitality businesses. This misunderstanding of the concept may be the contributory factor for many pupils not choosing hospitality as a career. There were very few respondents who indicated catering, hotels, restaurants and arranging food for special events as being part of the hospitality businesses which are nearer to the true meaning of the hospitality industry.

In fact, some of the careers listed by respondents did highlight the jobs available in the hospitality industry Item 8, Appendix A.1. Unfortunately, there are some jobs indicated which have no association with the hospitality industry such as Doctor, Surgeon, Nurse, Beautician, Aroma-therapist, Pilot and Coach Driver. It is obvious that there is a lack of clarity amongst school pupils about 'what is the hospitality industry'? The current definition of the hospitality industry is indicated in the Joint Hospitality Industry Congress, June 1996.

"The serviced provision of food, beverages, accommodation, leisure and other facilities purchased out of home".

(JHIC, 1996, p.13)

Theme 4: Positive and Negative Aspects of Hospitality Industry

In view of the responses to previous questions and, acknowledging that there is a lack of clarity about the concept of hospitality amongst many school pupils, the views in this section Items 9 and 10, Appendix A.1 need to be interpreted sensitively. The positive and negative aspects of hospitality industry, as perceived by the pupils, are listed in Table 5.7 in ranking order.

Table 5.7: Summary of the positive and negative aspects of hospitality industry in ranking order.

Positive Aspects		Negative Aspects	
Social interaction and entertaining people	67%	Low wages	53%
Opportunities to travel and work abroad	56%	Long unsociable hours	50%
Self employment	40%	Split shifts	44%
Variety of work	33%	Hard work	27%
Sense of achievement	30%	Loss of traditional way of life	22%
Career opportunities	26%	Seasonal Jobs	18%

This portrays a conflicting image of the hospitality industry amongst young people which needs to be addressed. There is a great challenge for the hospitality industry to ensure that career opportunities are highlighted and the appropriate image is portrayed to the public at large, especially to parents, careers advisers and teachers. It is indicated above that ‘social interaction and entertaining people’ ranks fairly high along with the possibility to travel and work abroad.

There are ample opportunities for young people to open their own businesses in the hospitality industry. Regrettably, variety of work, sense of achievement and career opportunities rank on the low side.

As far as the negative aspects are concerned, it is not surprising to observe that low wages, long unsociable hours, and split shifts are the main source of dissatisfaction amongst young people. Of course, combined with hard work, the loss of a traditional way of life and seasonal jobs, results in the hospitality industry facing real challenges with regard to attracting young people.

A detailed summary of all the responses pertaining to Career Choice Options Questionnaire is presented in Appendix E.1 for further interpretation and evaluation.

PERCEPTION AND IMAGE OF THE HOSPITALITY INDUSTRY FROM THE PARENTS' POINT OF VIEW

As mentioned earlier in this chapter, there are major issues about the perception and image of the hospitality industry which need to be examined, and measures have to be taken to eradicate any myths and prejudices about this industry. The main reason for this is the lack of knowledge about the hospitality industry and especially since 'hotel and catering' has been re-instituted by a single word 'hospitality'. It was hoped that the re-naming of the industry would improve perception, but it has not achieved the desired results. Parents have an important influence on the career selection of their child. All the school pupils participating in this research were also given a career questionnaire for their parents to complete (Appendix A2).

The selection of six schools was made and fifty questionnaires were sent to each school, to be randomly distributed amongst year 10, year 11 and year 12 pupils. In total, ninety questionnaires were completed and returned. The respondents consisted of the parents of 42 male and 48 female pupils. The distribution of male and female respondents amongst year 10, year 11 and year 12 is earlier analysed.

The questionnaire was formulated to ascertain responses on four main themes:

- (1) Parents' perception of provision of careers guidance in school and main influences on their children's career choices.
- (2) How do parents perceive the reasons for their children's career choice changes, and the frequency of career changes their children might make in their life time.
- (3) Parents' perception of important features in the career choice of their children, and to what extent these features are being provided for in hospitality careers.
- (4) Parents' careers and personal experiences in the hospitality sector indicating THREE career choices for their children.

The Likert scale (Likert, 1932) was used to ascertain what parents perceive or feel about the career choices for their children. The parents were asked to respond to a series of statements by indicating whether he or she strongly agrees (SA), agrees (A), has no opinion (NO), disagrees (D), or strongly disagrees (SD) with each statement. Each response is associated with a point value, and an individual's score is determined by totalling the point values for each statement. The following point values are assigned to responses to positive statements. SA = 5, A = 4, NO =3, D =2, SD= 1. A high point value on a positively stated item would indicate a positive attitude, and a high total score on the test would be indicative of a positive attitude. (Gay, 1981, pp. 126-128).

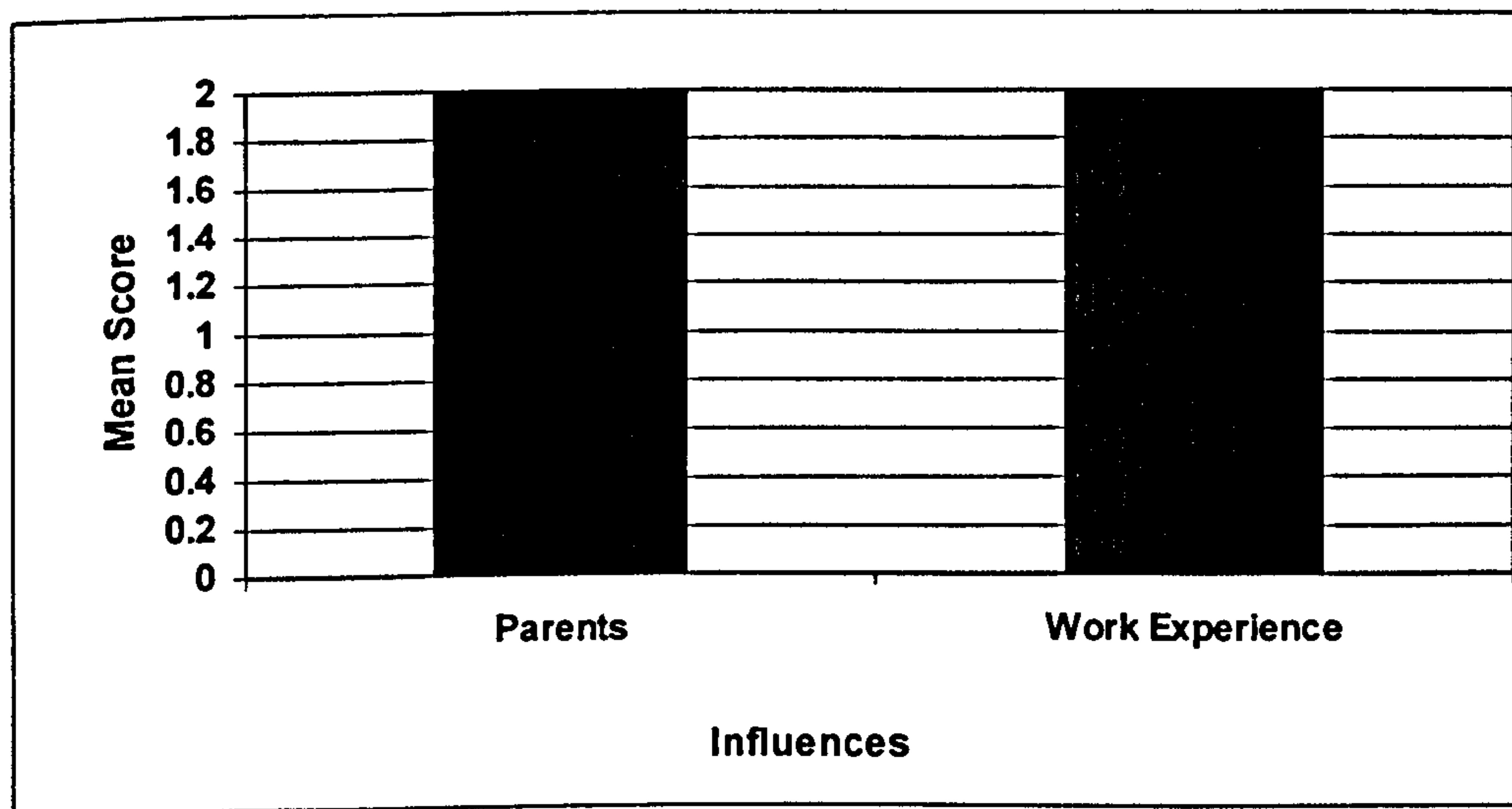
Theme 1: Parents' perception of provision of career guidance in school, main influences on children career choices and some of the careers recommended by parents.

In response to the provision of career education and guidance being given to the children (Item 3, Appendix 2), there were over three quarters (77%), of the respondents indicating that their children have received some form of career education and guidance at school. Only 13% of parents reported that there was no career advice given to their children and 10% of the parents did not provide any information.

The main influence in the children's career choices was determined by respondents completing Item 4, Appendix 2. The responses offered came under five different categories with a score value attached to each of these categories such as Highly Influential (3), Influential (2), Slightly Influential (1) and No Influence (0). Any responses with no opinions were not accounted in calculating the final score values. The total responses under each category were multiplied by the respective score value. The sum of the score value for all these categories divided by the total number of respective respondents gave the mean score value. The parents themselves came out with the highest mean score value of 2.0, indicating that they felt they were the greatest influence on their children's choice of career.

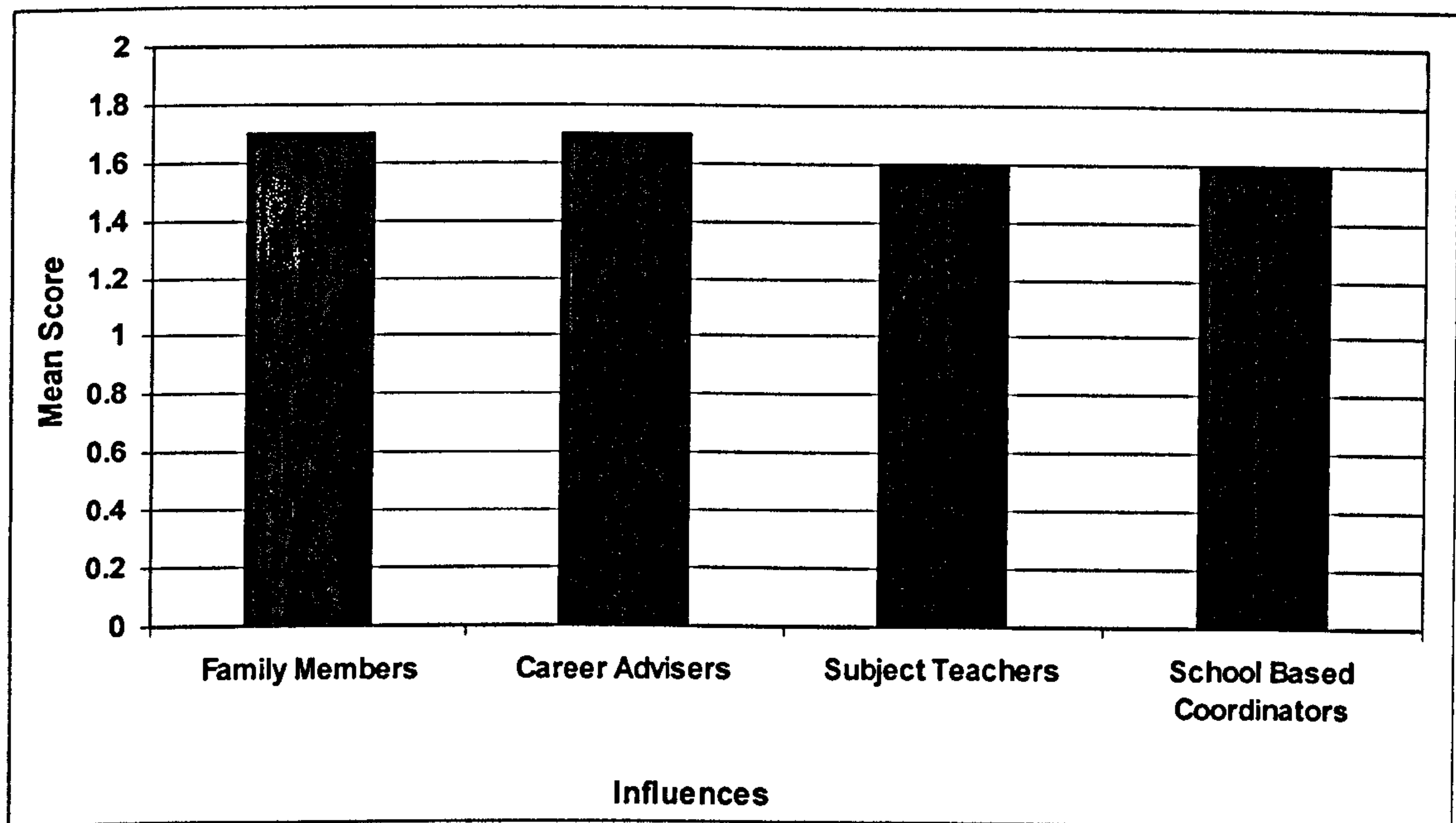
This latter figure (2.0) has been derived from the sum of scores for Highly Influential (63), Influential (78) and Slightly Influential (14), divided by the total number of respondents (77), with the exception of respondents having no opinions. The next major influence on children’s careers choice is work experience, with a mean score value of 2.0, which also has the highest score value of 72, under the highly influential category. The detailed calculations are displayed in Item 4, Appendix E2. The analysis of the parents score for themselves as the main career influencer is shown in Figure 5.3.

Figure 5.3: Parents and Work Experience as the Main Career Influencers on children career choices



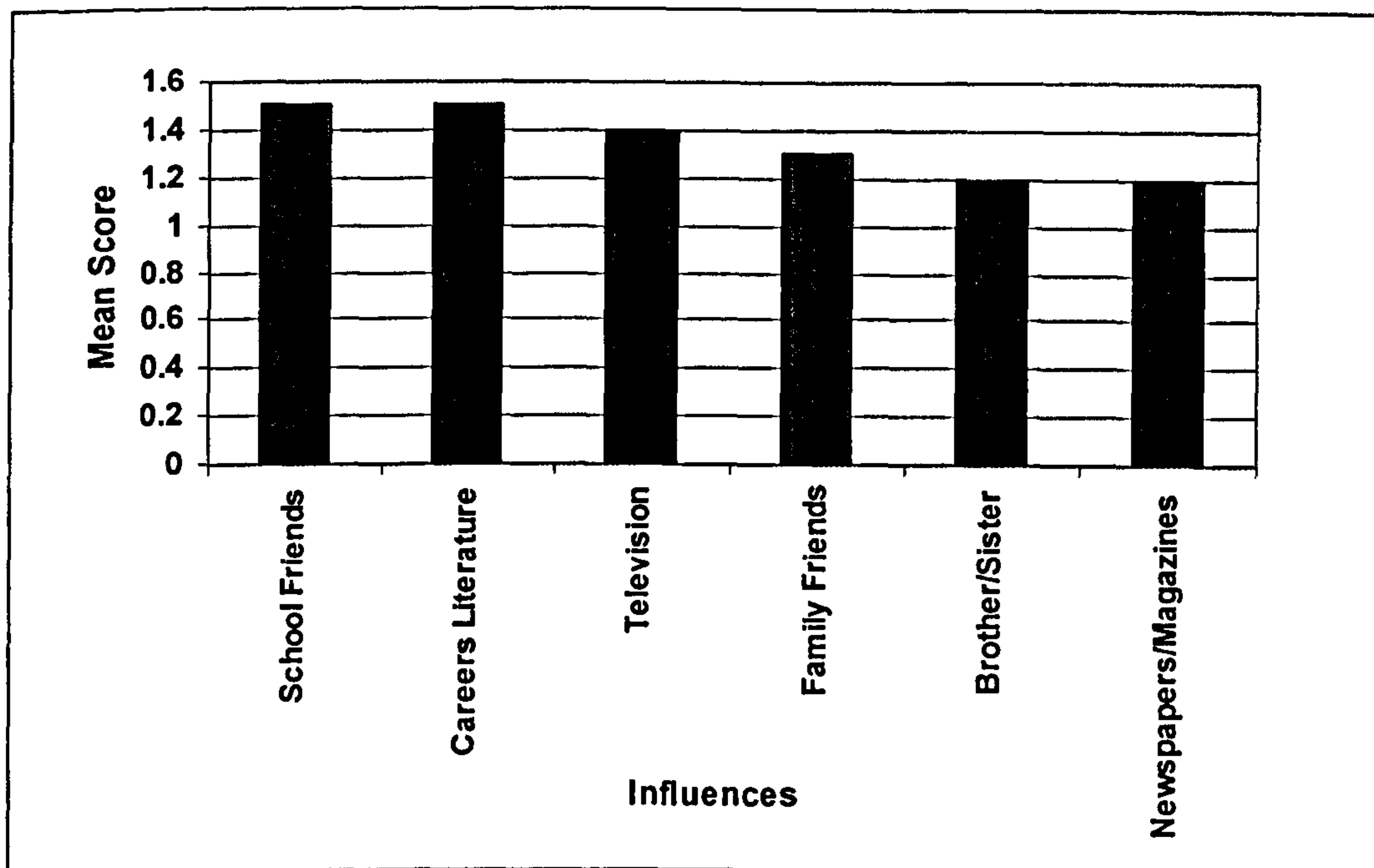
Other family members, career advisers, subject teachers and school based coordinators rank as the moderate career choice influencer with the mean value ranging from 1.7 to 1.6 as displayed in Figure 5.4.

Figure 5.4: Parents View of Moderate Influencers on Children Career Choices.



It is interesting to note that the newspapers/magazines, brother/sister, family friends, television, careers literature and school friends are the least influencers on the children career choices with the mean values ranging from 1.5 to 1.2 which is shown in Figure 5.5.

Figure 5.5: Parents view of Least Influencers on Children Career Choices.



In relation to the parents rating themselves as influential or highly influential to their child's career choices, some of the careers they felt were suitable for their children are indicated from Item 5, Appendix A2. These careers have been classified into the categories of Highly Influential and Influential Parents, and are not in any order of preference in Table 5.8.

Table 5.8: Summary of parent’s choice of career for their children as influential or highly influential parents.

Influential Parents	Highly Influential Parents
Care Assistant	Medicine
Child Care	Veterinary Science
Nursing	Law
Physiotherapy	Accountancy/Banking
Languages	Civil Service
Construction	Engineering
Teacher	Business Management
Catering	Police
Travel and Sports	Teacher
Hairdressing	Information Technology
Health and Beauty	Art and Design
Aroma-therapy	Pilot

It is interesting to observe that the career choices selected by the parents who consider themselves to be highly influential have very elevated aspirations for their children to become doctors, lawyers, accountants, engineers, police officers and teachers. On the other hand the influential parents are focused on the careers related more towards vocational training such as nursing, construction, catering, hairdressing and beauty therapy.

Theme 2:

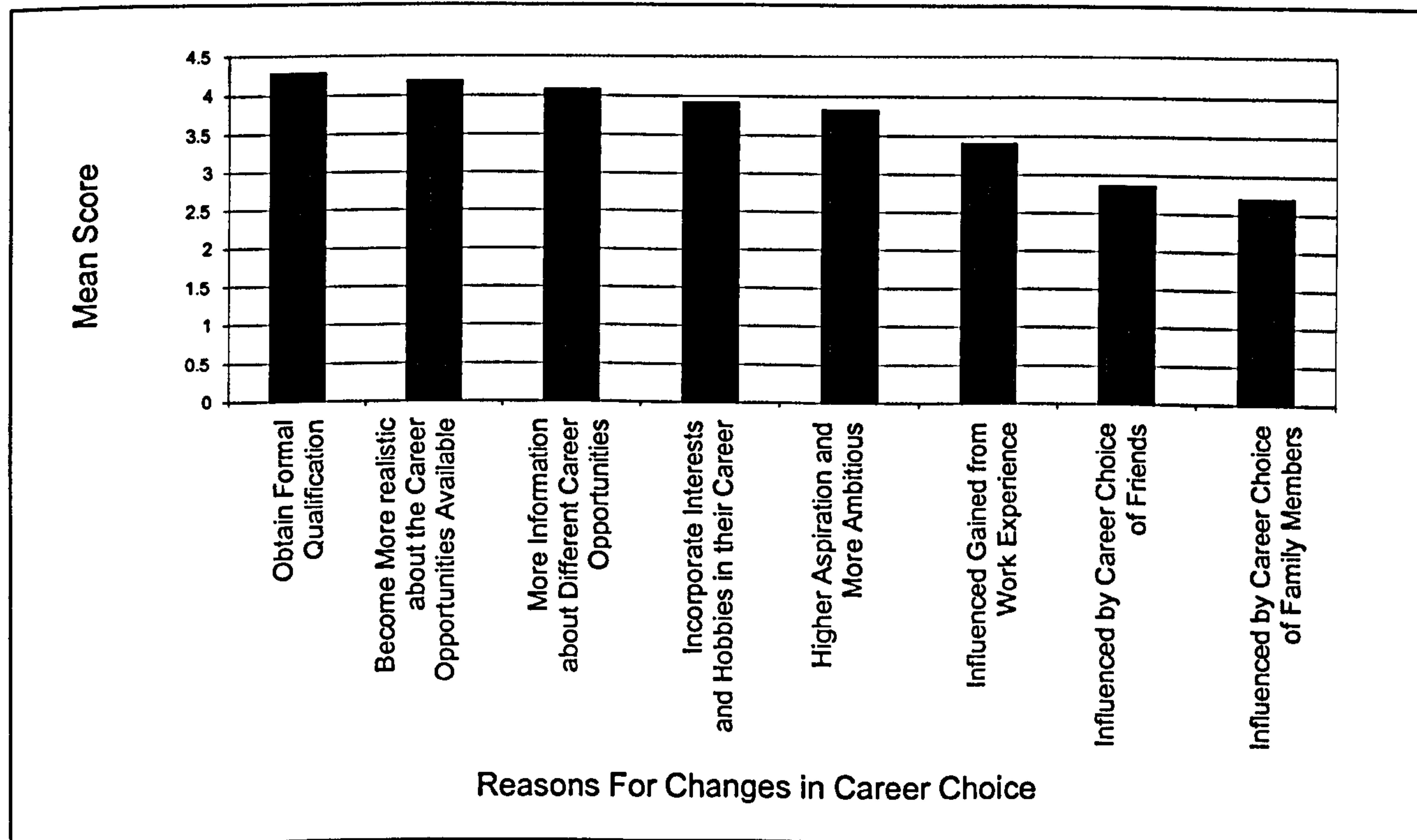
How do parents perceive the reasons for their children career choice changes and the frequency of career changes their children might make in their life time.

In response to Item 6, Appendix A2, the survey of parents has revealed that 68% of children have changed their career choice as the time progressed, 22% of children remained with the initial career choice and unfortunately, 10% of them did not respond to this question. There is a further investigation of parents’ view of reasons which make children change the career choice as indicated in Item 7, Appendix A2. The following conclusions have been drawn by applying the Likert Scale Values to the parents’ responses as explained earlier in this Chapter. The total responses for each reason were

multiplied by the respective score value. The sum of score value for each reason divided by the total number of respective respondents gave the mean score value. The same methodology of calculating mean values will be applied to Item 8 and 12. The parents view is that their children become more objective about the career choice once they gain formal qualification and are realistic about the career opportunities available to them as they find further information about different career opportunities.

They are more pragmatic about their career choices to incorporate personal interests and hobbies. In addition, they have higher aspirations and become more ambitious and influenced by their work experience which leads to career choice change. There are other reasons as well which have influenced the changes in career choice, but to a lesser degree, such as the influence of friends and family members. The results from this research study are indicated in the Figure 5.6.

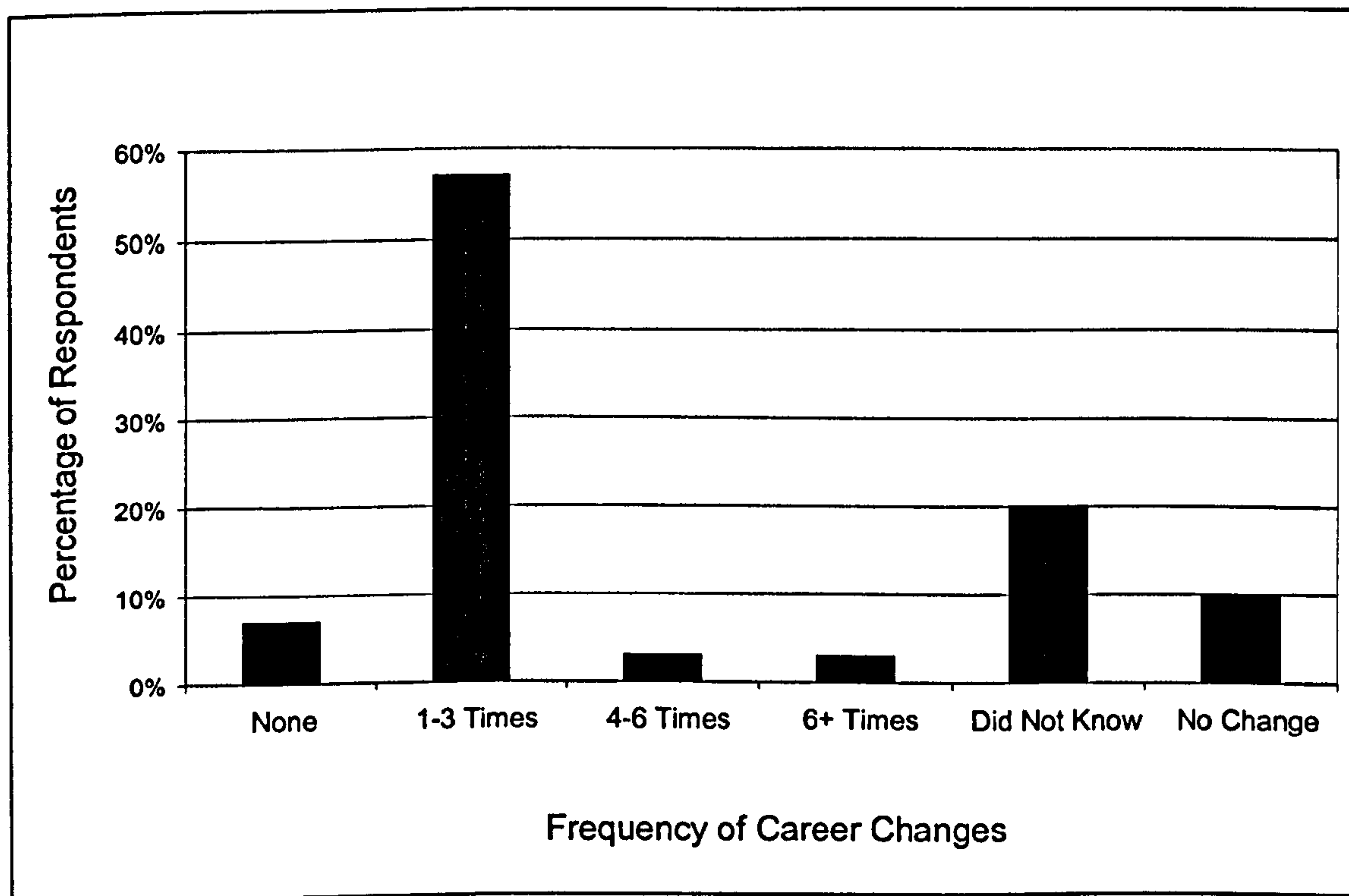
Figure 5.6: Reasons for Changes in Career Choice.



In response to Item 9, Appendix A2 the majority of parents (57%), believe that their children change their careers during the working life 1–3 times, 3% believe they will change their career 4-6 times and a further 3% think they will change their career more than 6 times during their working life. In addition, 7% of the parents think that their children will not change their career.

Unfortunately, almost one third (30%), of the parents either did not know, or did not complete this question. The final results, for those who did answer this question, are displayed in the Figure 5.7.

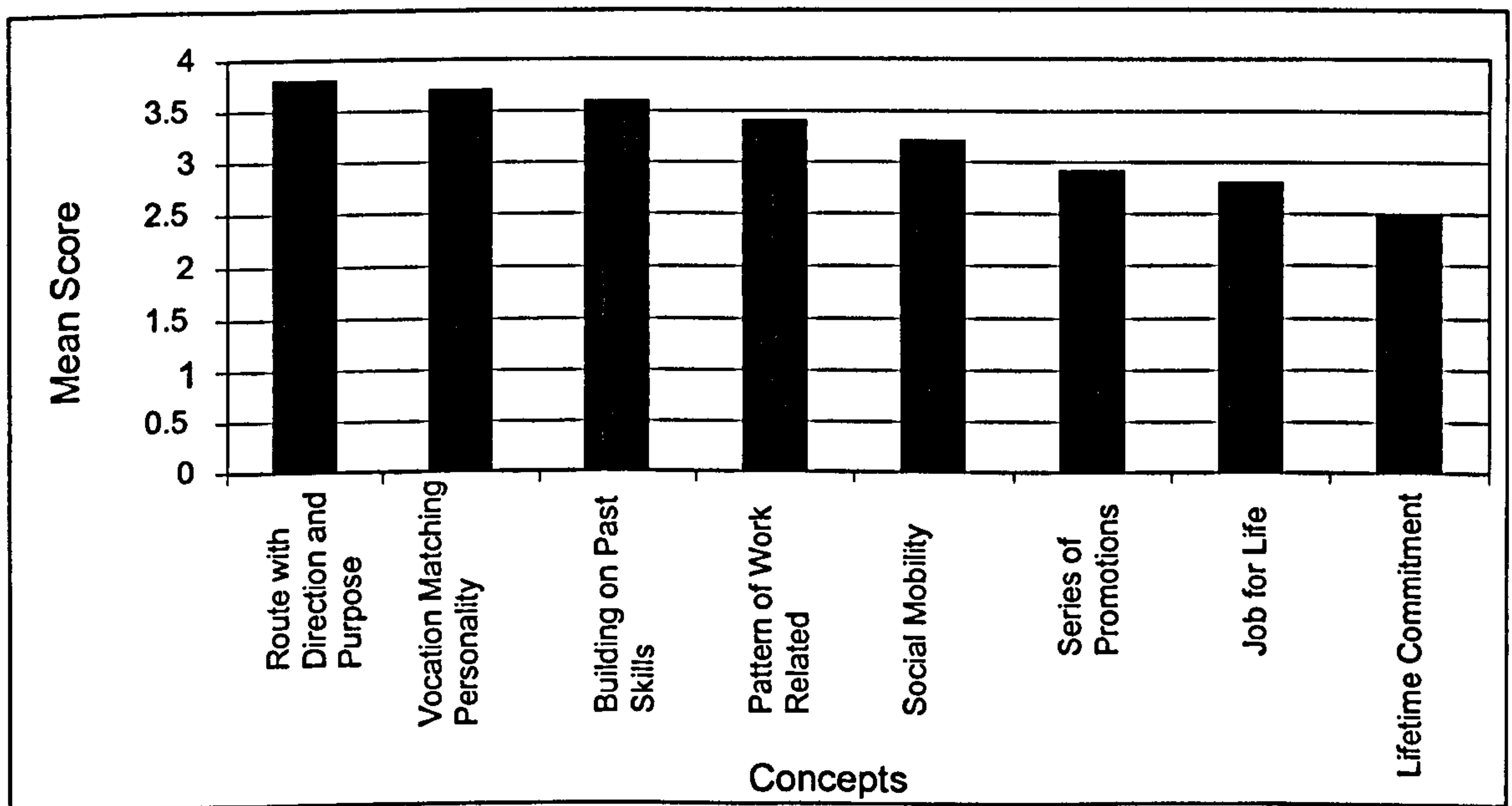
Figure 5.7: Frequency of career changes



The Concept of Career

The parents were further questioned to ascertain how they viewed a career as indicated in Item 8, Appendix A2. The Likert Scale will be used, as explained earlier in this Chapter. The same methodology will be applied for calculating mean values as previously described. It was obvious that old values of lifetime commitment, job for life, waiting for promotion in the present job and social mobility came fairly low on the scale. It appears that the most important criteria for choosing a career is the route with direction, vocation complementing the personality and building on past skills and experiences. These results are shown in the Figure 5.8.

Figure 5.8: Concept of Career



Theme 3: Parents' Perception of important Features in the Career Choices of their Children and to what Extent these Features are being provided in Hospitality Careers.

The parents responded to the salient features in a career for their children and the provision of some features available in the hospitality industry as indicated in Item 10 and Item 12, Appendix A2.

The most striking features in the choice of career which are highly and least rated according to parents' perception are analysed in Item 10 and Item 12, Appendix E2. These are listed in accordance to the mean value of each feature ranging from 4.6 to 2.5 for choosing a career generally, and from 4.1 to 2.9 for choosing a hospitality career.

An analysis of parents' perception related to choosing a career is displayed in rank order according to the mean score of career choice features in Table 5.9 below.

Table 5.9: Importance of These Features in Choosing a Career.

Highly Rated Features	Mean Score	Least Rated Features	Mean Score
Interest and Enjoyment	4.6	Language Skills	3.2
Job Security	4.2	International Travel	2.9
Formal Qualifications	4.1	Working in an outdoor environment	2.9
Teamwork	4.0	Working 9-5 Weekday hours	2.8
Training Opportunities	4.0	Working in an office	2.5
Responsibility	4.0	Glamorous image	2.5

A similar analysis of parents perception related to a hospitality career is highlighted in rank order according to the mean score of Hospitality Career Features in Table 5.10 below.

Table 5.10: Provision of These Features in Choosing a Hospitality Career.

Highly Rated Features	Mean Score	Least Rated Features	Mean Score
Hard Work	4.1	Career Progression	3.4
Teamwork	4.0	Promotional Opportunities	3.4
Social Interaction	3.9	International Travel	3.4
Working long hours	3.8	Formal Qualification	3.2
Interest and Enjoyment	3.7	Job Security	3.2
Initiative	3.7	Glamorous Image	2.9

The overall mean result of each feature related to the two perceptions of importance and provision is indicated below in Table 5.11 and illustrated as a matching representation in the Figure 5.9.

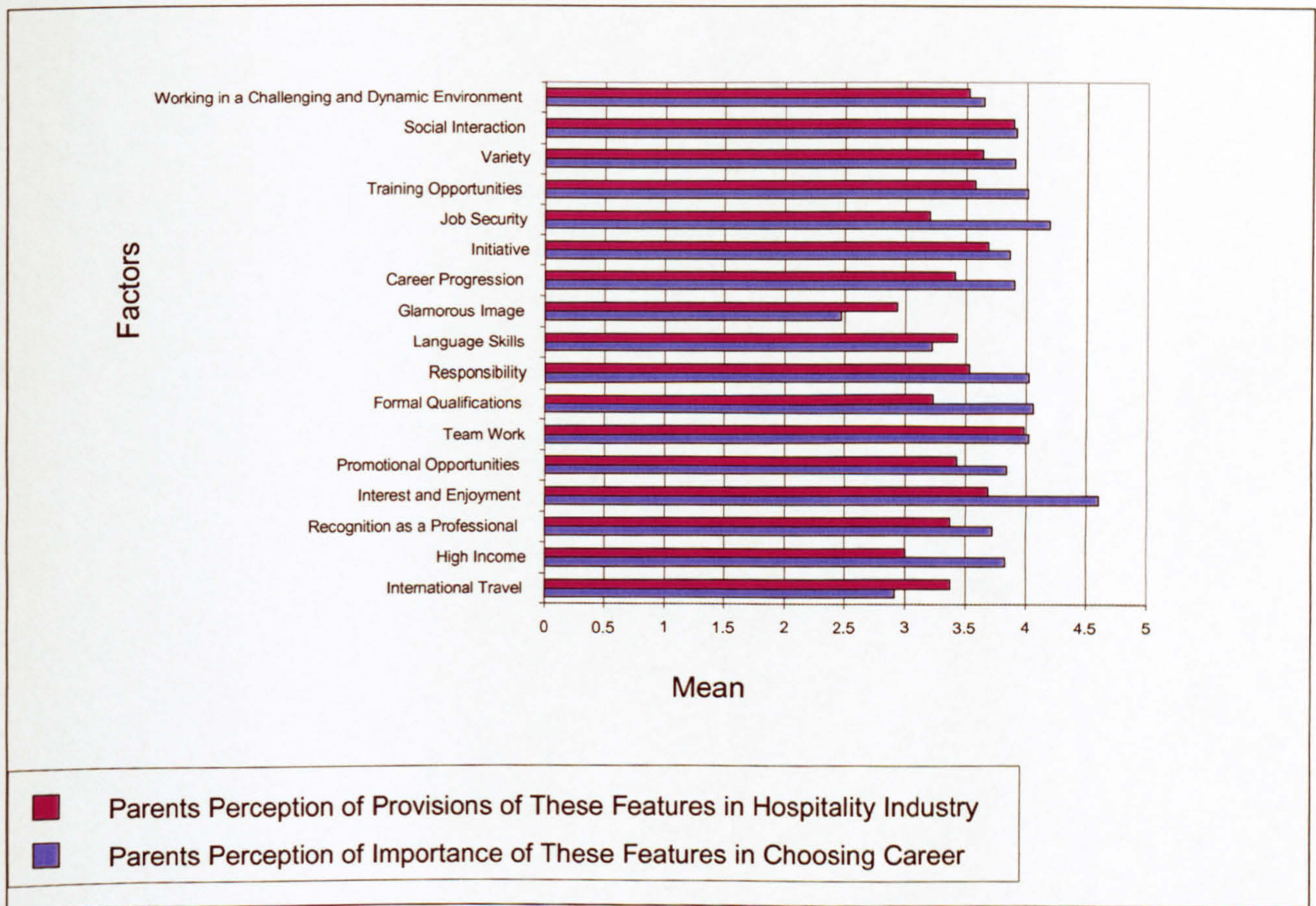
A positive value for the ‘mean score value difference’ in Table 5.11 indicates that, in the parents’ opinion, the hospitality industry more than fulfils their perception of the importance of that particular feature in choosing a career. A negative value means that the hospitality industry falls short of expectations.

Table 5.11: Comparison of mean score related to the common features in choosing a career and the provision of these features in the Hospitality Careers.

	Importance of These Features in Choosing Career (Mean Score)	Provision of These Features in Hospitality Careers (Mean Score)	Mean Score Differences
International Travel	2.9	3.4	0.5
High Income	3.8	3.0	-0.8
Recognition as a Professional	3.7	3.4	-0.3
Interest and Enjoyment	4.6	3.7	-0.9
Promotional Opportunities	3.8	3.4	-0.4
Teamwork	4.0	4.0	0.0
Formal Qualifications	4.1	3.2	-0.9
Responsibility	4.0	3.5	-0.5
Language Skills	3.2	3.4	0.2
Glamorous Image	2.5	2.9	0.4
Career Progression	3.9	3.4	-0.5
Initiative	3.9	3.7	-0.2
Job Security	4.2	3.2	-1.0
Training Opportunities	4.0	3.6	-0.4
Variety	3.9	3.6	-0.3
Social Interaction	3.9	3.9	0.0
Working in a Challenging and Dynamic Environment	3.6	3.5	-0.1

The above comparison highlights that the parents' perception of features such as Team Work and Social Interaction are adequately provided by the hospitality industry. In fact, the features like International Travel, Glamorous Image and Language Skills were rated as highly salient features provided by the hospitality careers. The features which need attention from the hospitality careers point of view are Job Security, Formal Qualifications, Interest and Enjoyment, High Income, Career Progression, Training Opportunities, Promotional Opportunities and Recognition as a Professional. The above results indicate the poor perception of parents as regards the lack of these features in the hospitality careers. The hospitality industry needs to address these issues to overcome the problems of staff recruitment and retention.

Figure 5.9: Important Factors When Choosing a Career



However, there were some specific feature statements only mentioned in the questionnaire related to hospitality careers in Item 12, Appendix A2. The mean score values of these specific feature statements are displayed in Table 5.12 below.

Table 5.12: Specific Features in Choosing a Hospitality Career.

Specific Features	Mean Score
Hard work	4.1
Working long hours	3.8
Working Unsociable Hours	3.7
Seasonal employment	3.6
Skilled Employment	3.4

Unfortunately, there were some features in the career choices which parents did not consider relevant in the decision making process and ranked them very low. The mean score values of these least important features in choosing a career are shown in Table 5.13 below.

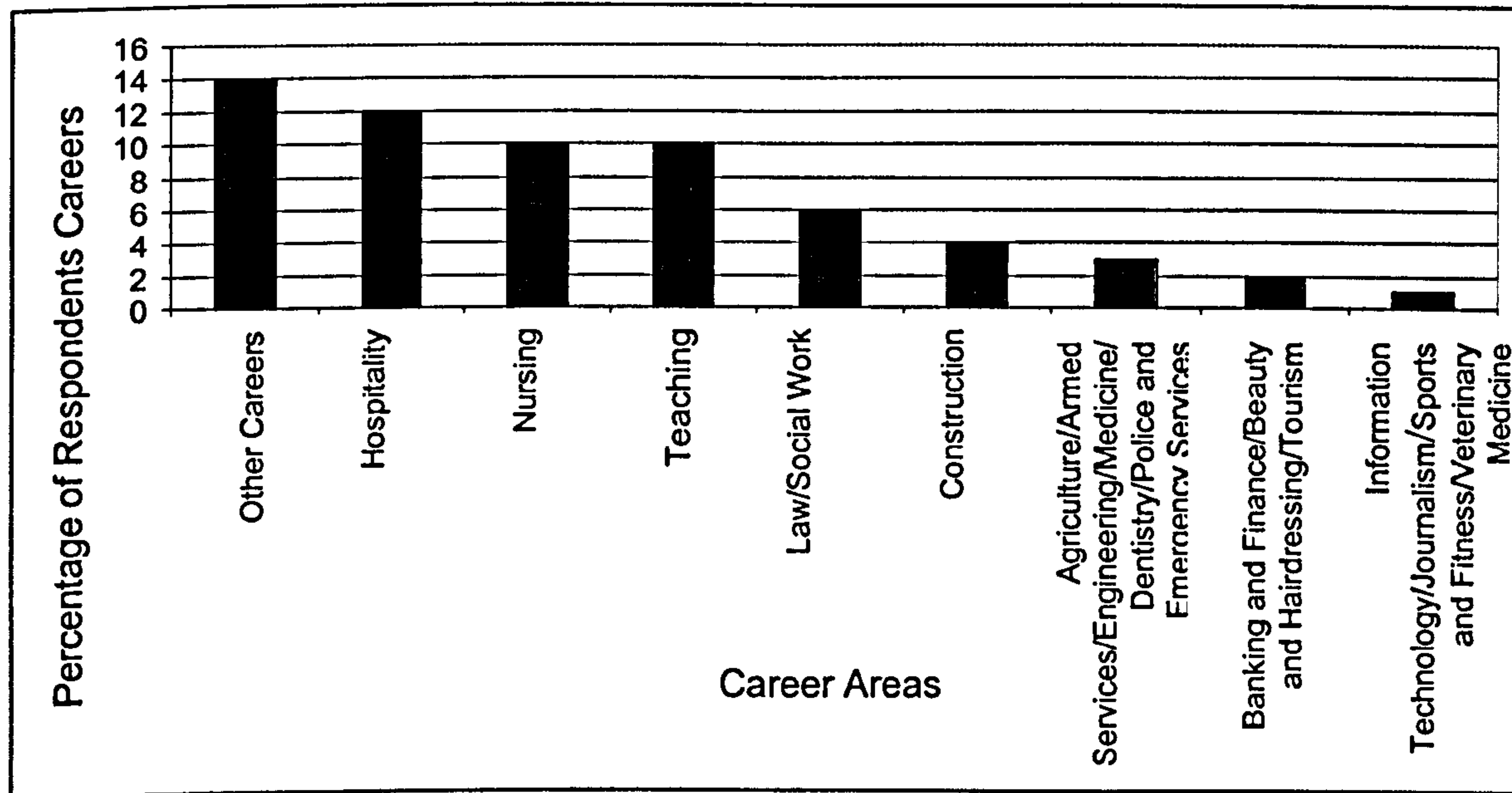
Table 5.13: Least Important Features in Career Choices.

Least Important Features	Mean Score
Working in an outdoor environment	2.9
Working 9-5 weekday hours	2.8
Working in an office	2.5

Theme 4: Parents main Careers background including their Personal Experience in the Hospitality Sector and also their suggested THREE Career Choices for Their Children in priority order.

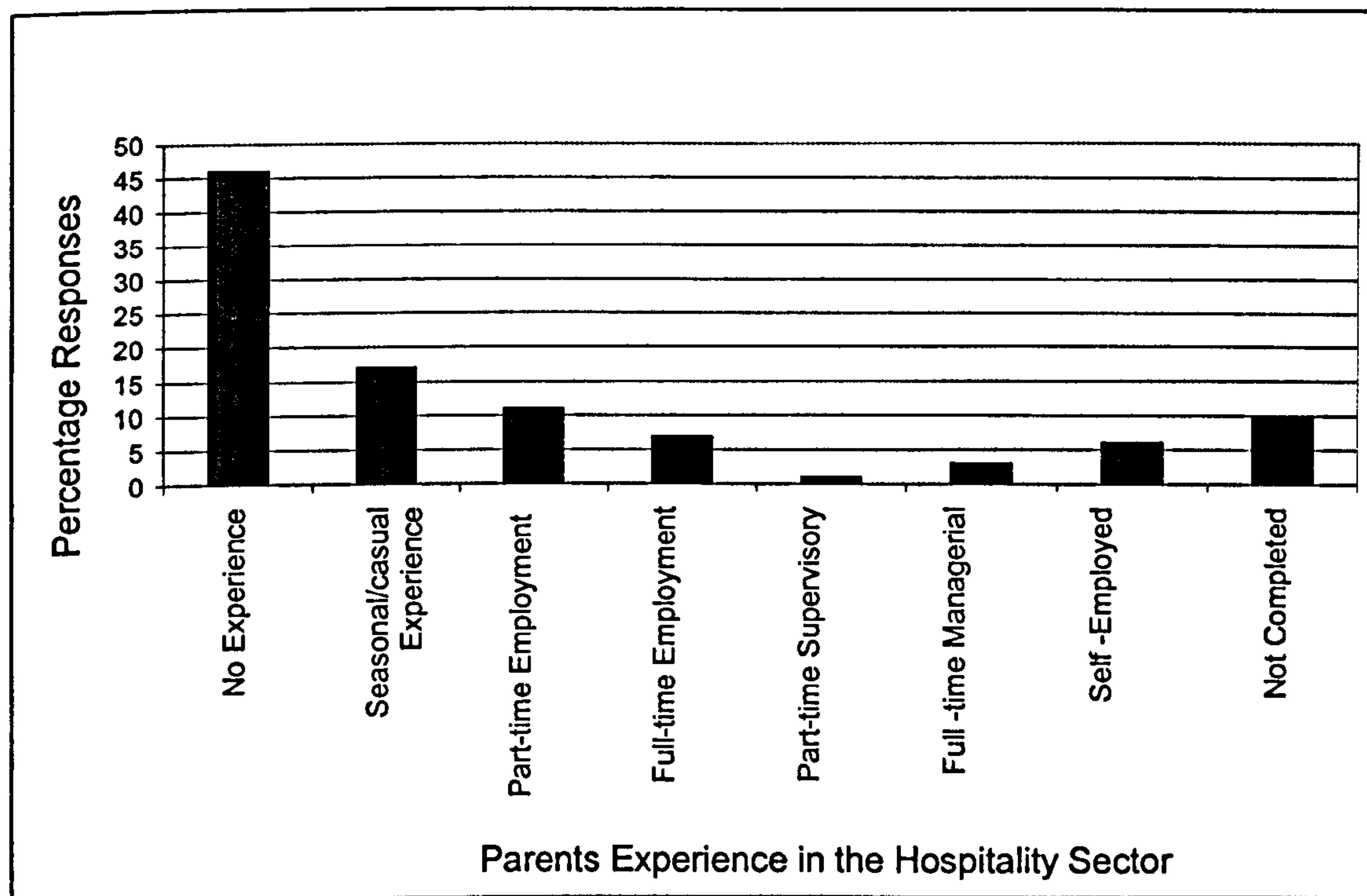
The parents completed the questions presented in Item 11, Appendix A2. It is very encouraging to observe that 12% of the parents responding to this research have had careers in the hospitality industry themselves. Thus, the analysis of the parents' career indicates that the most popular careers amongst parents have been hospitality, nursing and teaching. The next group of careers were law and social work. Some of the career areas were not represented at all by the sample of parents responding to this question; namely, Fashion, Music and the Performing Arts. Unfortunately, there were 14% of the parents careers which did not fall within any of the categories of careers mentioned in this questionnaire. Furthermore, 10% of the parents did not respond to this question. The career profile of the parents is shown in the Figure: 5.10.

Figure 5.10: Parents Main Careers Background (n=90).



The parents' experience in the hospitality sector is established as indicated in Item 13, Appendix A.2. It appears that 46% of the parents had no experience in the hospitality sector, 16% of the parents had some experience by way of seasonal/casual employment, 11% of parents had part-time employment, 7% of parents had a full-time employment, 1% supervisory and 3% managerial positions in the hospitality industry. In addition, 6% of the parents are self employed in the hospitality industry and 10% of the parents did not respond to this question. Altogether, 44% of parents have had some form of experience in the hospitality industry, which is interesting, as they can appreciate the context of some of the issues being discussed. These results are shown in the Figure 5.11.

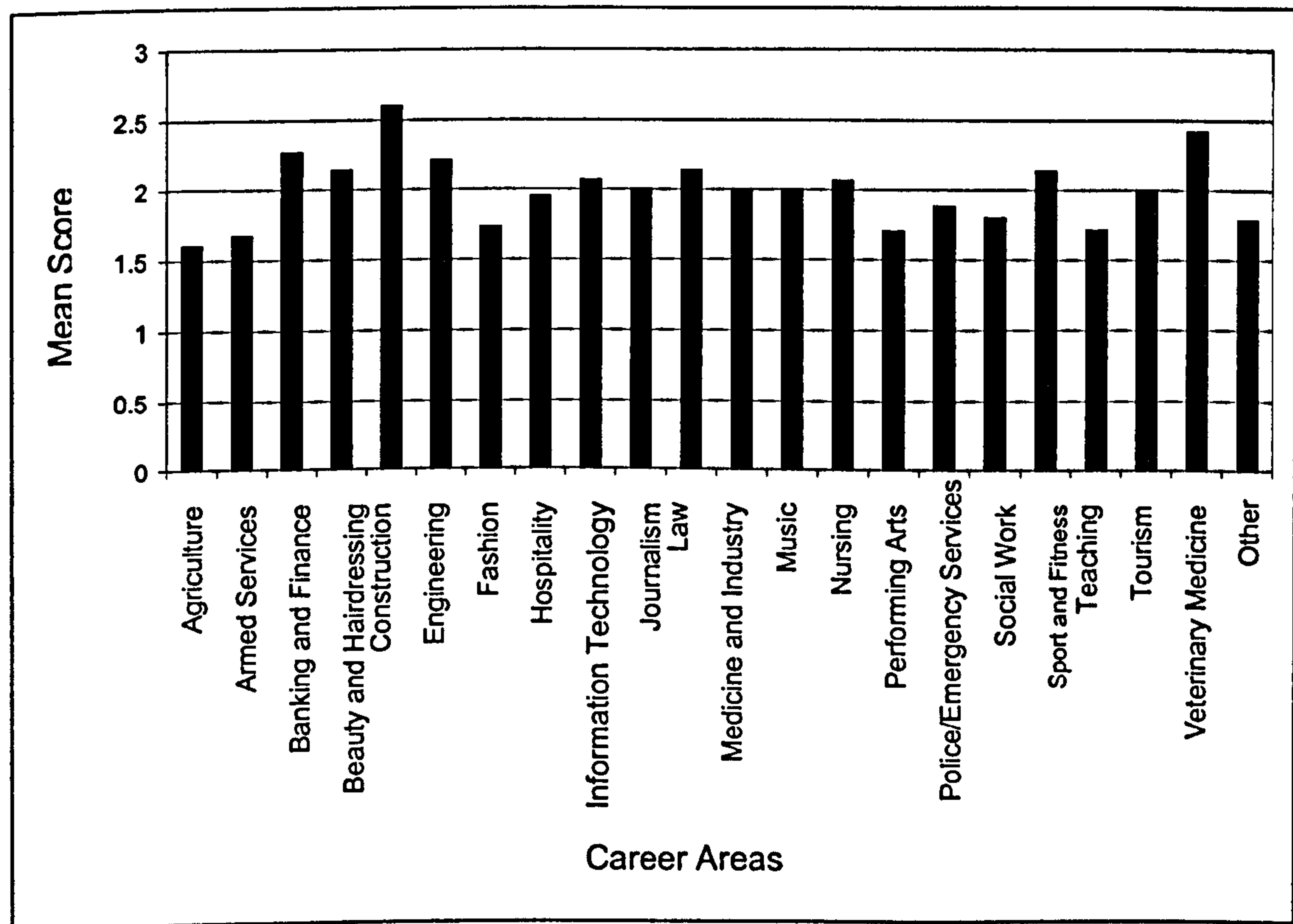
Figure 5.11: Parents Experience in the Hospitality sector (n=90).



The parents choice of careers for their children has also been recorded in the order of priority as First, Second and Third choice as indicated in Item 11, Appendix E2. Each of these choices is assigned a value as First Choice = 3, Second Choice = 2 and Third Choice = 1. The total responses under each of the career choices were multiplied by the respective value. The sum of these values for each career area was further divided by the total number of respondents for each career area which gave the mean value. This mean value has been used for the ranking of parents' preferences of career choice for their children. It is interesting to note a direct correlation between the findings of parents' preference of career choice for their children and the actual enrolment on various vocational courses in Further Education Colleges over the period of this research study. The results are illustrated in Figure: 5.12.

The most popular careers areas are seen to be Construction, Veterinary Medicine, Banking and Finance, Engineering, Law, Sport and Fitness, Beauty and Hairdressing, Nursing and Information Technology. At the other extreme, the least popular careers are Social Work, Teaching, Fashion, Performing Arts, Armed Services and Agriculture. The Medicine and Dentistry, Journalism Music, Tourism and Hospitality careers rank in the middle of parents preferred career choices. The challenge for the hospitality professionals is to influence the change of perception amongst parents to promote hospitality as a FIRST career choice.

Figure 5.12: Parents Preferred Career Choices For Their Children (n=90).



In conclusion, a detailed summary of all the responses pertaining to parents' perception of children's career choices questionnaire is presented in Appendix E.2.

THE ROLE OF CAREERS ADVISERS

The hospitality industry is faced with a crucial challenge to improve the perception and its image in the hearts and minds of young people. The role of careers advisers is of paramount importance if any changes are to be implemented in improving the communication between the careers service and schools in order to promote career opportunities in the hospitality industry.

The first stage of this study was to invite the local careers advisers to a hospitality career seminar, where they were given information on the careers available in the hospitality industry. Then, an explanation was provided on the qualification pathways available for young pupils which will allow them to achieve their career aspirations. At this point, a specially designed questionnaire was presented to them for completion. There was further research carried out by postal survey with other career advisers using the same questionnaire. Altogether, there were fifty questionnaires distributed to career advisers, out of which thirty five were completed giving 75% response rate.

The questionnaire is shown in Appendix A3 and was designed to obtain responses on six main themes:

1. Career advisers' perception of their role in providing career service.
2. How is the career service provided, and their source of information.
3. Gathering the views of careers advisers regarding career choices in the hospitality industry.
4. Understanding the concept of the hospitality industry and careers available.
5. Views on the positive and negative aspects of the hospitality industry.
6. Strategies for marketing and promoting careers in the hospitality industry.

This questionnaire was designed with mainly open ended questions so that the careers advisers had ample opportunities and space to express themselves. During the review of their responses from these questionnaires, it was observed that most of the career advisers gave detailed explanations and comprehensive answers to the questions posed.

Theme 1: The Perceived Role of Career Advisers

The open response feedback from the questionnaire Item 1, Appendix A.3 made it quite apparent that the career advisers perceived their roles differently to what teachers and parents viewed it to be. The most comprehensive description of the role given was:

“To offer realistic, well informed advice and impartial guidance to pupils and making transition from compulsory education to further education or higher education or employment”. There were other roles mentioned as well, such as Employment Liaison Adviser, Professional Development Co-ordinator and Career Adviser to 16-19 year unemployed youth.

Some Career Advisers even narrowed down their role to be a Disability Employment Officer. In fact, the production of various sectors career leaflets and providing labour market information was also mentioned by some careers advisers.

Theme 2: The Provision of Career Service

In response to the questionnaire Item 2, Appendix 3. Careers Advisers provided 74% of their service on an individual basis and only 26% of the service was offered on a group basis at careers conventions in schools and job fairs. In fact, all key stage 3 pupils are only seen in groups.

The advice offered on an individual basis was further analysed as per the questionnaire Item 2, Appendix A.3 which indicated that 54% of the advice only stemmed from demand by pupils prior to entering further education, higher education or employment. The other 46% of the service was organised by appointment for pupils leaving school at year 11.

The career advisers gathered most of the information about various career opportunities from the National, Regional and Local Labour Market Information Reports including literature produced by various occupational sectors and computer based careers guidance software packages. This was ascertained in reply to the questionnaire Item 3, Appendix A.3. It is of utmost importance that the hospitality careers promotion organisations, such as Springboard, Hospitality and Leisure and Manpower Services ensure that the most up-to-date career opportunities information is disseminated to career advisers on a regular basis. There should also be scope for the career advisers to visit hotel and catering establishments to give them first hand experience. In response to the questionnaire Item 4a, Appendix A.3, it was decided to ascertain the use of Information Technology in giving career advice to young people. The survey has indicated that 80% of the career advisers were using a computer software package. According to one questionnaire Item 4b, Appendix A.3 there were only 29% career advisers found to have any in-built bias towards careers in hospitality.

In response to Item 5, Appendix A.3 the most common questions asked by school pupils related to earning capacity. There were 95% of the pupils who asked career advisers questions relating to pay 40% asked questions about what the job involved, the entry requirements, how can they train, length of training period, the essential qualifications to be achieved and information about the prospects for progression/promotion. There were only 15% of the pupils who addressed questions relating to the location of jobs, security of careers and the intensity of training required to pursue careers in the hospitality industry. According to the questionnaire Item 6, Appendix A.3, the information school pupils would like to hear varied according to their aspirations. It appears that 90% of the school pupils were interested in pay and scope for promotion.; 40% of them were keen to learn about the content of training programmes, progression opportunities, hours of work, conditions of service, sustainable careers, and only 20% of pupils really wanted to know about past students, current employees, case studies and focused practical advice. It would be very useful to produce a pen picture of successful young people in the hospitality and catering industry for career publications.

Theme 3: The Nature of Career Choices

Career choices were considered to be of a cyclical nature by 80% of the career advisers in response to the questionnaire Item 7, Appendix A.3. In their opinion, this is being influenced by the power of Media and Television Programmes such as 'Fly on the wall' series. Surprisingly, once an in-theme is built up, then young people seem to follow that career path. The best examples of such career choices have been Information Technology, Media, Hairdressing, Sports and Leisure. Now, it appears to be Business, Finance, Construction and Social Services. It seems that 20% of the career advisers believed that young people follow family traditions.

In reality, young people have an immature view of the world of work unless they have had some work experience. This makes it difficult for them to make a rational career choice. The replies to Item 8 and 9, Appendix A.3, show that careers in the hospitality industry are not very popular at the moment because of low wages, split shifts, seasonality of jobs, lack of career structure, lack of incentives, a poor working environment and lack of support from management. This view has been expressed by 80% of the career advisers, whilst 40% of them thought that the image of a chef's profession has certainly enhanced the popularity of hospitality careers. The most important aspect has been the entertainment element which appreciated by the young people.

Theme 4: The Concept of The Hospitality Industry and Careers Available

The questionnaire Item 10, Appendix A3 sought a clear definition of the hospitality industry. It is vital that career advisers understand 'What is the Hospitality Industry'? Unfortunately, it has been discouraging to find that 30% of the career advisers defined the hospitality industry as:

- 'Stop Gap Industry'
- 'Job and not Career Industry'
- 'Industry for Under-Achievers'

The main cause for concern is if career advisers have such a view about the hospitality industry then it is not at all surprising that young people are not coming forward to make their careers in this industry. In fact, only 60% of them defined the hospitality industry as:

- Hotel and Catering Industry
- Travel and Tourism Industry
- Leisure and Recreation Industry
- Providing service to people

Unfortunately, 10% of the career advisors defined the hospitality industry as poorly paid and a hard working industry. The current 'official' definition of the hospitality industry needs to be re-emphasised.

“The serviced provision of food, beverages, accommodation, leisure and other facilities purchased out of home”.

(JHIC, 1996, p.13).

In response to the questionnaire Item 11, Appendix A.3, it is interesting to note that 80% of the career advisers were able to list the job titles in the Hotel, Restaurant and Catering Industry and 60% of them had fairly good knowledge about the job roles in the Travel, Tourism, Leisure and Recreation Industry. Unfortunately, 20% of career advisers mentioned job titles related to allied industries such as Information Technology, Marketing and Accounting.

There needs to be a greater awareness of job roles in relation to job titles in the hospitality industry amongst career advisers. It is obvious that career advisers need to be updated with the latest organisation structures of the hospitality industry, highlighting brief descriptions of job titles.

Theme 5: Career Advisers' View on the Positive and Negative Aspects of the Hospitality Industry

The questionnaire Item 12, Appendix A.3 sought the views of career advisers about facets of the hospitality industry for which they had expressed positive views. There were 80% of career advisers who considered that the hospitality industry provides jobs which involve adopting a variety of roles, whilst interacting with the public. This employment offers decent salaries and opportunities for international travel, and in addition, these jobs also provide opportunities for creative expression. 60% of them thought this industry very rewarding and has no age, gender or race discrimination and a scope for flexible working, and 20% of the career advisers mentioned that the hospitality industry provides good career prospects, training opportunities for progression, scope for personal development and the possibility of living-in.

The questionnaire Item 13, Appendix A.3 sought the views of career advisers regarding any negative aspects of the hospitality industry. Unfortunately, 80% of the career advisers once again highlighted the issues of low wages, lack of training or promotion within the hospitality industry; very hard working industry involving unsociable, long hours possibly with split shifts, staff working under pressures, which can be stressful and make staff feel under valued. Only a quarter of the career advisers (25%), remarked the seasonality of jobs as an issue. Unfortunately, this portrays a negative image and overshadows the positive aspects of hospitality industry. The prime challenge for industry and academics is to look at the ways of eradicating some of these issues and alter the perception of career advisers before they market the careers to school pupils. This is absolutely essential to be tackled as a matter of urgency.

Theme 6: Strategies for Marketing and Promoting Careers in the Hospitality Industry

In Item 14 and 15 of the questionnaire in Appendix A.3, the career advisers highlighted many excellent proposals. The majority of the career advisers (75%), suggested job/career fairs/awareness events to promote the hospitality industry as a lively, large,

fast, exciting, glamorous, buoyant, dynamic, progressive and professional industry with variety of careers rather than a 'fill in' job or 'dead-end' job with limited prospects and half of the career advisers (50%), thought that other activities which could be included are: to promote the industry through parents and school teachers by emphasising the positive aspects; to use role models; high achievers, and through the publishing of their case studies; the mapping of career pathways to promote 'Excellence; and finally, to provide comprehensive training packages linked to specific employers. In addition, a quarter of the careers advisers (25%), also offered the following suggestions;

- Great opportunities for promotion and international travel.
- The working hours should be clearly defined and split shifts should be abolished.
- Better wages especially for junior positions.
- There is a need for employers to attend career events in schools and to increase publicity in the local and national press.
- Produce career videos for the hospitality industry, which should be shown to school pupils during career lessons.

The career advisers also suggested certain strategies for the industry and academics which should attract more school pupils towards the hospitality industry. There were almost two thirds of the career advisers (60%), who recommended the following:

- Improve relevant qualifications, increase training opportunities and enhance scope for promotion with long term employment prospects and security of jobs.
- Provision of taster programmes and work experience for school pupils, which will provide a brief insight into the industry. This is to be matched up by employers mentoring and offering support to young people to realise their potential career choices. There has to be more professionalism in dealing with staff.
- Increase focused marketing of the hospitality industry as a cutting edge and glamorous industry. Invite guest speakers from industry to visit local schools and make presentations to raise the profile of the hospitality industry and discuss the choice of routes available to enter the industry. Increase the awareness of young people about what they can achieve by working in the hospitality industry.

In addition, a quarter of the career advisers (25%), endorsed a number of initiatives to be taken forward in the local schools such as; to develop the food and cookery curriculum in schools which will provide natural progression; host a hospitality day in schools organising a variety of activities such as, master chefs' demonstrations/ready steady cook and disseminate actual statistics of job opportunities available in the hospitality industry to the pupils leaving school.

A comprehensive summary of all the responses from the career advisers' questionnaire is available in Appendix E.3.

CONCLUSION

The feedback from school pupils indicated that most young people have made their career choices by the time they reach year 11, and female pupils are more decisive than male pupils about their careers. Furthermore, this research indicates that female pupils are more inclined to choose careers in the hospitality industry.

It is surprising to note that of the school pupils leaving school after Year 11 only 2% of them, who may join on-the-job training scheme, enter into the industry, and 29% of them join the further education colleges. The first career choice for male pupils is Police Services, Information Technology, Engineering, Construction and Law whereas female pupils select Teaching, Social Work, Nursing, Hospitality, Tourism and the Performing Arts. The gender differences, which are highly significant, indicated that male pupils choose Engineering and Construction, whereas female pupils select Fashion, Nursing and Beauty/Hairdressing.

The study has also confirmed the lack of understanding by young pupils about the concept of the hospitality industry. This could be a contributory factor in the issue of low enrolments on hospitality and catering courses; thus, not choosing hospitality as a first choice career. The other issues which need further exploring are the perception of young pupils about the hospitality industry. There are features which have been highlighted as negative aspects, such as low wages, unsociable hours, hard work and seasonal jobs.

The parents' perception survey has indicated that the main influences on their children's career choices are actually parents themselves. In addition, the role of work experience is important in children making career choices. It is interesting to note that marketing and advertising, including TV and the impact of friends, did not rank very high as an influence in the children's career choices.

The other important factor is that the 'highly influential parents' have very elevated aspirations for their children, such as, Doctors, Lawyers, Accountants and Engineers, whereas, 'influential parents' focus on careers related more to vocational training, such as, Construction, Hospitality, Hairdressing and Beauty Therapy.

The parents' survey also noted that 68% of them believe that their children will change their career choice as time progresses and, most probably, they will change their career between one to three times during their working life. Parents view career as a route with direction which complements the personality of a child and builds upon his or her past skills and experiences.

This research also examined the parents' perception of important features in a career and to what extent these features are present in hospitality careers. In comparison, the features which are perceived to be significantly lacking in hospitality careers are Job Security, Formal Qualifications, Interest and Enjoyment, High Income, Career Progression, Scope for Training, Promotional Opportunities and Recognition as a Professional. The hospitality industry will have to examine these features and take positive action to overcome some of the negative perceptions held by parents.

There are some specific unfavourable features which mainly reside in hospitality careers which have been highlighted by the parents such as Hard Work, Working Long Hours, Unsociable Hours and Seasonal Employment. These negative perceptions held by parents do not assist in promoting careers for the hospitality industry.

Although 44% of the parents have had some experience of working as a full-time, part-time or casual employee in the Hospitality Industry, yet they have been reluctant to rank Hospitality as a FIRST career choice for their children.

It is a matter of great concern that even the Career Advisers do not fully understand the concept of the hospitality industry. In fact, 20% of Career Advisers were not even aware of the job titles relevant to the hospitality industry. However, 80% of the Career Advisers also highlighted the issues of Low Wages, Hard Work, Unsociable Hours, Split Shifts, Lack of Training and Promotion Opportunities. It is ironic that research on the parents' perception gave similar results about the negative perception of the hospitality industry.

There were 25% of the Career Advisers offering the following suggestions:

- Clearly define the working hours and abolish the split shifts.
- Better wages for staff especially for new employees.
- Need for employers to attend career events in schools.
- High class Hospitality Career Videos to be shown in the schools.

Furthermore, two thirds of Career Advisers recommended the following actions to be taken:

1. Improve the relevant qualifications.
2. Offer work experience and Taster Programmes for school pupils.
3. Guest speakers from industry to visit local schools.
4. Develop Food Curriculum to be delivered in schools.

It is interesting to note that even in a country like India, the hospitality industry is faced with an almost perennial problem of manpower shortages. In India, there are a sizable number of unemployed people whilst still, there is a shortage of adequately trained staff in the hospitality industry.

'The hotel industry has been unable to change its image among the middle class in India, which is the biggest labour force in the country' (Raghuraman, 1996).

In India, the stigma attached to the profession involves serving people and washing dishes. The educated middle class want their children to become managers in banks and offices but not in hotels; a computer expert, but not in hotels.

There are issues which may not be mentioned by young people whilst seeking career advice, yet which are frequently referred to as a negative aspect of working in hospitality industries, working long hours, seasonal employment and hard work. It is absolutely vital for employers to ensure that young people are offered hospitality as a career with structured progression routes to supervisory/management positions and not just a case for filling job vacancies. The hospitality industry will only flourish by maintaining a close alliance between employers and educationalists to develop and implement a long-term strategy for human resource development.

It has been quite obvious in recent years that the Hospitality Industry is no longer a Cinderella industry as the annual turnover of this industry for 2004 reached £76 billion. This industry provides real employment for two million people and contributed £12 billion in direct taxation receipts for the government. (BHA, Trends and Statistics, 2005). However, there are issues that need resolving and positive action initiated by the main stakeholders. This eventually needs to be launched with the joint partnership of academic staff from the Centres of Vocational Excellence and the champion leaders from the hospitality industry.

This researcher is proposing an Education and Training Strategy to improve the human resource recruitment issue faced by the hospitality industry as one of a long-term solution. The idea for this strategy came from the report published in 2003, by Michael Porter, the American Strategy Guru. He was commissioned by the Government to examine global competitiveness and the productivity of the UK economy. He concluded that to successfully compete, the economy needed to focus on offering added value and better quality. Unfortunately, without it, the economy would not be able to survive global competitiveness. The Government looked at competitiveness across five measures: investment, innovation competitiveness, skills and enterprise.

Broadly speaking the hospitality industry scores well on investment and competitiveness, but poorly on skills, innovation and enterprise. A lack of skills hampers innovation and enterprise, as some employers reported that they cannot innovate, owing to staff not having sufficient skills, or that they themselves lack the skills to look at new opportunities. In terms of an enterprise, although the sector has relatively low barriers to entry, there are still far too many businesses failing and declaring themselves bankrupt. Recent research by Lloyds TSB identified that one-in-three would be entrepreneurs lacked the necessary skills to start a new business. The problem is not so much of skills but of effective human resource recruitment and training.

This study leads to the next Chapter, that will focus on the perception of employers in relation to their role in the delivery of vocational education and training in the hospitality and catering industry. The employers have a real challenge to overcome, as it has been observed in this chapter that only 4% of school leavers move into employment, and merely 2% of them join the training schemes. This indicates that most of the workforce for the industry must come from Further Education Colleges. Thus, the partnership of colleges with the employers is of paramount importance to implement the strategy of human resource recruitment and training. The employers need to engage with Further Education Colleges actively and on a regular basis to highlight the prospects of the hospitality and catering industry to school pupils. It will take sometime for these changes to happen and make a real impact, but it is vital to mutually understand what needs to be done before a skills time bomb goes off. Most importantly, there has to be a formal agreement and commitment between the employers and academics to take forward the human resource recruitment, education and training strategy. This will eventually provide the hospitality and catering industry with the ability to effectively compete internationally.

CHAPTER 6

THE PERCEPTION OF THE INDUSTRY'S ROLE IN THE DELIVERY OF VOCATIONAL EDUCATION AND TRAINING IN THE HOSPITALITY AND CATERING INDUSTRY

INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter looked at the perception of school pupils, parents and career advisers regarding the image of the hospitality and catering industry. In this chapter, the focus is on the perception of trainees, work-based supervisors and employers as regards the role of industry in the delivery of vocational education and training. It is vital to clarify the role perceived by industry in relation to the vocational education and training so that an effective relationship can be maintained between the main stakeholders in overcoming the skill shortages and skill gaps in the hospitality industry.

Initially, this chapter will focus on the historical background and development of the training culture within the hospitality and catering industry. This study covers the period from the 1950s, the start of the formal system of apprenticeship training, through to 1960s, the setting up of the Industrial Training Act 1964 to the present NVQ system of training and assessment. The Chapter will then consider an empirical study using the two different research instruments; that is, semi-structured interviews and postal questionnaires. The semi-structured interviews will explore three different perspectives; Work-based Trainees, NVQ Portfolios and Work-based Supervisors. The views gathered from these interviews and the inspection of NVQ Portfolios should provide some reliable evidence to ascertain how the industry's role is perceived in the delivery of training by the work-based trainees and the work-based Supervisors. The results collated from the interviews are further examined in the light of information gathered from the Postal Questionnaires which were sent to the following two stakeholders: Work-based Trainees and Work-based Employers.

LITERATURE RESEARCH

The beginnings of the hospitality industry as known today can be traced to the elaborate menus being served in the clubs for gentlemen and nobility which date from the eighteenth century. Only certain of these clubs took on dining as their principal function and succeeded in attracting some of the leading French and Continental chefs from the noble households. The rest of the trade grew up with the hotels and restaurants. The most luxurious example of hotels with which the elaborate menu is best associated, dates from the end of that century to The Savoy Hotel, which was opened in 1889. The great expansion of the hospitality industry, which started in the nineteenth century, continued in the last century.

The evidence of training throughout all sectors of hospitality and catering for most of its employees is that it was mainly informal. In short, 'Sitting next to Nellie', it is experience picked up on the job. A survey in 1952, undertaken by Chivers (1972), looked at the number of qualified people in the catering industry and found only 7% claiming any formal catering qualifications.

An initiative taken by The Cookery and Food Association and London County Council led to the Westminster Technical Institute opening on 10th September 1910. This was the first training institution in the United Kingdom for the teaching of Professional Cookery to young men. The school was totally staffed by French, Swiss, Italian and German Caterers. There were hardly any British instructors and unfortunately, during the First World War, the school had to be closed.

The training in industry however continued, but with a system of house apprenticeships operated by some hotels. This informal system operated until the 1950's. In 1952, the National Joint Apprenticeship Council for the hotel and catering industry was set up. This began apprenticeship schemes of five years duration which were later reduced to four years. The training in industry was supplemented by off-the-job training, in that day release to technical colleges was mandatory.

The training was linked to external examinations organized by the City and Guilds of London Institute. Apprenticeship in Britain dates from the statute of apprentices of 1563 and remained in being until the formation of the National Joint Apprenticeship Council in 1952. In the intervening period it was weakened by the industrial revolution but then revived, perhaps artificially.

In 1958, the Carr Committee in their report 'Training for Skill' (Ministry of Labour and National Service 1958) concluded with more than a touch of complacency, that:

'we should build upon the foundations that have already been laid rather than attempt to construct something entirely new. We consider that, as a general principle for the future, the existing division of responsibility between government and industry for the education and training of apprentices should be maintained'

(Skilbeck et al, 1994, p.98).

It confirmed the separation of theory and practice; the industry being responsible for practical training, and colleges for formal academic learning. The efforts of the government should be focused on the expansion and improvement of facilities for technical education, while the responsibility for the industrial training of apprentices should rest firmly with industry.

Following criticisms aired in the Carr Report of 1958, the government, in a White Paper in 1962, announced proposals for industrial training (Department of Labour 1962). The formation of the Industrial Training Act in 1964 resulted in the establishment of twenty-three industrial training boards for the major industries, with responsibility both to prescribe and to improve training schemes. A Central Training Council (CTC) was also set up to co-ordinate the activities of the boards. The board framework was not conducive to the development of new ideas or for responding to emerging technologies and innovative work practices.

This system of training continued until the Industrial Training Act was passed in 1964 which led to the formation of the Hotel and Catering Industry Training Board in 1966. The board was financed by a levy on employers and in turn, paid grants to employers according to their training programmes. Apprenticeships were converted to traineeships, more adequately linked to external examinations, so that trainees could move progressively to increasing stages of skill.

The board produced training packages for various catering occupations and also employed its own staff of trainers and instructors, who helped employers to identify their training needs, formulate training programme and organised the training itself.

The training survey carried out by Chivers (1972) found that around seventy-five percent of respondents in the hotel and catering trade had either completed a course of formal training or were currently undergoing one. The best evidence that training is making an impact today can be observed by the fact that various courses for the catering trade are currently available in over two hundred further education colleges up and down the country.

THE ROLE OF WORK BASED LEARNING

In the final statement on the work of the National Skills Task Force by the Secretary of State (DfEE, 2001), two of the seven priorities relate to aspects of work-based learning and to strengthening the link between learning and employment.

These priorities are:

- To open up a ladder of vocational opportunity for young people, offering parity of esteem with more academic study, and progression to higher education.
- To ensure that there is a coherent and strong support for learning in the workplace, and a strategy for gaining commitment and action from those employers who have not been interested in the skills of their employees.

The Technical Certificate initiative provides improved chances for the work based route to secure parity of esteem with other forms of learning and, at the same time, will demand a renewed commitment from employers to their employees learning.

THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE MODERN APPRENTICESHIP

The provenance of the Modern Apprenticeship programme can be tracked back in a number of writings; key ones of which identify the trends affecting development and future needs. Senker, (1992) in his work on British training policies argues for a retreat from voluntarism and concludes:

'Policies designed to stimulate training tend to alienate powerful interest groups, and to detract from the pursuit of goals that yield greater political benefits to British governments.... Industrial training is expensive in the short term, but yields extensive benefits in the long term'.

Green and Lucas (1999) light on the lack of policy at the structural level:

'There is a policy vacuum concerning FEs contribution to developments in the 14-19 curriculum, welfare to work, modern apprenticeships and lifelong learning. Although FE is potentially an important element of lifelong learning and has received important funds for that purpose, its strategic role is not clear'.

There is evidence of the continued shortcomings of initiatives and reforms which can be observed in the late twentieth century reports of the Skills Task Force:

'....vocational qualifications are seen by many young people and their parents as closing down options rather than keeping them open. Apprenticeship training is wrongly perceived as excluding the possibility of later going on to higher education. Vocational qualifications in general are seen as equipping young people for particular and narrowly defined occupations rather than also offering more transferable skills that might aid career progression and/or movement into other occupational areas'.

The UK National Training Organisations, now the Sector Skills Councils, are seen as having a crucial role in providing an essential link between employers and education and training systems. In many writings, references to employing organisations are imprecise, such as employers, businesses, organisations, firms, companies and of course industry and business, but very often with little reason for choice of the particular term other than perhaps, appropriate style for intended audiences. With the increasing trend of employing organisations to comprise fewer and fewer employees, the need to be precise about definitions of the demand side is important for accuracy in identifying solutions.

The term 'Employer' relates to a person who employs workers and pays wages; 'Business' describes an occupation or a profession concerned with buying and selling; 'Firm' is a business concern; 'Organisation' is a system, but in the above context it covers business, company and firm; 'Company' covers the title of business, organisation and firm. As it can be seen from the above discussion, most of these terms are inter-changeable. However, the most appropriate terminology on the demand side which would be used is 'The Industry'. This can be defined as a branch of trade or manufacture.

(Oxford Dictionary)

THE MODERN APPRENTICE PROGRAMME

Modern Apprenticeships were originally introduced in 1995 as part of the government's strategy to prepare young people for an economy based on high skills. Modern Apprenticeship frameworks now cover some eighty occupational areas and are involved in the region of 500 qualifications. Approximately 136,000 young people are currently on Modern Apprenticeship programmes. The development of Modern Apprenticeships from the original, traditional forms was shaped by a desire to transfer the best aspects of the one form to another. Fuller (1996) identifies and summarises these as:

'...The process of becoming an autonomous 'skilled' worker who is socialised into workplace/occupational culture and practices, (which) takes time and involves experimental learning as well as more formal on - and off - the job training provision'.

Modern Apprenticeships have become known and recognized within industry and commerce, but not without controversy or caveats. An important factor in their further progress will be the achievement of higher completion rates by young people. Completion rates in themselves, as with other data about this and other work-based learning, need to be studied carefully in the light of all circumstances. In particular, the lack of completion of an Modern Apprenticeship does not necessarily reflect a completely negative outcome for the young person concerned. For instance, it may signify a move to another job or the absence of a particular element such as Key Skills.

Clearly, programme completion is desirable, but progress towards that goal is not recorded systematically and has no clearly defined portability. The time limits and age limits of the programme further constrain the recording of full completions. What is also of concern is the extent to which the waning of interest of an employer may affect the ability of a young person to continue the programme.

Unfortunately, the Government Supported Work Based Learning appears to have declined over the past nine years from 1997 to 2005; that is, starters on NVQ Learning Programmes decreased from 150,000 in 1997 to 8,900 in 2005. This drastic decrease has been well compensated by the Modern Apprenticeship programme, which shows an increase from 7,800 starters in 1997 to 134,500 in 2005, which is the NVQ Level 2 programme. This may be because of the phasing out of other training for young people. It is important to note that the Advanced Modern Apprenticeship programme has also been declining over the past few years from 66,800 starters in 1997 to 53,900 in 2005, which is the NVQ Level 3 programme. The overall starters on the apprenticeship programme have also declined from 224,600 in 1997 to 197,300 in 2005. The comprehensive details of statistics are indicated in Table: 6.1 and also displayed in the graphical form in Figure 6.1 below.

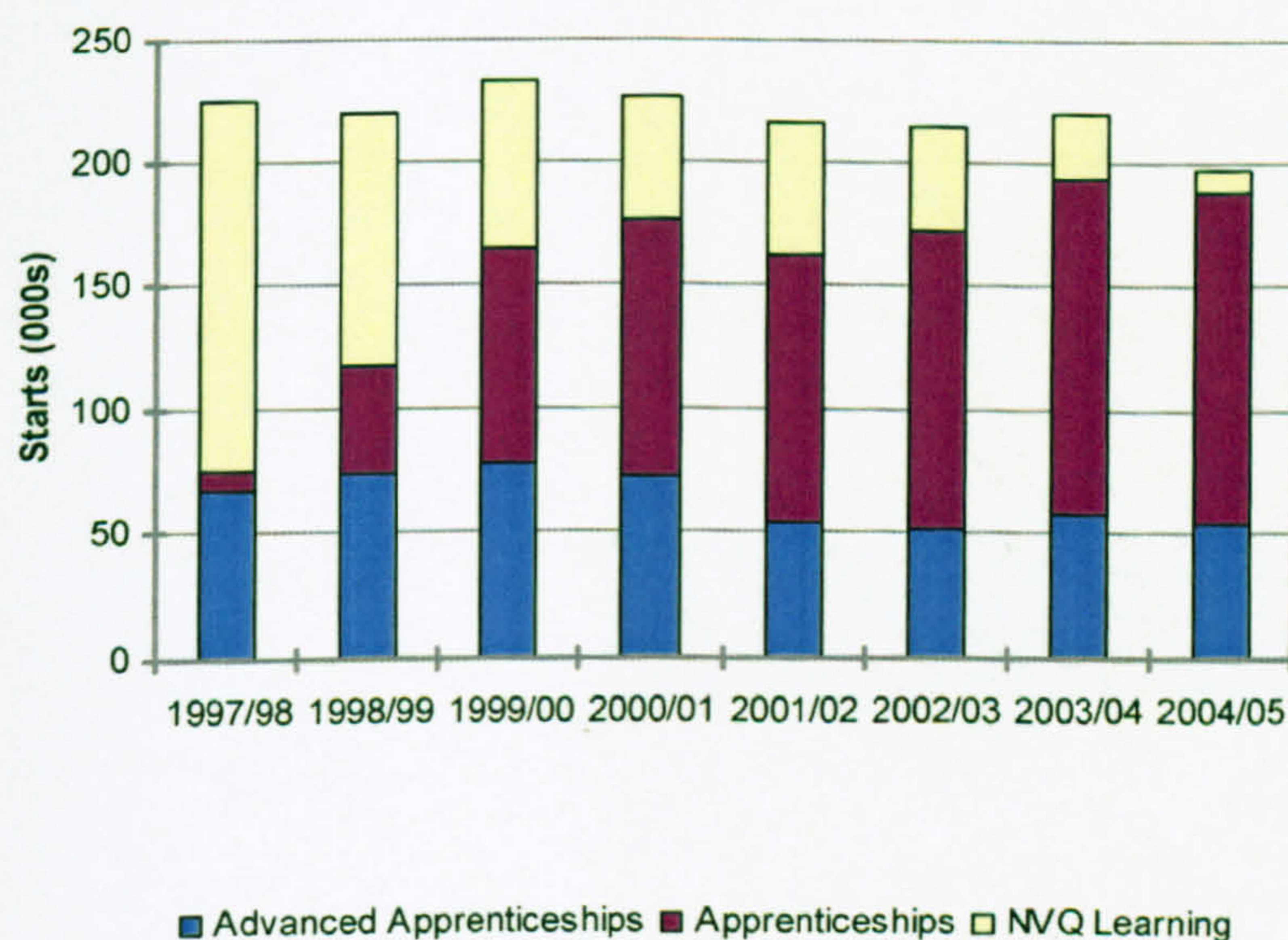
Table 6.1: POST-16 LEARNING: Government-Supported Work Based Learning for Young People

Starts on Work Based Learning provision by programme strand, England, 1997/98 to 2004/05 (Thousands)

Academic Year	Advanced Apprenticeships	Apprenticeships	NVQ Learning	Total Starts
1997/98	66.8	7.8	150.0	224.6
1998/99	73.2	45.1	101.6	219.9
1999/00	76.8	88.0	68.8	233.6
2000/01	72.4	104.1	50.1	226.6
2001/02	54.0	108.3	54.0	216.3
2002/03	50.4	122.2	41.7	214.3
2003/04	57.0	136.6	26.8	220.4
2004/05	53.9	134.5	8.9	197.3

Source: www.dfes.gov.uk/trends

Figure 6.1: POST-16 LEARNING: Government-Supported Work Based Learning for Young People



Source: www.dfes.gov.uk/trends

A similar analysis has also been carried out on the apprentices already on the programme. The trends are very similar to the starters numbers. The NVQ Learning Programme numbers have decreased from 181,900 in 1997 to 12,000 in 2005. This gradual decline has been adequately compensated by the increase in numbers on the Modern Apprenticeship Programme from 8,800 in 1998 to 153,200 in 2005. Unfortunately, Advanced Modern Apprenticeship programme numbers have declined over the past three years from 106,500 in July 2003, to 99,100 in July 2005, but the numbers did steadily increase during the four year period from August 1997 to July 2000. The detailed statistics relating to the on-programme apprentices are shown in Table 6.2 and are also presented in the graphical form in Figure 6.2 below.

Table 6.2: POST-16 LEARNING: Government-Supported Work Based Learning for Young People

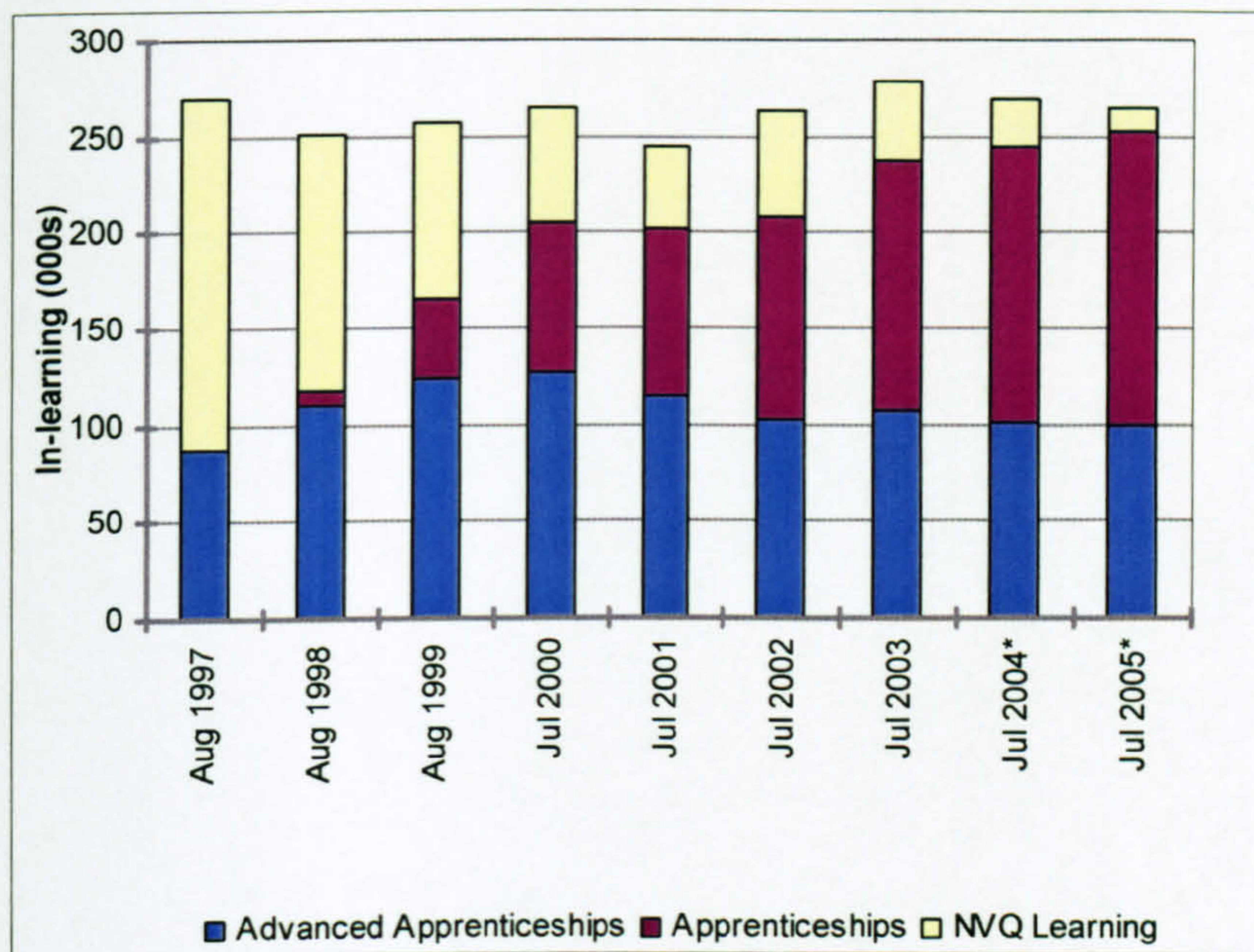
Learners on Work Based Learning provision at the end of each quarter, England, 1997 to 2005 (Thousands)

Date	Advanced Apprenticeships	Apprenticeships	NVQ Learning	Total in-learning
Aug 1997	87.5	-	181.9	269.4
Aug 1998	109.6	8.8	133.0	251.4
Aug 1999	123.8	41.4	92.3	257.5
Jul 2000	127.3	77.7	59.1	264.1
Jul 2001	115.0	87.0	43.1	245.1
Jul 2002	102.5	105.8	54.3	262.6
Jul 2003	106.5	130.1	41.3	277.9
Jul 2004*	100.3	144.4	24.7	269.4
Jul 2005*	99.1	153.2	12.0	264.3

* Using Revised Methodology. The new method counts a learner as in-learning in a period if they were in learning on any day in the period whereas the old method counts a learner as in-learning in a period if they were in learning on the last day of the period.

Source: www.dfes.gov.uk/trends

Figure 6.2: POST-16 LEARNING: Government-Supported Work Based Learning for Young People



Source: www.dfes.gov.uk/trends

It is interesting to note that the success rates in Work Based Learning for young people during the year 2003/2004 indicate that in the Hospitality Sector Apprenticeship Programme (Level 2) the attainment rate is 40% and in the Advanced Apprenticeship Programme (Level 3) the attainment rate is 30%. The overall attainment rate of the Hospitality Sector is 38% which ranks at the bottom of all sectors. The details of attainment statistics are indicated in Table 6.3 and also displayed in Figure 6.3

Table 6.3: ATTAINMENT AND OUTCOME: Government-Supported Training

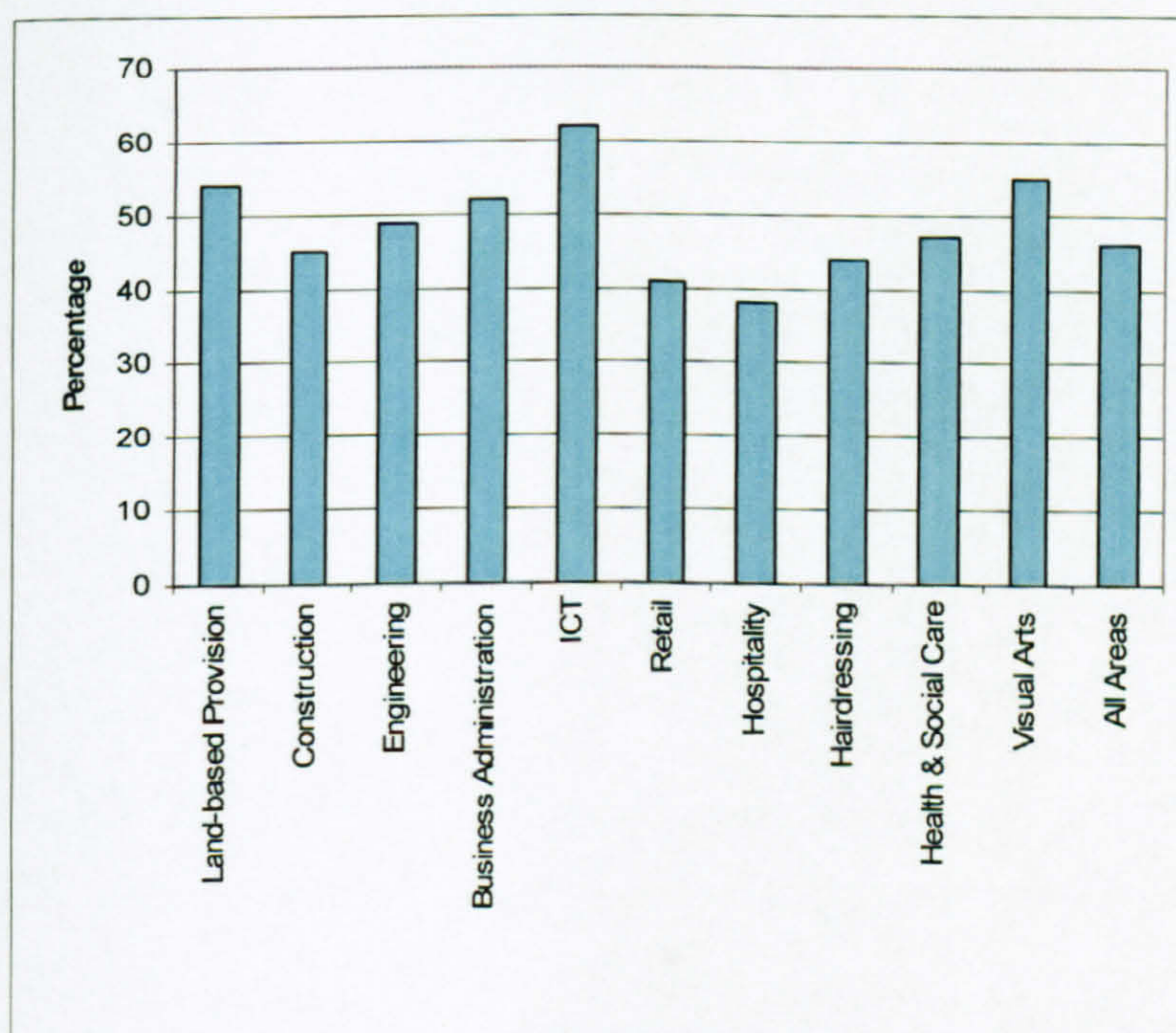
Success rates in council-funded Work Based LEARNING FOR Young People (WBLYP) provision by area of learning, England, 2003/04 (Percentages)

	Advanced Apprenticeships Total Percentage	Apprenticeships (at level 2) Percentage	NVQ Training Total Percentage	All frameworks or NVQs Percentage
Land-based	53	50	64	54
Construction	59	38	45	45
Engineering	50	42	62	49
Business	52	51	55	52
ICT	56	65	59	62
Retail	37	40	54	41
Hospitality	30	40	48	38
Hairdressing	46	43	49	44
Health & Social Care	46	38	58	47
Visual Arts	59	50	54	55
All Areas	46	43	57	46

Source: www.dfes.gov.uk/trends

Figure 6.3: ATTAINMENT AND OUTCOME: Government-Supported Training

Success rates in council-funded Work Based LEARNING FOR Young People (WBLYP) provision by area of learning, England, 2003/04 (Percentages)



Source: www.dfes.gov.uk/trends

The Adult Learning Inspectorate still finds nearly half of work-based learning remains unsatisfactory. Sherlock (2003) attributes much of the problem to complexity and confusion in the sector. His comments were: *“Disjointed systems, a confusing array of syllabuses, awards and awarding bodies make it very difficult for training providers to cut a clear path for their learners.”*

At the launch of the Adult Learning Inspectorate’s (ALI) Annual Report on 18th November 2003, the Chief Inspector for ALI, Mr. Sherlock, said: *“Learning and training in the 21st Century should be of high standard in order to support the economy as a whole.”*

He also remarked that *“...many of the shortcomings in leadership and management are made infinitely worse by the complicated design of learning programmes and awards.”*

He also challenged the government to insist on the simplification of qualifications in the sector. He argued that at the time there were 2,000 vocational and occupational qualifications whereas around 100 would be sufficient. There are also concerns about the bureaucracy which is hampering plans to improve the skills work force. The present structure has 47 local learning and skills councils, nine regional development agencies and the network of 25 sector skills councils. These concerns have also been expressed by CBI and Further Education Colleges.

THE INTEGRATION OF TRAINING BETWEEN THE INDIVIDUALS WORKPLACE AND PLACE OF LEARNING

One of the factors involved in the breakdown, in the last quarter of the twentieth century, of the old apprenticeship system was the widening gap between the world of work and the world of education. Under the Industrial Training Board levy mechanism of the nineteen sixties, seventies and early eighties, employers contributed financially to something over which they had marginal influence. Full employment and the post-war boom placed employers in competition for supplies of skilled labour. Employing trainees was something that organisations, by and large, expected to do.

However, there was dissatisfaction about the way in which the levy system encouraged inappropriate volumes or programmes of training. Furthermore, where colleges took in the apprentices on day release, the learning arrangements did not necessarily match or anticipate the detail of the individual's daily experience in the workplace. In other words the learning opportunities could easily be lost. A student's lack of interest in technical college work is often a reflection of their feelings that nobody on the college staff is interested in them, and that nobody at work is really interested in what they do at college. The remedy for the latter condition is a matter for industry; the former could be put right by a sound tutorial system.

In some sectors, particularly those in which apprenticeship was a traditional mode of entry to a skilled occupation, the Modern Apprenticeship framework already includes a specified programme of learning in a location other than the immediate place of work. In other sectors, typically in service sectors with a history of unspecified, low or uncertified criteria for initial training, the Modern Apprenticeship framework prescribes the acquisition of an NVQ and particular Key Skills only. The current reform seeks to standardise that situation in Modern Apprenticeship across the sectors and occupations.

The partnership between organisations concerned with apprenticeships is crucial to establishing an environment for integration. Fuller, (1996) counselled:

'The imperative of managing and delivering high quality training is more likely to be fulfilled in cases where employers, together with other relevant groups become active participants in the creation of mechanisms designed to ensure that effective learning takes place in the work place and off-the-job'.

The integration of on and off-the job learning would appear to be sought in general, through professionals adopting good practice.

- Good partnership working
- A planned close relationship between the apprentice and an experienced employee involving aspects of mentoring and coaching
- The coach/mentor being fully trained in the employers substantive work as well as in aspects of mentoring and coaching
- The supervised use of techniques such as logbooks, or on-line tracking which enable and require both the apprentice and others to take an interest in, and responsibility for the integration of what has been learned on and off-the job
- The integration of Key Skills into other learning
- Monitoring and feedback approaches within the workplace
- Innovative approaches to delivery

The credibility of qualifications for employers is wrapped up in concepts of the rate of return on investment – whether that be short or medium term, according to the employer's capacity and inclination – and this demands examination of:

- The overall length of time it takes to qualify
- The costs of off-the job training
- The ability of the employer's production or service schedule to support on-the job training
- The costs of training work-based trainers, mentors, coaches
- The likelihood of completion and success
- What a qualified person can contribute
- The likelihood of the qualified or part-qualified person changing jobs

Other aspects of importance to employers, but which do not always feature as top priority, particularly in small employer's decisions to offer training or allocate resources to it, include:

- The extent to which a programme such as Modern Apprenticeship is part of a strategy to become a learning organisation, perhaps through steps such as Investors in People.
- The extent to which the employer is able to envisage returns at some point in the future from interacting with the wider education community

Where employers are able to have a longer term view, there would appear to be a positive impact on the efforts of all those involved in attempting to integrate learning in the workplace with elsewhere. In other words, sound employer involvement and commitment to learning provides a backdrop against which individuals benefit from improved opportunities. There are good examples of large employers such as Savoy Hotels, Hilton Hotels, Compass Catering Services and Aramark Catering Company heavily investing in work based learning in the Hospitality and Catering Industry.

Realistic Working Environment (RWE)

The value of on-the-job training is not in question in relation to the apprenticeship programmes. However, there has been a growing recognition that the use of a simulated work environment, known as the Realistic Working Environment (RWE), can have significant advantages for training in the educational institutions.

This form of off-the job training is long established in catering, hairdressing and beauty therapy curriculum areas. Secretarial and reception services, and newer opportunities emerging in tourism and theatre, reflect the increase of potential employment in these areas. The vocational curriculum in Further Education has been moving increasingly towards learning and assessment methods that are directly relevant to the demands of the workplace. Some learning needs require a work context, but may actually be better developed for certain competencies in a RWE than in the workplace.

The RWE provides a controlled and safe environment for experimentation and learning.

Armstrong and Hughes (2000) in a FEDA report identified the benefits of RWE to students as:

- Assessment opportunities
- Motivation
- Skills development
- Facilitating the transition from college to work
- Further development of skills in communication, team working and customer care

They suggested that there is more time and capacity in an RWE to develop the learner's skills incrementally than in an actual working environment. Correspondingly, working under pressure and developing professional effectiveness may not be rated as a very high priority by the trainers and instructors as an educational outcome. In fact, it may perhaps be rated as less highly, because of the emphasis on maturation and development of young people.

The benefits of RWE for staff and the institution are generally related with marketing and the facilitation of external relations. However, other benefits identified are the partnerships with businesses, encouragement of staff development and the improvement of progression rates.

The FEDA report concluded that:

Many of the staff involved in RWEs have relevant business/industry experience, and are therefore potentially valuable role models for students in transition from school to work, and are able to ensure relevance in the vocational curriculum. The use of RWE as the focal point for assessment was identified as a way of supporting this validity, especially where college staff are accredited as work-based assessors.

The main features of the Realistic Working Environment are summarised below:

- A Realistic Work Environments provide a safe environment for learners to practice their skills, facilitate assessment and aid motivation
- Off-the-job providers offering such facilities need to ensure that RWE's enhance real work experience and provide opportunities to generate evidence of vocational competence and key skills in the workplace
- Linking in to local employers will enhance the validity of provision, and facilitate communication between trainers
- The thorough awareness by trainers in RWEs of National Occupational Standards will facilitate close working with other work based provision and productive training for the apprentice
- There may be further development opportunities for RWEs under the Centres of Vocational Excellence initiative, which is designed to improve the capacity of colleges to respond to skill needs.

Vocational Specialism: Centres of Vocational Excellence.

The National Skills Task Force identified the need for vocational training which placed greater emphasis on the development of technical knowledge, vocational skills, key skills and basic skills, to secure UK competitiveness. David Blunkett, in his speech at the Association of Colleges Annual Conference in November 2000, echoed these sentiments to delegates. This statement outlined the need to develop the capacity of colleges and other providers to deliver higher level and specialist skills in his vision for a modern skills supply system, proposed as being

'...the reinvention for a new century of vocational and technical education... of the same standard and delivered with the same rigour, as academic opportunities with new approaches to delivery...'

(Blunkett, 2000)

The statement heralded the development of the Centres of Vocational Excellence programme. However, in order to achieve these ambitions there is a need to develop a curriculum for vocational excellence which extends the learner's capacity to become an expert in their specialist field and also to achieve higher level skills as demanded by the hospitality and catering industry. One such attempt to introduce the curriculum for 'Competence with Excellence' is described in Chapter: 8.

The Secretary of State's recent announcement about Colleges of Excellence, where the funds will be available to further improve vocational plant and equipment, provides an opportunity for these Centres to engage with employers and promote the flexible use of specialist facilities by apprentices.

THE DEVELOPMENT OF TECHNICAL CERTIFICATES

The National Skills Task Force Report (2000) recommended consultation and debate on related vocational qualifications. On 25th January 2001, the Secretary of State for Education and Employment announced certain reforms to Modern Apprenticeship frameworks. These reforms included the development and award of Technical Certificates.

In 2001, the Qualification and Curriculum Authority commissioned National Training Organisations to examine the suitability of existing qualifications for use as Technical Certificates, provided they meet certain criteria; that is, the acquisition of underpinning knowledge for the specific National Vocational Qualifications. The new frameworks have been developed for Foundation Modern Apprenticeships and Advanced Modern Apprenticeships by the Hospitality Awarding Body for the hospitality and catering industry. These are being further updated by the Sectors Skills Council, People 1st to meet the current needs of employers.

THE DELIVERY OF TECHNICAL CERTIFICATES

Technology-based Learning

There are important issues concerned with the impact of innovative and creative methods of delivery on the effectiveness of Technical Certificates. The use of on-line learning and other technology-based learning techniques is not a short cut alternative to providing more traditional or formal learning opportunities. Although the technology option may possibly aim at avoiding a day release attendance at a college, yet there will need to be an input of resource by the employer or training provider to ensure maximum benefit is obtained by the individual. In practice, the most effective solution is for the trainees to attend college, either on a short-course, or a course to be delivered in the work place using college resources, because most of the technical certificates involve an external written examination which is mandatory to achieve a qualification. However, technology – based learning could provide additional support to trainees in achieving their technical certificates.

The Relevance of Technical Certificates

The technical certificates content is initially designed by the awarding body, such as City and Guilds and Ed-excel, which is finally approved by the Qualifications Curriculum Authority. It is important that the relevant technical knowledge is covered by these certificates, such as courses in Food Preparation and Cooking that will involve Certificates in Foundation Food Hygiene, Intermediate Food Hygiene and Hazard Analysis at Critical Control Points, whilst courses in Food and Beverage Service will involve a Wine and Spirit Education Certificate, Customer Service and the British Institute of Innkeeping National Licensing Certificates.

Technical Certificates must maintain relevance and validity to the qualifications as this will have a huge impact in securing the interest, support and commitment of young people to Modern Apprenticeship. Colleges and training providers need to ensure that the quality of provision offered, including the training levels of their staff and the work-relatedness of their equipment and resources, is of highest standard.

Linking in to the Benefits of Other Government Initiative

The introduction of Technical Certificates is one of many measures that are aimed at enhancing the trainee's technical knowledge, which will in turn improve skills attainment levels and the progression opportunities for young people. It is an integral part of the concept of the vocational ladder, extending from Foundation Modern Apprenticeships to Foundation Degrees. The other benefit will be 'parity of esteem' for Modern Apprenticeship Trainees as their qualification will be equivalent to Level Three. This should allow them direct entry into a Higher Education Institution or even Universities for degree courses.

The government's intentions are to foster further relationships between the industry, the further education institutions and the private training providers. The resources such as the Realistic Working Environments ideally need to be staffed by the industry's practising professionals, either permanently or on a visiting basis. This will involve employers' participation in the curriculum delivery and may be even the assessment of trainees.

The National Skills Task Force Report 2000 encouraged the high-performance Further Education Colleges to achieve the status of Centres of Vocational Excellence. One of the main performance indicators in assessing the success of this initiative is the colleges partnership with industry in engaging the local employers to raise the profile of skill levels in the hospitality industry.

The development of technical certificates came about to provide deeper technical knowledge to apprentices so that they fully understand the legal, moral and social obligation of the role to be played by themselves in the hospitality industry. Furthermore, to build the strong foundation of these apprentices, so that they can progress higher than NVQ Level 3 to the Foundation Degree Programme in Culinary Arts or Fine Dining or Restaurant Management.

Since the publication of the National Skills Task Force Report 2000, the role of industry is pivotal in resolving the challenges of the skills shortages and the skill gaps in the hospitality and catering sector. This has already been demonstrated by the new initiatives described above.

It is apparent from the historical perspective that the training of staff in the hospitality and catering sector has always been the responsibility of the industry. There have been moves away from the 'sitting next to Nellie' approach to something more organised, formal and systematic involving off – the – job training.

The changes came with the advent of the City and Guilds of London Institute. In addition, the formation of the very first Westminster Technical Institute in 1910. The training for hospitality and catering was available as a full-time student or as a day-release trainee from the industry which was funded by the employers. However, the involvement of employers as to what went on during the day-release in colleges was minimal. The separation of the two meant that the day-release provision was often unsatisfactory. There were apprenticeship schemes introduced by the National Joint Apprenticeship Council in 1952. The achievement of apprenticeship in those days had the same final examination as the full-time students. This proved very challenging if the apprentices could not attend college due to the pressure of work, as it had a direct impact on their performance in the final examination. During the interim period, the Industrial Training Act 1964 introduced the levy and grant system which exempted the SMEs in the hospitality and catering industry. Thus, work based learning did not play an active part in the training and development of the workforce as a high proportion of employers are SMEs in this industry.

The recent initiatives as described above are attempting to remedy this situation, especially the introduction of the Realistic Working Environment, the Centres of Vocational Excellence and the Technical Certificates. This may bring about positive effects but it all depends upon the involvement of employers in the workplace and active engagement with the training and personal development of their apprentices.

The literature research clearly demonstrates an urgency for the industry to get directly involved in the training of young people for the hospitality sector. The success of industry based training provision has been well proven by the countries such as Germany and Switzerland. Both of these countries have very high quality and thriving hospitality industries.

The next stage of study relates to the Empirical Research which has been carried out utilising two different research instruments; that is, Semi-Structured Interviews and Postal Questionnaires. Semi-Structured Interviews have strictly focused on the Work-Based trainees and the Work-Based supervisors to ascertain their perception of the industry's role in the delivery of vocational education and training.

During the visit, trainees' NVQ portfolios have also been examined to assess the standard of work and the level of progress being made. This should also reflect on the actual role played by the industry in assisting trainees to achieve the full framework for apprenticeship.

The other research instrument is a postal questionnaire, which has been sent to the work based trainees from one college and their employers, to gather their perception about the industry's role in the delivery of vocational education and training. The detailed results from these two studies will be examined in the next section.

EMPIRICAL RESEARCH

The empirical research study was carried out in the hospitality and catering industry in and around the North Wales Region to assess the views of trainees, work-based supervisors and employers as regards their perception of industry's role in the delivery of vocational education and training. The focus of this study was on fifty catering establishments, with the aim of gathering the views of the main stakeholders in the industry. This study was part of the Quality Review carried out by the Directorate of Hospitality and Catering for the purposes of producing a Self Assessment Report to comply with the external Quality Inspection, but the researcher has segregated the relevant information to support the conclusion for this chapter.

The research instruments used were also slightly modified to gather relevant information for this study. All the data has been gathered by the researcher whilst conducting personal interviews with the trainees and work-based supervisors. Broadly speaking, there were two research methods employed, Semi-Structured Interviews using Standard Schedule of questions and Postal Questionnaires.

SEMI-STRUCTURED INTERVIEWS

These interviews were planned well in advance to allow sufficient time to trainees and work-based supervisors so that they can prepare themselves for discussion. It was also decided to use the Standard Schedule of Questions for all the interviews with the same interviewer. This ensured the consistency of addressing the questions and recording responses at the interviews. The evidence related to this research method was mainly collated from two different sources; that is; work-based trainees and work-based supervisors. In addition, during the interviews the opportunity was captured to examine the NVQ portfolios in order to further strengthen the evidence.

POSTAL QUESTIONNAIRES

Postal Questionnaires were designed for completion by the Work-Based Trainees and the Employers. There was a mixture of question types in these questionnaires but the majority of the questions used were of closed type

SEMI - STRUCTURED INTERVIEWS

The research instrument being used in gathering views was a questionnaire completed by the interviewer during the discussion with work-based trainees and work-based supervisors independently. There were fifty interviews conducted at different catering establishments over a period of two years, with each interview lasting approximately two hours. The total sample of interviews accounted for almost one third (33.3%) of the total trainees and supervisors engaged in training.

The sample distribution is indicated in the Table: 6.4 below for Wave 1 and Wave 2 and also according to Foundation Modern Apprenticeship (NVQ Level 2) and Advanced Modern Apprenticeship (NVQ Level 3).

Table: 6.4

Sample Distribution of Trainees for Interviews

Title of Course	Wave 1 Number of Trainees	Wave 2 Number of Trainees
Foundation Modern Apprenticeship		
NVQ 2 Food Preparation and Cooking	13	11
NVQ 2 Food and Beverage Service	4	4
NVQ 2 Butchery	-	2
Advanced Modern Apprenticeship		
NVQ 3 Food Preparation and Cooking (General)	9	7
Total	26	24

The first section of the interview for work based trainees attempted to seek their views on the following issues:

1. Perception of Trainees and Induction Programme.
2. Basic Skills Assessment
3. Key Skills
4. Training and Assessment
5. NVQ Reviews

The second section of the interview related to the inspection of NVQ Portfolio which provided another dimension to observe the effectiveness of work-based training. It was endeavoured to seek feedback on the following issues:

1. Evidence of Internal Verification
2. Trainees Progression and Action Planning
3. Feedback to Trainees

The third section of the interview for work based supervisors attempted to seek feedback focused on the following issues:

1. Involvement in Training
2. Relevance of Training
3. Monitoring Progression of Trainees
4. Provision of Resources and Additional Support to Trainees
5. Work-Based Supervisors Motivation to Train
6. Inter-relationship with College Assessors
7. Work-Based Supervisors General Comments

1. WORK BASED TRAINEES' VIEWS

Table 6.5 :WORK BASED TRAINEES – SUMMARY OF FINDINGS

	YES	NO
<u>1.1 The Perception of Trainees and the Induction Programme</u>		
1.1.1 Is the content of the training as you expected?	92%	8%
1.1.2 Are you satisfied with your Induction Programme?	88%	12%
1.1.3 Have you raised any issues with your assessor?	8%	92%
<u>1.2 Basic Skills Assessment</u>		
1.2.1 Did you have a Basic Skills Test to assess whether any help is needed?	52%	48%
<u>1.3 Key Skills</u>		
1.3.1 Have you started the key skills and are you making satisfactory progress?	56%	44%
1.3.2 Have you done them before?	32%	68%
<u>1.4 Training and Assessment</u>		
1.4.1 Assessors keep up their appointments	92%	8%
1.4.2 Are Work-based supervisors involved?	80%	20%
1.4.3 Are issues identified and resolved?	84%	16%
1.4.4 Are the trainees provided with NVQ portfolios?	80%	20%
1.4.5 Is there any period of training without a visit from the assessor?	8%	92%
1.4.6 Do trainees have NVQ and Key Skills Standards Framework and materials provided?	80%	20%

1.4.7 On-the-job training	100%	0%
1.4.8 Off-the-job training	88%	12%
1.4.9 Are the trainees given time and resources?	88%	12%
1.4.10 Access to the Internet	68%	32%
1.4.11 Other resources available to trainees	92%	8%
1.4.12 Do trainees receive clear feedback?	100%	0%
1.4.13 Do the trainees have an Action Plan and do they know at what stage they are in?	72%	28%
1.4.14 Do trainees know how many units are completed?	92%	8%
1.4.15 Do assessors help trainees progress faster?	96%	4%
1.4.16 Do trainees have Progress Sheets?	76%	24%
1.4.17 Do assessors discuss with trainees the variety of evidence which can be used?	92%	8%
<u>1.5 NVQ Reviews</u>		
1.5.1 Are the NVQ Reviews useful?	82%	18%
1.5.2 Is the progress summarised?	92%	8%
1.5.3 Are the problems identified?	76%	24%
1.5.4 Is an Action Plan drawn up for the next three months and definite targets set?	72%	28%

DISCUSSION

The feedback from trainees was obtained during the personal interviews on visits to their places of work. The findings from interviews have been quantified and summarised above in Table 6.5. These figures are analysed and discussed alongside the views collated during the course of interviews.

1.1 THE PERCEPTION OF TRAINEES AND THE INDUCTION PROGRAMME

There are some trainees who have been on a full-time Hospitality and Catering Programme initially for one or two years and then taken up employment in the hospitality industry as Advanced Modern Apprentice. In some cases trainees have moved from other vocational courses to the hospitality industry as Foundation Modern Apprentices and then progressed on to Advanced Modern Apprentices. The entry qualification of apprentices varies a great deal from a few GCSEs to 'A' Levels. The trainees with appropriate GCSE's or 'A' levels are given accreditation of prior learning from the relevant key skills. Almost all (92%) of the trainee's expectations matched the course content and they were very satisfied.

Each trainee attends an Induction programme which fully explains the various routes to obtain qualification, National Vocational Qualification Structure, Health and Safety Procedures, Foundation Food Hygiene Course and Basic Skills Assessment. The trainees are given an Induction Package with a check-list of different activities to be completed by them. There were well over three quarters (88%) of the trainees, satisfied with the induction programme. However, there were a few issues highlighted by 8% of trainees; such as, employers not allowing time to trainees for attendance at the college, NVQ Portfolio Books not being available in time and assessors not keeping up with the appropriate appointments. Unfortunately, some trainees changed their employment far too frequently, which resulted in unsatisfactory training due to the lack of commitment by some employers.

It would seem that there is a need for closer monitoring of the training programme for trainees. One way to approach this challenge might be by appointing mentors in the workplace and ensuring that sufficient resources are also made available to trainees.

1.2 BASIC SKILLS ASSESSMENT

It is mandatory for every trainee to take the Basic Skills - Adult Literacy and Basic Skills Unit (ALBSU) Test during the induction period. During the induction period just over half (52%) of the trainees took the Basic Skills Assessment. This test has now been replaced by the Basic Skills Agency (BSA) Test. The main aim being to assess the literacy and numeracy ability of trainees prior to their embarking on an apprenticeship programme. The results of these tests were promptly communicated to all trainees along with the support and guidance advice to those trainees who are in need of improving their literacy or numeracy skills.

The college provides ample resources to support Basic Skills in the work place. The reason for low take-up is because of a reluctance and lack of motivation by trainees to come forward and seek help. The access to Basic Skills Support in the work place is extremely flexible and wide ranging but there is a formal structured delivery and review system in place. There is a full-time dedicated Basic Skills Facilitator for the Work Based Trainees in the college where this research study is focused. The delivery of Basic Skills can take place either at the place of work, or at the main college, or at the various Satellite learning centres across the communities, public libraries and Cyber Skills Centre.

The lack of basic skills is of great concern as forty eight percent of trainees interviewed did not even take the Basic Skills Assessment. This is the area where industry should really engage with all the trainees to motivate them to raise their standard of basic literacy and numeracy skills. However, there are instances where industry does not associate itself in dealing with the basic skills agenda, which is a big challenge for colleges to overcome.

One of the other problems with current basic skills provision is that it is limited to literacy and numeracy. Most workplaces require some measure of 'job readiness' according to employers and some basic Information Technology skills. It may be appropriate to include these as an option in the basic skills curriculum. The improvement in basic skills would open up opportunities for increased personal development, employability, internal promotion prospects and mobility for individuals.

1.3 KEY SKILLS

It is essential for trainees to complete the key skills successfully in order to obtain the full framework for either Foundation Modern Apprenticeship or Advanced Modern Apprenticeship. The mandatory key skills to be delivered are Communication, Application of Number and Information Technology at Level 1 for Foundation Modern Apprenticeship and Level 2 for Advanced Modern Apprenticeship. The trainees who already have an alternative qualification are given Accreditation of Prior Learning for the respective key skill. It appears that during this research study around two thirds (68%) of trainees needed to study for key skills as 32% of them already had relevant qualifications.

The delivery of key skills could take place in college or satellite learning centres or in the work place by a designated college key skills tutor. The only issue in the delivery of key skills is lack of motivation by some trainees who genuinely find it difficult to cope with key skills. At present, just over half (56%) of the trainees have started the Key Skills study programme and are making satisfactory progress. Unfortunately, Key Skills are seen by trainees as a burden and barrier to achievement and many trainees were refusing to engage in key skills sessions and some employers were supporting the trainees in this move. The major problem is not of the relevance of key skills but the issue of connectivity to the main learning programme. It has been established from interviewing trainees that if key skills are mapped out on their NVQ Units and are directly related to the vocational element of learning, the trainees would engage in the successful completion and attainment of key skills.

The Annual Report of the Chief Inspector (TSC 2000) referring to Key Skills issues states:

‘Key skills delivery should be an integral component of occupational training programme. In some instances, no key skills delivery was provided. There were valuable opportunities missed to gather evidence of their acquisitions of key skills through work based activities.’

A QPID Study Report (2000) on Key Skills has found that:

‘Effective delivery was found where there was acceptance of the value of key skills, particularly by employers, and where there is some shared understanding of their purpose. Occupational relevance seems to be one of the key factors in gaining such acceptance and understanding. There tended to be a broader interpretation of occupational relevance in those sectors where there was a tradition of apprenticeship training and which included training away from the workplace. Views on occupational relevance of key skills varied from sector to sector, depending largely on sectoral culture and tradition.’

1.4 TRAINING AND ASSESSMENT

There were almost all (92%) of the trainees interviewed agreed that the visits are planned by work based assessors well in advance and appointments were kept as per the schedule. The frequency of visit varied from once a week to once in six weeks but now it has been agreed to organise visits at least once in three weeks. The appointments on an average should last for two hours but according to the survey it ranged from thirty minutes to one hour. Unfortunately, 8% of the trainees surveyed indicated that they had a gap of two to three months between the assessors visit. It is certainly not a satisfactory situation to have such a lengthy gap.

An excellent relationship exists between trainees and assessors. There are various activities carried out during this period; observation of job performance, assessment, completion of the units and training staff. It is important to ensure that trainees are well

inducted and briefed about NVQ Course Philosophy. This includes the NVQ Standards, Assessment Process, Internal Verification System and Action Planning.

There were well over three quarters (80%) of the trainees who felt that the work-based supervisors are actively involved in their training. Unfortunately, 16% of the trainees reported that the issues identified are not resolved. The trainees receive training by different modes of delivery which could be solely on-the-job training or off-the-job training or combination of on-the-job and off-the-job training. Well over three quarters (88%) of the trainees agreed that they used on-the-job and off-the-job training modes. They also felt that sufficient learning resources were provided for them, but only just over two thirds (68 %) of the trainees had access to the internet.

The whole assessment process has to be formally structured with regular Internal Verification being carried out at discrete time intervals. The feedback and progress reports need to be given verbally and in writing. Unfortunately, only eighteen percent of trainees were aware of the Internal Verification process. Almost all the trainees agreed that they received clear feedback and 92% of the trainees know exactly how many units they have completed. These trainees also know the variety of evidence that can be used. In addition, almost three quarters (72%) of trainees have an Action Plan and are aware of their progress.

There are stringent systems and procedures in place for the assessment of NVQ portfolios, but the implementation and monitoring is far too bureaucratic which makes it financially inefficient. Work based trainees were very complimentary about the college work based assessors, with comments made such as, they are pleasant, extremely friendly and helpful. The government presumption is that work based trainees will learn the skills in the work place whilst performing the job and reach the same required standard as the full-time students, but the reality of the situation is that in the majority of cases the employer hardly allocates sufficient time to trainees to attend college.

In addition, there should be qualified assessors in the work place but very few establishments provide this service to the trainees. In fact during the interviews with the work-based supervisors it came to light that just over half (52%) of the supervisors were qualified assessors. The situation has been further aggravated as the role of assessor is being altered to take into account the delivery of basic skills, key skills and more recently, technical certificates. These demands require assessors to undergo further training to be a trainer, instructors and more over a lecturer, and as was pointed out earlier, there were insufficient assessors in the work place, but now with new demands being made on employers they need to invest heavily in training assessors as trainers and instructors, which appears to be a real challenge for the industry. This is certainly the situation in the hospitality and catering industry. In the Annual Report 1999 – 2000, the Chief Inspector states that in Hospitality Curriculum Area ‘forty training providers were inspected this year, which covered 1.300 trainees, but no provider was awarded a grade one.

1.5 NVQ REVIEWS

The trainees have a clear understanding that all the NVQ Reviews are only carried out by college based NVQ Assessors. There were well over three quarters (82%) of trainees who considered these reviews to be very advantageous. Now assessors are reviewing the trainees progress once every three weeks, and almost all (92%), of the trainees agree that their progress is being summarised, and just over three quarters (76%) of the trainees feel that their problems are also identified. The formal reviews are conducted quarterly each session, with an action plan being drawn for the next three months and definite targets are set for each trainee. This policy has been agreed by almost three quarters (72%) of the trainees.

Previously, in the college concerned, trainee reviews used to be carried out initially by an independent reviewer, who only offered pastoral care and complied with the paperwork for funding councils. Each trainee had a discrete meeting time with a reviewer and assessor. This appeared to have caused communication difficulties between three parties because of duplication and overlap of certain aspects of the review process.

In addition, there was an increased staffing cost for this activity. Now the system is being streamlined, thus making it more efficient in economic terms by avoiding the duplication of roles. Recently, the changes have been made in the review process as the duties of reviewer are being subsumed within the duties of assessor. This has assisted tremendously in elevating the motivation and morale of trainees.

This process of NVQ review which is carried out in the workplace has had mainly positive comments from trainees. It appears that the industry is providing adequate resources in terms of time for trainees and venues for the review meetings. However, the ultimate responsibility for the accomplishment of this task must remain with the college based NVQ assessors to ensure that the trainees succeed in achieving qualifications.

2. NVQ PORTFOLIOS

Table 6.6: NVQ- PORTFOLIOS - SUMMARY OF FINDINGS

	YES	NO
<u>2.1 Evidence of Internal Verification</u>		
2.1.1 Variety of Evidence Seen	28%	72%
2.1.2 Evidence of rigorous assessment	28%	72%
2.1.3 Cross-referencing of evidence	28%	72%
2.1.4 Application of key skills	24%	76%
2.1.5 Evidence of formative Internal Verification	20%	80%
<u>2.2 Trainees Progression and Action Planning</u>		
2.2.1 Action Planning	32%	68%
2.2.2 Progression Tracking	60%	40%
<u>2.3.0 Feedback to Trainees</u>		
2.3.1 Evidence of Feedback <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Written • Verbal 	52% 16%	32%
2.3.2 Adequate coverage of Under Pinning Knowledge	48%	52%
2.3.3 Accuracy of written communication	32%	68%
2.3.4 Usage of Question Sheets	44%	56%
2.3.5 Quality and variety of evidence in Portfolio	36%	64%

DISCUSSION

The NVQ portfolios belonging to each trainee being interviewed were thoroughly examined and analysed. This was very important as it revealed the actual standards achieved by trainees. The main purpose of this exercise was to gather the evidence of the role being played by the industry in improving attainments and outcomes. The examination of NVQ portfolios would ensure that satisfactory training and support has been provided to trainees in achieving the full framework, and that the trainees have successfully attained relevant vocational skills. The summary of findings has been collated under three main headings in Table 6.6.

2.1 EVIDENCE OF INTERNAL VERIFICATION

The Internal Verification of the trainees' portfolio was more structured and planned in advance. There were almost three quarters (72%), of the NVQ portfolios observed which lacked the variety of evidence. In these portfolios, there was insufficient use made of photographs, videos, CD-Rom and witness testimony. The only source of evidence used was by direct observation. It was surprising to note that only just over a quarter (28%), of the NVQ portfolios demonstrated the evidence of rigorous assessment by work-based assessors and college based assessors, which did sufficiently challenge the trainees. The same proportion of portfolios indicated the evidence of cross – referencing.

The application of key skills has been a real issue for this industry. Only slightly lower than a quarter (24%), of the portfolios observed indicated any evidence of the application of key skills. The key skills should be fully integrated within the delivery of NVQ but unfortunately, in the majority of cases they were delivered discretely. The trainees' achievement of full framework will be seriously affected by the non-completion of key skills. Overall, just over a quarter (28%), of the portfolios had been internally verified but only 20% of these portfolios displayed any evidence of formative internal verification.

2.2 TRAINEE PROGRESSION AND ACTION PLANNING

There were well over half (60%), of the portfolios which contained the Progression Tracking Sheets and these trainees were able to follow the progress of their training. Unfortunately, slightly less than a third (32%), of the portfolios had any evidence of Action Planning. This aspect of training causes a great concern towards the retention and attainment of trainees. Each trainee must have an Individual Action Plan which needs to be managed on a regular basis so that individual progress and assessment can be monitored closely.

2.3 FEEDBACK TO TRAINEES

There were over half (52%), of the portfolios which had written feedback reports. The coverage of underpinning knowledge was evident in just less than half (48%), of the portfolios and only 32% of them demonstrated a good standard of English. The question sheets were used by just less than half (44%), of trainees and overall, there were just one third (36%), of the portfolios demonstrating high standards.

These observations clearly demonstrate the lack of support and guidance by the industry to the trainee. It is not surprising that during the session 2003/2004, the attainment rate for the Hospitality sector for all frameworks and NVQs was only 38%. (www.dfes.gov.uk/trends). It is obvious that the role perceived by industry did not have an appropriate impact on the attainment of full frameworks. The industry needs to actively support the trainees by providing Mentors in the workplace, allowing sufficient time for trainees to complete their portfolios and allocating physical resources in the workplace for the collection of a variety of evidence. The trainees do require support and guidance in the workplace on a continuous-basis. Thus, the NVQ portfolios have provided concrete evidence of the lack of a role played by industry. It appears that the industry has delegated almost all the responsibility to the educational establishments. Unfortunately, these establishments have a very limited contact time with the trainees in order to achieve the same quality standards as with the full-time students.

3. WORK BASED SUPERVISORS' VIEWS

Table 6.7: WORK BASED SUPERVISORS - SUMMARY OF FINDINGS

	YES	NO
<u>3.1 Involvement in training</u>		
3.1.1 Evidence of involvement	72%	28%
3.1.2 Do the work-based supervisors receive feedback on trainees progress	80%	20%
<u>3.2 Relevance of training</u>		
3.2.1 Is the training appropriate for the work being done by your employee?	68%	32%
<u>3.3 Monitoring progress of trainees</u>		
3.3.1 How Often?		32%
• Monthly	4%	
• Two Monthly	8%	
• Four Monthly	52%	
• Six Monthly	4%	
3.3.2 Are you able to discuss any issues with the assessors?	68%	32%
3.3.3 Are you asked to be involved?	68%	32%
<u>3.4 Provision of Resources and additional support to the trainees</u>		
3.4.1 Time to attend College	44%	56%
3.4.2 Materials, Equipment and Support	88%	12%
3.4.3 In-house Assessors	52%	48%

<u>3.5 Work-based supervisors motivation to train</u>		
3.5.1 Would you consider assessor training?	72%	28%
<u>3.6 Inter-relationship with college assessors</u>		
3.6.1 Do you receive feedback?	72%	28%
3.6.2 Are you involved with the training plan?	56%	44%
3.6.3 Do the assessors ask for your assistance/ opinion?	60%	40%
3.6.4 Are appointments kept?	80%	20%
3.6.5 Are meetings regular and fit for purpose?	76%	24%

DISCUSSION

The feedback from work-based supervisors was obtained during the personal interviews on visits to their establishments. The findings from interview have been quantified and summarised above in Table 6.7. These figures are analysed and discussed alongside the views collated during the course of interviews.

3.1 INVOLVEMENT IN TRAINING

It is interesting to observe that almost three quarters (72%), of work-based supervisors are involved in training and 80% of them feel that they receive regular feedback. There are supervisors who would prefer to have more opportunities to take part in actually training and appraising the progress of trainees themselves as well.

There are supervisors who provide continuous on-the-job training and give regular written and verbal feedback to trainees. Many supervisors actively involve themselves in physically checking the finished products to ensure that the company standards are adequately covered. Some supervisors suggested that it would be useful to own a copy

of training programme specifications, and they also requested a regular slot with assessors in order to receive observation on their trainee's progress.

3.2 RELEVANCE OF TRAINING

There were just over two thirds (68%), of work-based supervisors who confirmed that the training being delivered up to NVQ level 3 to their staff has been of direct relevance to their job, appropriate to the needs of employers and meets with the individual requirements of trainees, but most suggested that there needs to be further support for the personal development of trainees.

3.3 MONITORING PROGRESS OF TRAINEES

There were just over two thirds (68%), of supervisors who received progress reports. Of these 52% were formal written reports and the remaining 16% of reports were disseminated verbally as indicated in Table 6.6, Item 2.3.1. These supervisors also felt that they were regularly consulted in the process of monitoring trainees' progress. Unfortunately, slightly under one third (32%), of work-based supervisors received no progress reports.

The frequency of progress reports is another issue, as only 4% received monthly reports, 8% received two monthly reports, 52% received four monthly reports, and even 4% received six monthly reports. The norm should be at least two monthly reports so that active guidance can be offered to trainees within a reasonable time in order to have any impact on improvement. Over one third (68%), of the work-based supervisors felt that they are actively involved in monitoring trainees' progress, and are able to discuss any issues with the assessors.

3.4 PROVISION OF RESOURCES AND ADDITIONAL SUPPORT TO TRAINEES

There were more than half (56%), of trainees who were not given time to attend college and they carried out their entire training by work-based mode. However, some of these

trainees actually attended the college entirely in their own time. It is essential for them to achieve key skills and technical certificates qualification in order to gain full apprenticeship status.

It is not surprising that there are serious issues relating to the poor attainment rate of qualifications in industry. Unfortunately, the hospitality industry has the lowest attainment rate of 40% for Apprenticeships at Level 2 and 30% for Advanced Apprenticeships at Level 3 during the session 2003/2004 (www.dfes.gov.uk/trends).

As far as the provision of materials, equipment and support is concerned there are ample resources being provided by employers. In fact, 88% of work-based supervisors confirmed this view. Regarding the availability of in-house work based assessors, there are just over half (52%), of work-based supervisors who are trained assessors to provide this service for the trainees. There is an issue of releasing supervisory staff from industry to gain assessors qualifications. However, the college does provide facilities for industry to train their supervisors in the work place for the role of work based assessors. Unfortunately, due to the heavy job commitment of these supervisors, the take-up rate of this training has been very small amongst the sample of supervisors being interviewed. This poses a serious challenge to maintain the quality delivery of work-based training programmes and raise attainment of apprenticeship qualifications. The funding and resources issues are serious challenges for the educational establishments as, in real terms, there is much less funding available from government to support work based learning. The employer's commitment is vital to ensure the success of work-based training programmes

In order to provide the quality teaching and learning experience for the work based trainees, there exists a real tension between the staffing and financial resources being earmarked for the training provision. The hospitality and catering industry poses further challenges because of its fragmentation, as the majority of establishments are SMEs. The industry is geographically spread out and the operation in many cases is around the clock and some are only seasonal businesses. These factors bring their own challenges in work-based training as compared with sectors such as Banking, Finance, Retail and the Manufacturing Industry.

Most supervisors have commented that although they have achieved the assessor's award, they are unable to fully carry out their function because of changes in the role of an assessor to deliver and assess basic skills, key skills and technical certificates.

This is far beyond the scope of work-based supervisors unless the catering establishments have a fully resourced training department. This means that work-based assessors have to be further trained with the pedagogy skills, which will mean additional investment of funds and time by employers.

It is quite probable that some SMEs employers might find the cost of re-skilling work-based supervisors totally prohibitive, as they are not being directly funded for the delivery of this training. Unfortunately, the hospitality industry does not appear to be financially committed as compared to other industries such as Construction, Financial Services and Food Manufacturing industries

3.5 WORK-BASED SUPERVISORS' MOTIVATION TO TRAIN

There were almost three quarters (72%), of work-based supervisors who expressed an interest in being trained as an assessor. Unfortunately, the employers were reluctant to support the tuition fees, allocate any time and provide resources. This is a sad reflection on the employers which is quite different from some European countries like Germany, Switzerland, Denmark and Austria where employers invest heavily in training and take the lead in driving the training agenda forward.

3.6 INTER-RELATIONSHIP WITH COLLEGE ASSESSORS

There is an excellent relationship between the work-based supervisors and college assessors. It appears that around three quarters (72%), of the work-based supervisors received the feedback about their trainees. The meetings are held regularly, punctually and are concluded by an objective feedback which is agreed by just over three quarters (76%), of the supervisors. They would prefer to have more involvement in the training plan for their trainees in order to track trainee assessments and final attainment of units. This should also assist in the Internal Verification process. In the survey, there were

just over half (56%), of supervisors who felt that they had involvement with the training plan, and 60% of them felt that their opinions were sought by assessors.

However, 20% of the supervisors have commented that the college work-based assessors, failed to keep to their appointments and 24% of them thought that the meetings were erratic, with insufficient time allocated for discussion. Some supervisors have indicated that they were not clear about the role of the assessor.

3.7 WORK- BASED SUPERVISORS' GENERAL COMMENTS

Work-based supervisors have a grave concern about the contents of feedback to trainees as it is mainly focused on technical skills and very little time is spent on their personal development. The trainees lack personal and social skills. They also feel that there should be more emphasis on the French language, costing, the use of the internet and the application of Information Technology. Work-based Supervisors commented that the communication between the industry and college can be further improved as well.

Work-based supervisors perceived that the role of industry is to build strong links with educational establishments so that the trainees can make full benefit of the excellent facilities in colleges. In addition, the trainees can receive exceptional support from college lecturers, instructors and assessors which should motivate them to learn and take greater pride in their work.

There are some work-based supervisors who have expressed their lack of confidence in the National Vocational Qualifications system. The biggest challenge facing educational institutions is to deliver consistently high quality training and also to motivate the trainees. It is vital to ensure that the full potential of trainees is exploited for their own professional development, and to provide a highly trained workforce for the industry.

POSTAL QUESTIONNAIRES

1. WORK-BASED TRAINEES' PERCEPTION

The information gathered so far has been from work based trainees during the personal interviews in order to assess their perception about the role of industry in the delivery of vocational education and training. As this research method of interviewing tends to be expensive in terms of time and staffing, there is also a danger of the data collected being prejudiced, depending upon the bias of interviewer. Although great care has been taken to ensure that the consistency of interviews is being preserved by employing same interviewer. The other issue is of limited respondents in the sample used for interviewing. It was decided to use the postal questionnaire method to overcome some of the issues discussed and to reach a wider audience of work based trainees and employers. These questionnaires were designed with predominantly structured questions and very few open-ended questions. The aim of this study was to gather the personal views of work based trainees without providing any prompts. There were three hundred questionnaires sent to trainees with a return of 107 completed questionnaires. Thus giving a response rate of 35.7%.

The summary of findings from the completed postal questionnaires by work based trainees are grouped under the following headings:

1.1 Perception of Trainees and Induction Programme

1.2 Basic Skills

1.3 Key Skills

1.4 Training and Assessment

1.1 THE PERCEPTION OF TRAINEES AND THE INDUCTION PROGRAMME

Most of the trainees have been satisfied with the content of the training programme. However, there were almost a quarter (26%), of the respondents who did not receive an outline of the training programme.

All the trainees received an induction programme and only a small proportion of the trainees were not satisfied with the quality of the induction programme. The prime aim of induction has been to provide trainees with comprehensive information to generate awareness and appreciation of the Work-Based learning options. The process of engaging industry at the induction stage is essential, to ensure that the images conveyed to trainees are positive and professional.

It appears that the respondents felt the responsibility for induction solely rested with college, whereas trainees would spend most of their time working and learning in the industry. The integrated approach to the induction programme would be the way forward. This would still allow a discrete induction programme, at the time of employment, for the work place. The industry should communicate information on the company's philosophy, company structure, health and safety and conditions of service, whereas the college provides information on the contents of the apprenticeship programme, assessing basic skills needs and developing an Individual Action Plan for the trainees.

1.2 BASIC SKILLS

The basic skills are a real challenge amongst the trainees, especially literacy and numeracy. It appears that only 8% of the respondents from the postal questionnaires were receiving any assistance towards the basic skills. The importance of basic skills cannot be over-emphasised, as these skills are the corner stone for the success in key skills, which are the mandatory requirements for the attainment of full framework.

As part of the induction programme all apprentices are required to take up Basic Skills Test, but the postal questionnaires result indicated that nearly half (48%), of the work-based trainees did not complete the Basic Skills Assessment.

It is very important that the industry should intervene in raising the standards of basic skills and working closely with educational institutions. Unfortunately, the work-based trainees are not really interested in learning basic skills; unless these trainees can see the purpose to learn, they will not engage. The drive for this initiative has to be enforced by the industry.

1.3 KEY SKILLS

Most of the work-based trainees are well aware of key skills, but there are issues with their engagement. In addition, training institutions have challenges in the delivery, administration, and assessment of key skills. However, almost one third (32%) of trainees have already done the key skills as part of their Maths or English GCSE. From the remaining two thirds (68%), of the trainees, just over half (56%), of them have actually started the key skills and are satisfied with the delivery. However, there are 26% of the respondents who do not consider the key skills to be a useful component of the course.

Unfortunately, just over one third (37%), of the trainees have not made much progress towards their key skills. The attainment of key skills could be directly related to the standards of basic skills amongst the trainees. In fact, just over a quarter (26%), of the trainees have not even received any feedback and they feel their key skills are not improving.

In most cases, the key skills have been delivered as a discrete course, whereas the most effective way would be to integrate the delivery within the NVQ curriculum which requires careful mapping of the units. This approach would make greater relevance to the trainees and further emphasise the importance of key skills. Recently, the other challenge to the trainees has been the introduction of a Key Skills External Tests, in addition to the assessment of Key Skills Portfolios/Assignments.

In reality, these work-based trainees do require a lot more support and additional resources from the industry to study and prepare for examinations. This, in turn, necessitates a flexible approach to allow the trainees extra time away from the workplace and securing their access to specialist staff.

It must be realised that some of these trainees' motivation to enter into the world of work was due to their disenchantment in the school where they could not focus on the academic skills. So, they found an alternative to learn vocational skills in the workplace, but the requirements for key skills as part of the apprenticeship programme has given them new challenges and of course, to the industry as well.

1.4 TRAINING AND ASSESSMENT

The majority of the trainees are satisfied with the training programme, but there were small numbers of trainees who did not receive an outline of the training programme. They all reported the availability of excellent facilities and learning resources at the local college. However, there were some concerns expressed about the need for additional supportive resources at the workplace, such as reference books, self study packs, use of on-line learning materials, internet and discrete allocation of time to trainees for learning whilst still on-the-job. The hospitality industry should make a real commitment towards this aspect, which will in turn motivate the learners and improve the retention and attainment rate.

The researcher has observed, during the interview at the workplace, that the majority of hotels and restaurants did have excellent practical facilities for trainers to develop their technical skills. In this postal survey, the trainees' perception about the lack of resources is related to the development of basic skills, key skills, underpinning knowledge and technical certificates.

Although, there were no adverse comments about the assessment process 70% of the trainees were concerned about the frequency and duration of the assessors visit. At present, assessors meet trainees at least once a month for approximately one hour each. Unfortunately, the colleges receive limited funding to support the industry in the delivery and assessment of work-based learning. The suggestion would be for the

hospitality industry to train more work-based supervisors as trainers, assessors and mentors. In order to move forward this initiative, the industry needs to employ a higher calibre of work-based supervisors, allowing them time at work to be trained and to qualify as assessors. This should alleviate the concerns raised by the respondents.

There were almost one third (34%), of the trainees who remarked that their work-based supervisors are not involved during the formal review of their progress. This issue again relates to the industry's role in the training and assessment process which needs to be formalised.

As far as the quality of support from the assessors is concerned almost four fifths (82%), of the trainees were very happy and had a good working relationship with them. The other concern expressed by the trainees is the availability of a regular slot, and a discrete venue, to learn whilst at the work place, and a time allocation on a formal basis to attend the local college which has so far been organised by the industry on an ad-hoc basis.

2. EMPLOYERS' PERCEPTION

The views of the employers were sought with the main aim being to assess their perception of Industry in the delivery of vocational education and training. Although, initially the questionnaire attempted to gather information related to assessing the quality of work-based delivery yet the relevant evidence was extracted to assess the employers' perception of Industry.

The postal survey was carried out over a period of two years in Wave 1 and Wave 2. Altogether, two hundred questionnaires were sent to the employers, yet only sixty eight employers responded, thus giving a response rate of 34%. The majority of the employers surveyed are from Small Medium-Sized Establishments (SMEs) employing 11 to 50 staff.

The main source of information about the training programme being collated was through employees/trainees. In many cases these young people had initially started at college as full-time students and then took up employment in the industry. It is interesting to note in Chapter Five 'Perception and Image of the Hospitality Industry' that only 2.2% of young pupils opted to enter the world of work at 16 years of age directly from school.

The employers main reason for allowing staff to undertake training was to provide them with the opportunity to update their relevant skills, thus, bridging any skill gaps. The most popular NVQs in Catering and Hospitality being undertaken are NVQs in Food Preparation and Cooking and Serving of Food and Drink at Level 2 and 3. There are very few trainees undertaking Bar Service and Housekeeping qualifications. The summary of findings from the completed postal questionnaires by employers are grouped under the following headings:

2.1 The Role of Employers

2.2 The Role of College

2.3 Basic Skills

2.4 Key Skills

2.5 Training and Assessment

2.1 THE ROLE OF EMPLOYERS

There were well over four fifths (86%), of the employers in agreement that the training fits well within their operation and they understand their role and responsibilities towards the trainee. Nearly 90% of employers were satisfied with the work-based training provision and would recommend it to other companies. Unfortunately, very few employers attended the initial training programme negotiation meetings. The main concern has been the industry's reluctance to allow trainees some time to attend the college. The postal survey indicated that only 44% of the employers allowed any time for trainees to attend college, which does not help in motivating these trainees to achieve excellence.

There is a perception amongst employers especially SMEs that time off for training is expensive and difficult to arrange, thus reducing the opportunity for trainees to access personal development activities. This view matches up with the earlier results in this chapter, confirming that less than half (44%), of employers allow any time to trainees for off-the-job training. Employers' concern about allowing time to trainees may arise from other related staffing issues, such as pressure to reduce labour costs. Unfortunately, this may have an impact on the further reduction in time available for training. Some SME employers also commented that their annual rate of return on capital employed is so low at present that they might as well not be in a business if labour cost should increase any more. These comments are of grave concern in raising the profile of work-based training in the hospitality industry.

2.2 THE ROLE OF COLLEGE

The industry's expectation of a college delivering work-based learning has not been fully met. This is in spite of the issues related with the restricted release of apprentices by employers. Almost one third (33%), of the employers commented about their lack of knowledge relating to the NVQ requirements, Individual Training Plan and target completion date for each trainee.

The employers would prefer the close supervision of trainees by college staff, and more frequent communication between College and Industry. Unfortunately, Colleges only receive limited funding to deliver and assess the trainees in the workplace. This restricts the number of visits which can be made by the college staff to the work place. Almost one third (34%), of the employers have complained about the lengthy gaps between the Assessors meeting with trainees and also the restricted duration of contact time. Almost all (95%), of employers have met assessors and they strongly feel that the work-based training has improved the employees performance. There are well over three quarters (76%), of employers very satisfied with college assessors and the quality of feedback.

It was highlighted by some employers that due to college staff shortages , there were gaps in the training programme and a lack of communication between the assessor and employers. The assessors need to be encouraged to give regular feedback to the employers. The college also needs to be flexible in the delivery of training at a time convenient to the employer whilst complying with the operational timings of the establishments.

2.3 BASIC SKILLS

There are numerous issues concerning the low levels of literacy and numeracy skills in the workplace amongst the employees. They are mainly employed in low skill jobs and find it very difficult to develop their full potential. Unfortunately, the hospitality and catering industry appears to have the biggest share of employees with the need for basic skills. The problem has arisen because of the failure in the education system in previous years.

It would be very difficult for trainees to qualify with full frameworks if they lack basic skills. However, the responses from postal questionnaires indicated that just over one third (38%), of the respondents expressed concern about the lack of support from assessors with literacy and numeracy. As can be seen from the completion rates and findings from the interviews with work-based trainees, the problem is in fact

enormous, but all employers have not actively engaged in improving the standards of basic skills.

The other problem relates to the basic skills provision being limited to literacy and numeracy only. Most employers require some measures of job readiness and basic Information Technology skills. It would be appropriate to include these as well in the basic skills curriculum. Fortunately, the Government is committed to raising the basic skills level of 750,00 adults by 2004. The Moser Report estimated that one in five adults of working age in the UK is not functionally literate and 30% to 50% of adults have problems with numeracy. (Moser, February, 1999)

The colleges and training providers are committed to carrying out a Basic Skills Test during the induction period, with full support offered to trainees requiring basic skills. However, the take up of basic skills support remains very low because of the trainees lack of motivation to acquire literacy and numeracy skills. In addition, there is very little encouragement from industry. It is not surprising to see the low achievement of key skills and retention on work-based courses, as the trainees are not able to cope with the curriculum content.

The industry's need to engage with these trainees is vital to improve their basic skills which would open up opportunities for increased employability, personal development and internal promotion prospects.

2.4 KEY SKILLS

There are serious issues in the delivery of key skills as the majority of employees do not usually directly involve themselves. The results of interview with the work-based trainees earlier in this chapter indicated that just over half (56%), of them were making satisfactory progress with key skills. Their priority is clearly focused on the development of the technical skills. They are not really concerned if the vocational training does not satisfy the key skills requirements.

It appears that the total responsibility for the delivery of key skills falls on the educational institutions or private training providers. Unfortunately, in the colleges all staff directly involved in the training and assessment of trainees are not necessarily qualified to deliver the key skills, especially the vocational tutors. However, the situation to find work-based assessors to deliver key skills is far worse in industry.

There is a need to organise training events for employers to ensure that they understand the key skill requirements and their relevance to employment. It is obvious that the employers do not have work-based assessors within the pedagogy skills to deliver key skills like Literacy, Numeracy and Information Technology in the workplace. In spite of this, there were just under half (43%), of the employers not satisfied with the provision available for key skills delivery.

The key skills accounted as a significant factor of failure in the attainment of full frameworks, especially when totally delivered on-the-job. It would appear that the success rate of key skills could be higher if fully integrated into NVQ training and delivered discreetly off-the-job in further education colleges. Thus, industry's involvement is vital to make the apprenticeship programme a great success story.

2.5 TRAINING AND ASSESSMENT

The work-based training, as the name implies, should take place in the industry. Unfortunately, there are some trainees in catering establishments where they cannot cover the full range of competencies. In such cases, the trainees need to attend the college as a part-time day release student and carry out their technical skills development in the Realistic Working Environment. As a rule, the majority of practical training should be carried out at the workplace. The college also provides the learning support for Basic Skills, Key Skills, Technical Certificates and NVQ Portfolios in co-operation with employers to fully backup the trainees.

There were almost one third (34%), of employers very concerned about the frequency of meetings between the assessors and trainees. The norm for these meetings should be

at least once in three weeks, whereas employers indicated that these meetings are actually being held once in two months.

The other issue commented upon by almost one third (29%), of the respondents related to the insufficient time being spent by the assessor with the trainee, which was only forty five minutes on an average. This is not adequate, as there has to be an in-depth discussion at these meetings to review trainee progress, and up-date the Individual Training Plan, including the setting of targets for the next meeting.

CONCLUSION

The literature research has indicated the role of employers in training as far back as the nineteenth century when the only training provision available was 'Sitting next to Nellie'. Of course, this was a very informal system of training, which meant transferring technical skills, knowledge and professional ethics from the Master Craftsmen. This led to the formation of the Craft Guilds and then the City and Guilds of London Institute came into being in 1890 to look after the interests of various Craft Guilds. There was a status accorded to various Craftsmen by designing technical courses and qualifications. In the initial stages, the technical courses were delivered in colleges by practising professionals from industry. These professionals also acted as External Examiners to certify the candidates in their final examinations. Unfortunately, the young people pursuing these vocational courses were not receiving a fair deal, as these courses lacked academic rigour which did not sufficiently enhance their personal development.

In the mid-twentieth century Further Education Colleges took the lead on Vocational Education and Training for the Hospitality and Catering Industry. In 1952, the National Joint Apprenticeship Council was formed, and the apprenticeship system was introduced making a mandatory requirement for apprentices to attend the college a minimum of one day per week. In 1964, The Industrial Training Act was passed through parliament with the formation of the Hotel and Catering Industrial Training Board. This act enforced a levy-grant system which unfortunately, only assisted the large companies in training their staff. Small Medium-Sized Establishments (SMEs) were once again at their own mercy with the challenges of staff training, as these establishments did not comply with the rules of the levy-grant system. The biggest financial incentives for training were only within the reach of large establishments. Then came the problems about retention of staff in the large companies as SMEs started recruiting trained staff from large hotel companies by offering higher wages. This situation did not assist the industry at large in resolving their skill shortage issues.

Unfortunately, because of so many anomalies the government had to withdraw this financial system of funding training which led to the training function become voluntary for the employers. This induced almost all the training to be carried out in Further Education Colleges, and the provision of hospitality and catering in 1970's grew tremendously. Of course, in the late 1980's there were many criticisms by the industry about the quality of vocationally trained personnel from colleges, such as students lacking technical skills, job readiness and professional ethics.

There were far too many criticisms about the trained personnel from Further Education Colleges and as a consequence of these comments National Vocational Qualifications were introduced in 1990's to be solely delivered in the workplace. The industry had a total autonomy to develop the curriculum content and standards to be achieved. This is an enormous responsibility to be delegated to the industry by the National Training Organisation. The Vocational Education and Training System has lost its rigour, as the candidates are narrowly focused on competencies and the assessment procedures are open to inconsistencies. In addition, the industry could not deliver government set National Education and Training Targets (NETTS). Once again, this led government to look towards Further Education Colleges to improve NETTS. During the Beaumont Review of NVQs, December 1995, it was decided to deliver Key Skills alongside NVQ to add some rigour in qualifications. Unfortunately, the industry did not have the resources to deliver and assess key skills in the workplace and, as a result, colleges provided the full support.

In January, 2001 the Secretary of State introduced further reforms to the Modern Apprenticeship System by making it mandatory to deliver the Technical Certificates to all apprentices. This initiative came to provide a sound foundation for the development of technical skills in the form of under pinning knowledge and enrich the curriculum. Once again, Further Education Colleges took on the role to deliver the Technical Certificates as they have the resources, but this meant that the apprentices needed to be released from work at least one day per week, or on a block-release basis to the college. Unfortunately, very few employers allowed any time for trainees away from work which caused concerns to the apprentices, as some of them could not achieve full frameworks.

This view has been strengthened by the issue raised during the personal interviews with trainees 'No time is allowed by the employer to attend the college'. In addition, only 40% of work-based supervisors responded that the industry allows time to trainees to attend the college. However, it is observed that most of the trainees who are well motivated to achieve the full framework attend the college in their own time.

The main issues highlighted by the work-based trainees during the personal interviews, and further confirmed by the postal questionnaires, relate to the lack of support and guidance at the workplace. The trainees require sufficient time at the workplace to learn and to attend the local college on a regular basis. The postal questionnaire responses from employees indicated that only 44% of employers allowed any time for trainees to attend the college. The industry should be forced to allow their trainees at least one day a week to study at the college so that they have a fair opportunity to achieve full frameworks.

There should be an integrated approach for the delivery of an Induction Programme ensuring that the industry plays an active role alongside the colleges, The delivery of a Basic Skills agenda, Key Skills and Technical Certificates should be fully supported by the industry to improve the attainment rate for work based learning.

There are insufficient learning resources for the trainees in the workplace to access information required for the completion of their NVQ portfolios. The provision of a computer and access to internet would be highly desirable for the trainees, as it will provide an access to on-line learning resource materials.

It is interesting to note that almost all the work-based trainees interviewed were following on-the-job training, but there were just over half (52%), who had qualified assessors in the workplace to support the trainees in completing their portfolios. There were 70% of the trainees from the postal questionnaires who were not satisfied with the frequency and duration of the visits by the college based assessors. This situation can only be resolved by the industry's willingness to train more of their work - based supervisors as assessors and allowing them sufficient time at the workplace to supplement the function of assessment carried out by college assessors.

In fact, during the personal interviews with work-based supervisors, almost three quarters (72%), of them were interested in being trained as assessors. This indicates the lack of support and commitment by industry to train more work-based assessors. It is clear that the industry relies heavily on the government funded training programme to meet their skill shortages and skill gaps.

In many companies, training and education does not fit into the companies Strategic Plans. The employers consider the expenditure on training to be a burden unless the courses are part of mandatory legislative requirements, such as Food Hygiene Training, Health & Safety, British Institute of Inn Keeping – National Licensing Certificate, Door Supervisors Training and some NVQ courses. In reality, the employers need to consider the training expenditure as an investment in staff, a means of career progression for their staff and rewarding successful trainees with promotion. This should improve their motivation and morale, which in-turn will improve staff retention, resulting in higher productivity.

Brian Wisdom, Chief Executive, People First, Sector Skills Council (SSC) for Hospitality, Leisure, Travel and Tourism Industry reported in the *Caterer and Hotelkeeper*, 30th June; 2005 that SSC has just received £62,000 from the employers in contrast to the construction industry which generated about £100m.

'Wisdom himself is 'no fan of a levy', but says there's a risk one might appear if hospitality doesn't take responsibility for securing its future skills base'.

(Wisdom, 2005, p.16)

Unfortunately, this is evidence of the unwillingness of the hospitality and catering industry to invest in education and training related activities. Apart from the investment in time and finances, employers urgently need to provide technical support to the trainees as well. There were many issues observed, mainly related to the standard and variety of evidence gathered for their NVQ Portfolios. Most of the trainees require access to appropriate resources to collect evidence for their portfolios which is not easily available to them. The consequence of this has been the non-completion of NVQs and very low attainment rates in the work-based provision.

It is not surprising that during the session 2003/2004 the overall attainments rate for all frameworks and NVQ was only 38% for the Hospitality sector, which was the lowest of any other industry. Thus, the standards of the NVQ Portfolio being examined proved the lack of support and guidance by the Industry. In the Hospitality Training Foundation Report about Modern Apprenticeship in the hospitality and catering sector, the effects of a lack of a mentor in the context of assessment are noted (King, 2000, p.7).

There is a valuable role for mentors to play in helping apprentices balance the pressures between work and training, especially when assessment is conducted externally by a local college. The hard work and long hours required within the hospitality and catering industry can exacerbate this situation. Thus, the industry should play its role in the delivery of training by supporting the use of workplace mentors who can provide adequate support and guidance to the trainee towards the completion of their NVQ Portfolios.

The researcher's view is that education and training is a complex activity and many of the employers do not fully understand the concept of training and learning. It is important to bring them aboard by explaining various qualifications and courses available for their employees, the assessment philosophies, procedures and awarding body requirements. The government need to invest more in increasing the awareness of industry in the delivery of vocational education and training.

The other initiative which can be taken by industry is to develop a training partnership with their local college or Centre of Vocational Excellence as they have comprehensive knowledge about qualifications, courses, curriculum content, assessment policies, procedures and various funding streams. Finally, the industry has to be pro-active in addressing the staff training issues at the forefront. This follows on to the next chapter which will be focusing on the comparative study of hospitality and catering vocational education and the training system in the UK with other European and Anglophone countries. The aim of this study is to explore if any lessons could be learnt from these countries.

CHAPTER 7

INTERNATIONAL COMPARATIVE STUDY OF VOCATIONAL EDUCATION AND TRAINING

INTRODUCTION

The previous Chapter discussed the perception of industry's role in the delivery of vocational education and training. However, there are issues already highlighted as regards the quality of work-based training and the low attainment rate on apprenticeship programmes.

Successive governments have attempted to involve the industry in training functions. Unfortunately, the nature of the hospitality industry is such that small and medium sized establishments have been unable to take full advantage, mainly because of financial reasons. In some cases, the seasonal nature of business has not helped in pursuing this cause. The cumulative affect of these reasons has certainly hindered the industry as a whole in moving ahead with the training agenda. At this point, it was decided to carry out a comparative study with other countries to see if there are any useful lessons which could be learnt.

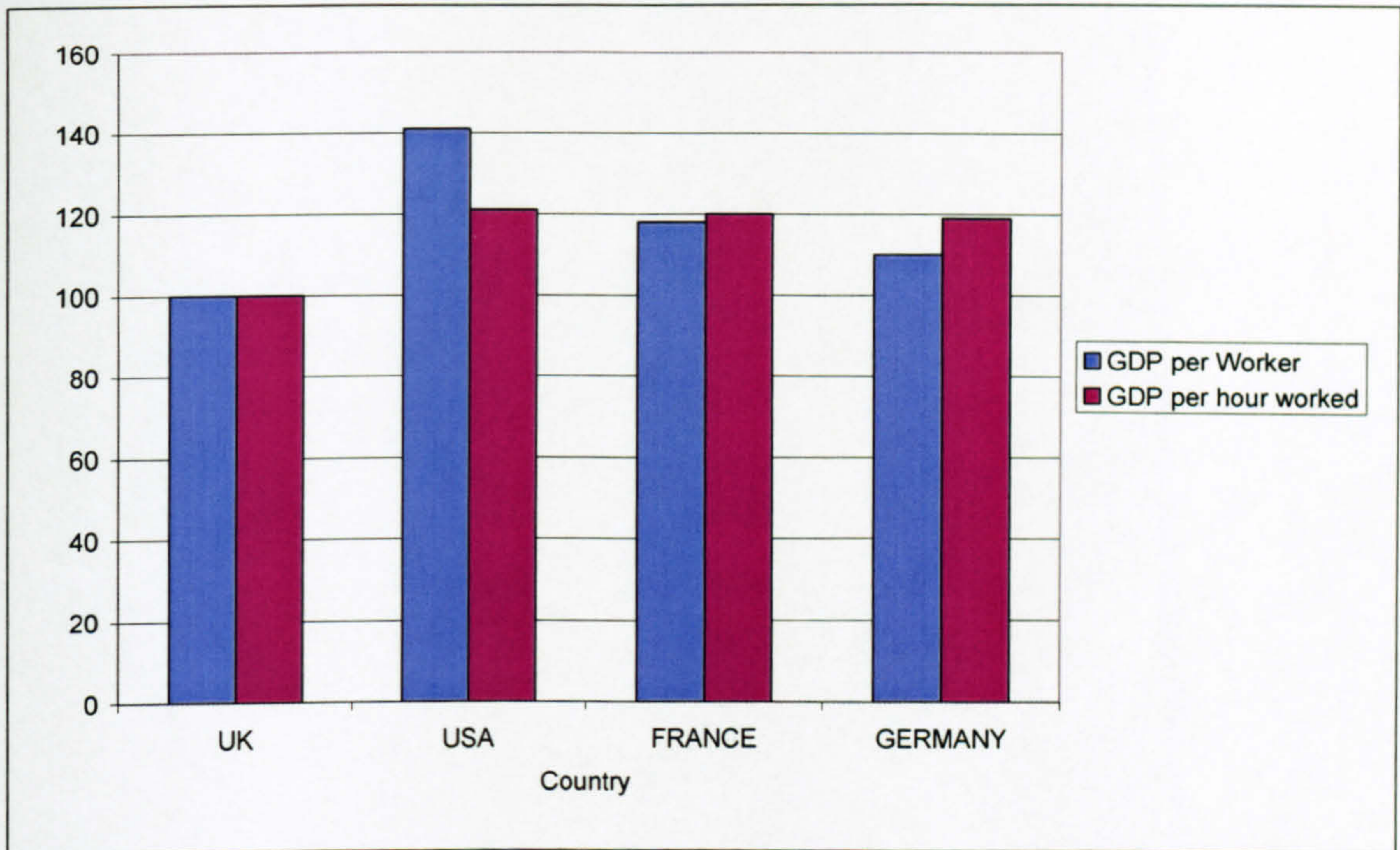
This international comparative study focuses upon the current UK Vocational education and training system in order to improve it, so that the future challenges of competing in the global market can be met. Although the focus of research is therefore inward looking, it is important that any suggested changes for the future might benefit from a better understanding of the way education and training systems are organised abroad. This is precisely the aim of this Chapter.

The approach adopted in this Chapter is to use a range of sources including qualification structure, curriculum content, the modes of curriculum delivery, the assessment process, the role of employers and the influence of standard regulatory bodies. There is also some direct evidence from the author's own visits to a range of educational and training institutions in other countries, including specifically related literature research on the subject matter. The aim of this research question is not to identify a particular system for the UK to emulate, but to survey the possibilities of offering suggestions for changes in the UK system where substantive improvements can be made.

Skills contribute to national prosperity, personal aspiration and global competitiveness – NSTF Research Report 'Skills for all' indicates that, over the past two decades, Britain has fallen in the International league tables for intermediate level skills achievement. In Germany, there are twice as many workers with intermediate skills at Level 2 as compared with Britain, and three times as many with vocational qualifications at Level 3 (Steedman, 1999).

There are other studies which confirm that UK productivity lags behind other industrial countries. USA workers produce 36% more for every worker than their counterparts in Britain. French workers are ahead by 21% and German workers lead by 13%. (DfEE, 2000d, p.25). This is illustrated in Figure: 7.1 and compared with Gross Domestic Product per worker of major industrialised economies.

Figure 7.1: The Productivity Gap (1998)



Source: OECD, 1998 (UK = 100)

In fact, the first Skills White Paper – 21st Century Skills: ‘Realising Our Potential’ published in July 2003, – spelt out the most coherent government statement on the importance of learning and skills. At the time when these proposals were implemented, it should have brought about a steep change in the priority given to skills development. Unfortunately, the skills development did not happen at the pace it was anticipated. The Government’s central economic objective is to achieve high and stable levels of growth and employment. Economic growth depends on employment growth and productivity. ‘Productivity’ refers to the efficiency with which the economy uses its inputs, primarily labour and capital.

In a recent UK study it was found that sizeable positive links exist between higher productivity and higher industry rates of training. The effect of training on productivity is around twice as great as the effect of training on wages. Employees and companies share in the gains from employer-led training. The results demonstrate a sizeable effect. For example: raising the proportion of workers trained in an industry by 5% is

associated with a 4% increase in value-added per worker and a 1.6% increase in wages (Dearden et al, 2000).

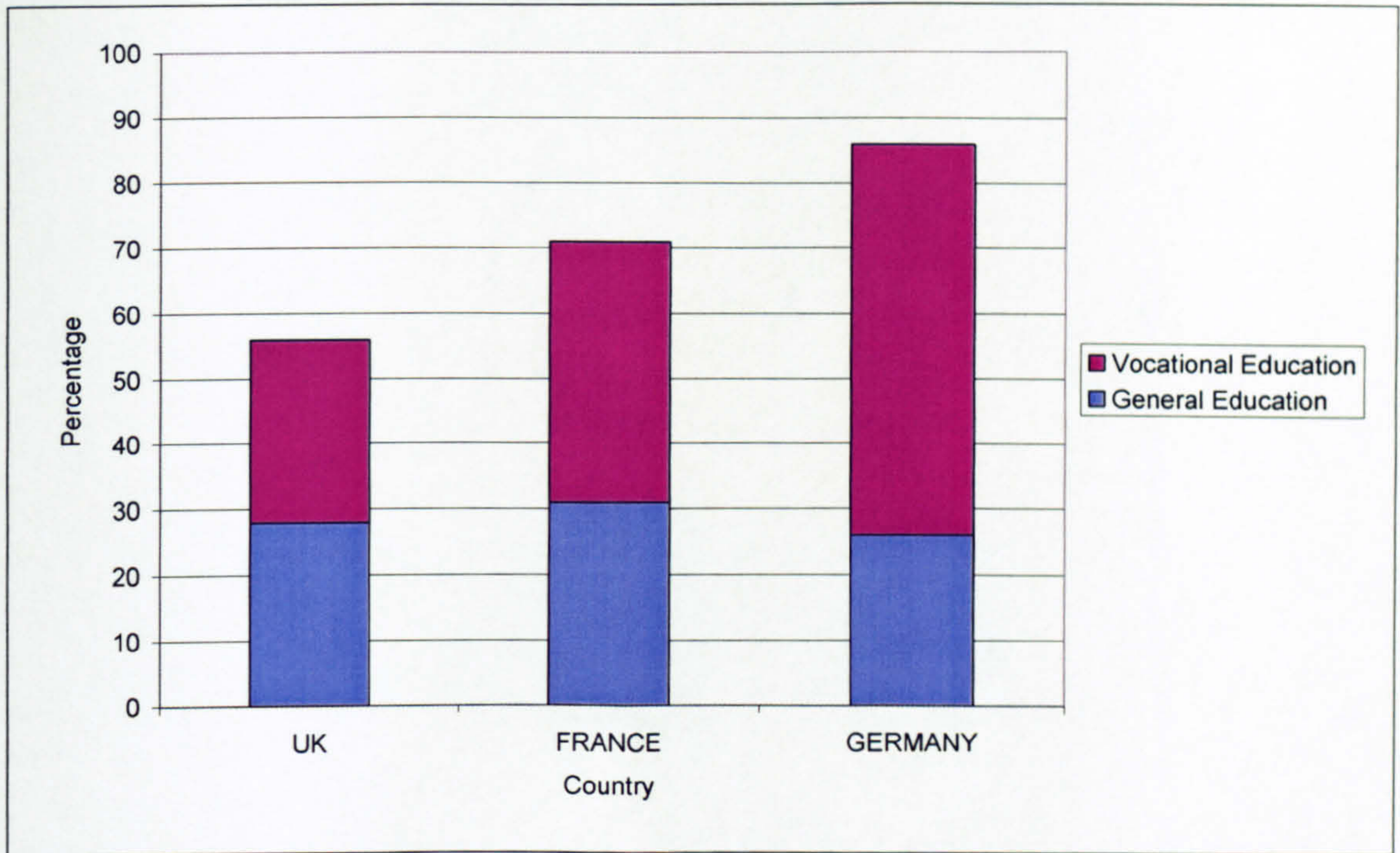
The National Skills Task Force 2000 estimated that an increase of 0.1% per annum growth in productivity would generate around £10 billion more output over the next 10 years. If the productivity gap is closed with Germany, it would generate £50 billion more output over the same period. (DfEE, 2000d, p. 25). Comparisons of qualifications levels between countries need to be viewed sensitively, but the available data suggests that the UK performs unfavourably in terms of the percentage of the workforce with vocational skills at level 2 and 3 compared to France and Germany. The statistics are illustrated in Table: 7.1, Figure: 7.2 and 7.3.

Table: 7.1: Comparisons of Qualifications at Level 2 and Level 3 in the UK, France and Germany

Countries	Level 2			Level 3		
	UK %	France %	Germany %	UK %	France %	Germany %
General qualifications						
19-21 Years	44	56	37	29	38	22
25-28 Years	33	40	33	24	36	30
Vocational qualifications						
19-21 Years	26	25	28	14	5	26
25-28 Years	28	43	52	17	18	48

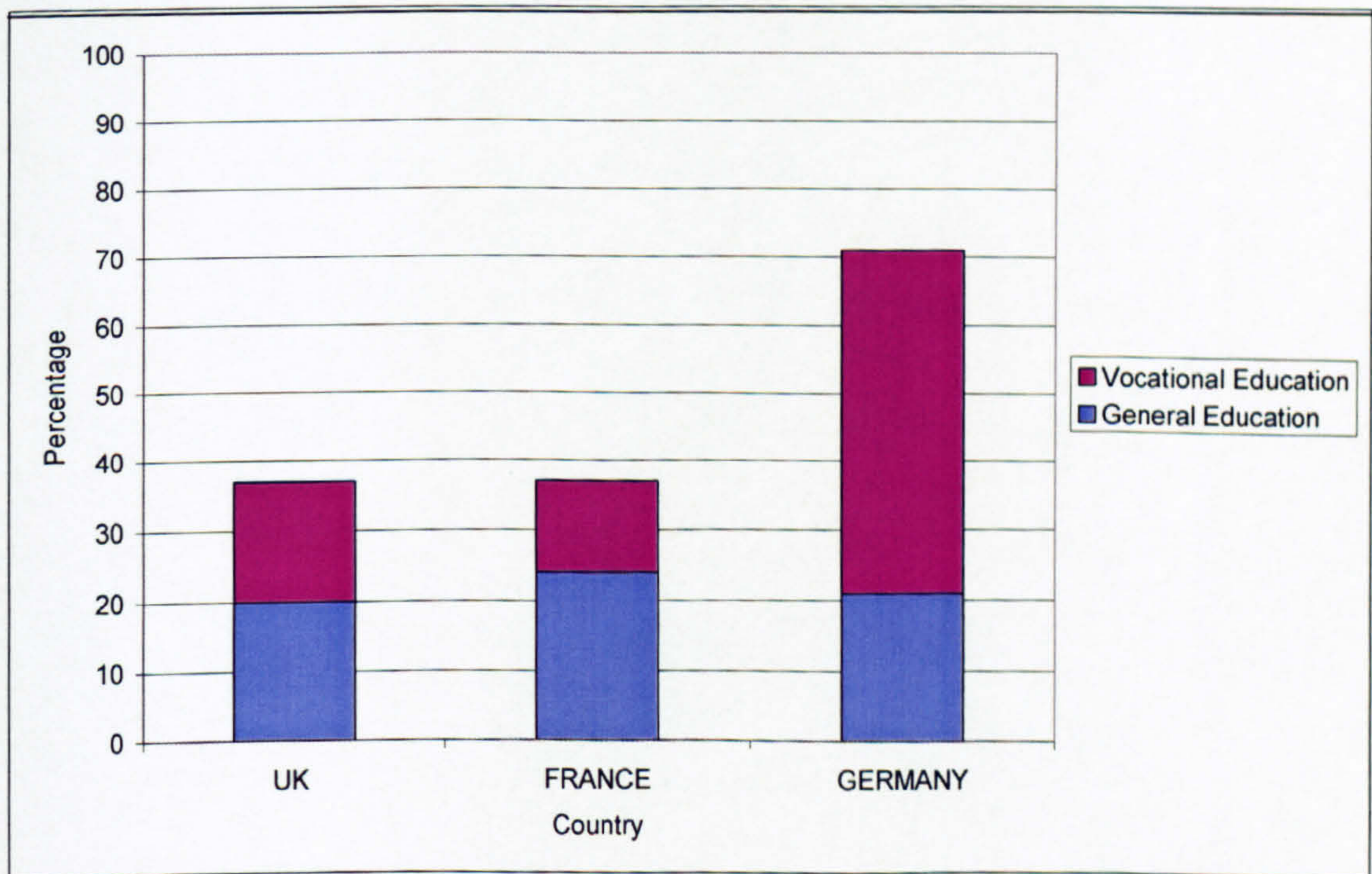
Source: Steedman, 1999.

Figure 7.2: Percentage of the Workforce with Level 2



Source: 'Skills for All' Research Report DfEE, 2000.

Figure: 7.3: Percentage of the Workforce with Level 3

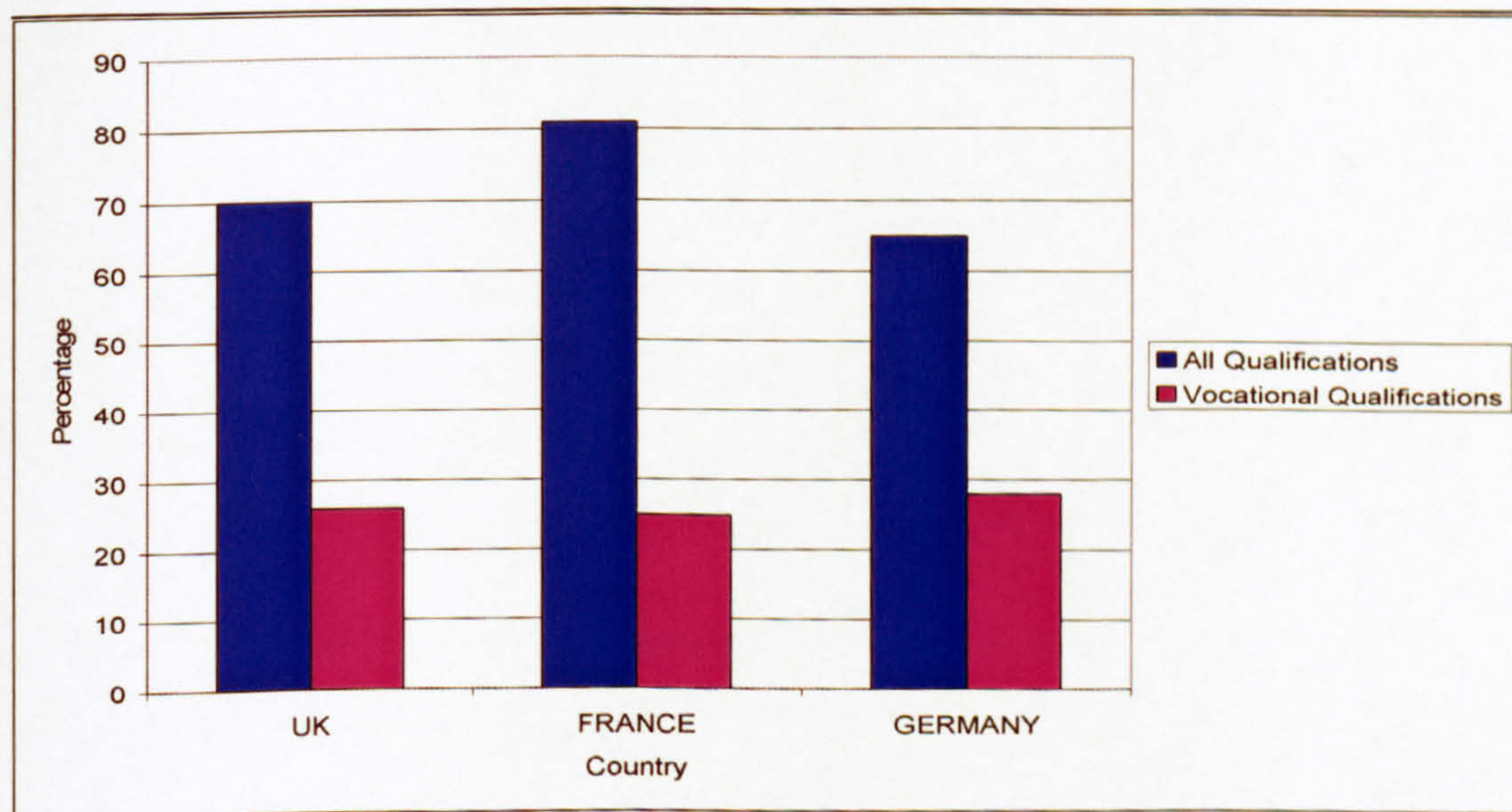


Source: 'Skills for All' Research Report, DfEE, 2000

The comparisons of qualifications at Level 2 and Level 3 in the UK, France and Germany were further analysed according to the age group of 19-21 year olds and 25-28 year olds. In analysing these figures, it highlights that for 19-21 year olds, the proportions holding Level 2 and Level 3 vocational qualifications are fairly comparable with France and Germany. However, the issues arise for over 21, as the statistics for 25-28 year olds highlight that the UK significantly lags behind France and Germany and there is a highly significant gap at Level 3 with Germany.

The analysis of qualifications at Level 2 for 19 – 21 year olds are displayed in Figure: 7.4. It clearly indicates that the proportion of 19-21 year olds holding Level 2 qualifications is fairly comparable for all the three countries.

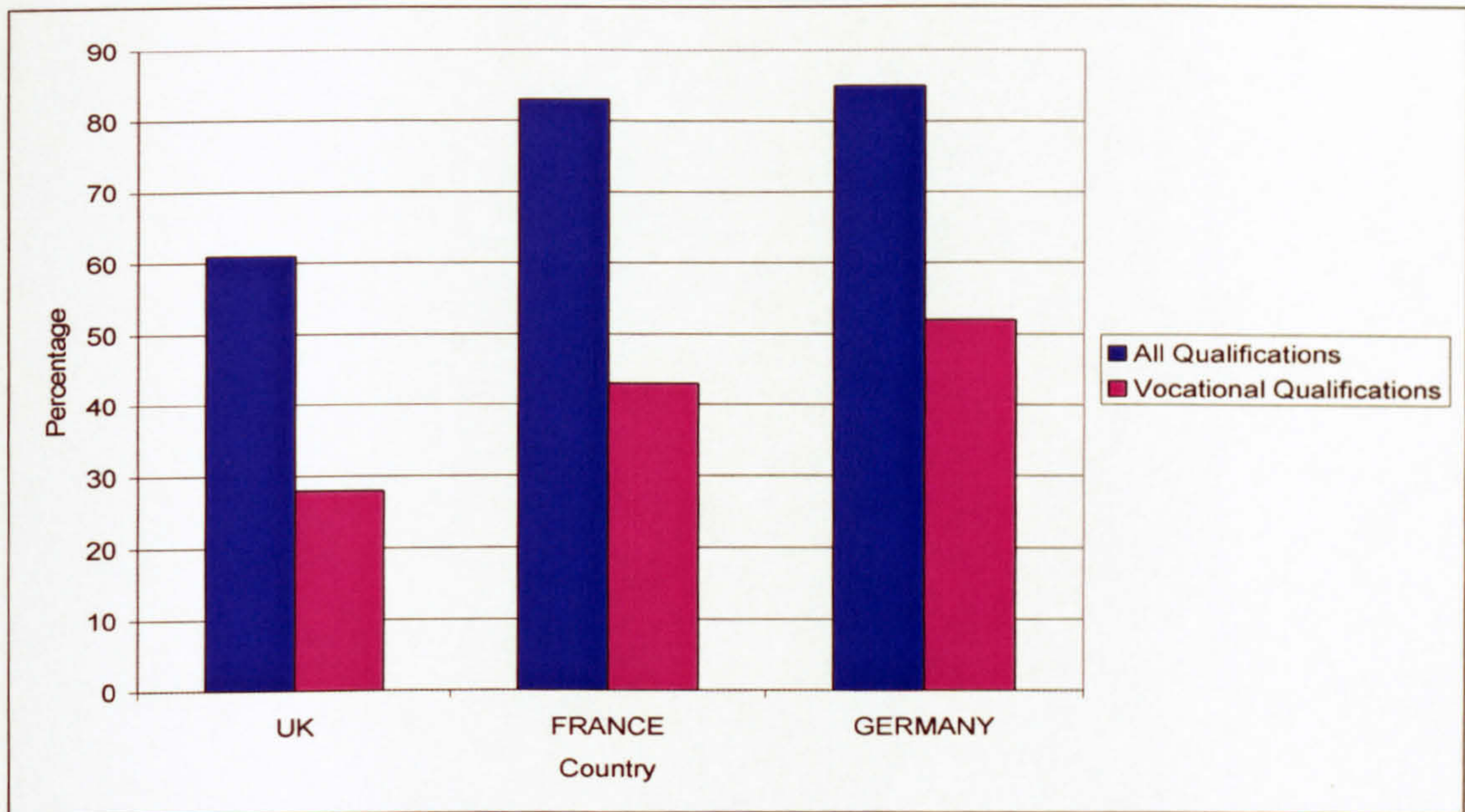
Figure: 7.4: Comparisons of Qualifications at Level 2 Age 19-21



Source: 'Skills for All' Research Report, DfEE, 2000

The analysis for 25 – 28 year olds holding Level 2 vocational qualifications is displayed in Figure 7.5. This however indicates that the UK significantly lags behind at Level 2 qualifications for the age cohort of 25-28 year olds, as the figures for France are 15% higher and Germany leads by 24%.

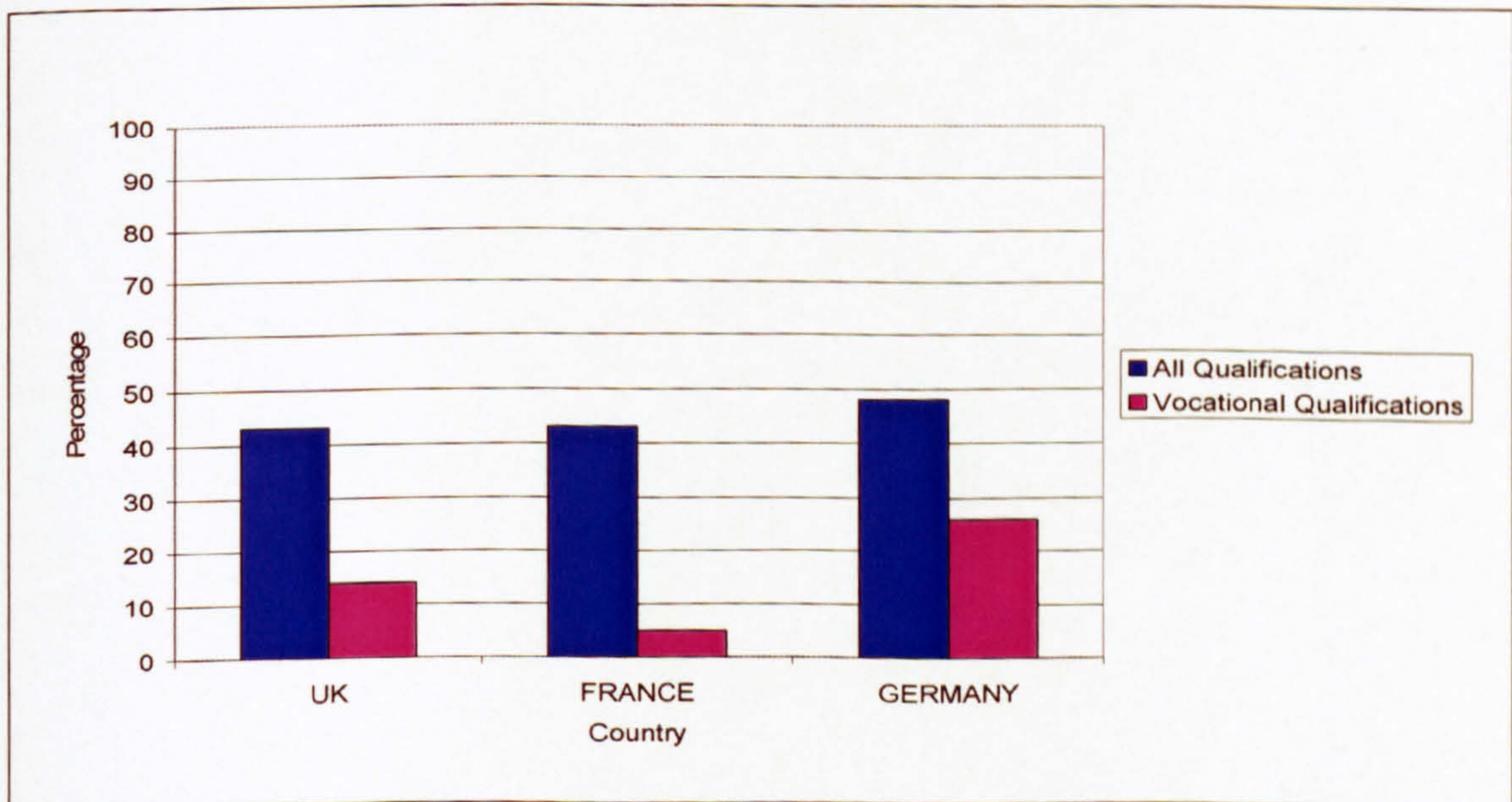
Figure 7.5 Comparisons of Qualifications at Level 2 Age 25-28



Source: 'Skills for All' Research Report, DfEE, 2000

The analysis of Level 3 qualifications is shown in Figure: 7.6 for 19 – 21 year olds which indicates that the German workforce has almost twice as many people with this level of vocational qualifications; that is, 26% as compared to only 14% in the UK.

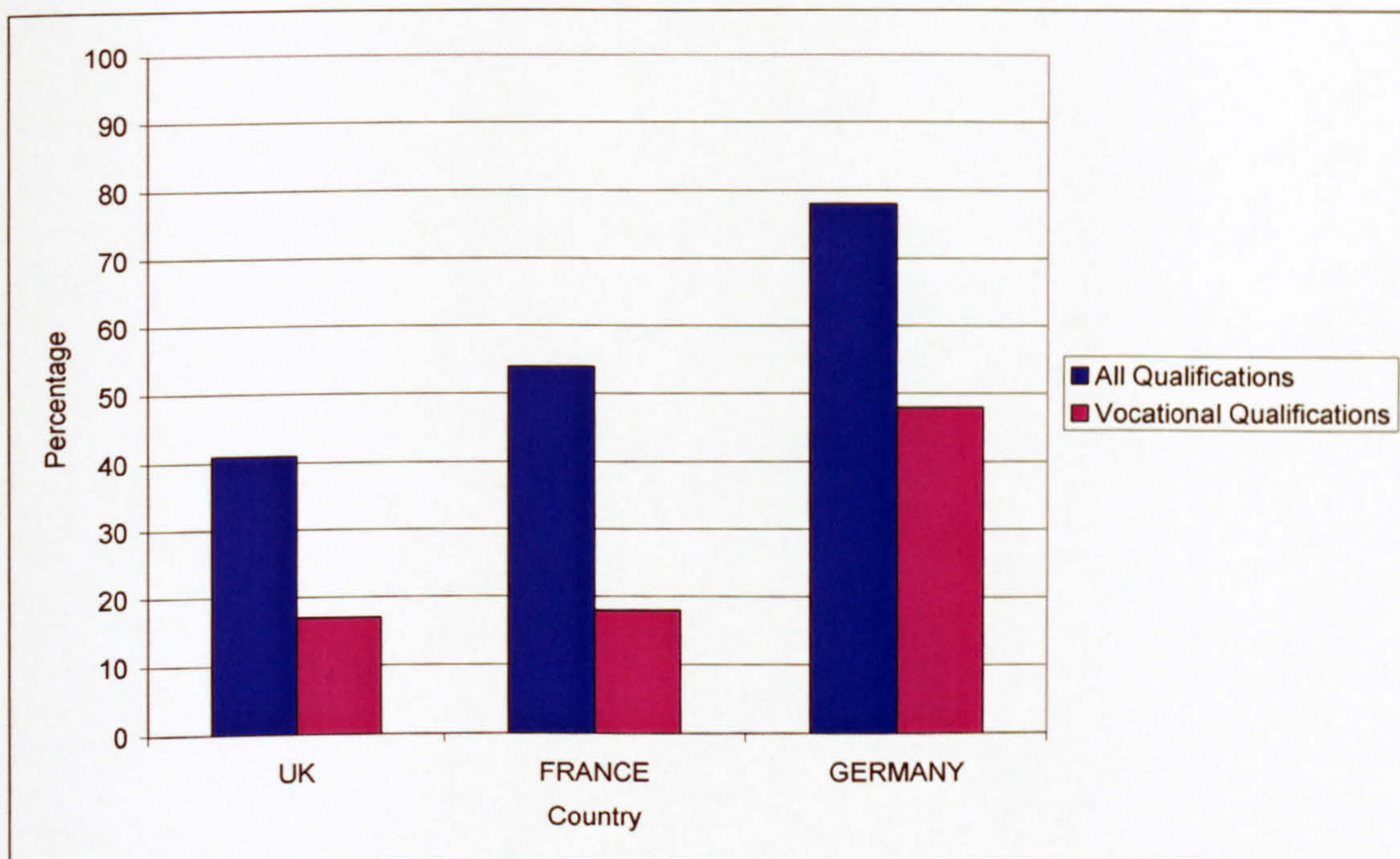
Figure 7.6: Comparisons of Qualifications at Level 3 Age 19-21



Source: 'Skills for All' Research Report, DfEE, 2000

The analysis for 25-28 year olds holding Level 3 vocational qualifications is displayed in Figure: 7.7. This indicates that there are almost three times more workers with Level 3 in Germany as compared with the UK.

Figure 7.7: Comparisons of Qualifications at Level 3 Age 25-28



Source: 'Skills for All' Research Report, DfEE, 2000

The comparative study was focused on the level 2 and level 3 provision in the main, specifically related to the hospitality and restaurant industry. The hotel and restaurant industry is one of the most significant industries in the UK economy, employing 1.67 million people in Great Britain, out of which 92.7% are full-time main jobs and 7.3% are second jobs (Labour Market Review, HTF, 2003). It is anticipated that 300,000 new jobs will be created between 2000 and 2009 (Skills and Employment Forecasts, HTF, 2000). The training and development of the workforce is key to the success of the industry and can directly influence whether a business survives. The employment of young people adds to the vibrancy and 'trendy' factor of establishments, appealing to that customer base. This is an aspect that must be capitalised on by young people,

particularly those that choose the vocational route. The industry must also play its part, in offering reasonable remuneration packages and working conditions in order to attract and retain people, alongside considered personal training development programmes. In order to carry out the comparison in some depth, the study was further narrowed down to the Chef's Profession.

THE INDUSTRY'S IMAGE

In the UK, the industry does not attract the appropriate calibre of young people to join the chef's profession. The hotel and restaurant industry has a serious problem of recruitment for the chef's profession because of a poor sector image, which acts as a barrier to attracting the best recruits. This view is also substantiated in the Final Report on 'A Comparative Study of the United Kingdom and European Approaches to Hospitality Education and Training' (Kent, 2000, p.19). This is not helped by the view that vocational qualifications are not valued in the same way as academic qualifications. The introduction of Curriculum 2000 in September 2000 was expected to provide 'parity of esteem' for vocational and academic qualifications. Unfortunately, the number of young people opting for vocational qualifications has declined. Consequently, the brightest people do not consider employment in this sector. The evidence for this claim is apparent in the analysis of enrolment and attainment statistics on Hospitality and Catering Courses since 1992. This has been discussed in greater depth in Chapter: 4.

The hotel and restaurant industry has the added pressure of competition from the retail industry which offers better working hours, straight shifts, and may even have better rates of pay and working environments. In addition, the retail industry employers like Marks and Spencer's, Tesco and Sainsbury's offer a formal training plan, structured career path and a variety of incentives.

The hotel and restaurant industry needs to highlight its main strengths. The job in this industry is akin to show business. It is customer satisfaction that keeps the staff motivated. It is important to pass on the experience and enthusiasm of the chef's profession to the next generation. The growth in Food Programmes on TV related to the preparation and cooking of food should further enhance the image of the Chef's profession. The industry has to become more productive and efficient in the utilisation of human resources. In France, Germany and Switzerland, this industry is highly regarded by society and it is the best example of all countries studied in attracting young people to the chef's profession (Kent, 2000, p.17-18).

THE NEEDS OF INDUSTRY AND OUTPUT FROM COLLEGES

In the UK, there is a mismatch between the needs of industry and the output from colleges of trained professional chefs. In July 2001, there were 19,757 full-time vacancies in the chef's/cook's profession. In Wales and the North East around 70 per cent of the vacancies advertised were unfilled. Even in London, which had the lowest percentage of unfilled chef/cook positions, almost 50 per cent were not filled.

In 2000, the shortage of skilled chefs increased to 60 per cent from 50 per cent in 1999, and the skill gaps in chefs has increased to 70 per cent from 50 per cent in 1999 in the hotel sector. In the restaurant sector the shortage in skilled chefs has increased to 45 per cent from 40 per cent in 1999, and the skill gaps in chefs has increased to 60 per cent from 51 per cent in 1999. (Forecasting Change, HTF, October 2002) The total number of chefs/cooks employed has increased from 234,000 in 1997 to 265,486 in 2002 (Labour Market Review, HTF, 2003).

However, the percentage of employment in the chef profession as a full-time provision, has increased from 69 per cent in 2001 to 70.1 per cent in 2002, whereas in part-time provision it has decreased from 31 per cent to 29.9 per cent. This is an interesting and exciting trend, as the number of full-time employees in the Chef's profession are steadily escalating. The increase in the total number of registrations on NVQ courses as indicated in Table: 7.2 further confirms the growth in full-time employment as more and more young pupils are considering the Chef's profession as a full-time career.

Table 7.2: NVQ/SVQ Cumulative Registrations from 1993 to 2002

Year	Level 1	Level 2	Level 3	Level 4	Total
1993	2,161	2,084	86	66	4,397
1994	27,712	46,314	3,381	553	77,960
1995	45,990	69,337	9,000	916	125,243
1996	60,666	94,776	13,174	1,145	169,761
1997	83,414	118,647	21,995	1,243	225,299
1998	111,304	150,068	29,416	1,471	292,259
1999	131,709	180,208	37,927	1,661	351,505
2000	150,451	206,492	45,713	1,868	404,524
2001	168,521	237,132	52,642	2,075	460,370
2002	186,658	288,918	63,222	2,292	541,090

Source: Labour Market Review, HTF, 2000

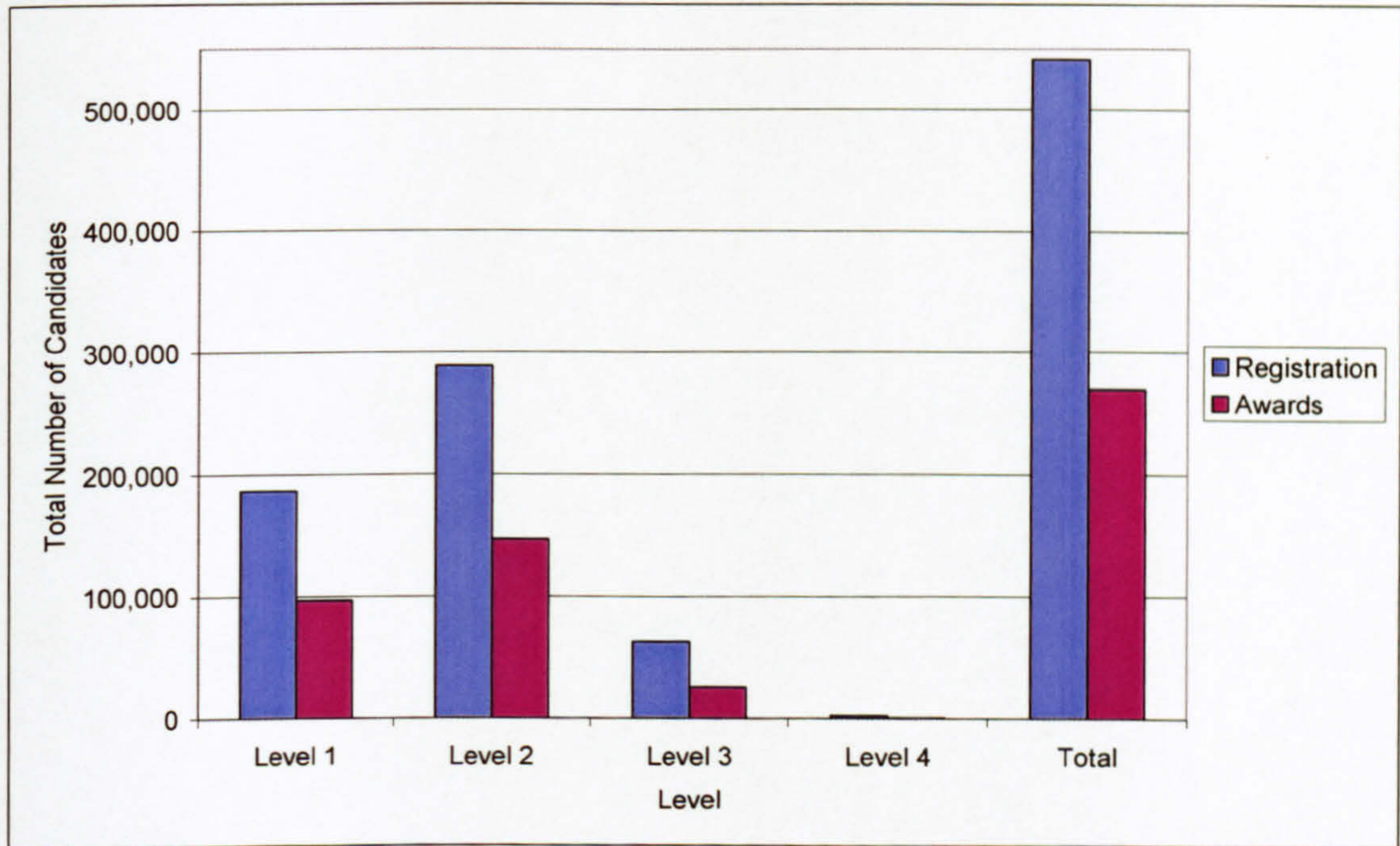
Although the registration of NVQs has increased, the overall attainment rate of NVQ in 2002 was 50%. It is a matter of concern that the attainment rate has further fallen at Level 3 and Level 4 to 41% and 21% respectively. These results are displayed in Table: 7.3 and Figure: 7.8.

Table: 7.3: Total NVQ/SVQ Registrations and Awards by Level: as at January 2002.

Level	Registration	Awards	Attainment Rate
Level 1	186,658	96,902	52%
Level 2	288,918	146,849	51%
Level 3	63,222	25,846	41%
Level 4	2,292	483	21%
Total	541,090	270,080	50%

Source : Labour Market Review, HTF, 2002

Figure 7.8 Total NVQ/SVQ Registrations by Level



Source: Labour Market Review, HTF, 2002

It was decided to ascertain the proportion of NVQ in Food Preparation and Cooking as part of total NVQ registration. The overall registration of NVQ in Food Preparation and Cooking was 38%, but the percentage at each level showed an increase from 35% at Level 1 to 37% at Level 2, 50% at Level 3 and 65% at Level 4. Conversely, the attainment rate was highest at Level 1 = 70%, and then falls at Level 2 = 65%, Level 3 = 59% and Level 4 = 20%. However, the overall attainment rate was 65% as compared to 50% of overall NVQ attainment rate. The main concerns are the lower percentage of NVQ registrations in Food Preparation and Cooking at Level 1 and Level 2; that is, 35% and 37% respectively. In addition, there is a lower attainment rate at Level 3 = 59% and Level 4 = 20%. However, in comparison to the attainment rate of overall NVQs, the performance of NVQs in Food Preparation and Cooking has certainly improved. The detailed analysis of registrations and awards of NVQ in Food

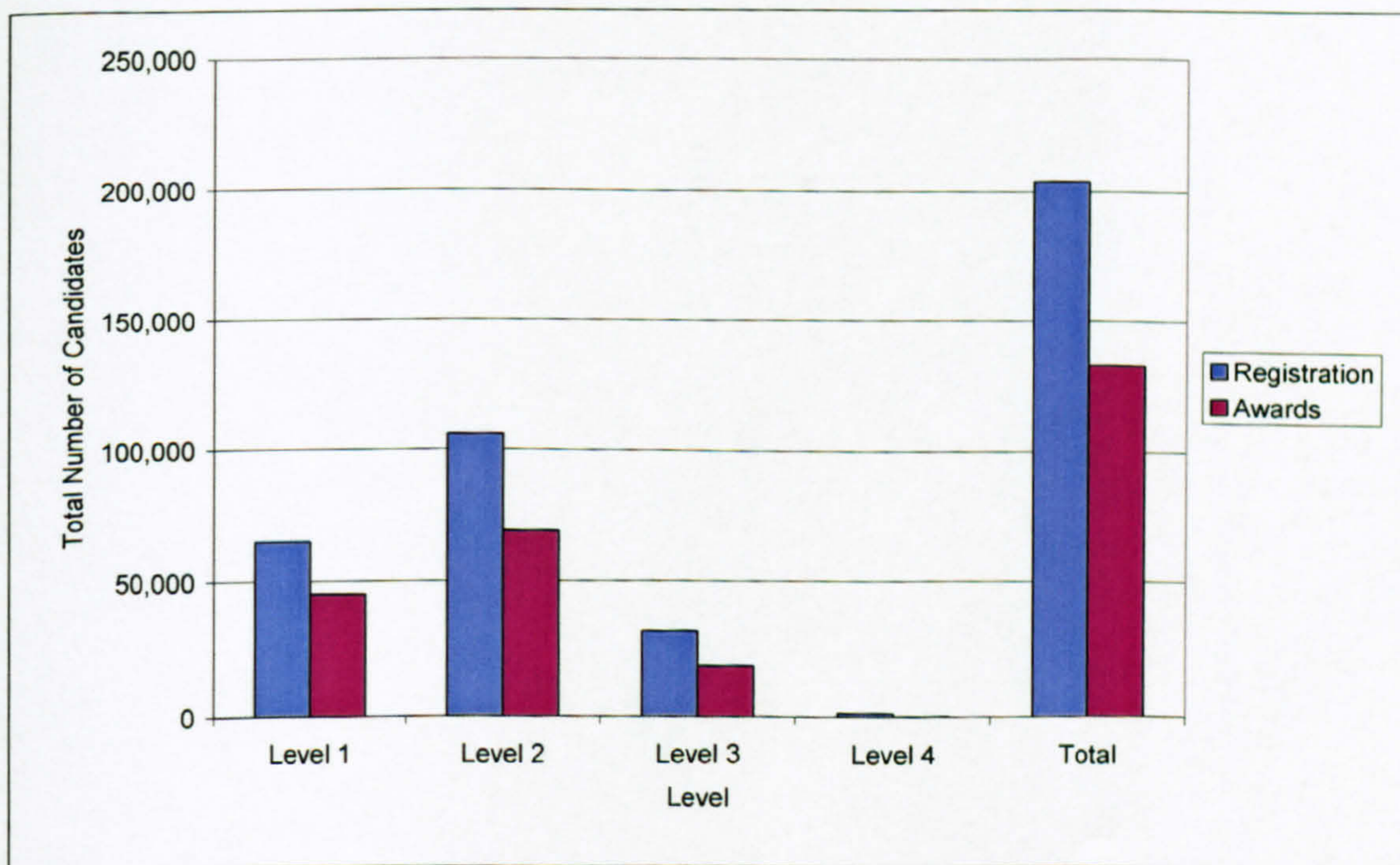
Preparation and Cooking by level from December 1992, to January 2002, are shown in Table: 7.4 and Figure 7.9.

Table: 7.4 Registrations and Awards by level in Food Preparation and Cooking from December 1992 – January 2002

Level	Registration	Percentage of Total NVQ Registrations	Awards	Attainment Rate
Level 1	64,714	35%	45,270	70%
Level 2	105,904	37%	68,855	65%
Level 3	31,442	50%	18,592	59%
Level 4	1,548	65%	310	20%
Total	203,608	38%	133,027	65%

Source: Labour Market Review, HTF, 2002

Figure 7.9 Registrations and Awards by Level in Food Preparation and Cooking from December 1992 – January 2002.



Source: Labour Market Review, HTF, 2002

The employment flows in the hospitality and catering industry during the period 1994-1999 indicate that there is an average annual replacement need for 86,000 craft and

semi-skilled staff in industry. The average output from Colleges is only 14,000. Thus, there is a shortfall of 72,000 trained and qualified staff. This includes the Chef's profession, which accounts for 25 per cent of the shortfall indicating 18,000 vacancies.

COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS, EVALUATION AND ASSESSMENT

The development of training in Britain was a laissez-faire system in the early nineteenth century. The prime responsibility for industrial and commercial training was deemed to rest with industry and commerce themselves. Britain led the way in the Industrial Revolution because of great economic success in the late eighteenth and early nineteenth centuries, but after the 1851 Great Exhibition, it became very apparent that British workers in general were not as well educated as their continental counterparts, and that Britain was in danger of losing its pre-eminence in the industrial world. In the 1870's, the livery companies – organisations that developed out of the original crafts guilds - started thinking about how to meet the challenges of the changing conditions of industry. In 1872 the leading livery companies and the Lord Mayor of London met at Mansion House 'to establish a national system of technical education' which gave the momentum for the establishment of City and Guilds to grow. The Report on Technical Education, 1878 states that six leading figures were invited by a number of City of London Livery Companies to describe the best way of developing technical education. (Grégoire, 1967, p.15).

This resulted in the establishment of the City and Guilds of London Institute in 1878 for the advancement of technical education. In 1900, the City and Guilds of London Institute was granted the Royal Charter to provide the means and motivation for individuals, corporations and communities to achieve their goals.

The City and Guilds of London Institute looked after the chef's craft education and training for the whole country. The setting up of curriculum content, examination and certification was controlled by one body. The formal training for the chef's profession dates back to the 1950s. Although on the continent there has long been a tradition of apprenticeship, but in the hotel and catering industry in the UK this concept of training did not emerge until 1952, when the National Joint Apprenticeship Council (NJAC) was set up. In 1958, this was later joined by the National Committee for Craft Training (NCCT). The main reason for the existence of the two bodies was that the NJAC for

long adamantly insisted on five-year apprenticeships. This was later reduced to four years. While the NCCT felt that a less comprehensive training over a period of three years was adequate. The new body was known as the National Joint Apprenticeship Training Council. The functions of this council were taken over by the Hotel and Catering Industry Training Board in 1967. At this point the emotive word 'apprentice' was dropped and replaced by 'registered trainee'

In 1964, the Industrial Training Act brought in a major change by introducing the financial-incentive of the levy-grant system for employers. Each industry had a training board, such as the Hotel and Catering Industry Training Board (HCITB) set up in 1966. The main function of HCITB was to offer on-the-job training in the industry. It was realised that the chefs' courses, offered in further education colleges on a full-time basis, were not the only model for providing training. Provision was made for on-the-job training with the delivery structure based on a block-release system – twelve weeks in industry and twelve weeks in college over a two year period. The qualifications gained were City and Guilds of London Institute 147, and City and Guilds of London Institute 151 (now equivalent to NVQ Level 3). The employers were encouraged to carry out the training and the HCITB paid grants to employers. In return, some employers were charged a levy on the basis of their total payroll bill.

Despite the enormous progress made in the training field, many of the firms began a process of disengagement from the levy system. Large firms disengaged as they met the training standards set down over the years by the board. In 1972, it was widely realised that this process had gone so far that 56 per cent of British firms were no longer covered by the levy-grant schemes. The other issue was of labour mobility from the commercial sector, which paid the levy and trained staff, to the non-commercial sector such as hospital catering and prison catering, which were exempted from levy. The employers who paid the levy and trained their staff found that they were constantly training staff because of the high labour turnover. This system did work successfully until the Employment and Training Act 1973 came into being.

The task of developing occupational standards began with the advent of the National Council for Vocational Qualification in October 1986 and the formation of the National

Training Organisation for each industry. The first NVQ qualifications were offered in 1990.

In 1997, the merger of the National Council of Vocational Qualification and the Schools Curriculum and Assessment Authority took place to form a single body – the Qualifications and Curriculum Authority (QCA). Standards are approved and controlled by the QCA to ensure the relevance and validity of qualifications to meet the specific needs of industry.

The chefs' qualifications are now awarded by the City and Guilds of London Institute, Edexcel and the Hospitality Awarding Body. The control of quality delivery and assessment is carried out by the internal and external verifiers who are qualified and approved by the relevant awarding body. These qualifications are funded by the Further Education Funding Council which dictates the amount of resources which can be allocated in the delivery of courses; that is, the maximum number of class contact hours per week for a chef's training - 18 hours per week.

In other European countries the chefs' courses have a class contact of 30 hours per week. This will certainly produce better-trained chefs. In the UK, the assessment of students is also carried out in the same class contact time of 18 hours per week, further reducing the actual teaching time.

The research study was carried out to broadly compare the following:

A. Chef's Profession Curriculum Development

A.1 Qualifications

A.2 Curriculum Content

A.3 Duration of Course

A.4 Entry Level and Qualifications

A.5 Mode of Assessment

B. Curriculum Delivery and the Role of Employers

B.1 Delivery of Vocational Education and Training – Industry Based

B.2 Delivery of Vocational Education and Training – Based in Educational Establishments

B.3 Role of Employers

C. Standard and Quality of Curriculum

C.1 Standard Regulatory Bodies

D. An overview of the Standards of Vocational Education and Training System being compared.

A. Chef's Profession Curriculum Development

A.1 Qualifications

In the UK, the qualifications are not transparent and lack consistency. This view has been expressed by employers and educationalists as most of them find it over-bureaucratic and difficult to understand. (Kent, 2000, p.16). The curriculum content is narrowly focused with no depth of understanding or application of technical knowledge and little development of practical abilities. This is because the education system has been designed as an assessment process rather than a teaching instrument.

The qualification structure has been a competency based model since National Vocational Qualifications (NVQ's) were introduced in 1988. In reality, NVQ is a system of accreditation and the biggest advantage of this system has been to award qualifications to those chefs in industry who probably would never have attended college, or have had their many years experience recognised. The qualification is supposed to be a nationally recognised qualification and it should have national credibility. The same qualification can be attained by a trainee as a full-time student at a further education college, or as a work based trainee in the industry, or as a National Trainee/Modern Apprenticeship in industry but attending further education college on a part-time basis, at least one day per week.

At the moment, there are very few opportunities for trainees to extend their skills to achieve NVQ Level 4 or Master Craftsmen Award. It has been indicated in Table: 7.3 and Figure: 7.9 that although 65% of total NVQ registrations at Level 4 are related to Food Preparation and Cooking yet the attainment rate has only been 20%. The NVQ system is based on observation rather than teaching. The assessment of competencies in different establishments are based on 'house standards', which may vary from one institution to another.

In France, Germany, Switzerland and even in the USA the qualifications are clearly structured with greater depth of understanding, knowledge and application in the development of practical skills. This view has been stated by the researcher after carrying out an in-depth study of Chef's curriculum content, and also study visits to the educational and training institutions in these countries.

The structure of qualifications is very simple in Germany and Switzerland – Chef Craftsmen and Meister Craftsmen Chef, or Professionnel Cuisinière and Professionnel Supérieur de Chef de Cuisine respectively. These qualifications are for chef apprentices.

In the UK, New Zealand and the Netherlands chefs' qualifications are offered as a full-time vocational education and training programme alongside the apprenticeship system. The structure develops through Level 1, Level 2 and Level 3 and only under exceptional circumstances does it reach Level 4 standard.

In France the title of the qualification varies, but the levels are equivalent to the above system. The main qualifications are listed below with UK equivalent levels.

Certificat d'Aptitude Professionnelle Level 5 (UK equivalent Level 1 / 2)

Brevet d'Etudes Professionnelle Level 5 (UK equivalent Level 1 / 2)

Baccalaureat Professionnelle Level 4 (UK equivalent Level 3)

Brevet Professionnelle Level 4 (UK equivalent Level 3)

Brevet de Maîtrise Level 3 (UK equivalent Level 4)

(Centre National de Documentation Pédagogique - Ministère de l'Éducation Nationale, de la recherche et de la technologie, 2000).

The qualifications in the USA are the most elite, having a Bachelors Degree in Culinary Arts which is the UK equivalent to Level 4 or even Level 5 standard. The degree has a well-balanced vocational education and training programme. There is also a provision of Associate Degree in Culinary Arts which is the UK equivalent to Level 3 standard. The American Culinary Federation (ACF) New York plays a major role in the development of the Chef's Curriculum and maintaining examination standards, as it is the principal voice of the professionals from the hospitality industry. (Culinary Institute of America, New York, 2002).

A.2 Curriculum Content

The competency based curriculum for the chef's vocation in the UK, the Netherlands and New Zealand comprehensively covers occupational standards with underpinning knowledge, hygiene, health and safety, and first aid. In the UK, the key skills of communication (English), numeracy (Mathematics), information technology and improving own learning performance form an integral part of the course.

In the Netherlands, there is also a move to include general education in the vocational curriculum to provide a broader education, especially in Preparatory Vocational Education schools where there are no entry requirements and the courses last for four years. (Kent, 2000, p. 11)

In New Zealand, the curriculum consists of Food Safety, Food Science (Bacteriology), Food Service and Kitchen Management. In Germany, the chef's vocational curriculum includes subjects like Health & Hygiene, Food Science, Information Technology and Business Management. In Switzerland, the chef's vocational curriculum includes Food Hygiene, Finance, Marketing, Psychology/Sociology, Economics and Languages.

This is in addition to Culinary Theory and allied topics. In France, the chef's curriculum includes subjects like Mathematics, Applied Science, Business

Management, Languages, Arts, Economics and Physical Education/Sport. In the USA, the curriculum is much more varied and broader. The subjects included are Gastronomy, Culinary Mathematics, Food Safety, Facility Design, Law, Computers, Economics, Languages, History and Culture – Europe, Asia and America, Marketing, Psychology, Ethics and World Literature. In addition to the culinary subjects, the American Culinary Federation certification includes three mandatory courses; Safety and Sanitation, Nutrition, and Hospitality Supervision.

The curriculum content in New Zealand includes 6,000 hours of work experience and in the USA there are 18 weeks of externship in industry. In Germany and Switzerland the Chef's training is still based on an Apprenticeship System, which naturally includes practical experience in industry. In France and the Netherlands the work experience of 12 weeks is a mandatory component of the curriculum.

The situation in the UK is slightly different, as the training is carried out in Colleges, which are approved as realistic working environment centres (replicating industry). The work experience is not a mandatory component of the curriculum, but it is recommended.

A.3 Duration of Course

The duration of the chef's training course varies, dependent upon the route followed. The apprenticeship system normally takes three years in Germany, Switzerland, the USA and New Zealand. In France it varies from two to four years, and in the Netherlands the duration of the apprenticeship system varies from two to three years. NVQ qualifications in the UK are not time based, but the apprenticeship route could take up to three years. In France and Germany, it is possible to obtain the 'Meister' or 'Maitrise' level qualifications by extending the training further, for two or three years respectively.

In some countries, it is possible to attend full-time vocational schools, colleges and universities for training to be a chef. In the UK, France, the Netherlands and USA it takes four years of training, whereas in New Zealand it takes three years. In Germany

and Switzerland, it is not traditional to study to be a chef as a full-time student at a school or college funded by the government or state, although there are some private schools in Germany and Switzerland offering training on a full-time basis. It is interesting to note that in the USA, training for a chef is available in universities offering a Bachelor's Degree in Culinary Arts (four years full-time). In the Community College students attend a two year course to qualify for an Associate Degree in Culinary Arts. Some universities accredit their own degrees, whereas others are accredited by the Culinary Institute of America (CIA), New York.

A.4 Entry Level and Qualifications

Entry Level

In the UK, entrants joining industry to be chefs are not given adequate opportunities to continue their education and training. Some of the young people aspiring to be chefs join the industry at the age of 16 and carry out their training alongside full-time employment. This leaves insufficient opportunity for education and training unless the employers make a concerted effort to motivate these young people to join an apprenticeship programme and provide sufficient training resources. The mode of delivery is work-based training, and the employees are registered as National Trainees or Modern Apprentices. In other European countries such as Germany, Switzerland and the USA, the majority of young people do not enter into full-time employment until the age of 18 or 19 years. There is an allocation of time for these youngsters to attend vocational schools on a part-time basis for one or two days per week to gain further education and training.

There are some entrants to the chef's profession who join full-time educational programmes in further education colleges and achieve NVQ qualifications at Level 1 and Level 2. Unfortunately, the retention rate of students progressing on to NVQ Level 3 and Level 4 is very low as many of the trainees obtain full-time employment after achieving NVQ Level 2. This is because of an acute shortage of skilled professional chefs in industry and the employers are desperate to fill the vacant positions with young people who are yet not fully trained professionals. The statistics displayed in Table: 7.3

and Figure: 7.9 confirm these views. Some of these trainees continue as Modern Apprentices on NVQ Level 3 programmes but the attainment rate remains low at 18%. The total number of NVQ Level 3 and Level 4 awards (18,902) represents only 14.21% of total NVQ (133,027) awards made for the period December 1992, to January 2002, (Labour Market Review, HTF, 2002).

One way to support young people in education and training would be to make it a legal requirement for employers in the UK to give full commitment to these young people being employed at the age of 16 years. They should at least achieve Level 3 standard. It is not surprising that only 5 per cent of the total NVQs awarded were delivered by industry.

Entry Qualification

In almost all of the countries studied the entry requirement for a chef's education and training is a general certificate of secondary education, which covers full-time Compulsory Education up to year 11. In France, it is Lower secondary level – General Education, year 10. In Germany, it is Realschule – Lower secondary level – Compulsory Education year 10. In the Netherlands, it is Middelbaar Algemeen Voortgezet Onderwijs (full-time basic education) or Voorbereidend Beroeps Onderwijs (pre-vocational education) year 12.

In the USA, it is High School, whereas in New Zealand there is no specific entry qualification but a secondary school qualification is preferred. The summary of entry qualifications for each country being compared is summarized below in Table: 7.5.

Table: 7.5 Entry Level and Qualifications for each Country being Compared

Country	Entry Level	Minimum Entry Qualifications Requirement
United Kingdom	16 Years	General Certificate of Secondary Education
France	16-18 Years	Lower Secondary Level – General Education or Basic Craft Qualification (Certificat d’Aptitude Professionnelle – CAP)
Germany	16-18 Years	Lower Secondary Level – Compulsory Education. (Realschule)
The Netherlands	16-18 Years	Intermediate General Secondary Education (Middelbarr Algemeen Voortgezet Onderwijs – MAVO) or Preparatory Vocational Education (Vorbereidend Beroeps Onderwijs - VBO)
Switzerland	16-18 Years	Secondary School Education
United States of America	18 Years	High School Education
New Zealand	16 Years	Secondary School Education

Sources: HCTC; 1992a: Catering Education and Training in France - A Comparative Study, London: HTF

HCTC; 1992b: Catering Education and Training in Germany – A Comparative Study, London: HTF

HCTC; 1992c: Catering Education and Training in The Netherlands – A Comparative Study, London: HTF

A.5 Mode of Assessment

The method of assessment and evaluation used in the different countries studied varies according to the format of the curriculum content description. Countries like France, Germany, Switzerland and the USA have the chef's course syllabus expressed in learning objectives or outcome terms. The modes of assessment used are formal written examination, oral examination and practical examination. Success in all of these components indicates the award of the qualification. In France, Lyceés have an option to choose from either continuous assessment or formal examination for Level 5 and Level 4, but for Brevet de Maîtrise Level 3 the only option available is a formal final examination.

In the UK, education and training courses for chefs have been written in terms of competencies, which are translated into a complete system of 'competence-based assessment'. This is compulsory for government-funded vocational training schemes, and for many vocational awards delivered in full-time education. Competence-based assessment of vocational skills is delivered through NVQs, which are based on detailed standards of occupational competence and specify a set of outcomes. In theory, these standards are clear enough for assessors, candidates and interested third parties to make objective judgements about whether they have been achieved. Standards are written on the basis of the actual occupational skills required.

Unfortunately, the NVQ system has failed to deliver a consistent and valid quality end product. The whole concept of NVQ is very time consuming, expensive in terms of appointing internal assessors, internal verifiers and external verifiers, which has also resulted in a very bureaucratic assessment system. These views are supported by the literature review carried out in Chapter 2. Moreover, the researcher's experience also endorses the same views. It is interesting to note that the Sector Skills Council People 1st has now charged the City and Guilds of London Institute to develop Vocationally Related Qualifications as an alternative to the NVQ system for the full-time students. The NVQ system has not been very attractive to students being trained as chefs. There is also heavy criticism of the quality of the internal assessment carried out by trainers working under a system established by the training enterprise councils, with funding that ties payment to success rates.

It is interesting to note that New Zealand has followed the competence-based model of curriculum in the chef's vocational education and training programme. The methods of assessment used in New Zealand are continuous assessment for practical work, and oral examination for underpinning knowledge. Unfortunately, there has been a concern about the validity, consistency and reliability of assessment procedures. The system might move towards external examination in the future, but the evidence so far is limited, as competency-based assessment has only been introduced since 1998. (New Zealand Hospitality Standards Institute, Competence Based Model, 2000).

In the Netherlands, the competency-based model was also supposed to be introduced in 1999, but there have been serious discussions regarding the validity of the assessment methods. The final assessment is still based on externally set national examinations and the continuous assessment of the practical competencies by the individual institutions. Although there have been some criticisms by the government inspectorate of varying standards in the implementation of the competency-based model, the Dutch Education System will be adopting a competence based assessment approach after drawing on the best practice from the United Kingdom (Kent, 2000, p.11).

B. Curriculum Delivery and the Role of Employers

B.1 Delivery of Vocational Education and Training – Industry Based

The best examples of Industry Based training as a chef are to be found in Switzerland and Germany. In Germany it is referred to as the 'dual system' because training is carried out in two places of learning; that is, at the work place and in the Berufsschule. Training is provided on the basis of a civil-law contract between the business providing training and the young person concerned. The training contract and the content of training is agreed between the Employers Association, Länder organisations, trade unions and vocational schools, and the Federal Government has overall responsibility for financing this form of training.

The other extreme form of industry based training is found in the USA, which is totally privatised. The employers either bear the whole cost of training or they pay increased prices for skills in short supply when they encounter shortages for specific skills. (Ashton and Sung, 2001).

The employers do not see industry based training as the most favourable route for a chef, as most of the young people aspiring to be chefs follow up a training programme either in the Community Colleges or Culinary Institute of America prior to joining the industry. The curriculum contents and standards are stringently controlled by the American Culinary Federation. In New Zealand, an apprenticeship system was re-introduced in the year 2000, but the co-operation from industry has been unsatisfactory. In France, the apprenticeship system is not favoured by young people. However, the cost is covered by an apprenticeship levy paid by enterprises, the state and the General Councils. In the UK and the Netherlands, the apprenticeship system has a moderate status. The funding in the UK has been through Training Enterprise Councils (TECs). Unfortunately, the targets and standards have not quite been achieved due to the shortage of funds.

B.2 Delivery of Vocational Education And Training – Based in Educational Establishments

In Germany and Switzerland there is no provision for full-time chefs' courses in educational establishments. However, there is a part-time provision available in Berufsschulen, which is funded by the Länder or local authority. There are private chef schools offering full-time vocational Education and Training. In France, full-time vocational education and training is available in Lycées Professionnels. This is financed by local authorities except for the staff salaries, which are covered by the state. In the Netherlands the central government provides lump-sum grants to Middelbaar Beroeps Onderwijs to cover all costs including staffing. In the UK, all the finances are allocated by the Further Education Funding Council to further education institutions based upon the number of students enrolled on courses. There is a very similar financial structure in existence in New Zealand. In France, the Netherlands, the UK and New Zealand, vocational schools offering full-time education and training also meet the needs of industry by delivering vocational education on a part-time basis to trainees/apprentices. The cost of this element of education and training is met by the central government, further education funding councils or local authorities.

In the USA, most of the full-time training of chefs is paid for by students - certainly for a Bachelor Degree in Culinary Arts. The only exceptions are the Community Colleges, which offer full-time chef training equivalent to the level 2 sponsored by the state. In the Culinary Institute of America the cost of a four year Bachelor's Degree programme could be £10,000 per annum.

B.3 Role of Employers

In the USA, the word 'apprentice' is used very loosely, as most of the training of chefs is carried out as a full-time student in Community Colleges and other educational establishments. Wherever the apprenticeship system is operated, the monitoring organisation is the American Culinary Federation and Association of Professional Chefs. It is not regulated by the government as is the case in the United Kingdom, Germany and Switzerland.

A similar situation exists in New Zealand where, after a long gap, the apprenticeship system had only been re-introduced in the year 2000. There is no funding available to the employers or apprentices from the government, but the co-operation of the employer is much to be desired in the training function. In Germany and Switzerland the traditional apprenticeships of the 19th and early 20th century were modernised in ways which made them important to a far larger section of the economy. Although it may not enjoy the same status as the academic schools/universities, apprenticeships still enjoy status and respect in these countries. The employers play a significant role in the training of chefs and offer considerable financial and pastoral support. In fact, the responsibility for apprentices is enthusiastically taken up by employers, and the results in the World Skills Olympics prove the high quality of the Chef's education and training in Germany and Switzerland, as they invariably rank amongst the top three award winners.

In France, in addition to full-time college provision, there is a mode of study referred to as ALTERNANCE. This combination of training is usually very flexible and consists of practical experience in industry and study in college (Kent,2000, p.7). However, apprenticeship in France is well established and has a fully regulated option, involving formal contracts with employers, as well as a highly specified curriculum. The training is delivered in well-resourced centres d'apprentissage and leads to the same qualifications as would be taken in the full-time vocational Lycées. The final examination is administered nationally and the same standards are expected from trainees as from full-time students. This has been challenging for trainees, and the success rate is much lower amongst them compared with full-time students. This could be the reason for the apprenticeship system being less favourable than school – based pathways. French governments have attempted to import elements of the German 'dual system' and improve the status, but they have largely failed.

Apprenticeship remains the central mechanism for recruitment and training, but this route is not aspired to by most young people and their parents. In the UK and the Netherlands, there is moderate participation in the apprenticeship system as it has a moderate to high status. In the Netherlands, post-compulsory full-time school-based

vocational education in Middelbaar Beroeps Onderwijs and the apprenticeship system have co-existed for many years. Its entrants are generally from the lower two of the Dutch education system's four lower secondary tracks, but it is interesting to note that it has not lost its traditional clientele to full-time school-based vocational training. The number of apprentices is almost half the number of full-time students and the success rate on apprenticeship is also low.

In the UK, the apprenticeship system had very little involvement from the government in the mid 1980s. The major reforms of vocational education and training, which introduced NVQs, were encouraged to introduce 'Modern Apprenticeships'. These involve clear regulations from the government and a public subsidy for the apprenticeship. Apprentices are contracted to the employer, who pays them a wage but receives some funding towards training from the government. Programmes lead to NVQ Level 2 and NVQ Level 3. It is important to note that the introduction of Modern Apprenticeships has had an adverse impact on young recruits in full-time vocational programmes in further education colleges, as most of the young people preferred to learn and earn. The work - based learning became the most favourable option since 1996 but the qualification lacked breadth. There are reforms being planned to enrich the curriculum.

C. Standard and Quality of Curriculum

C.1 Standard Regulatory Bodies

In the UK, there are far too many non-government organisations controlling standards such as the Hospitality Training Foundation, the Qualifications Curriculum Authority, Awarding Bodies and the Further Education Funding Council. The structures for the curriculum development, curriculum delivery, maintaining standards and quality of qualifications are over-bureaucratic and centralised. It appears that New Zealand looks towards the British System of Education and attempts to follow, whereas in the USA the government gives some financial contribution to the community colleges but otherwise exercises very little control on the supply and demand of skilled chefs to the hospitality industry.

In France, and The Netherlands, the Ministry of Education works closely with the Chambers of Commerce and Industry related to the specific business sector on a regional basis to implement the National Curriculum, provide funding to educational establishments and assess the quality of curriculum delivery.

It appears that the most efficient system is adopted by Germany and Switzerland, as the responsibility for the curriculum development, curriculum delivery and assessment lies with the Chambers of Commerce, Trade Unions and the Hotel Restaurant Association. The funding is provided by the Lander or Canton Government, and the educational stakeholders are directly involved in the decision making process.

In the UK and New Zealand, there are bodies representing the hospitality industry to set standards, such as the Hospitality Training Foundation, and the Hospitality Standards Institute respectively. These bodies set competence based occupational standards for the chef's profession. These standards are approved by the Qualification Curriculum Authority (QCA) in the UK, and the New Zealand Qualifications Authority (NZQA). The award of a qualification is based on internal assessment, internal verification and external verification by the Hospitality Awarding Body. The quality assurance system at this stage is not as effective as it was intended to be.

In the USA, the main body which defines curriculum and standards for the chef's profession is the Culinary Institute of America. This body also sets the curriculum and assesses the final examination. It is a totally private organisation with no support from Federal Government. There is another organisation, the American Culinary Federation, which carries out certifications of chefs at various levels. The American Culinary Federation mainly deals with chefs who are already employed in the industry. The educational programme offered is on a distance learning basis.

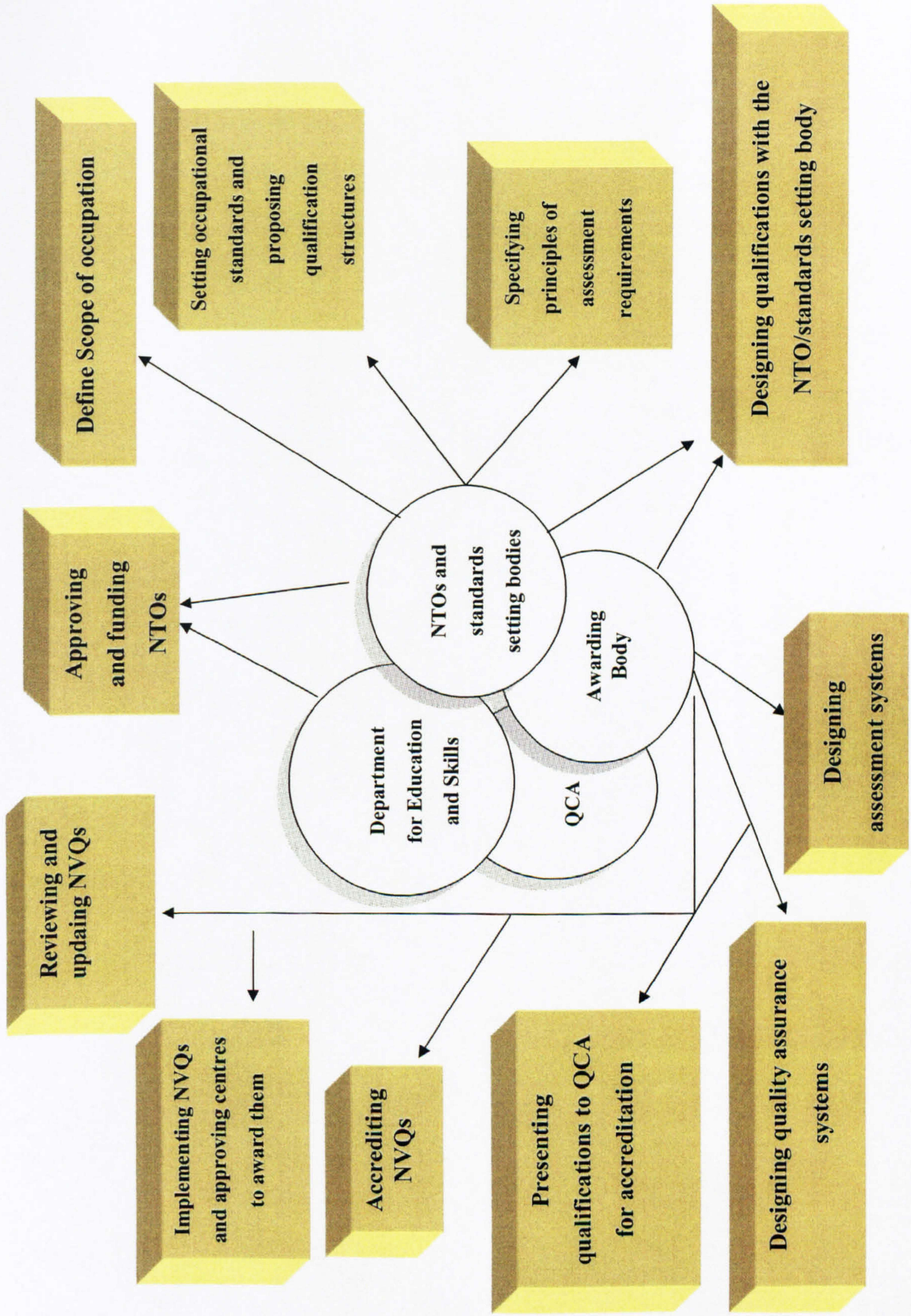
In France, the Ministry of National Education is the main body, working in collaboration with the Ministry of Labour, Employment and Vocational Training, and the Chamber of Commerce and Industry sets the standards. In the Netherlands, the

Ministry of Education, Culture and Science, with representation from employers, trade unions and education establishments, set the standards.

In Germany and Switzerland, the standards are regulated by Deutscher Hotel Und Gaststätten Verband and Hotel & Gastro Formation respectively. These bodies have strong representation from chambers of commerce and trade unions in setting the standards for chefs' training and final examinations in written and practical work.

The quasi-organisations in the UK attempt to represent the myriad of interests concerning vocational education and training which makes the whole system cumbersome and over bureaucratic. The plethora of organisations purporting to represent the interests of industry and education in the United Kingdom are confusing, and bear no resemblance with the countries being studied. Each industry is represented by a National Training Organisation (NTO), such as the Hospitality Training Foundation (HTF), which consults with the hospitality industry and receives feedback on the training needs of industry. This assists in the setting-up of the occupational standards for the qualifications, on the basis of training needs identified by industry. The awarding body then submits these qualifications to the Qualification Curriculum Authority (QCA), for approval. Once these qualifications are approved, the awarding bodies can register the candidates interested in pursuing a career in the chef's profession. The relationships and communication channels between the organisations involved in the designing, implementation, awarding, funding and controlling quality of vocational qualifications are detailed below in Figure: 7.10.

Figure: 7.10 Inter – relationship between various organisations



Source : Creating opportunity for people worldwide - The British Council, 2000

The vocational qualifications can be awarded by any of these awarding bodies such as the Hospitality Awarding Body (HAB) (a branch of the Hospitality Training Foundation), Edexcel, the Assessment and Qualifications Alliance (AQA) or the City and Guilds of London Institute. (CGLI).

There is a competition between the awarding bodies, and the number of students registering for the qualifications has actually decreased in comparison to the period prior to the introduction of NVQ's, when chefs' qualifications were only awarded by the City and Guilds of London Institute (CGLI). The curriculum content, examination procedures and award of final qualifications were totally controlled by the CGLI.

The next stage of control is that of the further education funding councils and training enterprise councils. These bodies only fund those vocational qualifications which are approved by the Qualification Curriculum Authority. In addition, the funding allocated for chefs' courses to further education colleges has been reduced so much that the class contact time for practical classes would have to be further reduced.

Moreover, the emphasis of NVQs being on assessment rather than education and training, has introduced the roles of workshop supervisors, instructors, facilitators and assessors instead of lecturers with the specialist pedagogy skills in the light of financial constraints. "The quality grading of further education in teaching and learning, and standards of achievement, attainment and motivation of students are determined by assessors appointed by the Further Education Funding Council (FEFC), which also provides funding"

This form of bureaucratic situation does not exist in France, Germany and Switzerland. The interest of the trade is totally focused on the design, delivery and final outcome of chefs' qualifications. In the UK, it is vital that the interests of the National Training Organisation, the Hospitality Training Foundation, the Qualification Curriculum Authority, Awarding Bodies, the Further Education Funding Councils and assessment team converge in satisfying the specific needs of the chef's profession.

D. An Overview of the Standards of Vocational Education and Training System being Compared.

The United Kingdom

In the UK, employers are not very familiar with the education system and qualifications structure, particularly by the titles of qualifications, as they have changed too frequently over the years, especially since the 1990's. The employers are confused about the levels and the titles of qualifications. Fortunately, most of the institutions do have an excellent dialogue with the local employers. As opposed to the education system, however, there are issues of resources as compared to other European Countries. In the UK, there are insufficient funds being invested in resources and staffing to deliver comparable quality of the Chef's training programme as in France, The Netherlands, Germany and Switzerland.

The Joint Hospitality Industry Congress report states that the NVQ system potentially provides the UK with a competitive advantage as a flexible and integrated system of qualification that recognise work-based skills developments. Unfortunately, the issues are with the assessment process, which is over-bureaucratic, cumbersome and financially expensive. (JHIC, 1998, p.47)

France

The French system has succeeded in producing a significant increase in the flow of young people in to the labour force with intermediate level skills. The training tax system has increased the investment in training. The problem still remains with regard to the demand for new skills, which is neither being met by the education system, nor the training system.

The levy system has not been able to address the training of the most vulnerable groups, the low skilled and unemployed, with little access to training and therefore at risk of being marginalised.

The French system places an emphasis on delivering quality and ensuring supply meets demand. The advantage of the French system is that it remained static for a longer period, which has obviously helped employers recognise courses, but conversely, there is a problem of a lack of new skills development to meet the changing needs of the hospitality industry such as the fusion of Ethnic Cuisine with the traditional French Cuisine.

Germany

A study commissioned by the Joint Hospitality Industry congress in 1998 confirmed that the dual system of education and training for hospitality is an active partnership between the state at Federal and Lander level, the hospitality industry, representatives of employers groups and the vocational education system. In the words of government, the main aim of this model of vocational training.

“is to provide the basic skills for a field of employment and through a career-orientated specialised training, the specialised skills and competence in an occupation”.

(JHIC, 1998, p.42)

The German experience indicated that the high levels of productivity are achieved even within a high wage and socially regulated labour market economy. There is sufficient evidence, as indicated earlier in this chapter, to point to the higher productivity of the German hospitality employees over the UK. It has been suggested that Germany’s higher productivity and service levels are due to the extensive use of well qualified manpower, trained through the partnership arrangements of the dual system.

(JHIC, 1998, p.35)

The German system produces high status for vocational qualifications (Streeck, 1996). An apprenticeship route remains the first choice for most school leavers. The combination of on-the-job practical training under a qualified Meister, and off-the-job practical theoretical training in Berufsschule, has provided Germany with the highest level of intermediate skills in the advanced countries. In 1997, over half (50.6%), of

the working population in Germany had a level 3 to 18% in the UK (Brown et al; 2001). Employers seemed to be very positive about the dual system.

(PIU, 2001)

They work closely with government and the trade unions to make collective decisions. One example of this is that some of the five star hotels came together to meet with representatives of the Hotel School to discuss approaches to training, and ways in which the two interests can work positively together.

The Netherlands

Generally speaking, the education system in The Netherlands is remarkably flexible; offering a number of different routes, depending on the needs of the student, and the type of institution. Most of the Chef's training takes place as a full-time programme in an educational establishment with work experience built-in.

Like Germany, The Netherlands has an apprenticeship system which combines theoretical vocational training and general education in a training school. The Apprenticeship has three levels, tertiary, advanced and elementary which are determined by the length of the Apprenticeship. Apprentices must be over 16. The employers have a flexibility to decide how they wish to spend their funds, derived from the government, on training. In the last few years, the Dutch government has been closely observing the NVQ system in UK, as they are developing a competence based assessment approach.

Switzerland

In Switzerland, most of the Chef's training takes place identical to the German 'Dual System' supported by the Central government, Cantons and Hotel and the Gastro Formation. There is a direct involvement of the main stakeholders in the decision making process relating to the training of young people. In the private sector, it is possible to follow-up a full full-time Chef's training programme in the hotel schools.

The quality of Chef's training is one of the best amongst the countries in this comparison.

United States of America

The USA, with the most sophisticated hospitality industry in the world, has developed global hotel and restaurant brands, and most of the innovations in the hospitality industry originate from USA. There are many innovative practices in the Community Colleges. They are very flexible at the local level and provide excellent training, directly related to the needs of employers and the local labour market (PIU; 2001) These Community Colleges are not directly controlled by the federal government. The responsibility is devolved at local level, which means some of the colleges are excellent, while others are mediocre.

New Zealand

The system of Chef's training in New Zealand mirrors the UK system very closely. The recent change in educational policy has introduced the Competency Based Model which is identical to the NVQ system. The formation of the New Zealand Qualifications Authority is identical to the Qualifications Curriculum Authority, and the Hospitality Standards Institute is very similar to the Hospitality Training Foundation in the UK. The design of the Chef's curriculum adopted has the same pattern as the NVQ system and the assessment philosophy also follows the same procedures.

CONCLUSION

The comparative study of the Chef's profession in UK with France, Germany, Switzerland, The Netherlands, the United States of America and New Zealand came to the following conclusions:

In the UK, the recruitment on chefs' courses is a major issue, mainly because of the industry's image and qualification structure. There is now a huge shortage of skilled chefs and the recent survey suggests that it amounts to 18,000 vacancies. There is a need to build more synergy between the education, training providers and the industry. It appears that the government is considering relaxing immigration controls to allow trained people from abroad to fill the skill shortage of chefs. This initiative has to be reversed, as there are ample career opportunities in the chef's profession, which should exploit the creativity and artistic skills of young people in the UK.

The chef's profession requires highly skilled staff with adaptable and transferable skills. The qualification in the present format may not be the answer. The focus of the course should be to ensure that the trainees are able to demonstrate professional competencies in the industrial context consistently, precisely and within the time constraints of the level at which they are being trained.

The final destination of the students who are trained lies with the employers and there is a mis-match of expectation between employers and the skilled staff entering the industry in the UK. It appears that the macro-structure of qualifications, as it exists, is fragmented in comparison with the other countries being studied. It appears that the best system of chef training should bring together all those responsible for curriculum development, curriculum delivery, final examinations/assessment and funding along with chefs' professional associations, employers and educationalists. This has been demonstrated in the 'Dual System' of vocational education and training followed by Germany and Switzerland as explained earlier in this chapter.

In most countries, the final qualifications attained are directly related to the entry qualifications of trainees. In Germany and Switzerland, there is only the apprenticeship

system available, and this lasts three years. The standards attained are equivalent to Level 3. In order to obtain the Meister qualification, trainees need to spend a further two years training, and then take a final practical examination at a very high level. In the UK, the Netherlands and New Zealand the qualifications gained are competency based, mainly at Level 3. There is an opportunity to obtain Master Qualifications, which are Level 4, but the take up is very low and it is mainly through the apprenticeship route. The total number of NVQ Level 4 certificates awarded in the UK so far is 310 as opposed to NVQ Level 3 being 18,592 and NVQ Level 2 being 68,855. (Labour Market Review, HTF, 2002)

In France, the qualifications attained are mainly equivalent to Level 3, but there is a provision for the Brevet de Maitrise (Level 4 equivalent) qualification by studying for an additional year. In the USA, there is a completely different system, as students leave with Associate Degrees in Culinary Arts, (equivalent to Level 3/4) by studying for two years, and some students achieve a Bachelor's Degree in Culinary Arts (equivalent to Level 4/5 or a Master Chef qualification) by studying for a further two years.

In the UK, the government is attempting to move towards 'Parity of Esteem' for academic and vocational qualifications with the introduction of the Advanced Vocational Certificate of Education (AVCE) and a proposed Vocational General Certificate of Secondary Education. Unfortunately, this initiative has resulted in a reduction of the number of students participating in vocational education and training and has somewhat diluted the curriculum content of vocational education. This results in lower standards of chef training. The curriculum content of chefs' courses can be viewed from two perspectives; specific knowledge/skills, and general knowledge. The specific knowledge/skills included are Food Preparation Processes and related underpinning knowledge, Food Storage and Control, Food Hygiene, and Health and Safety. It is only recently that there has been an introduction of key skills on chefs' courses such as, Communication, Application of Number and Information Technology.

There are issues about the attainment of these key skills at the appropriate level, for example, trainees following chefs' courses at Level 3 are not successfully completing

the key skills at Level 3. In response to this the government has already lowered the standards of key skills to Level 1 for Chef's courses at Level 2. This decision will certainly improve the attainment of full framework qualifications. The other issue in the competency-based learning is the heavy emphasis on processes rather than the quality of the finished product. It is important to consider both approaches in the final assessment, which is lacking in the UK qualifications framework.

In the USA, the course content is much broader and has greater depth. The specific course content includes Culinary Skills, Gastronomy, Wine Appreciation, Food & Culture - Europe, Asia and America, Food & Beverage Service and Food Facility Design. The allied subjects offered on these courses are Nutrition, Sanitation, Culinary Mathematics, Computers, Law, Ethics, Languages and World Literature. The academic entry level of students on these courses is much higher. The curriculum content of Culinary Art Courses was examined by the researcher during the study visit to the Culinary Institute of America in New York.

Finally, the courses should provide the most up-to-date knowledge and skills related to the food and hospitality industry, such as genetically modified foods, organic foods, healthy eating and new food technology. The training of chefs needs to be innovative and creative in meeting the consumer requirements of the modern age. Chefs have a moral, social and ethical responsibility to look after the health of the nation, so their education and training needs to reflect this. There is very little evidence at present that this is being achieved in order to bridge the skills gap in the UK. In hotels and restaurants, the forecast for skill shortages and skill gaps in the chef's profession will be 55% and 50% respectively, as reported in the Hospitality Training Foundation (HTF) Skills and Employment Forecasts for 2004. It is also interesting to note that only 9.0% of the workforce holds level 4 and level 5 qualifications in the hospitality industry, compared to 26.1% across all industries. In the chef's profession only 0.2% of the total qualified workforce have achieved NVQ Level 4 and above. (Labour Force Survey, HTF, 1999b)

The duration of the course depends upon the route being followed, Full-Time College based, or The Apprenticeship System. However, in the UK non-time based

qualifications were introduced in 1990's, but this has since been altered and now it takes between three to four years to complete NVQ Level 3 in Further Education Colleges. The same scenario exists in France and The Netherlands, but in Germany and Switzerland the route of full-time vocational education is not offered. In the USA, as the entry age is 18, and the entry qualifications are higher, the students either complete an Associate Degree in two years, or a Bachelors Degree in four years at the Culinary Institute. On the other hand the Apprenticeship System takes three years to reach the same standard. The duration for the Apprenticeship Programme is the same in Germany and Switzerland.

The academic entry level of young people joining chefs' courses appears to be much lower in the UK than in other countries such as the USA. In addition, the many young people applying for education and training as a chef also have a very low level of Basic Skills. In 2002, the attainment rate for NVQ Level 3 was 59% and for NVQ Level 4 only 20% (Labour Market Review, HTF, 2002), whereas a highly skilled chefs' workforce will need a higher proportion of its chefs achieving NVQ Level 4 or even NVQ Level 5.

The most important issues in assessment are quality and standards, which should be rigorous, valid, reliable, consistent and precise. The countries which are totally reliant on continuous assessment may face challenges to maintain comparable national standards. It would be more objective to have a system of a final examination, certainly for the practical work, which should be jointly assessed by educationalists and professional chefs from industry to ultimately accredit the trainees with a qualification at the end of their course as practised in Germany and Switzerland. The practical test could be supplemented with a viva-voce examination and a written test. These tests should be set nationally by a single regulatory body. Such systems are evident in Germany, Switzerland and the USA. In France, there is a combination of a final practical examination and continuous assessment.

In the Netherlands, the introduction of competency-based learning has been delayed because of a debate about the assessment mode for trainees; whether to implement a formal practical examination, or a continuous assessment system. In the UK and New Zealand, continuous assessment is the only mode being practised for the certification of knowledge and practical skills attained by trainees for the chef's profession. This system is too fragile to stand scrutiny under various settings such as delivery in the industry or educational institutions.

The qualifications need to be transparent, as the trainees have to take up employment on the basis of their attainment on the courses followed. In the event of a trainee not being able to demonstrate the appropriate skills in the job situation, it will soon become apparent that the qualification achieved is not what it is meant to be. This situation is most likely to happen when using the competency-based learning approach with continuous assessment. In the opinion of the researcher, the qualifications with a final practical examination and written tests are likely to be much more transparent, as observed in Germany and Switzerland. The involvement of professional chefs from industry in the final assessment adds to the further transparency of qualifications. In the main, these trainees can do the job of chefs in industry, but it depends on their capability as to how high are the standards which can be achieved. In the International Skills Olympics, over the last ten years, Switzerland has won the most Gold Medals in the 'Cookery' category, followed by Germany, and then the UK. This must reflect the quality of the chef training systems in these countries.

The National Institute of Economic and Social Research reminds us that the main reasons for the principal deficiency in the British education and training system is 'the lack of training to Craftsmen Level rather than the lack of University Graduates'. Germany, the Netherlands and Switzerland in particular, emphasise practicality, accuracy of measurement, quality of finish and actually making something. Moreover, this craft training is also intended to inculcate moral qualities, reliability, responsibility and the fulfilment of duty. British practice, which used to be similar to the continent, has diverged from these older traditions. In Britain the emphasis has moved to broad themes with 'written evaluations' being given a high importance and actual skills and the quality of finish a subordinate role.

The delivery of Vocational Education and Training in the industry is most successful in Germany and Switzerland. The most important reason being, the commitment of employers in the hotel and restaurant industry towards curriculum development, the final assessment of trainees, and contributing financially towards on-the-job practical vocational training and allowing time for trainees to attend Berufsschule.

In the UK various attempts have been made to follow a similar system to that of Germany and Switzerland, but unfortunately, the initiatives have not been very successful. This is mainly due to the reluctance of employers to commit financially to support the trainees. Recently, the new proposal introduced by the government, is shifting the offer of financial incentives to the educational establishments so that they can accelerate the engagement of employers in vocational training. This has placed an extensive pressure on the educational establishments to motivate employers in engaging them with the learning of their trainees.

The work-based training in France and The Netherlands is limited, as most of the young people prefer to follow the full-time educational route in. This is because the funding of full-time vocational education is provided by the government or Ministry of Education. In the USA, as well, the Federal Government provides funds to the community colleges, which train students only up to Associate Degree Level. The other factor is that the final award for the qualification is based upon the nationally set practical examinations, irrespective of the route being followed, which does pose challenges, especially for work based trainees to succeed.

In Germany and Switzerland the mode of training is through the Apprenticeship System known as a 'Dual System' with part-time attendance in Berufsschule. There are no full-time vocational education courses provided in these two countries. It is interesting to observe that the countries with government funded full-time vocational education and training provision have the weakest apprenticeship system. Moreover, the employers tend to be heavily reliant on the state in these countries.

In other European countries, there is a greater emphasis on work experience or the apprenticeship system. In the UK, the training of chefs in further education colleges is carried out in a realistic working environment, which represents a unique feature of the college-based training system in comparison with the other countries being studied. However, there are opportunities for young people to follow the apprenticeship programme.

In the UK, there are far too many non-government organisations controlling standards, such as the Hospitality Training Foundation, the Qualifications Curriculum Authority, the Awarding Bodies in Further Education Funding Council. The structures for the curriculum development, curriculum delivery, maintaining standards and quality of qualifications are over-bureaucratic and centralised. It appears that New Zealand looks towards British Education and attempts to follow the identical pattern, whereas in the USA the government gives some financial contribution to the community colleges, but otherwise exercises a very little control on the supply and demand of skilled chefs for the hospitality industry.

In France, and The Netherlands, the Ministry of Education works closely with the Chambers of Commerce and Industry related to the specific business sector on a regional basis to implement the National Curriculum, provide funding to educational establishments and assess the quality of curriculum delivery.

It appears that the most efficient system is adopted by Germany and Switzerland, as the responsibility for the curriculum development, curriculum delivery and assessment lies with the Chambers of Commerce, Trade Unions and the Hotel Restaurant Association. The funding is provided by the Lander or Canton Government to the educational institutions. The main stakeholders are directly involved in the decision making process.

The main lessons learnt from this international comparative study fall under the following four categories.

Firstly, the young people in Germany, Switzerland, The Netherlands, France and the USA have great pride and self-esteem in joining the hospitality industry. In these countries, the young person entering into the world of work is 18 years, whereas in the UK many young people take up full-time employment at the age of 16 years. In some cases, once these young people are in employment they do not follow any formal training programmes. The employers in Germany, Switzerland and the USA encourage the young people to continue their training and professional development.

Secondly, in the UK, the training at Level 3 and above is proportionately lower than the countries like the USA, Germany and Switzerland. The high level of vocational training at Meister (Master) Level or Level 4 is almost non-existent in the UK, but in Germany there is a healthy take up of qualifications at this Level. The performance of trainees from Switzerland and Germany in the International Skill Olympics confirms the evidence of high quality training. In Germany, the training for a professional chef could last five years altogether, as opposed to three years in the UK. In addition, there is an ample investment of resources to improve the vocational education and training in Switzerland and Germany.

Thirdly, the review of the assessment strategy. In the UK, the competency based assessment method has lowered the standards because of the lack of consistency and rigour in assessment procedures. Such a situation does not exist in countries like Germany, Switzerland and the USA as these countries still rely on formal practical examinations monitored by professionals from colleges, industry and the Ministry of Education. This system provides valid, reliable and a consistent assessment of candidates' performance.

Finally, in the UK the number of regulatory bodies have grown beyond belief and the whole system has become over bureaucratic. The channels of communication have almost doubled, which has slowed down progress. The systems studied in other countries are achieving better results with less resource investment. There are quite a few lessons learnt from this research study which could be implemented into the present system to make it simpler, effective and efficient in terms of finances and time.

This leads on to the next Chapter, which critically examines the quality of vocational education and training in terms of vocational and professional skills. This study is carried out by using the quasi-experimental method, involving an experimental group and a control group. The members of an experimental group are given additional training sessions over the period of six months. At the end of this period, the performance of the experimental group is measured and compared against the control group to see if there are any significant improvements in its performance.

CHAPTER 8

THE QUALITY OF TRAINING FOR THE HOSPITALITY AND CATERING INDUSTRY IN THE UNITED KINGDOM.

INTRODUCTION

There is a growing concern over the relatively low proportion of the UK population holding vocational qualifications at level 2 and 3 (DfEE, 2000b). In addition, the Further Education Funding Council curriculum survey reports and programme area reviews highlight the skills needs of individual industrial sectors especially at Level 3 (FEFC, 2000). At the same time as demands for higher skills are increasing, the quality and extent of vocational learning is seen to be declining (Smeaton, Hughes and Hall, 2002). The increasing proportion of lower level, general education being undertaken in post-16 education and training illustrates the success of widening participation but, unfortunately, does not say much for achieving excellence.

The relatively poor performance of the UK in skills competitions at international level has become a matter of grave concern (Smeaton, Hughes and Hall, 2002). The main reason for the poor performance reflects the lack of skills development in the UK's post-16 education and training system. The employers have also been commenting on the quality of trained young people joining the industry. They have concerns about the generic skills development of young people (National Skills Task, DfEE, 2000b).

In view of these comments, there is a need for a sustained effort to improve Vocational Education and Training. However, some of the quality issues relate to vocational education and training policies, curriculum design, funding methodology and the nature of entrants. The Governments Centres of Vocational Excellence (COVEs) programme has recognised that colleges and other major providers need to be encouraged to strive for excellence in vocational learning.

The Centres of Vocational Excellence initiative is intended to provide opportunities for new learners to gain high level skills and knowledge. This should give them access to better jobs and life chances which are key to the objectives of social cohesion, economic prosperity and global competitiveness.

The quality of education and training is an important issue given the pressure to compete with the best at International level. The achievement of a 'satisfactory' standard is perceived as being just not good enough. Excellence has to be the basic threshold of quality. Unfortunately, the recent inspections carried out in the further education sector revealed relatively low numbers of colleges achieving a Grade one quality profile.

The UK performance in the International Skill Olympics league table ranked at 15th position in 2003 (UK Skills 2003). The government's intention is to improve the UK position on the understanding that the quality of skills reflects the economic performance. It was against this background that the Learning Skills Development Agency and the UK Skills have provided funds to carry out a curriculum development research in the advancement and measurement of Competence with Excellence. The researcher considers it important to drive forward the concept of 'Competence with Excellence' in the development of vocational skills, but there are issues with the current curriculum delivery of National Vocational Qualifications as they are not time-based, and the final awards do not have any grading system. The newly designed curriculum would be introduced alongside this system, and this requires additional time, resources and finances. Unfortunately, this aspect of research was constrained by limited financial resources that placed some restriction on the total number of pupils who could take part in the project and the limitation of time. There were three curriculum areas chosen for this project at three different institutions; Hospitality, Construction and Performing Arts. Thus, the researcher's college was selected to undertake the curriculum area of Hospitality and was supported by the Learning Skills Development Agency to the extent of £8,000.

Although this curriculum development research project was not as rigorous as some other projects, it had the following structure which is displayed below in Table 8.1.

Table 8.1: Structure of Curriculum Development Research Project.

What needs to be done?	Who was involved?
1. Explain the concept of 'Competence with Excellence'.	The Researcher, Cross- Curriculum Experts from three colleges, Restaurant and Kitchen Tutors.
2. Decide on the standard criteria which would constitute as a tool for measuring 'Competence with Excellence'.	The Researcher, Cross- Curriculum Experts from three colleges, Restaurant and Kitchen Tutors.
3. Map of the current curriculum according to the standard criteria agreed for what constitutes 'Competence with Excellence' so that any gaps could be identified.	The Researcher, Cross- Curriculum Experts from three colleges, Restaurant and Kitchen Tutors.
4. Design the new curriculum to ensure that the 'Competence with Excellence' would be achieved.	The Researcher, Restaurant and Kitchen Tutors.
5. Plan the curriculum delivery in line with the availability of resources; that is, the Scheme of Learning and Lesson Plans	Restaurant and Kitchen Tutors.
6. Plan, organize and deliver the Induction Programme to the	The Researcher, Course Team Members,

Experimental Group	Restaurant and Kitchen Tutors.
7. Plan, organize and attend the Residential weekend for the Experimental Group	The Researcher, Specialist outdoor pursuit staff, Restaurant and Kitchen Tutors.
8. Deliver the Enhanced Curriculum to the Experimental Group.	Restaurant and Kitchen Tutors.
9. Enter the Experimental Group into Local, National and International Competitions	External Experts from Industry, Restaurant and Kitchen Tutors.
10. Organise the final assessment between the Experimental and Control Group to measure the value added, if any.	The Researcher, External Experts from Industry, Restaurant and Kitchen Tutors.

There were regular cross - curriculum area meetings held at crucial stages of the project to ensure that a common accord was maintained across the three strands. The skill gaps were identified by the project team of each chosen vocational area discussing and agreeing the generic characteristics identified by UK SKILLS as being pre-requisites of excellence. These were the skills which were to be developed in the enhanced curriculum. The project team in each of the vocational areas identified the constituents of excellence as opposed to competent performance. They then identified the knowledge, skills and attributes which were necessary to develop performance at the excellence level.

Once the skill gaps were identified and agreed, the new enhanced curriculum was developed. Then, the specialist project team produced an action plan to ensure that the curriculum delivery would achieve the learning objectives set. This took the form of eight activities.

The various activities included in the action plan were:

1. Well formulated Induction Programme
2. The Residential Weekend
3. The professional image including speech and deportment sessions
4. Master Class Demonstrations
5. Wine and Spirits Education Trust Certificate course
6. Advanced Food Preparation Theory and Culinary Skills
7. Advanced Food and Beverage Service Theory and Hospitality Skills
8. Gastronomic Meal Experience

Once the gaps were identified in the Hospitality project, it was decided to form two groups of students. The selection of students for each group was made at random. Each group consisted of twelve students from the current cohort. One group was designated as the Experimental Group and the other the Control Group. The experimental group was given an additional treatment to overcome the gaps identified in the curriculum.

The delivery of the Enhanced Curriculum was planned for the Experimental Group. A copy of the model for the delivery of Enhanced Curriculum is in Appendix: C1. This group had an additional input of seven hours teaching per week for twenty two weeks. The main aim of these sessions was to overcome the gaps in the curriculum related to Technical Knowledge, Psycho-motor skills, Social Skills and Professional Attitude. The experimental project action plan and detailed schemes of work for the Restaurant and the Kitchen are given in Appendix: C2 and C3. In addition, a Residential Weekend was organised for the experimental group to build students' confidence, self esteem, team building and leadership skills. At the beginning of this programme each student was given an Individual Self Assessment sheet to complete. During the weekend students were involved in various group activities. At the end of the team exercises each student shared their self Assessment Sheet with a colleague and summarised the responses under specific headings. Finally, all participants were given the feedback questionnaire to complete. This was to determine how well the residential weekend had been organised and to ensure that the learning objectives had been achieved by the participants. The residential course was included in the

programme, as the environment and the activities were seen as an opportunity for the students to develop many of the personal qualities which are required for successful working relationships and performance at competitions.

THE RESIDENTIAL WEEKEND COURSE

The residential weekend was of three day's duration and took place in an activity centre some distance from the college. The courses were organised by the Centre's staff and for the most part, were comprised of physical activities. The aim of the course was to develop the participants' awareness, value of an individual's strengths and delivery of positive individual roles within a team for accelerated performance in the work place.

Objectives of the residential weekend were as follows:

1. To develop personal qualities such as independence, reliability, commitment, motivation, confidence and self-esteem.
2. To highlight individuals' strengths and their roles within a team.
3. To explore group dynamics and team building.
4. To be able to deal with unfamiliar and unexpected situations.
5. To enhance effective work and leadership skills.

A copy of the Residential Weekend Programme and comprehensive details are given in Appendix: C5.

Evaluation of the Residential Weekend.

The students were confronted by a series of unaccustomed challenges, where they learnt to support and encourage each other. They had to recognise their own strengths and weaknesses and those of other team members, in order to identify how to accommodate them and compensate for them. They overcame fears, developed new skills and broadened professionally. Most of the students were enthusiastic about taking part in a residential course. Initially, some of the students had been reluctant to give up their own time over the weekend, whereas others were anxious about embarking upon a weekend of mainly physical activities. However, all the students returned to College, having overcome personal difficulties of one form or another, and having developed as individuals and as team players.

From the students' feedback there was a clear indication that the residential weekend had achieved the set objectives and had given enjoyment to all who participated. Many of the students referred to their development of positive attitudes, team building and the creation of a team spirit. Some had enjoyed the competitive elements, whilst others had gained confidence in their own abilities. The level of leadership and participation by many was exemplary. They were impressed with the honesty and freedom with which some of the students discussed their successes and failures as a member of the team.

Following the specialist treatment of the experimental group in terms of curriculum and social activities, a small piece of research was undertaken to ascertain the extent to which it had been beneficial, and therefore the extent to which the quality of training for the hospitality and catering industry in the UK could be improved. This was carried out by the following three instruments and the findings have been highlighted in this chapter.

1. Quasi-Experiment in the Kitchen and the Restaurant to compare the performance of the Experimental Group with the Control Group. The practical assessments were designed as a final test in the restaurant and kitchen to assess the impact of additional elements on the levels of subject knowledge and skill performance of the experimental group, as compared with the control group.
2. Competitions were organised at local, regional, national and international levels to compare the performance of these students. The inclusion of competitions in the programme enabled the teams to assess the impact of their teaching strategies, and to test whether the additional elements had, in fact provided any added value to the students' experience.
3. A Self Evaluation Study was carried out prior to the start of this project and at the end in order to measure the distance travelled by the students and value addedness. A copy of the Self Appraisal Questionnaire at the start of the project, and at the conclusion of the project is in Appendix: C6 and C7. The

students participating in the project were asked to comment on their own attitudes and their personal and technical development. At the beginning of the project the students were required to identify their own strengths, to comment on their personal attributes and to state how they felt the enhanced programme would be of benefit to them. In the second questionnaire, the students were required to assess their current personal and technical ability in comparison with their ability at the start of the project, and to comment on the skills they acquired in addition to those developed on the standard NVQ programme. Case studies of some of the participating students in the Experimental Group are included to demonstrate the value addedness and quality enhancement.

FINDINGS OF THE EXPERIMENTAL RESEARCH

The subject knowledge, technical skills and customer service skills of the experimental group was assessed and compared with that of the control group. This was carried out by means of a practical assessment test under the Realistic Working Environment by independent lecturers and external experts from the industry against a pre-set criteria. The main objective being to determine the impact of additional treatment on the experimental group as compared with the control group.

The final results of these tests have been separately collated for the restaurant and kitchen. In each area the results are further grouped under two discrete headings; that is, the Experimental Group or Group A, and the Control Group or Group B. The individual student marks have been aggregated within their respective groups.

Restaurant Experiment

This experiment drew to a close with a final assessment. All students assessed were following a NVQ programme. The aim of assessment was to make a comparison between students who had received additional treatment and those who were on the normal programme. All students from each group were assessed, and marks were collated for the purpose of this experiment. The members of the general public were invited for dinner in the Restaurant to create a realistic working environment.

The students were required to demonstrate a professional, and high standard of performance throughout the service of a three-course meal including wine, the preparation and service of a flambé dish and a speciality coffee. Assessment was designed to measure student abilities in the cognitive, affective and psychomotor domains.

Marks were awarded for the following aspects:

- Personal hygiene and working practices
- Organisational skills – Mise en place
- Safety and accident prevention
- Explanation of menu/dish details
- Professional service
- Gueridon psychomotor-skills
- Affective domain- Attitude – Social skills.

Format

Students were briefed on the following:

- Assessment criteria
- Timing for mise -en -place – service – Clearing after service
- Expected number of guests
- Allocated station / tables

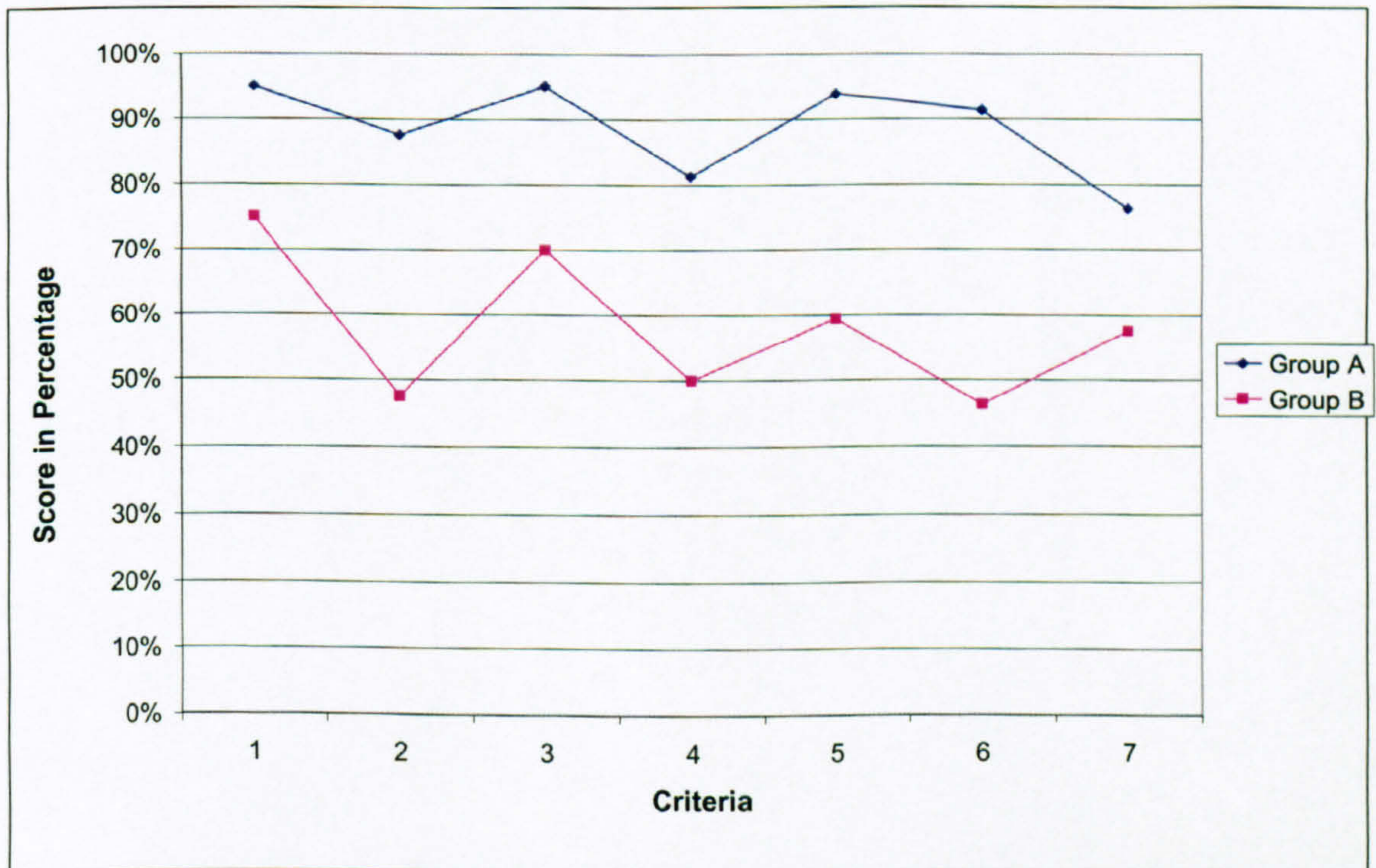
To ensure a fair and unbiased comparison of students' ability each student was given the same number of guests. A lecturer, who was not involved with the experiment, carried out the assessment. Each student worked independently, but for the purposes of the comparison the marks are split into Group A – The Experimental, and Group B – The Control Group.

The detailed and overall marks for each criteria in the Restaurant for the Experimental and Control Group are displayed below in Table 8.2 and Figure 8.1.

Table 8.2: Comparison of the detailed marks allocated to each criteria in the Restaurant for the Experimental and the Control Group.

Criteria	Group	Group A (Experimental)				Group B (Control)				Total			
	Student	A1	B1	C1	D1	A2	B2	C2	D2	A	A%	B	B%
	Maximum Marks												
1. Hygiene	20	20	18	19	19					76	95.0		
						15	16	14	15			60	75.0
2. Organisational Skills	10	9	8	9	9					35	87.5		
						5	5	4	5			19	47.5
3. Safety	10	10	9	9	10					38	95.0		
						7	8	6	7			28	70.0
4. Knowledge	4	4	3	3	3					13	81.3		
						2	2	2	2			8	50.0
5. Professional Service	16	16	14	15	15					60	93.8		
						10	12	8	8			38	59.4
6. Gueridon	20	19	18	18	18					73	91.3		
						10	9	8	10			37	46.3
7. Affective Domain	20	16	14	16	15					61	76.3		
						13	10	10	13			46	57.5
Total	100	94	84	89	89					35	89.0		
						62	62	52	60	6		236	59.0

Figure 8.1: Comparison of Restaurant Assessment Between Experimental Group and Control Group.



Criteria 1 – Personal Hygiene and Working Practices.

Personal hygiene was marked prior to start of event

GROUP A - All students were extremely smart and well presented. Their uniforms were complete, clean and well pressed. The majority of students had a waiter's friend (Wine Bottle Opener). All students cleaned their furniture prior to starting mise en place and they worked methodically. A high standard of hygiene was maintained throughout the event.

GROUP B - Most students had a complete uniform. Some of the students did not have a waiter's friend (Wine Bottle Opener) and a service cloth. Some of the students omitted to clean their furniture before starting and tended to leave their stations untidy. Generally a good standard of hygiene was maintained.

It is interesting to note that the Experimental Group was very well presented, smarter and hygienic in their approach than the Control Group. They also secured 20% higher marks than the Control Group.

Criteria 2: Organisational Skills.

GROUP A - Students quickly organised their stations to ensure sufficient room for working and comfort for the guest. Equipment was organised methodically from the kitchen to the restaurant with minimum journeys. Tables were laid correctly using cover plates. Stations and gueridons were stocked with correct and sufficient service equipment. Stations were kept tidy and well organised through out service.

GROUP B - Students took some time to settle down and arrange their stations. One student positioned his table in such a way that the guests were looking into the kitchen and some students were generally taking too many trips to the kitchen to fetch equipment. Tables were generally laid correctly. There were a couple of stations which were untidy during service, which gave an impression of disorganisation. The Experimental Group out performed the Control Group by 40% marks in the application of their organisational skills.

Criteria 3 - Safety

GROUP A - All students took care to allow enough space for working around the tables safely. They used the correct service doors. Students used a service cloth neatly when serving hot items. All students checked gas cylinders prior to use. Students used a cover plate on the gueridon to place a hot pan, if necessary, for safety. None of the students in this group moved the gueridon, once the equipment had been placed on it.

GROUP B - Students ensured that enough room was allowed for ease of working, but more thought could have been given to guest comfort. Some students used the wrong service door. They did not check the gas cylinders prior to use, and did not have a cover plate at the gueridon for safety use. One student moved a gueridon trolley with equipment on it, thus having an accident and breaking two plates.

This result has established that the Experimental Group students are more safety conscious than the Control Group as they secured 25% higher marks.

Criteria 4 - Knowledge of Menu

GROUP A- Students spoke clearly and were confident. All students could identify ingredients in a particular dish. They were able to describe how the dish was prepared and could state historical details relating to Crepe Suzette.

GROUP B - Students generally lacked confidence in dealing with the guests, speaking rather quietly. They were able to identify most ingredients in a dish, although not the liqueur used in Crepe Suzette. Students were also unsure of the cooking methods used and they could not give the correct historical background information relating to Crepe Suzette.

The students in the Experimental Group were self confident and more knowledgeable about the products and processes than the Control Group. They achieved over 31.3% higher marks.

Criteria 5 – Professional Service

GROUP A - Students worked methodically in a clockwise fashion, serving guests from the correct side. The Silver Service items were served efficiently using the correct equipment and the Clearing techniques were generally very good. The correct procedures were followed for the presentation and service of wines.

GROUP B - The students tended not to serve food from the correct side and moved from left to right at random. The Silver Service items were generally served well using the correct equipment, but the clearing skills were not well practised. A student took one plate at a time back to the station without trying to stack them at all. In general, students appeared a little apprehensive when serving wine, and did not present the bottle to the customer before opening.

The Experimental Group displayed finer professional service techniques than the Control Group and attained over 34.4% marks.

Criteria 6 – Guéridon Psychomotor Skills

GROUP A - Students were generally very confident when working at the gueridon. They were well organised and items were placed in order of use. A good pace was observed when preparing dishes. The sauce was of the correct consistency of sauce with a good taste. All students flamed the dish on completion. They were able to prepare speciality coffees.

GROUP B - Students did not organise ingredients in a methodical order on the gueridon. The sauce was generally of a good consistency and taste. Some of the students could not manage to flame the gueridon dish before serving. There were some students who could not prepare speciality coffees. Generally, they were untidy in their preparation technique.

In this area of Advanced Professional Service Techniques, the Experimental Group overwhelmingly excelled their performance by achieving 45% higher marks.

Criteria 7 – Attitude and Social Skills.

GROUP A - All students made conversation at appropriate times with the guest. They explained dishes well, which aided selling, and created a good experience for the guest when gueridon work was taking place. The students were able to describe the ingredients used and preparation method. All students were smiling; they were polite and very helpful. Generally, they had a very good interaction with guests.

GROUP B - In general, students lacked confidence in making conversation with guests and were not able to explain dishes very well to the guests. Students did not appear to be at ease when working at the gueridon. They were polite and helpful but lacked eye contact with customers.

The performance of Social Skills in the Experimental Group were superior than the Control Group but only by 18.8%.

Discussion – Restaurant Experiment

The assessment process in itself proved to be a very motivating factor. All Students enjoyed the sense of competitiveness of their group. They all rose to the occasion and performed at their best.

Group A: The personal appearance of students in the Experimental Group was impeccable. They appeared to be more at ease with the guests and responded well to them. These students displayed excellent technical skills and operated very efficiently. They had a comprehensive technical knowledge of products and also developed a team spirit, which was evident in their group dynamics.

Group B: The students in the Control Group were well motivated, but their personal appearance could have been better. At times, they were lacking the technical skills and knowledge to operate at a high standard. They appeared to be less confident and lacked interaction with the guest.

The overall marks for each member of the Experimental and Control Group in the Restaurant are displayed in Table 8.3. This definitely confirms that the Experimental Group out performed by 30% in this study.

Table 8.3: Comparison of the Overall Marks in the Restaurant for the Experimental Group and the Control Group.

Group A (Experimental)		Group B (Control)	
Students		Students	
A1	94	A2	62
B1	84	B2	62
C1	89	C2	52
D1	89	D2	60
Total	356	Total	236
Percentage	89%	Percentage	59%

It seems clear that formal assessments and even competitions could be a useful way forward. This Quasi - Experiment indicates that by setting goals and creating a sense of competitiveness, the students thinking has changed towards the ethos that a satisfactory performance will not be tolerated in the pursuit of achieving excellence.

Kitchen Experiment

This experiment programme was brought to a close with a final evening dinner for invited guests from the general public. The aim of the event was planned in order to test the level of knowledge and ability of the students in the Experimental Group as compared with the students in the Control Group.

Skills in the cognitive, affective and psychomotor domains were taken into account in the overall assessment, with a view to gathering tangible evidence of the students' ability to plan, interact and produce work at a professional and high quality level.

The Marking Criteria is detailed below:

- Uniform and Hygiene
- Organisation
- Selection of Ingredients and Knowledge of Dish
- Timing
- Appropriate Choice of Utensils
- Teamwork
- Taste and Presentation of Dish

Format

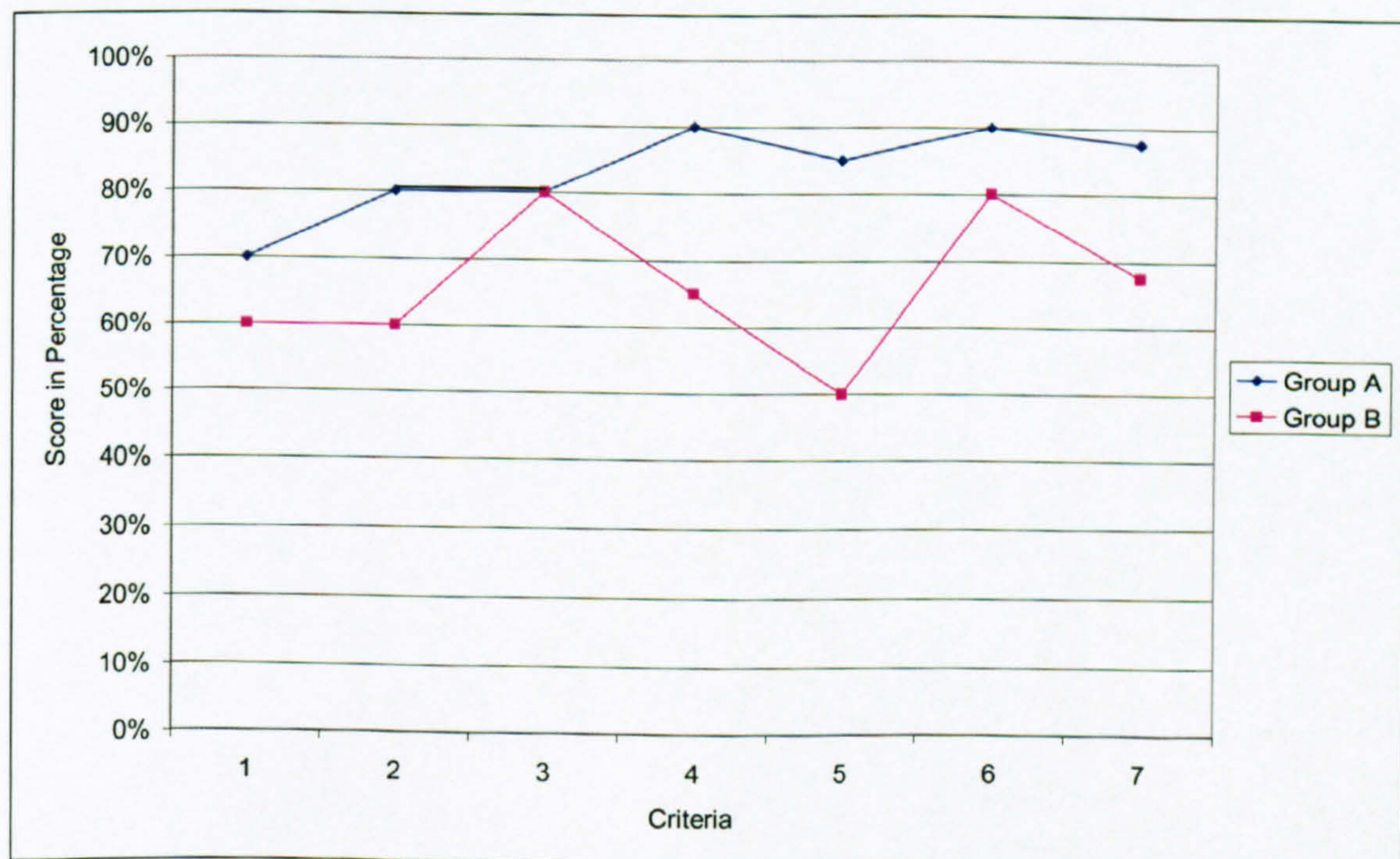
The format of the event was planned in the kitchen by organising the students into Group A – The Experimental Group, and Group B – The Control Group. Both groups of students were given identical menus, which were designed to test the technical ability and knowledge base of the students. The participants were provided with identical facilities and equipment. They were briefed on the outline of expectations and marking criteria prior to the start of the skill test. The event was judged by an independent chef lecturer, who had not been part of the initial experiment project, to ensure an unbiased skill test.

The detailed and overall marks for each criteria in the kitchen for the Experimental and the Control Group are displayed in Table 8.4 and Figure 8.2.

Table 8.4: Comparison of the detailed marks allocated to each criteria in the Kitchen for the Experimental and the Control Group.

Criteria	Group	Group A (Experimental)				Group B (Control)				Total			
	Student	A1	B1	C1	D1	A2	B2	C2	D2	A	A%	B	B%
	Maximum Marks												
1. Uniform and Hygiene	20	15	13	15	13	12	10	12	14	56	70.0	48	60.0
2. Organisation	10	9	8	8	7	6	6	5	7	32	80.0	24	60.0
3. Timing	10	8	9	8	7	7	8	9	8	32	80.0	32	80.0
4. Using Appropriate Ingredients and Dish Knowledge	20	19	19	17	17	11	12	14	15	72	90.0	52	65.0
5. Using Appropriate Utensils	10	9	8	8	9	5	5	5	5	34	85.0	20	50.0
6. Teamwork	10	10	9	8	9	8	7	8	9	36	90.0	32	80.0
7. Taste and Presentation	20	19	18	17	16	11	12	15	16	70	87.5	54	67.5
Total	100	89	84	81	78	60	60	68	74	332	83.0	262	65.5

Figure 8.2: Comparison of Kitchen Assessment between Experimental Group and Control Group



Criteria 1 – Uniform and Hygiene

Uniforms were marked at the commencement of the test based on cleanliness and the college dress code, to comply with the Food Safety (General Food Hygiene) Regulations 1995. Hygiene marks were based on a combination of elements including food handling, personal cleanliness, equipment cleaning and the appropriate use of cleaning materials.

Group A- It was noted that one student wore a uniform below college standards. Consistently good standard of general hygiene was maintained, with the proper use of equipment and utensils. Personal hygiene was excellent and the work station was kept clean at all times.

Group B- One student in group B commenced the session with a dirty apron and another student wore incorrect footwear. The standard of hygiene was average, and at times poor, due to the mishandling of raw poultry. The work area was untidy at most times. There were inconsistencies in the work habits of an individual student.

It is encouraging to note that the students in the Experimental Group maintained higher standards of hygiene and personal appearance as compared with the Control Group and attained 10% higher marks.

Criteria 2 – Organisation

The levels of organisation were judged based on work station tidiness, order of work and forward planning.

Group A- Organisation was considered to be very good with a systematic approach to the work. A logical approach to the work load was adapted. The work was completed in the correct order with a clear sense of direction and forward planning.

Group B- Organisation was varied and lacked a systematic approach, but some elements of organisation were considered good. The work stations were untidy and there was a lack of forward planning which resulted in an average performance.

The students' application of organisational skills and techniques in the Experimental Group were far more efficient than the Control Group and achieved 20% higher marks.

Criteria 3

The timing was judged on two aspects; that is, the preparation of food, and timely service of food to the guests.

Group A- The food was prepared in a timely fashion and it was ready for service in ample time. Service to the guest was efficient and met the timing requirements.

Group B- This group also comfortably met the demands of the required criteria for the service and production of food as regards to the timing.

It is interesting to observe that the students in both the Experimental and Control Group, performed equally well in the maintenance of speed and management of time thus, each group scored 80% marks.

Criteria 4 – Using Appropriate Ingredients and Dish Knowledge

The selection of ingredients was judged on identifying and assembling the correct quantities of food products. Students were required to plan the product usage in relation to the number of guests catered for. The knowledge of the dish was based upon the students' ability to interpret, plan and produce the menu items correctly.

Group A- This Group was confident in the selection of ingredients and stored items appropriate to the quantities which were to be prepared. It was clearly apparent that the group had gained the required skills to produce the dishes according to menu specification. The group displayed an excellent understanding of the food products and worked with confidence.

Group B- This group required some assistance in the selection of certain products, but some of the food quantities selected for the production of the menu were either

too little or too much for the number of guests to be catered for. They had some issues with the menu items and required assistance with menu interpretation and culinary skills. There was a lack of confidence in some areas, but the students worked hard to produce the meal to the best of their abilities.

It is reassuring to note that the students in the Experimental Group possessed a higher level of food product and process knowledge. They scored 25% greater marks than the Control Group.

Criteria 5 – Using Appropriate Utensils.

The students correct choice and use of equipment in context with the quantities of food to be prepared and the use of the most appropriate tools for the job was monitored.

Group A- The group selected the correct equipment for the required tasks. They displayed appropriate use of tools throughout the test. There was an evidence of good knife skills.

Group B- The general selection of equipment was good, but there were instances of the inappropriate use and selection of tools, including the use of fine restaurant silverware in the kitchen, resulting in an expensive damage. Good knife skills were evident, but one student mishandled a large knife which created a potentially dangerous situation.

The students in the Experimental Group had advanced technical culinary skills and knowledge about the correct use of kitchen equipment. They attained 35% higher marks than the Control Group.

Criteria 6 – Teamwork

Teamwork was measured by observing the group interaction and the degree to which the students assisted each other together with the common vision of the group.

Group A- Excellent levels of teamwork were displayed throughout the test with good levels of communication and interaction between the group. The team building sessions had clearly helped the group develop a common rapport with each other.

Group B- The students generally worked well together and quickly adapted to the task at hand. All the participants in group B interacted well with one another. However, there was some initial hesitation during the production of the menu as to which dish each participant would prepare.

There was not a significant difference in the team dynamics of both of the groups. However, in the Control Group some students were not too sure about their responsibilities. The Experimental Group achieved 10% higher marks in this area.

Criteria 7 – Taste and Presentation

The taste of the dish was assessed on culinary flavour principles with reference to the classical menu items. The dishes were judged on the merits of blend of seasonings, texture, consistency and aroma of the food. The presentation of the dish was judged on the harmony of ingredients, creativity of presentation and appropriate garnishing techniques.

Group A- The food was well balanced and appropriately seasoned; sauces were of the correct consistency and appearance. Performance was good overall. The presentation of dishes was according to menu description and they were presented in a consistent and creative manner. Some initiative in garnishing, such as heart shaped croutons, made the dish particularly attractive.

Group B- There was a good balance of flavour and correct seasonings. Some of the sauces were too much reduced and slightly split in texture. The presentation of

dishes was accurate as per menu descriptions. The presentation of food on plates was not balanced and at times untidy. The variance of quality was apparent between the individual plates.

It is stimulating to observe that the students in the Experimental Group possessed the finer presentation and gastronomic skills as compared with the Control Group. They achieved 20% higher marks.

Discussion – Kitchen Experiment

This skill test was an exciting experiment, enjoyed tremendously by all participants. It was encouraging to observe that the students contributed their time and energy to this event. In fact, both the students and the staff looked forward to the possibility of similar events in the near future. All the students worked hard and gave their best to the competition. However, the students in the Experimental Group clearly benefited from previous team building assignments as part of this experiment and showed confidence and team spirit throughout the evening.

Group A: The students maintained very high standards of professional appearance and personal hygiene, complying with The Food Safety (General Food Hygiene) Regulations 1995. They were efficient and displayed good organisational skills. These students also had a comprehensive knowledge of food products and processes. The Experimental Group students also developed a discerning taste and a high order of technical culinary skills.

Group B: The Control Group students' personal appearance was inconsistent and some of them lacked the real professionalism in their work organisation. These students' knowledge about food products and processes was limited. However, their skills in managing time and working as part of a team were quite comparable to the Experimental Group. Unfortunately, there were marked differences in their culinary skills.

The overall marks for each member of the Experimental Group and the Control Group in the kitchen are displayed in Table 8.5. It confirms that the Experimental Group secured 17.5% higher marks in this study.

Table 8.5: Comparison of the Overall Marks in the Kitchen for the Experimental Group and the Control Group.

Group A (Experimental)		Group B Non (Control)	
Students		Students	
A1	89	A2	60
B1	84	B2	60
C1	81	C2	68
D1	78	D2	74
Total	332	Total	262
Percentage	83%	Percentage	65.5%

The additional training sessions provided the students with the most up to date knowledge and high level of technical skills, leading to a generally superior performance during the event. The Control Group was highly motivated, but lacked some knowledge and technical skills in certain areas. They would most likely achieve similar results to the Experimental Group if the identical opportunities were given to them as well.

Discussion – Restaurant and Kitchen Experiment

The first impression of looking at these results indicate that the group with the added teaching commitment has performed better than the control group. It is essential to confirm that the difference between the two groups represents a true difference and not a chance difference.

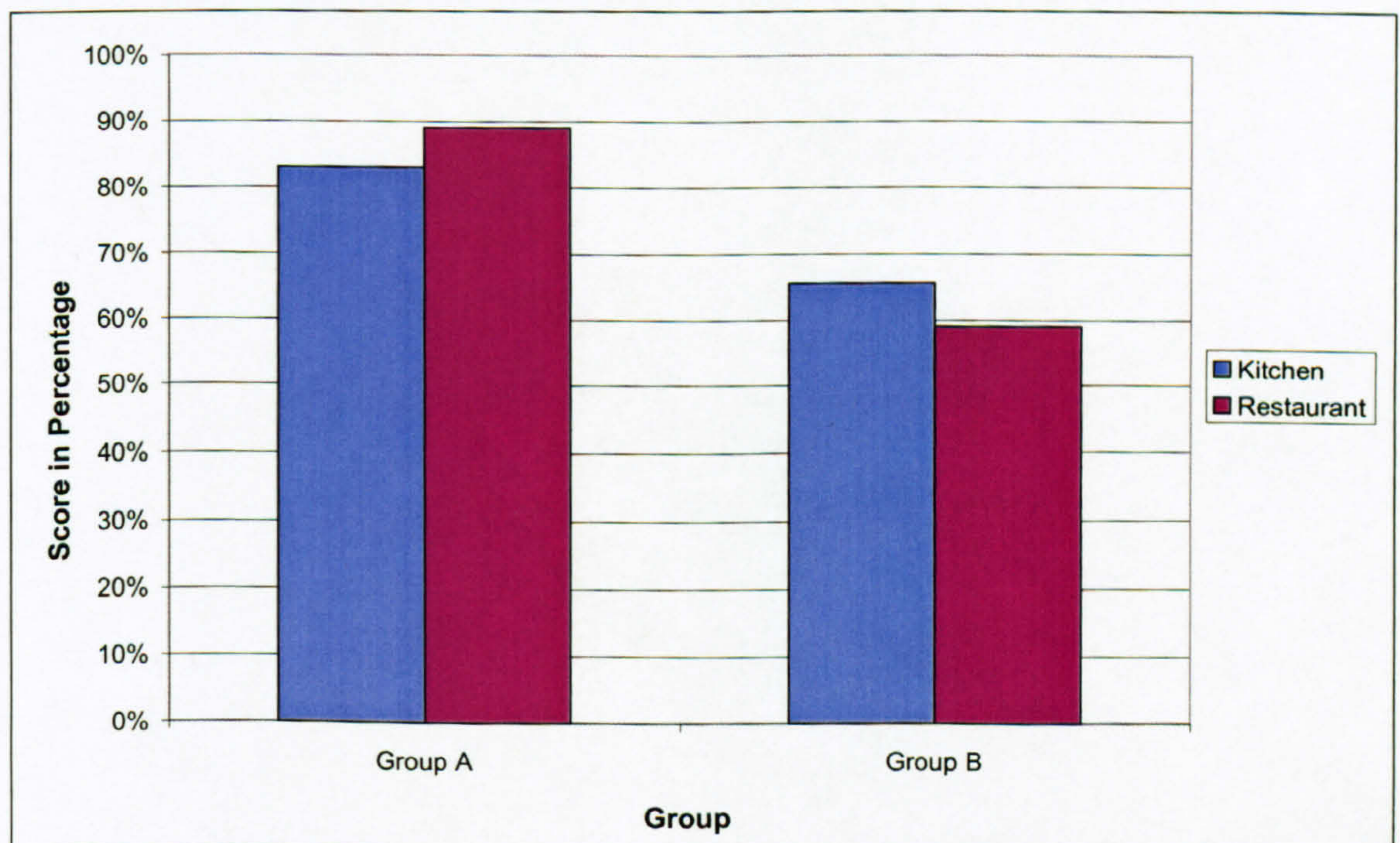
The most appropriate statistical technique to apply in this experiment is the 't' test of significance for independent samples. Independent samples are samples that are randomly formed; that is, formed without any type of matching. The members of one group are not related to members of the other group in any systematic way, other than that they are selected from the same population. If two groups are randomly formed, the expectation is that they are essentially the same at the beginning of a study with respect to performance on the dependent variable. Therefore, if they are ESSENTIALLY the same at the end of the study, the null- hypothesis is probably true; if they are different at the end of the study, the null hypothesis is probably false, that is, the treatment does make a difference. Thus, the 't' test for independent samples is used to determine whether there is probably a significant difference between the means of two independent samples. Tests of significance are almost always two-tailed. The null hypothesis states that there is no difference between the groups ($A=B$), and a two-tailed test allows for the possibility that a difference may occur in either direction; either group mean may be higher than the other ($A>B$ or $B > A$). A one-tailed test assumes that a difference can only occur in one direction; the null hypothesis states that one group is not better than another ($A>B$), and the one-tailed test assumes that if a difference occurs it will be in favour of that particular group ($A >B$). In this instance, a one-tailed test is the most appropriate test to be applied. (Gay, 1981,pp.326-331). The detailed workings of the 't' test for independent samples are displayed in Appendix G for overall marks in the restaurant and in the kitchen.

Assuming $p = 0.01$, the degree of freedom will be $n_1 + n_2 - 2 = 4 + 4 - 2 = 6$. The 't' value of 3.707 is required for the rejection of the null hypothesis. The calculated 't' value of the Restaurant score is $9.487 > 3.707$? YES. Therefore, we reject the null hypothesis as the means are significantly different. The conclusion is that the Experimental Group performance is better than the Control Group in the Restaurant.

The calculated 't' value of the Kitchen score is $4.232 > 3.707$? YES. Therefore, we reject the null hypothesis as the means are significantly different. The conclusion is that the Experimental Group performance is better than the Control Group in the Kitchen.

It is interesting to note that there is a greater difference in the calculated 't' value of the Restaurant scores than the Kitchen scores. The final conclusion of the practical experiment indicates that the Experimental Group (Group A) performed better than the Control Group (Group B) in both Restaurant and Kitchen. This has now been proven statistically. The comparison of the overall performance in the Kitchen and the Restaurant is illustrated below in Figure 8.3.

Figure 8.3: Comparison of Overall Performance in the Kitchen and the Restaurant.



FINDINGS OF THE IMPACT OF COMPETITIONS

The role of competitions is vital to the delivery and demonstration of competence with excellence. It is essential to compare the standard of vocational education and training, and the best vehicle to achieve this is by participating in competitions. In fact, the practical test organised between the Experimental Group and the Control Group was the first stage of preparing these students for competition.

The other criteria to assess the students' competencies is through the performance in international competitions. Competitors from other countries have traditionally demonstrated excellence in their performance in Hospitality Skills at the International Skill Olympics. The fierce competition is mainly from Switzerland, Germany and Austria in the Hospitality and Catering Sector.

The preparation for, and the participation in, competitions was the highlight of this project. The students took part in Local, Regional, National, European and International Competitions which demonstrated that the level of the students' practical skills had improved tremendously.

The participants of the Experimental Group entered various competitions and won the awards as displayed below in Table 8.8.

Table 8.6: Awards won by the Experimental Group

Medals	Restaurant	Kitchen
Gold	One	-
Silver	Two	Three
Bronze	One	One

The next stage of competition was at the European Level held in Maastricht. This competition was organized on a team basis. There were twelve European Countries participating in this competition and the United Kingdom won the Bronze Medal.

These students also entered a practice competition for the International Skill Olympics in Germany. There were eight European Countries participating in this competition and the United Kingdom came in the Fourth Position overall. In fact, the students in the Restaurant won the First Prize in displaying the best hospitality skills to the customers.

One of the Restaurant Students from the Experimental Group further entered the National Competition in Manchester for the selection of a potential candidate to represent the United Kingdom at the International Skill Olympics. It is encouraging to report that this student was selected to represent the United Kingdom in the Hospitality Category at the International Skill Olympics in Switzerland.

This performance has been achieved by focusing sharply on the development of technical skills, whilst also emphasising the development of their personal skills. Opportunities to perform and to participate in competitions strongly motivated the students to achieve high standards and encouraged them to demonstrate 'Excellence'. The preparation for competitions requires the development of generic skills and personal attributes which also provides a sound preparation for life at work.

The competitions place the students under the same constraints as they must work under: working alone and as part of a team; maintaining high standards; motivating themselves and others; dealing with customers; learning to be polite; and understanding other people's needs. Endurance is another quality that makes for a good competitor, and some of our students displayed this ability. The concept of competition proved to be a spur to learning. It is a valid method because our students must face competition in the outside world. It is vital to emphasise that the development of their personal skills is as important as the development of their technical skills.

Students' participation and success in competitions gave them a heightened sense of value and a high status of hospitality vocational studies and enhanced sense of self-worth. This is all important in the pursuit of excellence.

FINDINGS OF THE SELF EVALUATION REPORT

The self evaluation exercise was an excellent tool to make students think, sharply focus on the objectives and give them a sense of direction as to what, why, when and how they will be performing certain activities. The responses of participating students are summarized below:

Self Evaluation Views of Students Prior to the Start of Project:

The important features emerged from the Self Evaluation exercise directed at the Experimental Group. The self evaluation views of students at the start of this experiment were of curiosity, excitement, gratitude and honour. They were very happy to be recognised although they were selected at random. The participants expressed their personal strengths as being patient, hardworking, 'A good team player', 'A good communicator', self motivated, punctual and reliable. They felt that the opportunity to meet other students would help them in assessing their own strengths and weaknesses. Some of them were not certain about their personal skill levels, but they were quite willing to co-operate and help others. They believed that this project would help them in being more confident and organised. It will also improve their speed of work, customer care skills, technical skills in the kitchen and the restaurant. The students felt proud to be working towards excellence. Similarly, the responses recorded at the end of project are detailed below:

Self Evaluation Views of Students at the End of Project:

The participants felt that the enhanced curriculum stretched their thinking and potential all the way to excellence. The study was more in-depth and they learnt a higher level of culinary and hospitality skills which produced a very high standard of work. These students had no objection to giving up their extra time. Some of the students even resigned from their regular paid part-time jobs. They did not object to losing extra money by not working on Friday evenings, as they could see the long-term benefits. One student commented that it is a 'small price to pay for the gain to be had'.

Their parents were also proud, excited, curious and happy as they felt that their children were special. They recognised that the intensive training gave them the opportunity to learn and perfect new skills at a high level. Some students commented that their personality had also been improved during this period. The students felt more confident and competent in their abilities, especially social skills in dealing with customers. The salient characteristic of this programme was a real emphasis on teaching rather than assessment, as prevalent on traditional NVQ Programmes. The whole approach was more professional, with opportunities to improve technical culinary and hospitality skills.

The participants highlighted the areas of improvement in their technical and personal skills; such as Classical Cuisine – complex dishes, Gueridon Service- Filleting of fish and carving of meat in the restaurant, Specialty Coffees, Social skills – Teamwork, self confidence, good communication skills and hospitality professional skills. It is interesting to note that all the students were more confident. There were some recommendations made to include foreign language teaching such as French or German on the programme and a change of the time-table slot from Friday evening.

Important features emerged from the self evaluation exercise, such as the participating students were excited, honoured and felt recognised, which is the first step towards the motivation to learn. The analysis of personal strengths and weaknesses highlighted some of the criteria for excellence, such as self-confidence, organisational skills, time management, speed, customer care skills and personal skills. It was exciting to note that the young people sacrificed part-time jobs and leisure time for the long-term benefits such as perfecting technical skills and improving their personality.

The final evaluation of students at the end of the project indicated increased self-confidence, improved social skills and enhanced competency in technical skills. They also commented on the benefit of additional teaching lessons. The whole professional image was at a higher level; that is, professional appearance, behaviour and job performance. These are a noticeable feature and vital for the hospitality industry.

CASE STUDIES

The other area of assessment was the value added to the students' experiences. This has been demonstrated by illustrating three case studies of the participants in the Experimental Group. The belief that even poorly motivated students, with modest entry qualifications, can be motivated to succeed is borne out by the case studies that follow. The comparative summary of case study participants' background is given in Appendix H.

Case Study A Student A left school at the age of 16 years and joined a local hotel as a kitchen trainee. He came to college on a part-time day release basis and then as a full time student. After completing NVQ level 2 in Hospitality and Catering and the Professional Bakery Programme, he decided to continue on to NVQ level 3 in Food Preparation and Cooking, specialising in Patisserie and Confectionery. He is now a member of the Welsh Culinary Team and has won a Gold Medal in Patisserie and Confectionery in Switzerland. He now works full-time as Chef Patissiere at a five star hotel in the North of England.

Case Study B Student B attended the local College on a part-time day release basis in the School of Hospitality and Tourism. He successfully completed his NVQ level 2 in Food Preparation and Cooking. In addition, he also completed the BTEC Higher National Diploma in Hospitality Management. His employment took him to a local hotel as a junior Chef de Partie then to a highly reputable Hotel in North Wales as a Sous Chef. In these establishments he gained a lot of experience with food and modern styles of cuisine. He entered a number of competitions including the Welsh Salon Culinaire with a good measure of success. He is now working in the College in the School of Hospitality and Tourism as a Chef Instructor/Work Based Assessor in Culinary Arts.

Case Study C Student C is 18 years old and decided to study catering after a brief experience in a local restaurant. Having completed the BTEC National Diploma in Hospitality and Catering, he is now in his third year at the local College, studying NVQ Level 3 Food Preparation and Cooking. He took part in the project from the beginning. It was not long into the course before it was noticed that the student had a skilful touch and a good eye when it came to cooking. The student soon began to realise his potential and his confidence developed. As his confidence grew, his learning increased. He quickly grasped new skills and became thirsty for more.

After a little persuasion, the student was encouraged to enter his first cookery competition. He impressed judges in the regional heats and reached the final at the National Students Chefs Challenge 2002 in London. He then went on to reach the finals of the European Palatina 2002 Competition in Germany and also reached the finals of the Gordon Ramsay UK Scholar 2002 competition, which was held in the prestigious London restaurant 'Petrus'.

The student lives outside the college transport zone, and so has an extra 20 miles each day to travel on top of his college bus journey. Even so, he has achieved a 100% attendance record, which shows his commitment to the course. He is a well mannered student and, despite his success, has remained level headed. He has a good temperament and is a popular member of the group. He has established himself as one of our most outstanding students and has just been awarded the Welsh Livery Guild Award for Excellence.

The latest feather in this student's cap is that he has just been elected onto the Junior Welsh Culinary Team and is to compete in Luxembourg, representing his country.

CONCLUSION

This experiment has enabled the researcher to carry out a thorough review of the courses in order to consider which elements of the revised curriculum will be retained and how the performance of students can be enhanced. It is concluded that the students involved in this experiment:

- had developed a better understanding, and a deeper and wider knowledge of the subject areas
- had developed and displayed increased confidence in their vocational skills.
- were capable of demonstrating more advanced technical skills
- had developed positive and collaborative working relationships
- approached their work with a more positive and mature attitude
- were strongly self – motivated and more able to work on their own initiative
- had become more aware of their appearance and were taking a greater pride in their personal grooming, deportment and professional image
- had developed a strong sense of pride in their own work and the work of other members in the group.
- had raised their performance to a strong competitive standard

The researcher is very much guarded in drawing up the final conclusions from this Quasi-Experiment as there could be an influence of the Hawthorne effect. It is interesting to note that even in the Hawthorne experiment, there have been many reviews of the initial claims made by Elton Mayo, that is, the improved productivity

in the company was due to the fact that the subjects felt important as they were being studied. Mayo's interpretation is certainly a real possible issue in designing this educational experiment regardless of the truth of the original Hawthorne study. Adair (1984) says that the most important, though not the only, aspect of this is how the participants interpret the situation. Interviewing them (after the "experiment" part) would be the way to investigate this. What their personal goals are?, how they understand the task requested?, whether they want to please the experimenter?, what they think the experimenter really wants. Thus, the experimenter effect is really not one of interference, but of a possible difference in the meaning of the situation for participants and experimenter.

Parsons (1974) has also been very sceptical of the initial Hawthorne effect. In fact, he has re-examined the second and then first-hand accounts of the research. He found serious gaps and flaws in the published reports of the Hawthorne experiments. In addition, Parsons has also commented on the small sample size. In fact, the issue of sample size has also concerned the researcher with the quasi-experiment in question.

The other motion is that if additional teaching and learning resources are applied then there would be a guaranteed improvement in performance anyway. But it is also important to consider the contents of additional curriculum to ensure that the high degree of skills are achieved by the participants.

In this quasi-experiment, there was also a criteria of assessment to measure the performance of participants in the Local, Regional, National, European and International competitions. It proved that the participants from the experimental group achieved excellence in their performance and won many awards.

The size for this Quasi - Experiment was limited due to the small number of participants. The reasons for the limited sample size is because of constraints on resources, especially the time and finances. However, great care has been taken in conducting this experiment to ensure that the results are accurate, reliable and valid.

The experiment was brought to a close with a final event. The aim of this event was to test the knowledge and ability of the students who had been involved in the

experiment with that of the students who had not had the additional training. A wide range of skills were tested among the students who prepared and served the meal, with a view to assessing the students' ability to plan and produce work at a professional level and to interact effectively with customers.

All the students worked hard and enjoyed the occasion. However, the experimental group had clearly benefited from the team – building exercises during the residential weekend. The personal appearance of the students working in the restaurant was impeccable. There was a good rapport among the members of the team, and all of them worked with confidence. They were at ease with guests and interacted well with them. The experimental students had a deeper understanding of their subject and high level of technical skills which led to an all round superior performance during the final test.

The role of competitions goes far beyond the measure of success in winning the gold or silver medal. Some of the additional benefits are examined below:

1. Move from Competence to Excellence - there is a growing sense to raise standards and aspirations. The competitions have the vast potential to accord status and take vocational education beyond competence and create a passion for excellence.
2. Reduce Skills Gaps - the excitement and achievements of competitors has the potential to capture the attention of the nation and to provide the motivation young people need to consider vocational education and to set their aims higher.
3. Minimise Skills Shortages - the competitions have the potential to excite young people about vocational training and to entice them into traditional skills areas where there are skills shortages.
4. Re-engage the disaffected youth – exposure to the achievements of competitors will hopefully, provide the inspiration to this group. It is essential that parents need to make their children believe that they are important and

have what it takes to be successful. They should be encouraged to stay on in learning and to acquire vocational skills to develop their full potential.

The recommendation from this experiment is to include most of the enhanced elements in the mainstream curriculum which are as follows:

1. The residential weekend, should become an integrated element of NVQ courses for full time students, in order to help them to develop their personal and key skills.
2. The contributions made by experts in the catering field to helping the students develop the correct personal appearance and a professional image should become a part of induction.
3. High level technical skills should be displayed through demonstrations and master classes
4. Work experience would expose students to the demands and expectations of the industry.
5. The students' communication skills would be developed through public speaking, written and oral presentations.
6. Specialist staff should prepare selected students for local, national and international competitions.

The positive impact of this experiment extended beyond the students and staff directly involved, to staff and managers of the college as a whole, and to all other students. Some of the benefits accrued are as follows:

1. The vocational area of hospitality and catering had raised its quality profile and established a good reputation both regionally, nationally and internationally.

2. The interest in competitions grew and competition entries have increased in the colleges.
3. The student numbers on the programmes have increased considerably and retention rates are also improved.
4. The other course teams have expressed an interest in the conclusion of this project and would like to adopt some of its elements.

CHAPTER 9

DISCUSSION

INTRODUCTION

In the previous five chapters the research has focused on the different areas of study as identified below. The broader intention is to use these separate elements to explore the reasons for the skills shortages and skills gaps in the Hospitality Industry and to interrogate the processes which have resulted in an ever decreasing number of trained staff being available whilst the hospitality industry has been expanding at such a faster rate in the UK over the last two decades.

There have been numerous labour review surveys carried out by the Hospitality Training Foundation (now SSC) in the recent years. These reports have concluded that there is a potential demand for skilled staff and assessed the extent of skills shortages and skills gaps. These reports are informative but lacked the depth, rigour and broad discussion of all the issues surrounding the debate about the reasons for skills shortages and skills gaps. Hopefully, the conclusions from this research study will contribute towards some of the possible solutions to the staffing issues faced by the Hospitality and Catering Industry.

This research has attempted to investigate the challenges facing the Vocational Education and Training in the Hospitality and Catering Industry and to identify the way forward. There are issues which have been framed as five main research questions:

- (1) What trends can be identified over the last four decades in relation to the number of well qualified students joining the Hospitality and Catering Industry?

- (2) What are the perceptions and image of the Hospitality Industry amongst young people, parents and careers advisers?
- (3) What is the perception of industry's role in the delivery of vocational education and training in the Hospitality and Catering Industry?
- (4) How does the standard of vocational education and training system in the United Kingdom compare with SIX similar European and Anglophone countries?
- (5) How can the quality of the curriculum for the Hospitality and Catering Industry be improved, especially in terms of vocational and professional skills?

Each of these questions has been investigated by a research method most appropriate to the line of evidence required.

Research Questions	Research Methods
1. Courses and Qualifications Structure	Historical, Literature , Quantitative and Comparative
2. Perception and Image of Hospitality Industry	Qualitative, Descriptive and Use of Questionnaires
3. The perception of industry's role in the delivery of vocational education and training	Historical, Literature , Descriptive , Use of Questionnaires and Individual Semi-Structured Interviews
4. International Comparative Study	Comparative , Analytical, Descriptive and Evaluative
5. Quality of curriculum delivery	Literature, Quasi -Experimental, Descriptive and Use of Questionnaires

COURSES AND QUALIFICATIONS STRUCTURE

The first research question is seeking to assess the trends over the last four decades in relation to the number of qualified students joining the hospitality industry. The courses and qualification structure have been thoroughly investigated and the inherent issues have been examined with some probable suggestions for improvement. The trends demonstrated by this research highlight the potential challenges facing the curriculum developers with regard to the curriculum portfolio for the hospitality industry.

The methodology adopted to assess the trends involved the comprehensive analysis of the qualification structure in the delivery of vocational education and training covering the broad spectrum from school provision to further education; that is, the 14 to 19 years cohort. The researcher has attempted to examine the evolution of the concept of these qualifications and their developments. An attempt has been made to maintain useful links between the various levels of qualification so that constructive comparisons can be made. There is also a comparison drawn with the hairdressing and beauty therapy industry, whilst assessing the trends in relation to the number of qualified students joining their respective industries.

In the literature review, there have been many criticisms about the present qualification system but without any clear evidence to support their arguments. In August 2002, the Qualifications Curriculum Authority appointed 5S private consultants as an independent body to identify qualification requirements for the hospitality and catering industry. The final recommendations of 5S Consulting are as follows:

- Move the National Qualifications Framework for the hospitality and catering sector beyond its present skeletal format into an active tool that enables employers and trainees to judge their options in a more informed way.

- Devise a better ‘macro’ classification of awards – perhaps using the Scottish system as a model – and in this context:
 - Progress the development of single unit awards.
 - Rationalise the present National Occupational Standards where there is evident overlap and duplication.
 - Revisit the structure of awards to reflect the requirements of micro businesses and SMEs.
- Revisit National Occupational Standards in terms of how to address essential technical skills and underpinning knowledge and the credibility of assessment methods.
- Extend the scope of National Occupational Standards to cover industrial catering, and other key activity areas embedded in the industry.
- Revisit progression issues in the structure of NVQs and seek to create better pathways to higher level awards.
- Import National Occupational Standards and NVQs to the National Qualifications Framework for the sector that address current skills gaps.
- Consider the wider use of ‘technical certificates’ to define underpinning knowledge within awards.
- Revisit the assessment conditions of NVQs to determine whether the contextual issues should be given greater weight.
- A dialogue with awarding bodies is required to see whether arrangements for transferable credit could be improved to take account of the peripatetic nature of employment in the industry.

(5S Consulting, January; 2003, p.7-8)

The above recommendations are merely modifying the present National Vocational Qualification Structure and not providing level playing fields with other industries. The present research challenges these recommendations, with the support of statistical evidence from various reliable sources, and would suggest an overall review of the present qualification structure to eradicate the weaknesses highlighted.

A detailed investigation of changes to the qualifications system operating for hospitality and catering over many years has revealed a generally sorry tale. The tale is characterised by frequent changes in course titles and structures. Often driven by agendas which are less than sympathetic to the needs of the particular industry; for example, Hospitality and Catering was a relatively popular choice of subject for school pupils, but the shift to GNVQ Courses in the early 1990's resulted in dramatic reductions.

The move to a focus on job specific courses saw the demise of the long standing (since 1943) General Catering Course, which had provided a good introduction to young people to the range of skills involved in the hospitality and catering industry.

Hayter (2003) states that: *“What we have seen since then is a mixture of awards, initiatives and confusion rather than clarity NVQs are not appropriate for full-time students...”*

(Hayter, 2003, p.31)

Further problems with the new NVQs point to poorly articulated curricula; for example, the Chefs and Bakery curriculum. The move to increasing Work Based Learning has also skewed provision. The Bakery Courses are doing well, despite the decline in other areas, because of the investment made by large companies. In considering that the range of types and sizes of Hospitality and Catering businesses is huge, with many being SMEs, it can be seen that the ability to fund programmes lies with big businesses. This leaves the other areas such as Reception and Housekeeping less well supported despite the clear need for trained staff to work in these departments.

Hospitality Network Newsflash quotes that:

“One of the key problems identified by employers was the lack of consistency amongst college graduates and the fact that NVQs were not seen to be suitable qualifications in developing the chefs of the future.”

(Hospitality Network, 2003, p.1)

The NVQ system itself seems to work for the hairdressing industry, at least on the supply side, where the courses are cheaper to provide, very much simpler in terms of numbers of units and catering for a more homogeneous industry with a clear destination. Unfortunately, in the hospitality and catering industry there are too many qualifications, providing little in the way of a big picture of the industry. In addition, some of the courses, such as Reception and Housekeeping, are very expensive to run in Further Education Colleges because of the need for facilities to operate Realistic Working Environments. Added to the unsociable hours offered in the hospitality industry, the hairdressing and beauty therapy industry does seem to be a better option.

This goes a long way to explaining why 16% of employees in Hairdressing and Beauty Therapy are qualified and only 1.8% of employees in the Hospitality and Catering Industry. What this leads to is an imbalance, making Hospitality and Catering Courses less attractive to Further Education Colleges, reducing the number of places and so developing the downward spiral. Thus, it can be concluded that this assortment of ill funded NVQs has not met the needs of the Hospitality and Catering Industry, and so is failing to provide the skilled workers that the economy in this field requires.

Further evidence of this lack of fit between government policy, training provision and business needs can be seen by looking at the Hospitality and Catering and Travel and Tourism curriculum. Unfortunately, there has been competition between these two curriculum areas in the academic world, to the extent that the number of students enrolling on hospitality and catering have seriously declined over the past few years. This has led to the skills shortages in the industry. Moreover, the students successfully completing Travel and Tourism courses are entering into employment in the Hospitality and Catering industry where the real jobs exist. In many instances, these young people are not fully equipped to perform the jobs, and this has accentuated the issues of the skills gaps in the Hospitality Industry. The researcher's recommendation is to merge these two curriculum together, as is the Sector Skills Council for Hospitality, Leisure, Travel and Tourism sector.

The other impact has been the introduction of Advanced GNVQs to replace National Diplomas. The government's intention was to bring in the 'parity of esteem' between vocational and academic education, but this initiative benefited academic education more than vocational education. In real terms, the number of qualified supervisory staff has fallen to 15.6% of the peak fifteen years ago whilst the industry has been rapidly expanding during this period.

Thus, it is evident from this research that the cumulative impact of curriculum changes in Schools and Further Education Colleges had serious consequences for the hospitality and catering courses, resulting in a gradual decline in qualified students since 1992. This can be directly attributed to the introduction of NVQS and GNVQs initiatives as illustrated by the statistical evidence in Chapter 4. Thus, the conclusion of this research does challenge the current curriculum being delivered in Schools and Further Education Colleges.

Knasel (2003) states that in December 2002, Ivan Lewis, Minister for Skills and Vocational Education wrote to the Qualifications and Curriculum Authority – the successor to National Council for Vocational Qualifications - asking them to liaise with the Learning and Skills Council and Sector Skills Development Agency.

“He asked them to develop a programme of work which would lead to a more responsive and flexible national system of vocational qualifications. Qualifications and Curriculum Authority website (www.qca.org.uk) states the following in the vision statement:

...by 2007 modern qualifications will be tailored and quality – assured to meet sector needs, and placed in unit-based credit frameworks...This revitalized system will support employers, young people and adults by developing the skills of the workforce and improving international competitiveness.”

(Knasel, 2003, p.23)

There have been many research reports publishing the statistics for various qualifications by the organisations such as the British Hospitality Association, the Hospitality Training Foundation (Now called People 1st, the Sector Skills Council), the Hotel and Catering International Management Association, the Qualifications and Curriculum Authority and Awarding Bodies (Edexcel and City and Guilds of London Institute), but the unique aspect of this research has been demonstrated by the comprehensive statistical analysis presented from Entry Level courses to Level 3, and encompassing the period from 1968 to 2003, confirming the useful trends over a period of thirty five years. It provides evidence with regard to the impact of various educational policies on the decline in student numbers being qualified to meet the increasing manpower needs of the Hospitality Industry.

The recommendations to reverse the downward trend in student numbers would be to re-engineer the curriculum with new qualification titles, curriculum contents and alternative assessment methodology that meets the needs of the Hospitality Industry. It is vital that the qualifications have credibility and status to attract young people into joining these courses, such as an Introductory/ General Hospitality and Catering course, covering all key areas of the industry to provide an overview, rather than just being specific to Food Preparation or Food Service, or Reception or a Housekeeping Course. The specialisation could follow later on. There could be other factors as well impacting on the decline in student numbers, such as the perception and image of the Hospitality Industry held by young people, parents and career advisers. The next research question examines and analyses this issue in greater depth.

PERCEPTION AND IMAGE OF HOSPITALITY INDUSTRY

The second research question relates to determining the perception and image of the Hospitality Industry amongst young people, parents and career advisers. The first step was to briefly review the literature followed up by Qualitative Research using the postal questionnaires designed for school pupils, parents and careers advisers.

The perception and image of hospitality has been thoroughly assessed amongst school pupils, parents and career advisers. The researcher acknowledges that the initial questionnaire response rates from the school pupils and parents could have been higher, but careful consideration has been taken of this aspect in drawing up the final conclusions.

The review of the perception and image of the hospitality industry from the students' point of view revealed that the majority of school pupils do not understand the concept of the hospitality industry. The most negative aspects of the hospitality industry highlighted were low wages, long unsociable hours and split shifts. Unfortunately, the hospitality industry cannot change to become 9.00am to 5.00pm, although some aspects of the job do have social hours. There are other professions such as medicine, where the unsocial hours do not act as a deterrent because of the status attached to the profession by society which hospitality professionals do not enjoy at the moment.

The second point of view revealed from parents' feed back confirmed that they are the main influencers in their children choosing a career, followed up by the work experience young people undertake during the school year. Unfortunately, the summary of parents' choice of career for their children does not even include Hospitality, which is a matter of great concern. This certainly confirms that issues of perception and image of the hospitality industry are culturally deep rooted in the UK.

The parents believe that one of the most important criteria for children choosing a career is the availability of formal qualifications which will provide further training and

career progression. The Hospitality Industry most certainly needs to address the issue of formal qualifications and training which confirms the conclusion drawn from previous research question related to qualifications structure. The present qualification system only provides narrowly focused and job specific courses. The research strongly suggests that some of the staff recruitment issues could be resolved by considering a careful review of the present vocational education and training system to provide an Introductory/ Diagnostic course, such as General Hospitality and a Catering Course with some academic rigour for school leavers. Although there were some parents with careers background in hospitality, yet whilst choosing a career for their children, hospitality ranked fairly low as a preferred career choice by them. This has surprised the researcher as one would expect that at least parents who have had careers in the hospitality industry might recommend hospitality as a career choice for their children.

The responses from career advisers, has also confirmed that even they do not have a clear understanding of the term 'hospitality'. This is of great concern as the question arises as to how they can offer an impartial and realistic picture about the hospitality industry to young people when they do not have the full knowledge of the Industry themselves? There should be opportunities for career advisers to have a thorough insight into the hospitality industry so that they can portray a reality of the profession to young people. The employers need to take positive steps to invite career advisers into the industry and ensure that they are aware of the positive aspects of the hospitality business. The career advisers have also recommended engaging employers in highlighting the career opportunities to the parents, pupils and school teachers. In addition, the employers should provide work experience, taster days and work-shadowing for the pupils, highlighting the positive aspects of this industry.

This study has certainly demonstrated that 'Hospitality' is misunderstood by many school pupils, parents and even career advisers which could be the reason for these groups of people to focus on the negative aspects of the hospitality industry. However, this industry does offer some excellent career opportunities with good progression. Obviously Springboard UK, a specific career's company for the hospitality and tourism industry has been taking many initiatives to improve the perception and image of the

hospitality industry by bringing the employers and young people together. Staff recruitment is a crucial issue facing the Hospitality Industry.

It is interesting to observe that most of the European countries are also suffering from staff recruitment problems because of the perception of the Hospitality Industry, although the UK certainly appears to be most affected. Germany is also beginning to suffer the same recruitment problems, but not as acutely as the UK. This could be attributed to culture as being a major factor in the UK. Historically in Europe, hospitality has been viewed as a positive career choice as part of their culture. Those interviewed in the UK and on the European mainland believed that the UK's history of domestic service still prejudices people against this industry as a career choice. Interestingly, the employers interviewed in the Netherlands acknowledged that working hours and pay were the major factors, creating barriers amongst young people to join the industry and this needs to be addressed foremost. Employers in France also felt that these factors were intrinsically linked to the nature of the hospitality industry and potential entrants need to accept it.

The French emphasis on having a small number of specialist hotel schools, was felt to be a major factor in recruiting good calibre entrants and then building on that high quality standard before they went into the industry. The fact that there are currently no specific hotel schools in the UK would mean that huge changes need to take place in the delivery of hospitality education if this is to happen. However, there are some educational establishments in the UK that are seriously considering the setting up of hotel schools in conjunction with employers to drive up the recruitment, attract bright entrants and provide comprehensive training for the Hospitality Industry.

The mentoring aspect of the French Alternance System and the German Dual System was also felt to be a main consideration in influencing the aptitudes and motivation of learners to join the industry. In the UK the present Modern Apprenticeships system has encouraged the appointment of mentors in the work place to assist trainees in the completion of their frameworks, but there are many issues still to be resolved. The next research question examines the role of industry in providing quality training.

The final conclusions drawn from this research question two have given the main reasons for the serious problems of staff recruitment in the hospitality and catering industry. The researcher believes that these can only be resolved by education and industry working together. As far as education is concerned research question one has already clearly highlighted the issues of qualifications structure, curriculum content, assessment methodology and an urgent need for an Introduction/ Diagnostic General Hospitality and Catering course which should cover all aspects of the hospitality and catering industry, that is Food Production, Food and Beverage Service, Reception and Housekeeping. The qualifications need to have an academic rigour along with building on the essential skills to develop high class hospitality professionals which should give status to the qualifications.

The industry's role is as important as education to improve the perception and image of the hospitality and catering profession amongst young people, parents and career advisers.

The employers need to play their part by providing training opportunities, better working conditions and competitive salaries to young people to attract them to this industry. This leads us on to research question three which has examined the perception of the industry's role in attracting bright young recruits, providing quality formal training programmes and good career progression for retaining them in the industry.

INDUSTRY'S ROLE IN THE DELIVERY OF VOCATIONAL EDUCATION AND TRAINING

The third research question is seeking to establish the perception of industry's role in the delivery of vocational education in the hospitality and catering industry. This study was conducted by focusing mainly on the perception of trainees, work-based supervisors and employers.

Initially, there was an historical review of literature carried out to study the role played by the industry since the 1950s. It became evident that the industry has always been financially constrained to commit staff for training. Unfortunately, the nature of the hospitality industry is such that it mainly consists of Small and Medium sized Enterprise (SMEs). The small business operators already find it a real challenge to achieve a reasonable rate of return on capital employed in their businesses; hence any allocation of funding on training is seen to be an additional cost, and so a low priority. However, the provision for staff training cannot be neglected, as the recommendations from the previous research question have highlighted the role to be played by the hospitality industry. They need to provide a formal training programme, career progression and support to trainees. This should also improve the perception and image of the hospitality and catering industry amongst young people.

The second stage of this study was conducted through empirical research by carrying out semi-structured interviews using a standard schedule of questions and Postal Questionnaires. The targeted population, were the work-based trainees, work-based supervisors and employers. In addition, the evidence was also gathered by reviewing the trainees' portfolios to establish the support provided by the employers. There was a strong opinion from trainees that they did not receive sufficient support and guidance in the work place. Many of these trainees did not even have an allocation of a minimum of one day per week to attend the local college. The trainees also commented about the lack of learning packages and qualified assessors in the work place. This had a serious impact on their attainment of full frameworks as they could not achieve key skills and

technical certificates which were delivered at the college. The researcher employed a dual approach in gathering these views, through the semi-structured interviews and the postal questionnaires. The conclusions from both the sources agreed with the views expressed earlier.

There are many national surveys of work-based trainees carried out which are mainly focused: firstly, on their response to the Government –supported apprenticeships to ensure the compliance with the requirements of funding bodies; secondly, to gather evidence to support self—assessments for quality inspection and finally; to assess the customer satisfaction, as emphasis is being placed on ‘putting the learners first’. The main aim of this research study has been to strictly assess the views of work-based trainees as regards to the role being played by the industry in their training.

However, it would be useful to compare the results of this study with the Learning and Skills Council’s first national learner satisfaction survey 2001/2002 Technical Report – ‘Seeking the Views of Learners’. The work-based learners rated the following dimensions as highly important and had least satisfaction.

1. Understanding how you like to learn.
2. Managing the group of learners
3. Setting clear targets to help you improve
4. Providing prompt and regular feedback
5. The support they give you
6. Quality and availability of learning materials

(Learning Skills Council, 2002, p.50)

It is interesting to note that some of the findings of this research study have confirmed the outcomes of a national survey concerning the views of work-based learners in relation to learning support.

The second part of the interview involved seeking the views of work-based supervisors. Most of them felt that they are involved in training and receive regular feedback of their

trainees from college assessors, but they would prefer to be formally engaged in training and monitor trainees' progress at regular intervals in the work place. They agreed that the training meets the needs of industry, but some of them suggested that the trainees require further support for their personal development. The work-based supervisors agreed that more than half the trainees were not allocated any time or resources to attend the local college.

It is encouraging to note that 72% of the work-based supervisors have expressed an interest in training as work-based assessors so that they can carry out the support function for trainees. Unfortunately, they have not been allocated any time or resources by the employers to train and practice as assessors. The responsibility for the work-based training has to be shared by the industry, but there appears to be a reluctance by employers to commit appropriate funding.

The research also fully examined the NVQ Portfolios produced by work-based trainees who have been interviewed. There are issues with regard to the standards achieved by trainees, including the variety of evidence collected and the lack of rigorous assessment. The coverage of under-pinning knowledge does not demonstrate a deep understanding of the topics. These observations further confirmed the lack of support and guidance to the trainees by the employers. However, it is the responsibility of industry to provide a training infra-structure to support the trainees by appointing mentors and trained work-based assessors in the work place.

The NVQ portfolios have provided concrete evidence of the reasons for the lowest overall attainment rate of full frameworks being in the hospitality sector as compared to any other sectors in the UK. The industry has to assume its total responsibility in providing adequate learning resources and support to trainees so that they acquire appropriate skills and achieve full framework qualifications.

Finally, the views of employers collated through the postal questionnaires demonstrate that many perceive their role as simply to allow training opportunities to the employees. There were only 44% of work-based trainees allowed any time from the work place for

off-the-job training. The employers strongly believed that the colleges should provide comprehensive support for training to industry and close supervision of trainees which could involve more frequent visits by college assessors to trainees.

They also believed that the delivery of basic skills and keys skills should be the responsibility of educational establishments and private training providers. The employers are reluctant to take any part in basic skills and key skills delivery. Thus, it can be seen that the views of employers being consulted confirm the inherent issues expressed by the work-based supervisors with regard to the lack of resources for trainees to attend local college, the training of work-based assessors, appointing mentors in the work place or to formally support training and provide guidance to trainees.

Bill Rammell, Minister for Further and Higher Education gave a speech at the TES National Learning and Skills Symposium on Wednesday, 12th October; 2005.

In vision 2010 and Beyond Report, he quoted:

'... We need to have a debate about the balance of contributions between the state, the individual and the employer'.... We also need to challenge employers. Should the state be subsidising health and safety training for instance? Or should the employers be making a contribution?'

(Rammell, 2005)

The development of skills should eventually improve productivity, which in turn increases profitability for the company. The ultimate gain is to employers, so there should be no reluctance by the industry in contributing towards training costs. The perception of industry's role in the delivery of vocational education in the hospitality industry has been collected from different sources which reflect some of the inherent challenges facing the delivery of work-based training including the lack of financial resources allocated by employers towards the training for skills. The reason for the low attainment rate of full framework has also been attributed to insufficient commitment

by the hospitality industry to fully engage with trainees. Unfortunately, the industry still views the training as additional cost and not investment.

In reality, the situation has not changed much since the Industrial Training Act 1964 came in to force which introduced a mandatory levy system on the employers. This system was not favoured by large businesses as they were making the maximum financial contribution towards the cost of training, and then trained staff were leaving and being recruited by the smaller establishments. The SMEs were in an advantageous position as staff trained by large businesses joined them. Now there is a voluntary funding system for training and it appears that some of the SMEs are unable to invest a large amount of money in training.

Research question four has a precise focus on the International Comparison of vocational education and training. There are some very good examples of industry and education partnerships in Europe, particularly in Germany, Switzerland and Austria. It is anticipated that employers in the United Kingdom could learn from good practices being followed across Europe and in Anglophone Countries.

INTERNATIONAL COMPARATIVE STUDY

The fourth research question is focused on the International Comparisons to seek some solutions to the issues of skills shortages and skills gaps facing the Hospitality and Catering Industry. In the UK, there are far too many regulatory bodies, authorities and councils attempting to represent the interests of industry and education but without a common vision which causes confusion. Each industry in the United Kingdom is represented by a National Training Organisation (Now Sector Skills Council under the umbrella of the Sector Skills Development Agency) which consults with industry and receives feedback on their needs. Then, the occupational standards are set up for the qualification on the basis of needs identified by the industry.

Once, the qualifications are articulated by the awarding bodies, they are submitted to the Qualifications and Curriculum Authority for approval. On the approval of these qualifications the awarding bodies can register the candidates and award the certificates/diplomas. The government of the day and its Qualifications and Curriculum Authority (QCA) determine every aspect of the system and structure, from the selection of awarding bodies to the type of qualification. This means, in practice, the move to a continental style training model would be impossible given that the QCA has a legal stranglehold over vocational qualifications with implications for funding and recognition. The system in Germany, Austria and Switzerland operates between the *länder* that is a regional government, local chambers of commerce and educational institutions, for the setting up of curriculum content, allocating funds and control of standards through the final examinations. In the UK, the funding regime and the inspection departments are very powerful autonomous bodies, but can only fund and inspect the qualifications formally approved by the Qualifications Curriculum Authority. Unfortunately, if these qualifications are not registered by QCA then they cannot be funded and the colleges are not in a position to offer them. This indicates the power of the QCA to restrain the delivery of certain qualifications in the colleges and industry.

There is a need for delegating powers to professional bodies in conjunction with the awarding bodies to set up their own courses and examinations, along the lines, as Smithers (2002) suggests, of what the accountancy profession now does; setting out in the first instance to register and approve those properly qualified who could be recommended to the public. A system of clear responsibility for courses and qualifications under an independent professional body would replace the present confusing arrangements, where different groups are involved at different stages for providing, setting, funding, supervising, consulting, or examining the course, under the umbrella of the QCA. Such a change would give fresh impetus and encourage the employers, through their professional bodies, to take a pivotal role.

The next stage of control is that of the Learning and Skills Council which funds the delivery of these qualifications approved by the Qualifications and Curriculum Authority. The quality grading of further education in teaching and learning standards of achievement, attainment and motivation of students is determined by assessors and inspectors appointed by the quality branch of Learning and Skills Council, which also provides funding. This extended bureaucratic structure does not exist in France, Germany and Switzerland. The vocational education and training structure is devolved and firmly based and controlled at the regional level, with powers given to the local chambers of commerce.

In the United Kingdom unfortunately, the NVQ system of vocational education and training has failed to deliver a consistent and reliable quality end product. The whole concept of NVQ is time consuming, expensive in terms of appointing internal verifiers and has resulted in a very bureaucratic assessment system. This competency based assessment needs to be modified. There are too many doubts about the reliability and rigour of the awards, and even the clumsy attempts to introduce some comparability through internal and external verification has only had a 'limited impact'. It would be more reliable if all qualifications are gained entirely by nationally set written examinations and practical tests, with a grading system pass, credit and distinction in both the areas, and an overall grade for the qualification to indicate the level of competency achieved by the individual candidate. This would alleviate the present

problems of inconsistencies in students' performance with the same grade of award, that is a pass with no differentiation for the highly competent candidates.

The proposed model would bring this country's vocational education and training system in line with the successful models elsewhere, where written examinations, backed up by additional oral and practical examinations, test candidates on the same body of essential information objectively. Such a reform would help restore the status of professional vocational qualifications by improving the clarity, reliability, objectivity and 'marketability' of vocational courses. The deficiencies of vocational courses must be made good with a change in the direction of official thinking. It is already proposed above, that the new independent professional body should be entrusted with the responsibility for ensuring that the syllabuses are devised and examinations set to the right specification.

There should be determined steps to restore respect for common national qualifications and to encourage recruitment and retention on the courses leading on to at least Level 3. The country should move to an openly meritocratic system where able candidates, having mastered the main craft qualification, can go further and qualify with more training, to master or *meister* level which would be equivalent to Level 4.

In the United Kingdom, the government is moving towards the 'Parity of Esteem' between the academic and vocational qualifications in direct response to the Government White Paper, "Education and Training for the 21st Century", published in May, 1991. Vocational education and training has been damaged by the attempt to merge it with academic (or 'general') education, as institutions are confused with the structure and organisation of vocational education with the academic stream. Such a situation does not exist in Europe, as there are clear routes established for young people at 14 years of age to follow either a vocational or academic route, without stigma attached to their choice. This issue has also been discussed at length in Chapter 4 on Qualifications structure.

The present pursuit of uniformity should be abandoned and vocational, academic and technical education organised from the age of 14, along three distinct pathways. Unfortunately, the introduction of GNVQs in the 1993 initiative towards 'Parity of Esteem' has resulted in the reduction of the number of students participating in vocational education and training. Furthermore, the aims of GNVQ overtly emphasised that candidates need to only appreciate the vocational skills rather than be able to do it proficiently which further diluted the curriculum content of vocational education related to Hospitality and Catering. In the United Kingdom, the majority of young people joining vocational training are 16 years of age. They have a very low level of basic skills as compared with other European countries such as Germany and Switzerland where young people will leave school with much higher level of literacy and numeracy skills.

Brennan (2003) states that: *"Skills contribute to personal aspiration, business competitiveness and national prosperity. So we are right to worry about the picture presented by the recent OECD study 'Education at a Glance'... Britain has dropped down the international league tables for level 2 achievement over the last two decades. French and German workers are twice as likely to have achieved intermediate skills as their British counterparts"*.

There are other studies which show the knock-on effect such as, the fact that UK productivity, as measured by output per worker, lags behind other industrialised nations; American workers produce 36% more than their British counterparts, while the gap with French workers is 21% (DfEE, 2000d, p.25).

There are some useful lessons to be learnt from the International Comparison, especially regarding the structural changes needed in the process of power delegation in the arena of vocational education and training. The industry needs to be much more involved through the professional bodies, from the early stages of identifying the curriculum content, the curriculum delivery, funding, controlling quality to the final certification of qualifications.

The quality of vocational skills in the United Kingdom is not ranked very high in the International League Table produced by the World Skill Olympics. In the hospitality and catering sector the best performance is displayed by Switzerland, Germany and Austria. The final research question has examined the quality aspect of the present Hospitality and Catering curriculum to make recommendations for improvements which can be made to demonstrate excellence in vocational skills. The outcome of this research question is discussed in the next section.

QUALITY OF VOCATIONAL EDUCATION AND TRAINING

The final research question has examined the Hospitality and Catering curriculum from the quality point of view so that the changes can be made in the curriculum to demonstrate excellence in vocational skills. The quasi-experimental research has concluded that the structure of training provision in the Hospitality and Catering Industry does not provide sufficient opportunities to young learners to demonstrate their excellence. The system also leaves serious gaps in ensuring a well qualified workforce. Furthermore, the Hospitality and Catering Industry is not a first career choice amongst the school pupils, parents and career advisers, so the quality of many students joining these courses is of low capability. In addition, the reluctance of some of the employers to fully support the trainees in achieving qualifications is another challenge. The cumulative effect of these factors collude to depress both the quantity and quality of the workforce at a time when the industry is burgeoning; its contribution to GDP is high and could be significantly higher. One aspect that has not yet been discussed is the possibility of raising the quality of provision, so that there is the possibility of competing internationally, in terms of excellence, and achieving fairly high positioning in the league tables produced bi-annually by the World Skill Olympics.

This project identified the elements which have raised the standards of the students' vocational and personal skills levels beyond that required by their normal curriculum. These recommendations should be permanently incorporated onto their course to change the curriculum delivery for the future. It is advisable to stress that the implementation of this recommendation would require additional funding by colleges.

The strategies adopted by three colleges for the experimental group had a strong motivating influence on the students as they were very keen to take part in this project. The students took great pride in their involvement and willingly devoted additional time to their studies. The expectations of professional standards of performance resulted in very high standards of achievement. Although many students following

normal training courses may perform well anyway and achieve acceptable standards in their vocational skills, the project demonstrated that this is not sufficient, as these students are capable of achieving even better results.

All students in the experimental group gained from the enhanced curricula, including those who were not successful in the competitions. They also benefited from having regular formal assessment and detailed regular feedback on their performance. Every one responded very well to clear goals and targets set throughout their course which were continuously assessed.

The preparation for competitions requires the development of knowledge, technical skills and attributes which provide a sound preparation for life at work. Participation in competitions gave the students a heightened sense of value and an increased sense of self-worth which strongly motivated them. However, more than the participation in competitions, it is the methods used to prepare students for competitions such as additional coaching, tutorials and additional practice that motivates students. The skills which individuals must develop for competitions are important in the pursuit of excellence. The inclusion of competitions should be within the curriculum rather than being a bolt-on to the curriculum. The competitions offer an ideal opportunity for students to showcase their talents which could enhance their profile.

The achievement of excellence also requires well-developed foundation skills. The students whose foundation skills were weak found it difficult to cope with the enhanced curriculum, as it required higher expectations of them. Fortunately, an excellent standard of work was achieved by all students in the experimental group as a result of the strong commitment of the teaching staff to develop these foundation skills. They provided detailed and regular feedback to individual students on their performance, so that the weaknesses could be addressed at early stages and build on their strengths.

It was also noted that to enable the students to develop high professional standards, the teaching staff must keep themselves abreast of the latest techniques and developments in their vocational area, in order to maintain the highest level of professional

competence. This means that staff must engage in short secondments to industry and maintain close links with professional bodies. The involvement of employers in the assessment of students, competitions and their demonstration of the best work practices enabled the students to gain an insight into the standards of performance expected by the industry.

The Curriculum delivery in the UK on a full-time NVQ Level 3 course has only 16 hours per week class contact, out of which 12 hours are practical instruction which leads to NVQ achievement. Thus, it is not surprising to see the winning of Gold Medals in the World Skill Olympics by Switzerland, Austria and Germany, especially in Restaurant Service and the Cookery category. The results of this research question challenges the present NVQ system with regard to the curriculum content and the assessment process. Hawkes (2003) argues in his article 'Passing on the Fulfilment' that there is insufficient practical instruction on vocational courses in the UK. He also cites examples of Swiss Hotel Schools' students having 32 hours of class contact per week – of which 30 hours are of practical instruction.

The Qualifications and Curriculum Authority leading the second generation review of National Vocational Qualifications states in a section of the vision statement for 2007:

'...This revitalised system will support employers, young people and adults by developing the skills of the workforce and improving international competitiveness'.

This quasi – experimental project provided the opportunity to carry out an in-depth research study into the process of the NVQ curriculum delivery to students. Unfortunately, the present NVQ system does not distinguish between the levels of performance, as it is essentially a competence based model in which a student can either 'perform' or 'not perform' a specific activity. The curriculum is very prescriptive and lecturers have to strictly adhere to the competencies and ranges defined in the portfolio. In most cases, the skills achieved by students are at the minimal level to gain the anticipated qualification. The present system does not allow any additional resources to enhance the levels of added value. In fact, it would be useful to highlight

that these solutions have been suggested as the short-term measures arising out of this specific research study. In the long term, these recommendations need to be considered, along with the conclusion of four previous research questions, to resolve the problems of skills shortages and skill gaps. There should be ample opportunities provided for youngsters to demonstrate excellence in their professional competencies.

The quality of vocational education and training is of paramount importance, if the UK is to achieve a fairly good market share of international tourism business. There are several issues being highlighted in this project which would have an impact on the quality of trained staff such as; the curriculum content, the quality of young entrants, the financial resources allocated for training and the standard of facilities. This quasi-experiment has certainly proven that the quality of trained personnel can be improved to match up with the international standards by effectively using the enhanced curriculum developed for this experiment

CONCLUSION

The initial interest to embark on this research was conceived when the survival of a hospitality and catering department came into question because of a lack of young people joining this curriculum area. Since the 1990s, in Further Education Colleges there has been a serious decline in the student numbers on Hospitality and Catering courses. These trends in declining student numbers do not match up with the increase in the manpower needs of the ever expanding hospitality industry of the twenty first century.

The conclusions have been drawn from each strand of the research questions. Although these questions were viewed from different perspectives, they are inter-related with each other towards one common answer; to resolve the problems of skills shortages and skills gaps in the hospitality industry.

It is most interesting to note the impact of NVQs which were introduced in 1989/1990 along with the change in qualification titles incorporating the word 'hospitality'. There is substantial evidence in Chapter 4 that the number of candidates certified have declined in many of the skill areas especially the chef's profession. This could be due to many reasons, but from the perception survey it was deduced that young pupils, parents and career advisers do not really understand the concept of hospitality. There is a serious doubt in promoting these qualifications when young pupils and their career advisers do not have a clear understanding of the word 'hospitality'.

There has been a similar impact in schools where the total number of young pupils taking GCSE in Hospitality and Catering fell drastically when GNVQs in Hospitality and Catering were introduced during the session 1992/1993. It is not surprising to observe the fall in schools' student numbers in hospitality and catering as school pupils had the choice of 14 different sectors from which to choose. Unfortunately, Hospitality and Catering was not the most favourable choice amongst them. The other

significant impact of NVQ came on the General Catering Qualification which offered the Introductory/Foundation Course to young pupils. As NVQs are job specific the academics saw the demise of this excellent diagnostic course in 1992/1993. The parents' perception confirmed that they would prefer their children to pursue a career in a profession which has formal qualifications. It is obvious that NVQs are too job specific and narrow in their approach. NVQs lack status from the parents point of view and they do not consider these as formal qualifications to recommend them to their children. The other concern relates to the curriculum delivery, as the NVQ system is an assessment model and not a teaching model. The conclusion of the first research question relating to the courses and qualifications structure has highlighted the issues with the drastic decline in the number of student registrations on some courses, especially since the introduction of NVQ courses such as chef's, bakery, reception and housekeeping courses.

The question needs to be addressed as to the reasons why the number of students registering on Further Education had fallen. One of the most certain reasons is the qualification structure, which needs to be reviewed and broadened. An account needs to be taken of the recommendations from research question five. The aspects of the enhanced curriculum need to be built in to the new qualifications, so that they are interesting and attractive for young people to enroll on these courses. Thus, the importance of the inter-relationship between the research question five and one cannot be over-emphasised.

The other major reason for the decline in student numbers appears to be the lack of attractiveness of hospitality courses and the industry itself as a career choice to young people. Hence, the research question two has concluded that the perception of young people, parents and career advisers is not the most favourable choice at the present moment. This has been proved from three different points of view about the low ranking of hospitality as a career choice. This should not be the case, as the hospitality industry is the fastest growing industry, employing over 1.6 million people, and offers wide career opportunities to young people.

The researcher strongly believes that once again the qualifications structure does not portray the correct messages to young people. At present, any new entrants on vocational courses are offered a very narrow choice of a specific occupational course, which is mainly a chef's course, with the additionality of maybe food and beverage service, but the hospitality industry involves many more skills than just Food and Beverage Operations. There has been minimal teaching of reception and housekeeping on full-time courses in Further Education Colleges since the conception of NVQs in 1992. Action needs to be taken to restore respect for National Vocational Qualifications amongst school pupils, parents and career advisers. The researcher's recommendation would be to launch an Introductory/ General Hospitality and Catering Qualification as a diagnostic course, involving an appreciation of all components of the industry, and with the opportunities of progression to Higher Education Courses. It is understood that the hospitality industry would have to play its role in improving the perception and image amongst the young people so that the brightest of recruits are attracted to take up employment.

The actions proposed from the outcome of research question two are interlinked with the research question three which deals with the perception of industry's role in the delivery of vocational education and training. Originally, NVQs were meant to be delivered only in the workplace, so that the assessment of technical skills can be carried out whilst trainees are on-the-job training, but the hospitality and catering industry cannot be described as a success story in the delivery of NVQs in the workplace, as the overall attainments rate during the session 2003/2004 was only 38%. This is the lowest of all industries.

Many of the employers do not have a structured training programme that provides a career progression for young people. Once again, from the parent's perception survey, it is evident that they would only recommend those occupational careers to their children where formal training opportunities exist. This indicated another reason for the lack of attraction amongst parents to influence their children to join the hospitality and catering industry.

The proposed enhanced curriculum model to deliver 'Competence with Excellence' recommended by the final research question would require substantial changes in the government funding methodology to achieve its objectives. Some of the financial issues were also observed from the employers' survey to fully support the work-based trainees and work-based supervisors. Trainees need a lot more assistance and guidance in achieving NVQ certifications. This leads on to the arguments for more training of supervisors in industry as work-based assessors, and allowing them time at work to assess the trainees.

There could be an inherent problem in the hospitality and catering industry as the large proportion of establishments are SMEs. The employers in these establishments might have a genuine issue in allocating sufficient funds for training. In addition, there are establishments which tend to be seasonal in nature and they have an issue of staff retention over the quiet periods, but it can be argued that the raising of the skills level would improve productivity which should result in increased profit to the employers. Thus, investing in training should be actively pursued by the employers at all levels. This is a vicious circle, and somehow it needs to be turned around to be a virtuous circle. Maybe a period of funding for the setting up of an hotel school would raise the skills levels of new entrants. Hopefully, if the needs of employers are adequately met then the more prosperous employers might invest in the training of staff now for later.

The hospitality industry and the educational institutions need to work in partnership to expose the true image of industry to young people, parents, career advisers and teachers so that they are fully aware of the positive features of this industry. It is not a Cinderella industry, as there are real job opportunities leading on to brilliant careers. The survey of the parents' perception also revealed that even the parents with experience in the hospitality industry were not recommending hospitality careers for their children which is a great concern.

In order to address the human resource issues, a Human Resource Recruitment, Education and Training Strategy is proposed highlighting the key objectives, this is presented in Appendix I. A key feature of this strategy is to attract young people to

follow-up a study programme that will lead to a career opportunity in the hospitality industry.

The success of this strategy is very much dependent on co-operation between the industry and academic staff. The strategy produced has to be negotiated with the champions from the hospitality industry in order to have their full support and commitment. This is one of the major limitations to the success of the proposed strategy. There are other limitations as well such as

1. The hospitality industry has around 75% of the total establishments which are Small Medium-Sized Establishments, geographically widespread throughout the United Kingdom. This creates additional challenges to have a single voice.
2. A major contribution to the financial investment for the planning, development and implementation of this strategy has to be pledged by the large employers.
3. The generic educational delivery models in operation are rigid and at times make it very difficult to meet the needs of the hospitality industry.
4. The curriculum content of courses does not quite meet the needs of all sectors of the hospitality industry.
5. The professional standards to be achieved by learners are not rigorously defined and administered by the hospitality industry. There is an evidence of inconsistencies across the institutions as to what constitutes a 'Hospitality Professional'.

The researcher believes that the development and launch of an Introductory/ Diagnostic Course in Hospitality and Catering has to be the most important step in overcoming many of the issues related to the skills shortages and the skills gaps. The great change could be implemented through the rationalization of qualifications. It is absolutely essential to offer this course to young entrants to expose them to the full spectrum of occupational skills involved in the industry. There is ample evidence in Chapter 4, highlighting the demise of the respectable National Diploma qualification by the introduction of GNVQs in 1993/1994, Curriculum 2000 followed by AVCEs in 2001/2002. The total number of certified students fell from 3,279 in 1986/1987 to 512 students in 2002/2003. This trend is further supported by the HCIMA Professional Qualification at a certificate level, as the total number of awards made fell from 621 in 1991/1992, to 109 in 2001/2002. This professional qualification has equivalent credits to the National Diploma qualification at Level 3. The low number of successful students on this course had a serious impact on the qualified supervisory management staff in the industry and also lack of students progressing to be managers, as fewer and fewer students are in a position to follow the higher education programmes. The fall in numbers has been in direct proportion to the expansion of the hospitality industry during the same period.

This research is only a snapshot of the vocational education and training system in the hospitality industry and if the work is repeated, even in the near future, a different interpretation would result as the government policy is constantly changing. It can be seen from The Tomlinson Report, October 2004, where Michael Tomlinson issued his proposals for the 14 – 19 curriculum with a central recommendation to introduce a Diploma including vocational and academic course and the discontinuation of GCSE and A levels. The Government White Paper: 14 – 19 Education and Skills published on 23rd February 2005 by the Department for Education and Skills rejected Tomlinson's proposals on the grounds of the failure to raise the status of vocational qualifications and the narrowness of the proposed new diplomas. The Government decided to continue with GCSE and A Level qualifications and also to offer new Diplomas in 14 vocational specialisms in Schools and Colleges. The first five to be introduced in

September 2008 are ICT, Engineering, Health & Social Care, Creative & Media and Construction and The Built Environment. These new vocational Diplomas will be offered at three different levels which could be similar to the initiative such as, GNVQs at Foundation, Intermediate and Advanced level. In fact, there are already new qualifications being introduced in hospitality and catering to replace GNVQs because of the low recruitment and attainment rate. These qualifications are:-

- BTEC - Introductory Diploma in Vocational Studies – Hospitality, Travel and Tourism (Level 1)
- BTEC - First Diploma in Hospitality (Level 2)
- BTEC - National Diploma in Hospitality Supervision (Level 3)

The researcher believes that these new BTEC qualifications should have a positive impact on student recruitment. Unfortunately, it is too early to draw any conclusions as even the full range of these qualifications has not been fully launched and tested yet. However, the researcher's concern is that the vocational qualifications will change again, making it the fifth suite of qualifications during the past fifteen years.

It has been important throughout this work to recognise the boundaries of the research being undertaken. There have been frequent instances of further opportunities for extended study which are related to the concept of vocational education and training in the hospitality industry. These are summarised at the end of this chapter. The comparative study of vocational education and training is, in fact, an on-going process.

CRITIQUE OF THE RESEARCH APPROACH

First of all, reflecting on the educational topic selected, the researcher feels very strongly that it has been the ideal research arena. The issues explored are of much more concern now than what they were at the commencement of this research study. In fact, examining the new educational policies being implemented indicate that they are not really addressing the solutions to the concerns which have been raised in this thesis.

The first step in this research was to carry out the historical literature research in order to study the trends over the last four decades. This involved analysing the secondary statistical data which was mainly gathered from the Awarding Bodies and Qualifications Curriculum Authority. The researcher's conclusion in this Chapter is very much dependent on the accuracy of the primary statistical data generated and published by the above bodies. The comparative study of the hospitality and catering curriculum provision with the hairdressing and beauty therapy has highlighted that there is not a single solution to the challenges of vocational education and training across the various sectors *in the United Kingdom*.

The second area studied was the perception and image of the hospitality industry. There were appropriate questionnaires designed to gather the views of school pupils, their parents and career advisers. On reflection, the researcher would have preferred to organise the focus groups of respondents. This is to personally interview a sample from each group, that is, pupils, parents and career advisers with a view to obtain direct feedback rather than just relying on the responses from their completed questionnaires.

The other concern is regarding the selection of schools' samples. The researcher was constrained by the limitation of financial resources so that the bigger sample of schools and the wider geographical locations could be covered in this research. However, the conclusions from this study do match up the trends indicated by the actual enrolment on hospitality and catering courses across the country.

The third inquiry into the perception of the industry's role in the delivery of vocational education and training did employ the research techniques of interviewing and postal questionnaires. The interviewing of work-based trainees and work-based supervisors did provide the researcher with an opportunity to collect information firsthand without the interference of a third party. Though, this process took a lot of the researcher's time including the review of NVQ portfolios and travelling time to the catering establishments.

The postal questionnaires were easy to administer but the response rate could have been better. The other issue in collating the responses from these questionnaires was the lack of information to some of the questions. The researcher would have preferred to spread this research over a wider geographical area but due to the lack of resources in terms of time, finance and staff restricted the implantation of this philosophy.

The fourth question lead to the comparative study of vocational education and training in the United Kingdom with six other countries. This study involved the literature review and the study of curriculum in various countries. The language fluency did cause a concern to start with, especially in Germany and Switzerland but this was eventually resolved. The researcher feels that this aspect of research has been the most valuable as it gave a good in-sight into the probable or possible solutions to some of the issues faced in the United Kingdom. The educational study visits were very time consuming and expensive but in consideration of the experience gained, these visits were value for money. Unfortunately, there is no alternative mode of obtaining this experience.

Finally, the researcher focussed on the quality of the curriculum. This involved the Literature Research, Quasi-Experimental Method and Self-Completing Questionnaires. There is limited information available on the notion of 'Competence with Excellence' especially in relation to the educational aspects. The researcher did attempt to study some of the literature on excellence in regards to the sports training. In fact, there are valuable lessons to be learnt from the sports arena.

The second component of this study entailed the Quasi-Experimental Method which necessitated additional staff to monitor the experiment and the selection of participants for the Experimental Group and the Control Group. This aspect of research has been the most challenging from the point of view of obtaining valid and reliable conclusions as one is observing the human behaviour.

The other concern has been that it is self evident that the additional teaching and learning would improve the results anyway. But in this study, the challenge was to equip the participants with the necessary knowledge, psycho-motor and social skills to achieve. 'Competence with Excellence'. This meant that the participants in the Experimental Group had not only performed better than the Control Group but also engaged in the Local, Regional, National, European and International Competitions achieving excellence and winning awards.

The conclusion of this aspect of the research study was evaluated by the use of self-completing questionnaires which were distributed at the beginning and at the end to the participants in the Experimental Group. This assisted the researcher in measuring the distance travelled by each participant.

There are, of course, some areas for improvement in the selection, application and measurement of research techniques in this study. These areas have been well recognised by reflecting constructively on the research methodology adopted throughout the study. But the researcher is overall very confident and satisfied with the final results.

FURTHER AREAS OF STUDY

In pursuing this research various opportunities arose for further in-depth studies including issues relating to aspects of vocational education and training in the hospitality and catering industry which go beyond the questions presented in Chapter 3.

The main areas requiring further study are:

Impact of National Vocational Qualifications on the Craft Skills Development: This could be a useful study to assess the skill levels achieved by individuals and how they meet the professional needs of the hospitality and catering industry.

Comparative Study of National Vocational Qualifications being Delivered to Full-Time Students in Further Education College with exclusive Work Based Trainees such as Foundation Modern Apprentices and Advanced Modern Apprentices: This could measure the level of under pinning knowledge, the quality of skill levels, personal attributes and employability skills.

The Role of Hospitality Industry in Attracting Bright Recruits: An investigation into the reasons for the lack of interest by young people to make this industry a first choice career. The focus should also be on the perception held by parents and careers advisers.

The Study of Hospitality Careers in British culture: The research into the cultural issues embedded in young people, parents', teachers' and careers advisers' minds about the service nature of the hospitality industry.

Tackling the Skills Shortages in the Hospitality and Catering Industry: Examine the curriculum to give qualifications academic credibility, and the role to be played by the hospitality industry in enhancing its image.

Comparing the Role of Employers in Vocational Training for the Hospitality Industry with European Countries: A comparative study to focus

on Germany, Switzerland, Austria and Denmark to reflect on the involvement of employers in curriculum development, provision of learning opportunities and the assessment process.

Political Influence in the Delivery of Vocational Curriculum: The impact of government policies on the vocational education delivery, such as Vocational GCSE's, Vocational 'A' levels and blurring of differences between education and training.

Competence with Excellence in the Hospitality and Catering Industry: This aspect has been partly researched, but an in-depth study would be useful to assess the enhancement of vocational skills by further developing the softer skills in an individual, which would lead to higher employability skills to meet the global competitiveness.

It has been a challenge to draw limits on the current research being carried out and to keep a focus on the research questions being raised in this inquiry; Vocational Education and Training in the Hospitality and Catering Industry. During the research many other avenues of inquiry came to light which would benefit from exclusive research and some of these topics have been highlighted above.

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- **Higher Education Statistics Agency.**

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

ALBSU	Adult Literacy and Basic Skills Unit
AMA	Advanced Modern Apprenticeship
AVCE	Advanced Vocational Certificate of Education
BEC	Business Education Council
BHA	British Hospitality Association
BII	British Institute of Innkeeping
BSA	Basic Skills Agency
BTEC	Business and Technology Education Council
CBI	Confederation of British Industry
CGLI	City and Guilds of London Institute
CNAA	Council of National Academic Awards
COVE	Centre of Vocational Excellence
CPD	Continuous Professional Development
CPRSTT	Central Policy Review Staff Think Tank
CTC	Central Training Council
DES	Department of Education and Science
DfEE	Department for Education and Employment
DFES	Department for Education and Skills
DOE	Department of Employment
DTI	Department of Trade and Industry
ETPM	Education and Training Parliamentary Monitor
FD	Foundation Degree
FE	Further Education
FEDA	Further Education Development Agency

FEFC	Further Education Funding Council
FEU	Further Education Unit
FMA	Foundation Modern Apprenticeship
GCSE	General Certificate of Secondary Education
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
GNVQ	General National Vocational Qualification
GVA	Gross Value Added
HAB	Hospitality Awarding Body
HBI	Hairdressing and Beauty Industry
HCI	Hotel and Catering Industry
HCIMA	Hotel, Catering and International Management Association
HCITB	Hotel and Catering Industry Training Board
HCTC	Hotel and Catering Training Company
HND	Higher National Diploma
HTF	Hospitality Training Foundation
JHIC	Joint Hospitality Industry Congress
LSC	Learning and Skills Council
LSDA	Learning and Skills Development Agency
MSC	Manpower Services Commission
NACETT	National Advisory Council for Education and Training Targets
NCVQ	National Council for Vocational Qualifications
NEDO	National Economic Development Office
NT	National Traineeship
NTI	New Training Initiative
NTO	National Training Organisation

NVQ	National Vocational Qualification
OECD	Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development
PFI	Private Finance Initiative
PIU	Performance and Innovation Unit
QCA	Qualifications and Curriculum Authority
QPID	Quality and Performance Improvement and Dissemination
RSA	Royal Society for the Promotion of the Arts
RWE	Realistic Working Environment
SCAA	Schools Curriculum and Assessment Authority
SME	Small Medium – Sized Establishment
SSC	Sector Skills Council
SSDA	Sector Skills Development Agency
STEP	Special Temporary Employment Programme
TEC	Training and Enterprise Council
TES	Times Educational Supplement
TSC	Training Standards Council
TVEI	Training and Vocational Education Initiative
UFI	University for Industry
UVP	Unified Vocational Programme
VGCSE	Vocational General Certificate in Secondary Education
VET	Vocational Education and Training
WSET	Wines and Spirits Education Trust
WTO	World Tourism Organisation
YOP	Youth Opportunity Programme
YTS	Youth Training Scheme

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