

**THE CURRICULUM IN TOURISM AND ITS
IMPLEMENTATION IN HIGH SCHOOLS IN ISRAEL AS SEEN
BY TEACHERS AND STUDENTS**

**A thesis submitted in accordance with the requirements of the
University of Liverpool for the degree of Doctor in Philosophy by**

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March 2001

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ABSTRACT

This thesis presents an evaluation of the tourism curriculum in high schools in Israel. The main aims of the study are to examine the attitudes of students in the tourism track towards their studies; to examine teachers' assessment of students' attitudes towards the learning methods and skill characteristics of tourism studies; to examine teachers' attitudes towards selected learning materials recommended by the Ministry of Education; and to analyse these learning materials in relation to curricular variables of Eden's (1985) evaluative tool.

The study was suggested, in part, by the processes of accelerated growth in the extent of tourism in the world, including Israel. As a result of this growth, the importance of the tourism industry to each country's economy and society has become more evident. Education and training for tourism were found by researchers to be among the most important factors for the success of tourism, because of the industry's personnel-intensive nature and because of factors such as the great importance of the quality of service and of high professional levels of the employees. Although researchers note that tourism education and training should begin in school, little has been written about tourism in schools, and in Israel, no research whatsoever has been found on the subject even though the tourism curriculum has been in effect since the 1980s.

The methodology selected combines the positivistic-quantitative approach utilising questionnaires for students and teachers with the naturalistic-qualitative approach of guided or focussed interviews with teachers, and content analysis using Eden's (1985) evaluative tool.

The study's major findings are that students express positive attitudes towards their studies in the tourism track. They like the subject, which is attractive to them because of the interest they find in it; it achieves most of its aims, and contributes to them both in terms of an academic basis (matriculation certificate) and a vocational basis (professional certification diploma). The teachers assess their students' attitudes as positive, but it was found that the teachers have an exaggerated positive assessment of these attitudes. It thus appears that teachers tend towards exaggeration and idealisation in their evaluation. Among the elements characterising the learning materials in the tourism curriculum a number of problems were found, such as irrelevance of material, lack of didactic aids and insufficient encouragement to learn at levels of synthesis and evaluation.

Among the implications arising from the study, it appears that the positive attitudes of the students towards their studies in the tourism track indicate great potential for the development of tourism in high schools and expansion of the number of students enrolled in the track. It appears that teachers should be more aware of their tendency to idealise the students' attitudes so that they can achieve a more authentic and reliable evaluation and thus try to improve the teaching-learning processes in class.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

First, I would like to express my deepest thanks to my supervisors, Dr. Sylvia Harrop and Dr. Shlomo Zidkiyahu, for their constant support, guidance and friendship.

I would like to extend my thanks to Dr. Anne Qualter for her advice and assistance in preparing this thesis.

I would also like to thank the teaching staff and students of the 1998 graduating class in the tourism track in high schools in Israel for their helpful and willing co-operation, and for making it possible for me to learn about their studies and their work.

Special thanks go to my parents, Bat-sheva and Moshe, for their love and their support - both practical and moral. Without the support, encouragement, faith and confidence that I received from my father, this thesis would never have been completed.

Finally, I want to express my deep love and thanks to my wife Amily and to my two daughters, Aviv and Carmel. I find it impossible to express my boundless appreciation for everything they have done for me.

DECLARATION

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

Signed:

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INTRODUCTION

The contribution of tourism to the development of a state can be measured by many parameters, among them increased revenues, gross national product and the number of work places and expansion of the general infrastructure. The World Travel and Tourism Council (WTTC) has declared its commitment to the world-wide expansion of tourism, identifying tourism as “the largest industry in the world” and predicting that it will continue to grow at an accelerated pace (WTTC, 1996). Forecasts of the movement of tourists reflect its growth from about 625.2 million tourist entries in 1998 (Travel & Tourism Intelligence, 1999, p. 3) to an estimated 937 million entries in 2010 (World Tourism Organization, 1993, p. 17). These processes are amply evident in Israel, where tourism entries grew at an accelerated rate from 1.3 million in 1990 to about 2.5 million entries in 1995, with forecasts estimating 5 million tourist entries in 2006 (Ministry of Tourism, State of Israel, 1995, p. 2). These predictions of increased numbers of tourists both on a global and local basis in the foreseeable future should certainly influence the formulation of tourism policy to ensure success.

A successful tourism policy encompasses many elements associated with economic, social and environment development. Among these elements, researchers point to the tremendous importance of education and training for tourism, since the quality of the tourism industry is determined to a great extent by the quality of the service provided which, in turn, is a function of professional levels and of standards of skills (Kuslivan & Kuslivan, 2000, p. 251). Researchers emphasise the role of education and training for tourism in raising these levels and standards and in forming a strategy of tourism development (Jafari & Ritchie, 1981; Hawkins & Hunt, 1988; Cooper, 1991; Go, 1991; Marland & Store, 1991; Singh, 1997). The fact that tourism

is developing as an interdisciplinary profession (Jafari & Ritchie, 1981; Gunn, 1987, 1991; Tribe, 1997) creates many options and directions in education and in training for tourism, with all the academic, professional and education ramifications this entails. Moreover, education for tourism represents one means of countering the potentially negative effects that may result from over-development of tourism in relation to what the social and environmental infrastructure can bear (Singh, 1997).

Education for tourism includes a broad range of subjects, reflecting the interdisciplinary nature of tourism (Go, 1991). These subjects include leisure studies, travel, means of transportation, tourism management and marketing, tourism and the environment, urban tourism and rural tourism. Such subjects are taught in schools, colleges and universities in countries around the world. Training for tourism includes professional certificate-granting courses and preparation for taking one's place in actual work in the branch, and it is offered together with or parallel to studies in academic institutions or in training institutions organised by the industry or the state. Types of training in tourism vary greatly, encompassing vocations such as travel agents, tour operators, hotel management and hotel culinary arts. In practice, it is difficult to separate education and training, because in tourism they are interdependent and integrated academically in vocational training institutions.

Hayes and Abernathy (1980) were the first to make a connection between America's difficulty in competing in the tourist market and a short-sighted view of education and training for tourism. Marland and Store (1991) contended that despite tourism's considerable contribution to fulfilling social, political and economic objectives in recent years, it had gained little headway in penetrating the most conservative of social structures, the school. More and more authorities began to

realise that the competitive approach to the tourism branch originates in the classroom (Go, 1991, p. 1).

A review of the literature on tourism in schools reveals a limited discussion of the place of tourism studies in the curriculum. This absence is probably attributable to the late development of tourism as a university discipline. Systematic discussions of tourism can be found mainly since the 1980s, and they generally disagree on how to implement tourism in the school curriculum. This lack of agreement is reflected in actual attempts to teach tourism in schools (Marlands & Store, 1991).

In the 1970s, tourism courses first appeared in university curricula in Western Europe. A review of the curricula reveals a strong academic influence with much less concern for the needs of the industry. The result was that this training did not always meet the needs of the tourism industry (Lawson, 1974; Christie-Mill, 1979).

Jafari and Ritchie's (1981) scholarly review of the rapidly expanding field of tourism education shifted the focus from the pragmatic to the academic level. The main objectives of the review were: 1. To place tourism in a broader context and identify major concerns of tourism education; 2. To examine alternative disciplinary approaches to the study of tourism; and 3. To focus on a number of critical issues in tourism education. Among their findings was the discovery that tourism studies had been initiated for many years mainly by educators, who were little concerned with the pragmatic matter of finding work places for students in the branch. By expanding the scope of tourism, and implicitly of tourism education, Jafari and Ritchie opened the tourism education field to further enquiry and research. They placed greater emphasis on research and development in tourism, particularly for the 1980s, a decade characterised by significant changes in terms of technological advancement, consumer behaviour and competitive conduct.

Airey and Johnson (1999, p. 229) found that in the UK, after almost 30 years of tourism degree courses, the courses were oriented in the main towards vocational and business aspects. They also found common areas of knowledge in most of them and a broad range of opinions about the need for a common core body of knowledge.

In the 1990s, Israel experienced a growth in tourism traffic and, as part of the national endeavour to prepare it for continued tourism growth, a parallel emphasis on developing tourism education and training of all types and in all academic, vocational and school settings (Ministry of Tourism, 1994c; 1995c). Tourism in Israel is deep-rooted, with strong antecedents in the Middle Ages, when the Land of Israel was a preferred destination for pilgrimage and tourism (Yaari, 1976; Prever, 1986; Gelbman, 1996a). The growth in tourism since Israel was established as a state in 1948 has revived traditions of days long past.

Israel's main attraction is its identification as the land of the Bible, the place where the monotheistic religions of Western culture evolved and where impressive and easily visible remnants of the past can bring the heritage alive. The city of Jerusalem is a magnet, occupying a uniquely holy status in the Western world. The Christian world draws its sources from the Holy Land: Christianity, Jerusalem, the land of the annunciation. The landscapes of Israel – the Galilee, the Dead Sea and the Judean Desert – have great attraction as places where Old and New Testament events occurred. Israel's tourist potential lies not only in its cultural heritage and all assets that reflect this heritage, but also in a rare combination of qualities. The sundry cultures that inhabited this land and subsequently formed the cultural sources of the West, its historical heritage, nature and landscape and a temperate climate all combine with modern infrastructure systems, easy access and high-quality services to create

Israel's special advantage (Feitelson, Kaplan & Marinov, 1995; Goldenberg, Kaplan et al., 1996).

Tourism to Israel has experienced many ups and downs over the years, mainly as the result of geopolitical developments in the region. Tourism is affected to a great extent by security problems (Mansfeld, 1996). The significant rise in the number of tourists entering Israel in the 1990s is to a great extent a result of the peace process evolving between Israel and its neighbours, a process that grants the country an historic opportunity to realise its tremendous touristic potential.

In addition to the accelerated growth in incoming tourism in the 1990s, internal tourism in Israel – especially for recreation and leisure activities – has expanded enormously since the 1970s. A number of factors explain this growth: a continual rise in standard of living, increased mobility and the desire of urban families to get out of the city (Sheffer, Amir, Frankel & Lu Yan, 1992).

As noted, tourism education as a national mission has gained considerable attention. In the 1990s, as the tourism branch in Israel changed, expanded and developed, courses in tourism appeared in universities and college catalogues for the first time as minors within other study programmes, such as geography, Land of Israel studies and management (see Appendix 3). Similarly, the variety and quantity of courses for professional training in tourism increased tremendously, at the initiative of various public, private or industrial institutions. The new courses were in stark contrast to vocational courses offered in the past, mainly by the Ministry of Labour or Tourism. The new courses were adapted to the changing needs of the branch, dealing with areas such as hotel marketing, hospitality and rural tourism (Ministry of Tourism, 1995a). The new atmosphere began to affect the schools as well.

Tourism education in Israeli schools began in the early 1980s as part of vocational training in high schools (specialisation as travel agents or reception clerks in hotels), combined with academic studies, mainly compulsory matriculation subjects (such as Mathematics, English, Literature). But the tourism track took root in very few schools (only 15 in the whole country). The big awakening that began in the early 1990s was actually triggered by the reform of the vocational education system instituted by the Ministry of Education, which turned vocational education into “technological education”. Curricula were revamped to reflect those in academic high schools, with the addition of subjects taught for vocational training and for certification (Yunai, 1992). The reform raised the prestige of technological education, among them tourism. Since the middle 1990s, demand has been growing to open more tourism tracks in high schools. This, too, may be the result of growing interest in the subject in universities, colleges and professional training institutions. In 1998 tourism was taught in 42 high schools in Israel (see Appendix 3). Of the supreme goals formulated by the Ministry of Education for the tourism track, the following are of note: increasing youngsters’ awareness of the importance of the tourism industry, providing a scholastic, academic basis for students in interdisciplinary subjects, nurturing students imbued with technological skills suited to the tourism branch, and the possibility of joining the tourism industry more easily (Ministry of Education, 1997, pp. 1-2). These and other goals are well suited both to the industry’s national needs, as noted earlier, and to the need for tourism education and training as recommended by researchers – in the schools (Jafari & Ritchie, 1981; Hawkins & Hunt, 1988; Cooper, 1991; Go, 1991; Marland & Store, 1991; Singh, 1997).

In Israel, high school education is under state control. Curricula are set by the Ministry of Education and students are tested in uniform national Matriculation

Exams (Dror & Liberman, 1997). Curriculum research has developed in the world since the 1950s (Lewy, 1977; Guri-Rosenblitt, 1996), a trend that began in the United States and Britain, and a few years later spread to many other places in the world. Israel was one of the leading countries in this field. When the Ministry of Education and Culture established the Curriculum Centre in 1966, several curricular projects had already been operative within the universities (Guri-Rosenblitt, 1996, p. 16).

Curriculum in educational terms means planning a series of studies and the progress of the students at various levels and in various frameworks. Curriculum can be defined in many ways. In its narrowest meaning, it is perceived as an outline presenting aims, principles and study subjects of a given subject or course (synonymous with "syllabus"). Others interpret curriculum as including learning materials such as textbooks, workbooks, work pages and guides for the teacher and student, auxiliary aids and illustrative materials (Guri-Rosenblitt, 1996, p. 11). Curriculum development raised the need for and interest in widespread research that would evaluate the curricula, to provide feedback, investigate and examine achievements and recommend improvements. In recent decades the area of curriculum evaluation has earned the status of an independent field within the education sciences (Lewy, 1977, pp. 4-5).

It is interesting to note that despite studies and evaluation of curricula in other subjects in Israel such as Biology (Tamir & Zur, 1977; Sabar Ben-Yehoshua, 1982), History (Shavit, 1976; Adar & Fuchs, 1978), Geography (Bar-Gal, 1993) and Bible (Padua, 1986), to date no such study has been conducted of the high school tourism curriculum. Tourism differs from other high school subjects, which are usually based on clearly defined academic disciplines from the natural or social sciences or the humanities. Tourism combines academic studies with vocational-technological

training within a multidisciplinary framework (Go, 1991). A number of factors operating individually and together have given rise to a need to evaluate the tourism curriculum. These factors include the growing national and global importance of tourism education and training, its uniqueness in encouraging students to develop a wide variety of skills and talents, and Ministry of Education and Culture efforts to develop learning materials and curricula for the subject.

This thesis represents the first study of Israel's high school tourism curriculum, and can also be viewed as a world-wide case study of tourism curricula in high school. The study can be understood in light of researchers' recommendations that tourism education and training become less national and more global, since globalisation of economic activities requires the formation of uniform standards of management and service in the tourism branch. Furthermore, they say, this process should begin in school (Cooper, 1991; Go, 1991; Singh, 1997).

Go (1991, p. 9) emphasises the fact that the authorities are becoming increasingly cognisant that the way to deal with the great competitiveness in the tourism branch begins in the classroom. Hayes and Abernathy (1980) were among the first to find a correlation between problems of competition in the American tourism branch and a short-sighted approach to tourism education. Marland and Store (1991) maintained that although tourism has gained significant social, political and economic importance in recent years, it has made few inroads into the most conservative of social structures, the school.

A review of the literature on tourism in schools reveals a limited discussion of the place of tourism studies in the curriculum. This absence is probably related to how tourism has developed in universities. Only more recent sources discuss tourism systematically, and they generally disagree on how tourism should be implemented in

school curricula. This lack of agreement is reflected in the attempts to teach tourism in schools (Marland & Store, 1991).

In surveying the vocational interests of Australian high school students, Ross (1994) found a high level of interest in employment and careers in the tourism industry. In a later study, Ross (1997) examined travel agency employment perceptions and preferences among secondary college leavers and found that travel agency employment was favoured among potential tourism/hospitality industry employees, particularly among female respondents. Airey and Frontistis (1997) compared the attitudes of secondary school students towards careers in tourism in Greece and the United Kingdom. They found that UK students had a better-established career support system and a less positive attitude towards careers in tourism than their Greek counterparts, presumably because of a more realistic view of the nature of employment conditions in the tourism/hospitality industry. A similar study was conducted by Getz (1994) in Spey Valley, Scotland. This longitudinal case study surveying the attitudes of high school students found that attitudes towards a potential career in the tourism/hospitality industry became much more negative over a period of 14 years.

A study conducted by Baron and Maxwell (1993) focused on the attitudes of tourism and hospitality management students in higher education towards working in the tourism/hospitality industry. Their subjects were students in their induction week at the start of their hospitality management studies and students in the first week back at their institutions to continue with their course after a period of supervised work experience at the undergraduate level. They found opposing views of the nature of working in the industry among the two groups. Specifically, the new students held generally more positive views than the experienced students.

In a study of attitudes conducted recently by Kusluvan and Kusluvan (2000) among undergraduate fourth year tourism and hotel management students in Turkey, generally unfavourable or negative evaluations were given of different dimensions of working in the industry. Some of the factors that seemed to account for negative attitudes towards careers in tourism are stress on the job, lack of family life because of the nature of the work, long working hours, exhausting and seasonable (that is, unstable) jobs, low social status of tourism jobs, unsatisfactory and unfair promotions, low pay and insufficient benefits, unqualified managers, poor attitudes and behaviour of managers towards employees, unqualified co-workers and poor attitudes and behaviour among co-workers, and poor physical working conditions for employees.

To date, various publications on tourism education have been written primarily from the educators' point of view, including the structure and content matter required for the subject. Such an approach ignores mainly problems related to the balance of influences between the academic discipline side of tourism studies and the industrial and vocational training aspect of the studies, with an emphasis on the suitability of the curriculum to actual practices. In Israel, no studies were found that deal with the viewpoints of students and the teachers in terms of their attitudes towards the curriculum and towards how it is implemented. Furthermore, no studies were found that analyse the learning materials used in tourism studies in schools. This thesis sets out to remedy this lack of research by investigating these issues.

In light of the above, this study raises the following research question: based on students' and teachers' attitudes, what is the evaluation of students and the teachers of the tourism curriculum in high schools in Israel? This problem is of great importance since it is the prelude to setting goals and questions that can lead to findings that, in essence, constitute initial feedback about tourism education and

training conducted in high schools in Israel. Such findings can be included in tourism education and training for their improvement and development.

The following aims were defined for the study:

1. To explore the attitudes of students learning in the tourism track towards their studies in the tourism track.
2. To explore the attitudes of students towards the main curricular aims as stated by the Ministry of Education and Culture.
3. To explore the attitudes of students in the tourism specialisation towards the learning methods and skills that are characteristic of the subject.
4. To explore teachers' evaluation of students' attitudes towards the learning methods and skills characteristic of tourism studies and compare this evaluation with that of the students themselves.
5. To explore the attitudes of teachers in the tourism track towards selected learning materials recommended by the Ministry of Education and Culture..
6. To analyse selected learning materials used in the tourism tracks in high schools in Israel, in relation to the curricular variables of Eden's (1985) evaluative tool.

The research aims raise the following questions:

Question one – What are the attitudes of the students in the tourism track towards their studies in tourism?

Question two – What are the attitudes of the students towards the aims of the tourism curricula as stated by the Ministry of Education and Culture?

Question three – What are the students' attitudes towards the learning methods and the skills required for learning the subject?

Question four – How do teachers evaluate the students' attitudes towards the learning methods and skills required for the subject?

Question five – What are the teachers' attitudes towards selected learning material in the tourism studies?

Question six – How are selected learning materials in the tourism track evaluated in terms of Eden's (1985) evaluative tool?

The methodology selected combines the positivistic-quantitative approach utilising questionnaires for students and teachers with the naturalistic-qualitative approach of content analysis by means of Eden's (1985) evaluative tool.

Quantitative research is deductive (from the theory to the body of appropriate data), and is intended to verify and confirm hypotheses. The analysis unit is predetermined and can be counted systematically. Analysis categories are formulated in advance according to the theory. The research is objective – setting categories, external concepts and relationships explain the analysis. The assumption is that there is a separate objective reality. The aim is to explain the findings in terms of rules and generalisations (Goetz & LeCompte, 1984).

Qualitative research is inductive (from collecting the data to the theory, anchored in daily reality), creating hypotheses and categories (it is interested in revealing structures and hypotheses, using the data as a source of knowledge). The categories for analysis are created during the study, as are the analysis units. The research is subjective – describing the culture and behaviour patterns as they are seen in the research site. The assumption is that the existing reality is subjective. The aim is to rebuild the subjective reality of those under investigation (Goetz & LeCompte, 1984).

The combined use of the two different methodologies is recommended by several researchers (Scriven, 1972; Goetz & LeCompte, 1984). This combination is usually utilised to strengthen the internal and external validity of the study (Sabar Ben-Yehoshua, 1995). According to Lawton (1978), the two approaches – quantitative and qualitative – are not far removed from one another in the study of curricula and should not be seen as two separate groups.

The questionnaires for students and teachers (see Appendices 1 and 2) were composed for this study, based on the structure of the questionnaire used by Padua (1986), together with a staff of experts in curricula headed by Professor Arie Lewy. Validation of the questionnaires was done by content analysis based on the judgement of experts, and a pilot study (pretest) involving 30 students from two different schools for the students' questionnaire and ten teachers for the teachers' questionnaire.

The study population included teachers and students in the tourism track. The students' questionnaire was distributed to all students in their final year of studies (twelfth grade) in the tourism track in high schools in Israel, a total of 420 students, of whom 279 students, 66.4 percent of the population, returned the completed forms. The teachers' questionnaire was distributed to all the teachers teaching tourism track subjects in high schools in Israel, a total of 55 teachers. Of these, 38 teachers – 69 percent of the population – returned the completed forms.

A naturalistic-qualitative research approach (Erickson, 1977; Feinber, 1977) was chosen, using content analysis (Berenson, 1952; Hoslti, 1969; Krippendorss, 1980; Guba & Lincoln, 1981; Sabar Ben-Yehoshua, 1995). This facilitates a supplementation and deepening of the quantitative part of the study relating to teachers' attitudes towards the four representative learning materials. The content analysis of the representative materials was performed using the evaluative tool

developed by Eden (1985), which is based on criteria in the professional literature and in teaching-learning studies (Morriset, 1971; Stevens & Eash, 1974; Adar & Fuchs, 1978; Goodlad, Klein & Tye, 1979; Ben-Peretz, 1980; Gall, 1981; Sabar Ben-Yehoshua, 1982). Eden's (1985) evaluative tool was chosen because it is suited to many subjects and areas of study.

For analysis purposes, the theoretical-analytical method was chosen. It is based on an understanding of the content and the interpretations accompanying the description. This method describes and interprets the principles and values that characterise the description of the events. The didactic concept is also explained [didactic aids are those that can activate students. Activities are at the heart of the didactic process, serving to teach and instruct students in performing tasks whose aim is to develop students' thinking abilities and personality (Bar-Gal, 1993, p. 196)]. In this method, intuition plays an important role, enhancing the subjectivity of the evaluation. To counterbalance this drawback, it is possible to bring detailed quotations from the textbook under evaluation, in order to maintain maximal precision in transmitting the content, nature and tone of the book. The method itself is practical and applicable (Eden, 1985, p. 10).

An additional qualitative-naturalistic method that was selected for use in this study was the interview (see Appendix 5). A major advantage of the interview is its adaptability. Through the interview it is possible to follow up ideas, probe responses and investigate motives and feelings, which a questionnaire can never do. Questionnaire responses have to be taken at face value but a response in an interview can be developed and clarified (Bell, 1996, p. 6). A number of types of interview can be used. Among them are the ethnographic open interview, the standard structured

interview and the guided, focused interview, which was the one selected for this research.

While the ethnographic open interview is a form of verbal event, similar to a friendly conversation (Spradley, 1979), and the standard structured interview is based on predetermined formulated questions, structure and order to which the interviewer adds nothing (Ben-Yehoshua, 1995, p. 65), the guided or focused interview (Shamir & Ben-Yehoshua, 1982; Ben-Yehoshua, 1995, p. 65; Bell, 1996, p. 94) is conducted according to a briefing that outlines the subjects pertaining to the goals of the study, while also providing a broad freedom of response for the interviewer. Thus, the researcher can respond to new points that the subject raises, even though subjects rarely raise new points of their own volition. Flick (1998, pp. 94-95) calls this the semi-structured interview, since it is similar to the structured interview in that questions pertaining to the research are prepared in advance, but it also allows the interviewee to respond freely and to introduce new points, as in the open interview. Freedom to allow respondents to talk about what is of central significance to them, rather than to the interviewer, is clearly important. However, providing some loose structure, to ensure that all topics considered crucial to the study are covered, eliminates the problems of entirely unstructured interviews. The guided or focused interview fulfils these requirements (Bell, 1996, p. 94).

The quantitative part of the study, through a questionnaire of teachers' attitudes towards these learning materials, and the qualitative part of the study through content analysis and interviews with the teachers, complement each other and make it possible to examine the correspondence between findings.

The thesis is organised into nine chapters. Chapter one describes the rapid development and growth of the tourism industry in the world, including economic and

social ramifications and predictions for the future. This trend corresponds to the process occurring in Israel, within the limitations of the unique geopolitical status of the country. The chapter describes Israel's high potential for tourism, the growth in the branch in recent years and factors explaining it, both in terms of entering tourism and internal tourism. The processes presented in the chapter point to the need to formulate a successful tourism policy that entails the development of appropriate infrastructures. Among the important elements involved is education and training for tourism.

Chapter two explains the importance of education and training for tourism around the world; the connection that researchers have found between tourism development and education and training for the branch; and a survey of the development of the subject over the years. Generally accepted definitions are provided for tourism, with illustrations of the interdisciplinary nature of the profession. The chapter describes the education and training systems for tourism in a number of countries of various levels of economic development (Australia, Spain, India, Kenya and U.K.), and from this it is possible to learn about the organisational structure and approach to tourism education around the world. This chapter also focuses on tourism curricula in junior colleges in England (from age 16), surveying the structure and content of studies in these colleges on the basis of the country's national training and certification system. The training structure in England is proposed as a model for European countries (Cooper, 1991) and can serve as a source of comparison for the existing structure of high school studies in Israel (from age 15) as presented in this thesis. After the global survey, the chapter examines the development of education and training for tourism at the national level in Israel. This

includes how universities and colleges view professional training and education in school.

Chapter three presents the debate about the content of tourism degree courses. This is a debate that has persisted for as long as tourism has been studied at the degree level (Airey & Johnson, 1999, p. 229). The principles and content of curricula for degree studies have an effect on the schools since a professional committee in the Ministry of Education, which is the authority that decides upon the curriculum to be implemented, is conducted by representatives of academia. In addition, the preparation of learning materials must be accompanied by academic advisers (Ministry of Education, 2000a). Many researchers have expressed a broad range of attitudes about this debate, focusing on main issues such as the manner in which tourism is defined as multidisciplinary rather than an independent discipline (Jafari & Ritchie, 1981; Gunn, 1987, 1991; Tribe, 1997); the need for a core body of knowledge for tourism studies as well as the content matter of this core body (Jaspers, 1987; Cooper, Scales & Westlake, 1992; Koh, 1994; Middleton & Ladkin, 1996; Tribe, 1997; Airey & Johnson, 1999); and the integration of tourism education and tourism training in vocational studies, which at times causes problems that must be dealt with (Koh, 1994; Well, 1996; Cooper & Shepherd, 1997).

Chapter four deals with curriculum development as an independent domain within the education sciences. The chapter includes definitions of curriculum and its domains, a conceptual view of curriculum and the concept as seen by teachers. These issues provide the disciplinary basis for the present research, which investigates the tourism curriculum. The principles of curriculum research lead to approaches and models of research of all the subjects for which curricula have been prepared, among

them tourism. Curriculum research in tourism can be based on scientific knowledge accumulated from earlier studies of other school subjects in Israel and the world.

Curriculum evaluation, which is discussed in this chapter, developed as a central part of curriculum research, from the need to evaluate curriculum results and achievements. The chapter presents methods and processes of and approaches to curriculum evaluation. The evaluation of tourism curricula in this thesis is based on the various approaches described and relies on the evaluative tools presented in the chapter.

Chapter five presents the development and structure of the education system in Israel, as a basis for the study dealing with high schools in Israel. Because the education system in Israel is public and is managed centrally by the state, which sets the curriculum and finances and supervises the schools, an understanding of its system and structure is required before investigating a subject such as tourism studies. Consideration should be given to the fact that Israel is a young state, whose education system is still in the process of formation in terms of values and infrastructure.

After the introduction to the education system in Israel and the academic structure of its high schools, this chapter focuses on the structure and content of tourism curriculum in Israeli high schools. This background leads to chapters six, seven, *eight and nine that deal with the research of this curriculum.*

Chapter six – research methodology and approach – includes a discussion of the methodology, aims, methods, population and questions of the research, as well as definitions of the variables, the research instrument and the process of data analysis. Chapters seven, eight and nine present and describe the findings of the study as well as a discussion of these findings in relation to each of the research questions. Chapter ten presents the conclusions and implications of the study.

Chapter one

The development of tourism

This chapter describes the rapid development and growth of the tourism industry in the world, including economic and social ramifications and predictions for the future. This process is reflected in Israel, within the limitations of the unique geopolitical status of the country. The chapter describes Israel's great potential for tourism, the growth in the branch in recent years and factors explaining it, both in terms of entering tourism and internal tourism.

The processes presented in the chapter point to the need to formulate a successful tourism policy that includes developing appropriate infrastructures. Among the important elements involved are education and training for tourism

The development of tourism in the world

Since the 1950s, the tourism industry has developed dimensions of tremendous economic, cultural and political significance. In 1998, 625.2 million entries of tourists were registered in countries around the world (Travel & Tourism Intelligence, 1999, p. 3), in contrast to only 25 million tourists in 1950. If we add internal tourism movement as well, which is much greater in scope, we see an extraordinary human phenomenon that represents a prominent component in the leisure culture of the world (Israel Hotel Association, 1994, pp. 1-2).

World-wide forecasts estimate that the rate of growth in tourism movement in the future will increase and reach 661 million entries of tourists world-wide in the year 2000, and about 937 million entries by the year 2010 (World Tourism Organisation, 1993, p. 17). Four main motives can be found underlying this accelerated growth in the tourism sector: available income, increases in leisure time

and paid holidays, cheap and available transportation, and acceptance of tourism as a fashion in the society in which we live and work. Tourism is the largest industry in almost every state, in terms of employment, and can be categorised among the two or three largest industries in almost every state, according to any criterion:

- The tourism industry employs more than 200 million people around the world, that is, one of every nine workers. In 1996, tourism around the world provided 255 million places of work, and the forecast for the year 2006 estimates 358 million work places (an increase of 50.1 percent) (World Travel & Tourism Council, 1996).
- The rates of employment, investment, production and value added of tourism equal those of large industries such as steel, automobiles, textiles and electronics in most industrialised countries. Employment in the service branches is of special importance because of the decline in employment in industry as part of the processes characterising the post-industrial age (Hartshorn, 1992).
- Consumers in developed countries spend as much on tourism as they do on clothing or health.

The economic importance of the tourism industry does not draw the attention it deserves because it is not seen as one whole unit, rather, each component is evaluated by itself: aviation, trains, cruise ships, car rentals and other transportation services, hotels, motels and restaurants. Moreover, the data required to develop a comprehensive and consistent profile of the industry are difficult to collect, particularly in the international arena (Israel Hotel Association, 1994, pp. 1-2).

The development of tourism in Israel

The potential and the demand for tourism in Israel

Since ancient times, and especially since the Middle Ages, the land of Israel has been a preferred destination for pilgrimages, touring and sightseeing (Yaari, 1976; Prever, 1986; Gelbman, 1996a). The modern expression of this tradition is reflected in the brisk flow of tourism to the state of Israel, a flow that has been increasing over the years. The main attraction of Israel is its identification as the land of the Bible, the place where the monotheistic religions of Western culture evolved and where impressive remains of the past can be viewed that bring the heritage alive. The city of Jerusalem is a magnet, holding a position of uniqueness and holiness in the Western world making it one of the first-rate tourist sites in the world. The Christian world draws its sources from the Holy Land: Christianity, Jerusalem, the land of the annunciation. The landscapes of Israel - the Galilee and Sea of Galilee, the Dead Sea and the Judean Desert, have great drawing power as the places where Old and New Testament events occurred. The tourist potential of Israel lies not only in its cultural heritage and in its assets that reflect this heritage, but also in a complex of qualities, a rare combination of a sequence of cultures that represent the cultural sources of the West, an historical heritage, nature and landscape, a temperate climate, all combined with modern infrastructure systems, easy access and services of the highest level. Israel's advantage is in its combination of products and in the high level of all its components (Feitelson, Kaplan & Marinov, 1995; Goldenberg, Kaplan et al., 1996).

The main tourist resources in Israel are, as mentioned above, in the cultural domain (historical-archaeological-religious sites), and they are presented in the appropriate landscape as background, preserving the spirit and atmosphere of "the

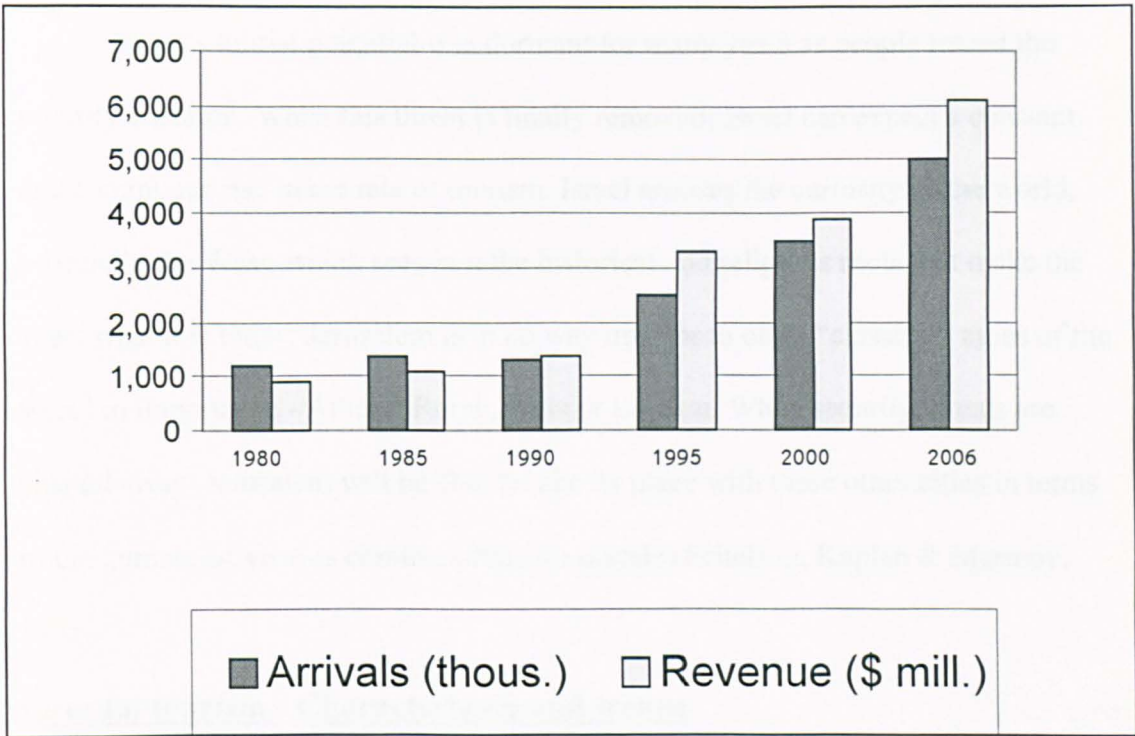
holy land.” The tourist package marketed by Israel is based on cultural heritage values which in turn are based on abstract conceptual values, and on the landscapes and general atmosphere that characterise the land of Israel.

The leading natural tourist resources in Israel are the Dead Sea and the shores of the Red Sea. Tourism to Eilat, on the Red Sea, accounts for 15 percent of all tourism to Israel. This is recreation and leisure tourism, based on the natural climatic advantages of the area. Tourism of this type has barely developed along the Israeli shores of the Mediterranean Sea or the Sea of Galilee. Motives of tourists coming to Israel have been found to be, in descending order: touring and sightseeing, pilgrimage, recreation, business and conventions, and visiting relatives (Feitelson, Kaplan & Marinov, 1995; Goldenberg, Kaplan et al., 1996).

Tourism is one of Israel’s fastest growing industries and is expected to continue contributing significantly to the country’s balance of payments. It also serves to develop many other sectors of the country, in part by creating employment opportunities. Tourism is of vital importance to Israel’s economic development, present and future. A comparison of tourism figures shows that from 1948, when the country was established and 4,500 tourists visited, 117,000 visitors came in 1960, 441,000 in 1970, 1.2 million in 1980, 1.3 million in 1990 and a record 2.5 million tourists arrived in the country in 1995. Forecasts for 2006 predict 5 million visitors per year (State of Israel Ministry of Tourism, 1995, p. 2) (see Figure 1).

Figure 1: Tourism to Israel in terms of revenue and arrivals, from 1980 to 2006

(estimated)



(State of Israel Ministry of Tourism, 1995, p. 2)

Tourism to Israel has experienced many ups and downs, mostly as a result of geopolitical developments in the region. Tourism is profoundly affected by security problems (Mansfeld, 1996). In 1987, tourism had reached what was then a record 1.5 million tourists. As the security situation became more precarious, the figure fell to a low 1.1 million tourists in 1991, the year of the Gulf War. The first half of the 1990s was marked by a growing sense of calm in the geopolitical arena as a result of the peace process that began in the early 1990s. This process created a clear trend of consistently rising tourist figures, a crescendo of numbers reaching 1.8 million in 1992, 1.95 million in 1993, 2.13 million in 1994 and, as noted, 2.5 million tourists in 1995 (Feitelson, Kaplan & Marinov, 1995; Goldenberg, Kaplan et al., 1996). The next

year, 1996, registered a decline to 2.17 million incoming tourists (Ministry of Tourism, 1997, p. 17), probably because of terrorist acts committed by hostile forces within cities in the country, and from a perceived deceleration of the peace process.

Israel's tourist potential was dormant for many years as people feared the security situation. When this threat is finally removed, Israel can expect a constant and continuous rise in the rate of tourism. Israel arouses the curiosity of the world, especially the West, which sees in it the historical and religious roots that make the West what it is today. Jerusalem is in no way inferior to other "classical" cities of the world in importance - Athens, Rome, Paris or London. When security threats are cleared away, Jerusalem will be able to take its place with these other cities in terms of the number of visitors coming within its portals (Feitelson, Kaplan & Marinov, 1995).

Internal tourism - Characteristics and trends

Since the early 1970s, it has been found that on annual average, 50 to 60 percent of the residents in Israel take a vacation that includes at least two nights away from home. This trend can be attributed to a rising standard of living and especially in the level of mobility that allows families to reach tourist sites in the periphery, outside of urban areas, using their own automobiles (Sheffer, Amir, Frankel & Lu Yun, 1992). Recreation and leisure consumption has increased in recent years in Israel as a result of the growth in leisure time (the transition to a five day working week), a rising income (in real terms) and with these, tourist and recreation consumption as well as exposure to tourist and recreation activities abroad that creates a demand for their availability in Israel as well. In addition, trends have developed towards a return to nature, awareness of the quality of the environment and alternative medicine. These trends have brought in their wake a change in needs and a growth in the demand for

tourist and recreation activities in general, and country recreation in particular (Fleisher, Rotem & Banyan, 1993, p. 15).

Predictions and planning trends

The directions of tourist development in Israel in the next 10 to 15 years can be learned mainly from the series of programmes prepared by the Ministry of Tourism for the target year of 2003 (Tangy, 1997, p. 51), and from the national master plan for developing tourist projects and recreational areas for the target year of 2010 (Goldenberg, Kaplan et al., 1996). These two programmes envision a substantial rise in the scope of incoming tourism to Israel. On the basis of the data presented in these programmes, and assuming that a state of calm will reign in the Middle East between Israel and its neighbours, the prediction of these two central programmes is for 4.5 to 6 million tourists in the year 2010. At the same time, the continual rise in bed nights among Israelis is also expected to continue, and the total is expected to reach some 45 million nights per year, 30 million for incoming tourists (equal to about 5 million tourists a year) and 15 million occupancies from internal tourists. This means an additional 85,000 rooms would be needed to accommodate this target number, to supplement the 40,000 rooms available today.

Based on the assumption of a continued growth trend, the number of tourists expected to reach Israel in the target year 2020 is 7 million tourists per year. This number is very high relative to Israel's proportions, both in terms of area size and comparative to the size of the population expected in that year (about 8 million residents). This proportion between incoming tourism and the infrastructures, resources, area size and local population size may create serious environmental and social problems (Tangy, 1997; Zairi & Gelbman, 1998). Despite this, Israel must adopt and exploit this tremendously powerful economic potential, and attempt to

extract the socioeconomic maximum from it. Proper utilisation of this potential, together with maintenance of the tourist, landscape and natural resources and the social fabric, form the foundations of a tourist development policy in the direction of long-standing development (Feitelson, Kaplan & Marinov, 1995). Education and training in tourism, as will be explained in the next chapter, should play a central role in these processes of development.

Chapter two

Tourism education in the world and in Israel

This chapter explains the importance of education and training for tourism around the world, the connection that researchers have found between tourism development and education and training for the branch, and a survey of the development of the subject over the years. Generally accepted definitions are provided for tourism, with illustrations of the multi-disciplinary nature of the profession. The chapter also describes tourism education and training systems in a number of countries of varying levels of economic development around the world (Australia, Spain, India, Kenya and U.K.) and from this it is possible to learn about the organisational structure and approach to tourism education around the world. After reviewing tourist education in a number of countries, the chapter focuses on tourism curricula in junior colleges in England (from age 16), surveying the structure and content of studies in these colleges on the basis of the country's national training and certification system. The training structure in England is proposed as a model for European countries (Cooper, 1991), and can serve as a source of comparison for the existing structure of high school studies in Israel (from age 15). Following the global survey, the chapter deals with the development of education and training for tourism at the national level in Israel. This includes how universities and colleges view professional training and education in school.

Tourism education and training

Education and training for tourism are undergoing major changes across the world as governments recognise and accept the economic importance of tourism. The

result has been a reassessment of the role of education and training, made necessary by the need for a skilled and qualified tourism workforce (Cooper, 1991, p. 97).

Both industry and government are coming to the realisation that the key to unlocking potential tourism growth opportunities lies in the competitive edge provided by the development of human resources and proper organisation. More and more, the authorities are beginning to recognise that this competitive edge begins in the classroom (Go, 1991, p. 1). Among the first to formally link America's competitive problems with shortcomings in education were Hayes and Abernathy (1980). Despite tourism's significant gains in social, political and economic importance in recent years, its impact has been minimal on the most conservative of social structures, the school (Marland & Store, 1991).

A review of the literature on tourism in schools reveals a limited discussion of the place of tourism studies in the curriculum. This absence is probably related to how tourism has developed as a discipline in universities. Only more recent sources discuss tourism systematically, and they generally disagree on how tourism should be implemented in the school curriculum. This lack of agreement is reflected in the attempts to teach tourism in schools (Marland & Store, 1991).

During the 1970s, newly introduced tourism courses created significant challenges for educators in Western Europe. In 1974, Lawson published Teaching tourism: education and training in Western Europe: A comparative study. Analysing Lawson's study, Christie-Mill (1979) arrived at two main conclusions: 1. "In nearly all cases programmes have been developed as a result of academic enterprise rather than industrial demand" and 2. "Certain segments of the tourism industry will readily accept specific academic qualifications while other segments will not" (p. 58). These findings show that tourism education over the preceding fifteen years had primarily

been “educator driven”. They also partially explain educators’ expressed concern for highly pragmatic matters like job placement of students in career paths in tourism.

A scholarly review by Jafari and Ritchie (1981) of the rapidly expanding field of tourism education shifted the focus from the pragmatic to the academic level. The main objectives of the review were: 1. To place tourism in a broader context and identify major concerns of tourism education; 2. To examine alternative disciplinary approaches to the study of tourism; and 3. To focus on a number of critical issues in tourism education. In their research, Jafari and Ritchie found gaps which they viewed as both weaknesses and openings for progress in the field. These included a lack of empirical data on which to base tourism curricula, the relatively isolated conceptualisation and development of tourism programmes and courses by individuals rather than by groups, the highly vocational nature of the material sent by North American sources to editors as compared to a much broader conceptualisation in Europe and other geographic regions, and the emergence of tourism as an interdisciplinary field of studies. By expanding the scope of tourism, and implicitly of hospitality education, Jafari and Ritchie opened the tourism education field to further enquiry and research. The greater emphasis they placed on research and development in tourism was particularly appropriate for the 1980s, a decade characterised by significant changes in terms of technological advancement, consumer behaviour and competitive conduct.

Because of rapid changes in world conditions and anticipated labour shortages, Hawkins and Hunt (1988) emphasised the need for developing travel and tourism professional education programmes in post-secondary institutions. They also suggested that these professional programmes be placed in a valid conceptual context,

and be interdisciplinary in nature and sensitive to industry requirements and developments.

A conference on “Tourism Teaching into the 1990s” held at the University of Surrey in July 1988 reflected a new interest among academic delegates in “breaking out” of their relative domestic isolation by examining the development of cross-cultural approaches to tourism education based on the experience of different countries. The increasing globalisation of the world economy and the resulting maelstrom of change in tourism requiring organisations to adapt became increasingly evident. Adaptation proved especially difficult for organisations that had enjoyed rapid tourism growth in the 1970s and 1980s. As in many other endeavours, success tied many tourism and hospitality organisations to the past (Go, 1991).

Two important new trends were emphasised at the 1991 “New Horizons in Tourism and Hospitality Education, Training and Research” Conference held in Calgary, Canada. The first was what has since been acknowledged as a world-wide trend, i.e., the rapid globalisation of economics and cultures with its dramatic implications for tourism in general, and especially for tourism education and research. The second trend was the growing recognition that tourism education and research had to be viewed in interdisciplinary terms. Compartmentalised thinking that had characterised tourism academic programmes over the years simply became inappropriate and dysfunctional (Ritchie, 1991).

In surveying the vocational interests of Australian high school students, Ross (1994) found a high level of interest in employment and careers in the tourism industry. In a later study, Ross (1997) examined travel agency employment perceptions and preferences among secondary college leavers and found that travel agency employment was favoured among potential tourism/hospitality industry

employees, particularly among female respondents. Airey and Frontistis (1997) compared the attitudes of secondary school students towards careers in tourism in Greece and the United Kingdom. They found that UK students had a better-established career support system and a less positive attitude towards careers in tourism than their Greek counterparts, presumably because of a more realistic view of the nature of employment conditions in the tourism/hospitality industry. A similar study was conducted by Getz (1994) in Spey Valley, Scotland. This longitudinal case study surveying the attitudes of high school students found that attitudes towards a potential career in the tourism/hospitality industry became much more negative over a period of 14 years.

A study conducted by Baron and Maxwell (1993) focused on the attitudes of tourism and hospitality management students in higher education towards working in the tourism/hospitality industry. Their subjects were students in their induction week at the start of their hospitality management students and students in the first week back at their institutions to continue with their course after a period of supervised work experience at the undergraduate level. They found opposing views of the nature of working in the industry among the two groups. Specifically, the new students held generally more positive views than the experienced students.

Undergraduate fourth year tourism and hotel management students in Turkey gave generally unfavourable or negative evaluations of diverse aspects of work in the industry, in a study of attitudes conducted recently by Kusluvan and Kusluvan (2000). Some of the factors accounting for negative attitudes towards careers in tourism are stress on the job, lack of family life because of the nature of the work, long working hours, exhausting and seasonable (that is, unstable) jobs, low social status of tourism jobs, unsatisfactory and unfair promotions, low pay and insufficient benefits,

unqualified managers, poor attitudes and behaviour of managers towards employees, unqualified co-workers and poor attitudes and behaviour among co-workers, and poor physical working conditions for employees.

Tourism education status: a global review

In 1995, developing countries registered a more rapid growth in international tourism than developed countries in terms of arrivals and receipts. Waters (1996) reported that East Asia and the Pacific regions led in growth records. As a primarily service industry, people (guests and hosts) are the focus for the sustained development of scientific management of the industry. Hence, employee training and development are essential for remaining competitive in the global arena. Unfortunately, the business side of tourism has overshadowed the vital aspect of human resource development. Educators and trainers the world over have voiced concern over hospitality personnel development. Modern technology and traditional operating and communicating skills are at a crossroads, posing a challenge for the professionals of tomorrow (Singh, 1997).

Present-day trends among actual and potential users of tourism goods and services indicate an overwhelming preference for a quality experience, necessitating higher professional standards in the delivery systems (Riegel, 1995). Researchers, who have long noted the potential and proven adverse impacts of tourism, recommend education as the most desirable defence against its destructive nature. Both are ample reasons to place tourism education and training high in the list of priorities (Singh, 1997).

The World Tourism Organisation (WTO) was perhaps the first to identify the importance of training and education and to take the initiative in this direction. Today,

it claims to be the only world-wide forum in tourist education. After 20 years of developing educational curricula, the WTO recently renewed its efforts in tourism education. It has a network of 14 education and training centres around the world and over 60 other schools have applied to join this networking. These centres claim to provide “hands-on” training that have so far produced “excellent” results (Singh, 1997).

In recent years, the WTO launched intensive week-long workshops or courses to educate tourism educators in seven countries (India, Pakistan, Mali, Turkey, Mexico, Kenya and Lebanon) to ensure standardised delivery of education. Educating the Educators, a book published by the WTO and the University of Surrey (1996) purports to be a useful reference text on curriculum design, education quality analysis, research and trends. Courses for National Tourism Administration officials are also conducted with a view to ensuring quality tourism policy formulation and implementation. The WTO has also conducted surveys to identify industry needs for professional staff recruitment (Singh, 1997).

Some prominent national organisations are specifically committed to hospitality education. In Europe, the European Tourism Education Network (ETEN) is a long-standing developer of hospitality human resources. Its approach to education echoes that of the WTO, except that its operations are restricted to the European continent. In fact, however, WTO and ETEN share the same leadership. In the United States, the AH&MA (American Hotel and Motel Association), based in Michigan, is renowned for its professional training and education in key hospitality sectors. Over four decades of existence, it has emerged as a global accrediting body, equipped with rich resource and reference material and audio-visual teaching aids for enhanced learning (Singh, 1997).

Of the many of institutes of repute, two are CHRIS (Council of Hotel, Restaurant and Institutional Education) and HCIMA (Hotel, Catering Institutional Management Association). In addition, many universities around the world offer vocational courses in hospitality varying from one to five years in duration. The University of Calgary (Canada), with its World Tourism Education and Research Centre may be considered the foremost among them, followed closely by George Washington University (USA), University of Surrey (UK) and James Cook University (Australia). The fourth edition of A Guide to College Programmes in Hospitality and Tourism (Riegel, 1993), a massive tome, provides an exhaustive listing of universities and colleges offering education in tourism/hospitality/hotel/catering and travel. In contrast, tourism education and training in the Third World lags far behind, despite ad hoc efforts to remedy the situation (Singh, 1997).

The multi-discipline of tourism education

Although formal study of tourism can be found as early as the 1940s, interest in tourism education was minimal until the 1980s, since which time the literature on what tourism education ought to be has increased considerably (Koh & MacCahill, 1993).

Because scholars increasingly perceive tourism as a field rather than a discipline in the formal, traditional university sense, it has been difficult to orient curriculum construction towards a discrete body of knowledge. Tourism does not lend itself to such subtleties (Gunn, 1991, p. 27). A look at the many definitions of tourism is enough to justify it as a field. Most definitions include the following elements:

- Travel from home to a destination and return.
- Activities engaged in by visitors that are developed for their use.
- Facilities and services developed for visitors' use.

- Economic impact of traveller purchases of services and goods.

A review of these four elements of tourism conducted by Gunn (1991, p. 27-29) serves to dramatise the complicated and multidisciplinary nature of tourism.

1. Travel. To understand the element of travel, several disciplines and specialities need be involved. All forms of passenger transportation are essential, by air, by sea and on land. Intermodal transportation, i.e., a sequence of many modes, is also fashionable today. The characteristics of transportation that must be known include schedules, pricing, convenience and safety. Public and private sector management policies are also important. Among the academic disciplines that are involved with transportation and travel are transportation, political science, geography and engineering.
2. Visitor activities. This element encompasses a variety of disciplines such as geography, psychology, sociology, history, archaeology and marketing. For example, much research is being done today on traveller behaviour - what motivates given populations and what benefits they seek. Traveller activities both *en route* and at destinations are also important. Those interested in the supply side of tourism seek clues to understand these behaviours so that they can provide products and services. The characteristics of the destinations are also important in that they create the desire to travel.
3. Facilities and services. These two elements involve three types of developers. The first, commercial enterprises, includes lodgings, food services and shops. They are motivated by profit based on the sales of services and products that travellers seek. The second is non-profit organisations such as historic sites and festivals. Their objectives are varied, depending on their beliefs and modes of action. The third, governments, are represented by parks, transportation and infrastructure. Ideally,

they are motivated by social good, if not by profit. In order to understand the relationship of facilities and services to tourism, a number of disciplines are necessary such as political science, business management, hotel and food administration, accounting, marketing, ecology, conservation, forestry, wildlife sciences, planning, landscape architecture, general architecture and engineering.

4. Economic impact. Economic impact is a prime motivation for most elements of tourism development. Among the critical issues involved are the promotion of jobs, income, and tax revenue. These, in turn, entail matters such as competitive pricing, labour relations, the creation of wealth, rural and urban economic development, and financial support. The disciplines involved here are finance, economics, management, business, and political science (Gunn, 1991, p. 28-29).

Tourism education and training in countries around the world

The following concise survey of five countries is presented to introduce tourism education around the world. The countries are Australia, Spain, India, Kenya and the United Kingdom. These countries differ from one another in terms of geographic location and level of economic development and as a result, in their level and manner of developing tourism and tourism education. Far-off Australia is a developed country with a special type of tourism but is isolated from other developed countries. Spain, in southwest Europe, is a part of the European Union but its economic and tourism development began later than countries with a more developed tradition. India in Asia and Kenya in Africa are both developing countries that aspire to develop touristically and see tourism education and training as an integral part of

this process. The U.K. is considered highly developed among European countries in terms of tourism training and education.

Australia

Hospitality and tourism education is offered in Australia at high school, technical and further education (TAFE)/community college (junior college) and university (senior college) levels. Craig-Smith and French (1991) presented the following survey of tourism education in Australia

Schools: In the mid 1980s Australian schools developed co-operative programmes with TAFE colleges in subject areas relevant to tourism and hospitality. Most of these TAFE/Secondary Education programmes consist of an existing TAFE subject (approximately 180 hours) taught either at school or college. Subjects include front office practices, practical cookery and costing control procedures, 1991).

Despite the growth of the tour industry's importance to the economy, only limited resources were made available within TAFE colleges for TAFE/Secondary programmes. As a result, increasing numbers of schools sought accreditation from local colleges, so that they could offer co-operative programmes taught solely by school teachers in school facilities.

Technical and Further Education (TAFE): Traditionally in Australia, TAFE institutions played an active role in providing craft courses such as for chefs and for front-line and supervisory levels (Sparks, 1991). Historically, TAFE colleges were established to meet industry's needs for trade training. Trade apprentices employed during the day would attend college part time at night or on day-release programmes to learn trade theory and practice. Tourism was a term rarely associated with TAFE, as evidenced by the fact that in 1977, Queensland, one of the country's major tourism states, had only one TAFE college speciality tourism education. By the early 1990s

there were 23 colleges offering programmes in tourism and hospitality throughout the state.

TAFE is the predominant provider of off-the-job training for tourism and hospitality. This entails pre-employment, trade and advance trade programmes from certificate to diploma level. It also includes government traineeships which combine formal off-the-job education and training with work in industry that is not covered by a trade. Since the late 1980s, major TAFE college programmes have incorporated a common core curriculum with national portability. This has helped to break down provincial barriers between states.

An increasingly important component of TAFE training is in-service teaching on a fee-for-service basis. This reflects a growing awareness by industry of the implications of industry restructuring and the need for structured on-the-job training tied to a specific career ladder. Many TAFE colleges now have Commercial Service Units offering a host of services to the tourism and hospitality industry, including consultancy, skills audit, and customised staff training.

Universities: Courses at Australian universities tend to concentrate either on hospitality/hotel management or on travel/tourism. Despite the overlap between the two types of course, the former tends to concentrate on the hotel/accommodation/restaurant side of the industry while the latter focuses more on the travel/transport/activities aspects of the industry. Practically all of the programmes lead to baccalaureate degrees in either business or commerce, emphasising the general business core of both programmes (Craig-Smith & French, 1991).

Baccalaureate studies in tourism with a specialisation in hospitality management commenced in the mid 1970s at the University of Queensland and at the University of Victoria in Melbourne. However, the great growth in the number of

degree programmes in tourism offered occurred only in the 1980s. Postgraduate studies in tourism began at the end of the 1980s (Craig-Smith & French, 1991). Since 1989, the focus for the programmes has become more business or management oriented rather than multi-disciplinary or leisure oriented (Wells, 1996).

Spain

Fayos-Sola, Abellan and Franco-Martinez (1991) gave the following report on tourism education in Spain.

Tourism education in Spain can be divided into two: structured and unstructured education. Unstructured education is based on the guidelines of the National Employment Office (INEM), the Autonomous Regions, municipal governments and other public and private bodies. The aim of this unstructured activity is to upgrade management and workers in specific fields. After Spain entered the European Common Market, the European Social Fund began allocating increased budgets for technological training, including large numbers of tourism-related courses such as in waiting, cookery, languages and others. Structured education is based on plans overseen by the various education departments of the state and the Autonomous Regions. They can be classified into four levels: university education, teacher training, technical training and worker training schemes (technical colleges).

University education: Tourism is not included in Spanish university syllabi as an independent disciplinary field and very few initiatives have been undertaken for university graduates from other fields, diploma holders in tourism or professionals already in the field. Among those areas of specialisation for graduate degrees that can be noted are the Master in Tourism studies offered by the School of Economics in Malaga, an International Master in Tourism at the Polytechnic University of La Laguna, a Diploma in Management of Tourism Enterprises conducted by the

University of Valencia School of Business, and a Hotel Executive Management Course given by the Polytechnic University of Madrid.

Teacher training: Considering the paucity of tourism education options at the university level in Spain, a number of points should be kept in mind:

- a. The lack of an officially recognised university degree in tourism has meant that virtually no teacher training centres focus on this field.
- b. Teaching staff for tourism subjects with high academic content usually come from other university departments. The consequence is that teachers lack familiarity with the reality of the tourism industry, which means that the material is taught from a mainly theoretical viewpoint.
- c. Certain tourism subjects are highly practical, meaning that teachers come from non-academic circles. This may entail a lack of both teaching experience and of theoretical background knowledge and a concomitant negative effect on the quality of education offered.

Technical level: In Spain, the diploma level for Technicians in Tourism Enterprises and Activities (TEAT) covers the training of middle management, thus to some extent compensating for the non-involvement of the universities in tourism education at a degree level. Spain first offered a degree in tourism in 1963 when the Official School of Tourism (EOT) opened in Madrid, and the official title of “Legally Recognised Centre” was awarded to those establishments that had been independently offering courses in tourism without official regulation since 1957. The General Law of Education (1970) did not include tourism education at a university level, and only in 1980 did “Specialised Studies for the Tourism Technician” (TEAT) become an officially recognised degree with a level equivalent to a three-year university diploma. Although it is a university diploma, it does not give access to tenure exams or the

second cycle of other university courses. The three-year syllabus does not offer specialisation and is aimed at training technicians and managers of travel agencies, hotel managers and tour guides. The curriculum places special emphasis on the economic and business domain.

Worker training schemes (Technical College): As of 1991, regulations offer three levels of worker training. Level 1 is Technical Assistant (2 years), with specialisation in Cookery Services and Floor Management. Level 2: Technical Specialist (3 years), with specialisation in Cookery Services (Chef) and Chief Floor Management Officer. Level 3: Superior Technician (3 years) (Fayos-Sola, Abellan & Franco-Martinez, 1991).

India

The following information about tourism education in India is summarised from the survey conducted by Singh (1997).

Travel and tourism educational institutes are gaining popularity in India at present. In the public sector, these centres offer personnel training mainly for the lower levels. Four institutes were established in 1962-1964 and two decades later, in 1984, a National Council for Hotel Management and Catering Technology was set up as part of the Ministry of Tourism, giving great impetus to the four established institutes. Today, there are 16 hotel management institutes and 15 food craft institutes in the country. These centres are approved by the All India Council of Technical Education (AICTE), an autonomous approval body.

The Indian Institute of Tourism and Travel Management (IITTM), another government organisation, offers short-term courses in travel and tourism and has undertaken responsibility for meeting the personnel needs of the industry. In addition to the short-term courses it offered for lower level jobs, the Institute also initiated a

long-term Management Development Programme for employees in the tourism industry. The course was based mainly on programmes conducted elsewhere in the world, which is why its applicability to the tourism industry in India remains questionable. In 1995, the IITTM launched two other courses: a fourteen-month Diploma in Tourism Management course and an eight-month Diploma in Destination Management course.

The late 1970s and early 1980s marked the first tentative steps of Indian universities into vocational education. Introducing tourism programmes was unquestionably a big step forward, since no formal education had been offered in the discipline heretofore. Admission to these courses was generally after graduation. The courses usually begin as part of existing departments (e.g., management, commerce, history, archaeology, geography) and only later are granted independent status after they have gained momentum. In an attempt to reach more people, most of the universities have initiated distance learning programmes in vocational education. Today, about 30 national universities offer a Masters degree in Tourism Administration (MTA) (Singh, 1997).

Kenya

With the rapid rise in international tourism of the 1960s and the chronic lack of adequate educational facilities in their home countries, many Third World students enrolled in programmes offered by tourism centres in Europe and North America. Institutes for tourism education were established in Third World countries only later, mostly based on Western models. As a consequence, none of these predominantly business study and technician courses fully meets the needs of the hospitality and tourism sector in the Third World (Theuns & Go, 1991). A case study of Kenya by

Sindiga (1996) indicated the difficulties of that country's tourism education. The country itself is undergoing rapid processes of tourism growth.

In Kenya, middle level college operations have been going on for about two decades but the emphasis is on hotels, tour operations and the travel industry. Training is segmented, making it difficult for individuals so trained to conceptualise the industry as a whole. Other aspects of the tourism industry, notably promotion, marketing and management, have received little attention. The same can be said of tourism research. The training problem has been compounded by the rapid expansion of the number of tourists entering Kenya. Many hotels, as a result, have promoted low-level workers to management positions, following the traditional Swiss-German management style where an individual works his/her way up through the ranks. While this may be desirable, it does require that those promoted have certain skills and attitudes. As Sindiga (1996) puts it, "It is one thing producing a meal but quite another marketing it" (p. 700).

Continuing vocational training and education have begun, but on too small a scale to meet immediate demands. Moreover, many tourism enterprises are unwilling to invest in training, preferring instead to hire unqualified people who will accept less pay. For example, tour companies may eschew hiring qualified tour guides, finding it cheaper to use drivers as guides instead. In order to improve the quality of tourism services, the key may be continuing vocational training and education. The stakeholders in the industry must also be educated about the advantages of continuing education and its impact on the quality and quantity of employee productivity (Sindiga, 1996).

United Kingdom

Tourism attained high-interest status in the U.K. in the 1980s as a recession-inspired economic crisis simmered in the traditional manufacturing sectors of the British economy. Because of its astonishing post-war growth as an industry, tourism became a kingpin in the Conservative government's economic strategy for generating recovery, particularly in areas hard hit by the collapse of older manufacturing industries (shipbuilding, mining, textiles and steel, among others). Both nationally and locally, tourism was perceived as a field in which private and public sector initiatives could establish a base for new economic growth, a possibility that sat well with the Conservatives' entrepreneurial ideology and belief in the effectiveness of self-help (Seaton, 1991).

Between 1970 and 1990, the number of colleges offering vocational-relevant qualifications in travel and tourism grew from a mere handful to over 500 universities, polytechnics and colleges, with over 20,000 students taking courses towards qualification for a career in the industry. Programmes ranged from basic technical skill courses and introductory "first" level vocational educational courses validated by the BTEC (Business and Technician Education Council) to specialist Masters and Doctoral degrees. By the early 1990s, travel and tourism courses had appeared within British secondary schools at the "O" level (Holloway, 1991). In 1996 the number of 16-18 year olds who registered for tourism studies in the UK stood at 35,000 registrants for at least one unit of the General National Vocational Qualification (GNVQ – now the Qualifications and Curriculum Authority) in Leisure and Tourism (Airey & Johnson, 1998, p. 229).

Considering the size and importance of the package holiday business, it is surprising that training for the work force has traditionally been of a limited and *ad*

hoc nature, with formal academic qualifications not always required of new employees. Part of the explanation may be that many managers themselves do not have such qualifications and thus do not always recognise the need for them in others. Some firms do not perceive staff development as a priority, and solutions to immediate problems take precedence over planning training courses (Collins, Sweeney & Geen, 1994).

An important step in the right direction was taken in 1987 with establishment of the National Council for Vocational Qualifications (NVQs), a body which does not itself set syllabi but which does create a system of standards known as National Vocational Qualifications (NVQs) and endorses the various offerings of examining authorities at five levels. Level 1, with its essentially routine and repetitive performance activities, can be expected of a secondary school pupil of modest academic abilities. Level 4 involves complex technical, specialist and professional work activities including those associated with design, planning and problem-solving. It normally carries a significant degree of personal accountability and some responsibility for the work of others and the allocation of resources (Collins, Sweeney & Geen, 1994).

The introduction of the NVQ system had implications for the training of tourist industry employees since all relevant courses had to be accredited by the National Council. Important qualifications, in partnership with the National Training Board of the Association of British Travel Agents (ABTA), included the Certificate of Tour Operating Practise (COTOP) and the Certificate of Travel Agency Competence (COTAC), both of which were accredited at NVQ standards 2 and 3, and the Certificate of Travel Agency Management (COTAM) at NVQ level 4. In January 1993 these were replaced by the ten new NVQs (for which five courses have been

devised to date). Table 1 presents the hierarchical structure of the progression by levels and by types of certification (Collins, Sweeney & Geen, 1994).

Table 1: Progression Chart of the hierarchical structure of advancement by levels and types of qualification in the UK

			NVQ Level 5	P
		BTEC higher National	NVQ level 4	R
A-AS Levels	Advanced GNVQ	BTEC National	NVQ Level 3	G
GCSE	Intermediate GNVQ	BTEC First	NVQ Level 2	R
	Foundation GNVQ		NVQ Level 1	E
				S

(Warrington Collegiate Institute, 1997)

The Qualifications and Curriculum Authority (QCA) came into being on 1 October 1997. The Education Act 1997 gave QCA a core remit to promote quality and coherence in education and training. The new organisation brings together the work of the National Council for Vocational Qualifications (NCVQ) and the School Curriculum and Assessment Authority (SCAA) with additional powers and duties, which will give it a unique overview of curriculum, assessment and qualifications across the whole of education and training, from pre-school to higher vocational levels (Stubbs, 1997, p. 1).

In creating QCA, and so ending the academic/vocational divide, the government's intention was to harness the commitment of business and industry, together with partners in education, training and the professions, to the key aims of

promoting participation in lifelong learning, raising the skills levels of the nation, and increasing all-around achievement. QCA's prime duty is to advise the Secretary of State for Education and Employment on all matters affecting the school curriculum, student assessment and publicly-funded qualifications offered in schools, colleges and workplaces (Stubbs, 1997, p. 1).

NTO (National Training Organisations) National Council was formed in October 1997 to represent the new employer network of National Training Organisations. NTOs are independent, employer-driven strategic bodies focused on a specific sector or area of employment. Twenty have been recognised by the government to date. Crucially, they have a wider remit than their predecessors, covering education and competitiveness issues, as well as training. This enables them to reflect the views of both large and small employers in their sector, on the whole range of issues concerning education, training and qualifications. NTO National Council, in representing the development network of NTOs, will soon reflect the views of employers on these matters in virtually every area of the economy (Powell, 1997, p. 6).

Addressing skills shortages, particularly at supervisory and middle management levels, is high on the NTO agenda, and quick-fix solutions are obviously not the answer. A persistent, underlying problem has been the division between the academic and the vocational which has previously left the potential of many people unfulfilled. The coming together of NCVQ and SCAA should end the academic/vocational divide. The emergence of QCA and NTOs presents an unprecedented opportunity to shake off the shackles of the past and tailor the system of learning to the needs of the 21st century (Powell, 1997, p. 6).

Tourism curricula in the U.K.

The focus of this section is on tourism curricula in junior colleges in the United Kingdom (from age 16), including a survey of the structure and content of studies in these colleges on the basis of the country's national training and certification system. The training structure in force in the UK is proposed as a model for European countries in general (Cooper, 1991) and can certainly serve as a source of comparison for the existing structure of high school studies in Israel (from age 15) as will be presented in the conclusions of this thesis.

Tourism education in Great Britain is quite developed, especially within the colleges that offer a wide variety of study tracks including vocational and combined academic and vocational programmes. These curricula have also reached the schools. Holloway (1991), in a study comparing a number of member states of the European Union (England, Norway, Germany and France), refers to vocational education as further education (post 16 years) rather than higher education (post 18 years), and with qualifications equivalent to "A" levels (academic) or high school graduation in North American education.

Cooper (1991) contends that today, in the era of globalisation and especially as part of the European Economic Union, special importance must be attached to creating uniformly high standards of tourism services. Thus, it is important to create uniformly high standards in tourism education and training. Therefore, he suggests using the British qualification system of the National Council for Vocational Qualification (NCVQ) or a similar one and expanding their use to other member states of the EU, perhaps to other states even later. In light of the fact that the tourism curriculum in the U.K. is so developed and is recommended as a model for other countries, this chapter will present a survey of tourism education in the U.K.

Following are summaries of material from prospectuses showing sample learning and training tracks in tourism from five colleges in the U.K.: Southport College, Farnborough College, Askham Bryan College, Warrington Collegiate Institute and Myerscough College. Similar tracks can be found in many other institutions in Britain. There are also tracks with other unique specialisations that various colleges offer, usually combining subjects such as leisure, hotels, tourism management, sport, hospitality services and others. The programme is usually offered for students age 16 and above. Myerscough College's programme for Advanced Leisure and Tourism will be presented in greater detail as an illustration of the structure of tourism curricula in England.

From the following explanations one can learn of the various study levels and qualification options at Southport College. This classification is uniform for all the colleges in the framework of vocational and educational training. Southport College prefaces its listing of programmes with a guide for the perplexed to unravel the mysteries of initials, abbreviations and acronyms that appear throughout the brochures about various programmes and qualification levels:

BTEC is the Business and Technology Education Council, a national body that validates courses in many career areas. BTEC offers one-year First Diplomas (GNVQ Intermediate) and two-year National Courses (GNVQ Advanced). Both can lead to employment.

GNVQ stands for General National Vocational Qualification, a broadly-based qualification providing a sound basis on which to develop skills and knowledge for further courses and employment. It is mainly aimed at young people in full-time education.

NVQ stands for National Vocational Qualification. NVQs are work-based, and can be obtained from colleges or while at work in a wide range of subject areas.

NVQs are relevant for students of all ages (Southport College, 1997).

Southport College

Travel, Tourism and Leisure Studies

Travel, Tourism and Leisure studies courses offer career opportunities in travel agencies, tour operators, airlines, rail and coach offices, tourist information offices, car hire and hotels; in sports centres, amusements, tourist attractions, night clubs, hotel leisure facilities, restaurants, swimming baths, museums and art galleries. These full-time courses include work experience with possibilities of placement in many organisations throughout the northwest of the country. Courses include day trips, guest lecturers, and residential visits domestically and overseas (Southport College, 1997).

BTEC Foundation GNVQ in Leisure and Tourism

The aim of this one-year course is to provide a first step in Further Education, including a basic qualification which allows progression to GNVQ Intermediate Level. The course provides students with a broad base of experience in: providing service to customers, preparing visitor information materials, investigating working in Leisure and Tourism, presentation and display, planning itineraries and making bookings, and exploring recreational activities in Leisure and Tourism.

BTEC Intermediate GNVQ in Leisure and Tourism

This is a one-year full-time programme that includes a period of practical work experience as well as visits and trips. The aim of the course is to provide a broad introduction to the leisure and tourism industry, and to enable students to choose a

particular route of study of interest to them within the travel, sport or leisure field.

Course content includes: sport or travel and tourism related topics, investigating Leisure and Tourism, contributing to an event, customer care, promotion and marketing. Entry requirements include an interview and references, and a minimum of three GCSEs at Grade D (Southport College, 1997).

BTEC Advanced GNVQ in Leisure and Tourism

This is a full-time two-year programme, including practical work experience, visits and trips. The qualification of this course is designed to prepare students to work towards management positions in the sport, travel, tourism or leisure industry, or for entry to Higher Education. Course content includes: investigating the Leisure and Tourism industry, health, safety and security, customer service, marketing, business systems, finance, human resources management and event management (Southport College, 1997).

Travel Service NVQ 2

The aim of this course is to prepare students to work in the Travel and Tourism industry, especially travel agencies, or to continue in Further Education. The course includes travel geography, package holidays and ancillary services, air travel, customer service and selling, and business practice (Southport College, 1997).

Farnborough College

Farnborough College offers the following tracks in tourism studies:

BTEC Advanced GNVQ Leisure and Tourism (Sport & Recreation or Travel & Tourism)

The course offers students the possibility of specialising in a particular functional area or in keeping all options open. Required units include: Investigating the leisure and tourism industries, including structure, scale and development and

their impact within the U.K.; Human resources in the leisure and tourism industries, Marketing in leisure and tourism, Finance, Business systems, Developing customer service, Health, safety and security, and Event management. Optional units are offered in Sport and recreation and Travel agency operations. Students with the proper qualifications have additional GNVQ units to choose from, including Community sports leaders, Lifesaving, Health and safety executive first aid, and Coaching.

Askham Bryan College

Askham Bryan College offers a Leisure Management programme leading to the award of Diploma of Higher Education. The two-year programme has a strong vocational basis with a wide range of options, especially during the second year.

The first year offers foundation courses in leisure studies and business management. These include: The tourism industry, The leisure industry, Marketing the leisure industry, Finance, Business law and Business environment.

In the second year students may choose between Marine industry and Countryside industries. In addition, they are able to study Environmental studies; Financial planning; Public relations; Human resource management, and Conservation. The programme is overseen by the University of Leeds which actually awards the diploma (Askham Bryan College, 1997).

Warrington Collegiate Institute

Warrington Collegiate Institute offers three programmes in leisure studies.

BTEC Intermediate GNVQ in Leisure and Tourism.

This is a one-year course for those interested in the leisure industry. Subjects include Researching tourist destinations, Marketing and Customer services. It also develops students' communication and business skills. The qualification gained at the

end of the programme is an Intermediate GNVQ in Hospitality and Catering or other GNVQ units.

BTEC Advanced GNVQ Leisure and Tourism (Sport and Leisure stream;
Travel and Tourism stream)

This is a two-year course which prepares students for employment or higher education. Subjects include Customer service, Human resources, and Health and safety. Students may choose between sport and leisure or travel and tourism areas for their specialisation. The qualification received at the end of the programme is the Advanced GNVQ.

Higher National Certificate/Diploma in Leisure Studies

The study programme is comprised of a combination of leisure and business modules that help to build students' abilities to be effective managers in the leisure industry. The full-time course of studies takes more than two years to complete and includes a compulsory six weeks of industrial placement. Entry requirements for this programme include 8 points at A Level or a BTEC National Diploma or Advanced GNVQ Level or relevant business/industrial experience.

Myerscough College

Advanced Leisure and Tourism Studies

Myerscough College offers a two year Advanced Leisure and Tourism GNVQ with the option of continuing for a two year full-time Higher National Diploma in Leisure Studies.

Advanced Leisure and Tourism GNVQ offers students the opportunity to develop a range of practical skills and in-depth knowledge and understanding of leisure and tourism and its component industries. The mandatory units introduce

students to generic business concepts and practices, but always within the context of leisure and tourism.

The curriculum is composed of mandatory and optional units. The mandatory units provide a broad base of skills, knowledge and understanding which underlie the key functions of the leisure and tourism industries. This base is further developed by specialisation through the optional units which are divided into two streams: leisure and recreation on the one hand and travel and tourism on the other. Each stream has four optional units. Leisure and recreation offer outdoor activities, health-related fitness, coaching and management of leisure centres. Travel and tourism studies offer tourist destinations, tour operations, travel services, and travel agency management (Myerscough College, 1997).

The mandatory units of Advanced Leisure and Tourism studies include: The structure and scale of the leisure, recreation, travel and tourism industries including their development and impact; human resources; marketing; finance and budgeting; common business systems; customer service; health, safety and security; managing events.

The advanced programme includes practical activities designed to develop students' creative and analytical thinking. They work independently and in groups to gather and process information, investigate, evaluate and analyse services and processes, propose improvements, predict outcomes and plan activities.

Teachers are encouraged to use work experience, work shadowing and business-education partnerships to construct imaginative learning programmes. Over the two-year period students are required to work for four weeks in industry, according to their specialisation (Myerscough College, 1997).

To make these experiences valuable, both students and employers must agree in advance on the objectives of work placement and ensure that the necessary resources are available. Teachers and tutors using external organisations must ensure that students are well briefed, that they know which questions to ask and that they understand the activities they want to investigate and evaluate.

Advanced Leisure and Tourism provides a good grounding for students who wish to pursue a career in the leisure and recreation industry or travel and tourism industry. They may choose to continue their studies at degree or HND level in higher education or to enter employment in any of the industries.

Employment may be in the private, public or voluntary sectors and further training may involve a wide range of relevant NVQs including Management, Accounting, Marketing, Creative Arts and Entertainment, Sport and Recreation, Facility Management, Catering and Hospitality, Management, Sport Administration, Events, Travel services, and many others.

All the study units are laid out in syllabi with set headings that detail the aims, content, method of implementation and evaluation. To illustrate the structure and composition of the curricula of the learning units, the abridged version of Unit 1 is presented in Appendix 10. Following this global survey of tourism education and sample tourism curriculum in England is a survey of tourism education in Israel.

Tourism education in Israel

Education and training for tourism in Israel have undergone significant processes of change and development throughout the 1990s. This has been a consequence of global processes stimulating the growth of the tourism industry and its increasing importance to the economy, and especially to employment, as detailed in

this thesis. The peace process that began to blossom between Israel and its neighbours during the early 1990s has had a considerable influence on the growth of tourism to Israel (Ministry of Tourism, 1995c, p. 15).

Until the 1990s tourism studies were not offered in Israeli universities, in degree programmes or even as part of university courses. During the nineties tourism began to penetrate the universities and academic colleges in Israel, often under the guise of other disciplines in departments such as geography, Land of Israel Studies or management (see appendix 3). In 1993, Ben-Gurion University of the Negev opened the first department for B.A. degree studies in Hotel and Tourism Management (combined with a hotel management certificate recognised by the Ministry of Tourism). Other academic institutions included tourism studies in general studies towards a B.A. degree (in the social sciences or the humanities) or within a major (such as geography) and not as a degree in tourism. Nevertheless, this manoeuvre that introduced tourism into universities through the various disciplines should be seen as a process that will probably continue to develop in coming years as was the case in countries such as England and Australia (Craig-Smith & French, 1991; Holloway, 1991). Furthermore, individual university courses in tourism are offered as part of departmental or major studies such as sociology, history and education. A number of foreign universities with branches in Israel also offer specialisations in tourism, mainly in hotel and tourism management.

For many years, in fact until recent years, most professional training in tourism was provided by government agencies or with their participation (mainly the Ministry of Tourism and the Ministry of Labour and Welfare). In order to provide training in tourism, the Central School of Tourism was established in 1962 (today it has about eight branches throughout the country). Over the years the school developed

a number of tourism courses, for travel agents, tour operators, tourism specialists, tour guides, entrepreneurial management and tourism marketing (Ministry of Tourism, 1995b, pp. 6-7). Recently it has also offered an integrated course in conjunction with the Open University that confers a general B.A. degree as well as a certificate in Tourism Management and a Licensed Travel Agent license (see Appendix 3).

Training for the hotel trade was centred mainly at the Tadmor Central School for Hospitality in Herzlia, established in 1962 as part of a government company operated jointly by the Ministry of Tourism, the Ministry of Labour and Welfare and the Israel Hotel Association, and the Dvir Hotel School for Hospitality in Haifa and Jerusalem established in 1973 by the Ministry of Labour and the Dan Hotel chain. These schools offer courses in various aspects of hospitality: the art of cooking, reception clerks, maintenance management, senior business management, restaurant management and the art of drink making (Ministry of Tourism, 1995b, pp. 8-11) (see Appendix 3).

Recent years have seen considerable development in the variety of learning opportunities in tourism. This can be attributed to two main factors: the development of new branches in tourism and hospitality with the concomitant need to train professional workers for them, and the entry of new non-governmental institutions into the area of tourism training and education (Ministry of Tourism, 1994c, pp. 52-57). The government has encouraged this process through its general policy of privatisation, and its interest in limiting direct involvement in the training process. Instead it prefers to concentrate on supervision and in licensing as needed. The Ministry of tourism adopted the recommendation of a committee that examined the training set-up for tourism industry personnel (Ministry of Tourism, 1994c) to cancel the government's monopoly on training tourism personnel. The committee

recommended that the government retain responsibility through the criteria it sets – criteria which any institution would have to meet as a precondition for being recognised by the Ministry of Tourism. As part of this policy, the School of Tourism was sold and came under the proprietorship and management of the External Studies Unit of Haifa University.

New courses in tourism developed to meet changing needs in the industry in domains such as developing tourist attractions, developing rural tourism in the periphery of Israel, including courses such as management, tourism marketing and hospitality. The need for expert personnel for each subject, together with the need to constantly update and improve the professional level of the existing working force in the branch required the development of appropriate courses. An interesting example can be drawn from rural tourism and accommodations that began to expand in the rural settlements in the peripheral areas of the country (Ministry of Tourism, 1995a). Local residents were interested in developing tourism as an alternative or additional source of employment and income, to offset the declining contribution of agriculture to the local economy. These were usually people with no knowledge in the field or access to entrepreneurial activity, marketing and managing tourism systems and rural recreation. To meet this need courses in these fields were instituted within local regional colleges for potential entrepreneurs among village residents. Appendix 3 presents data about the variety of courses and learning tracks in tourism studies in Israeli universities, colleges and vocational schools and high schools.

The study of curricula in Israeli high schools is based on the disciplinary knowledge existing in this domain, as deduced from studies in other subjects taught in the schools. The background that this chapter provides to the development of tourism education and training in the world and in Israel is preparatory to a discussion of the

issue of the content of the tourism curriculum, a source of debate whose characteristics will be presented in the next chapter.

Chapter three

The debate about the content of tourism curricula

The survey of tourism education presented in the preceding chapter leads to the discussion of the debate about the content of tourism curricula that appears in this chapter. The content of tourism degree courses has been a subject of consideration and debate for as long as tourism has been studied at degree level (Airey and Johnson, 1999, p. 229). Decisions about the principles and subject matter for degree level studies have an effect on pre-degree studies and filter down to vocational courses and tourism studies in high schools in Israel, since each subject is overseen by a supreme professional committee within the Ministry of Education, made up of educators and academic representatives and with decisive influence in decision-making matters. In addition, all learning materials produced for schools must have academic advisers. Among the functions of the professional committee is to determine and authorise the curriculum, subject matter and the various learning materials to be used. Chairing each professional committee is a senior academic figure from one of the universities; other academic figures are also on the committees, together with teachers, school principals, supervisors and representatives from the industry (Ministry of Education, Culture and Sport, 1996a). The professional committee for the tourism track in Israeli high schools conforms to these requirements and the committee has a hand in the various processes described (Ministry of Education, 2000a).

Since this thesis deals with tourism curricula, familiarity with the prominent trends in this debate is necessary as part of the theoretical background of the study. This chapter surveys the attitudes of various researchers to the debate, focusing on its main issues: the discipline/field debate, the debate about a core body of knowledge for

tourism, the training-education debate, and the concept of tourism. It also refers to some of these elements in universities and high schools in Israel.

The discipline/field debate

The epistemology of tourism (knowing what one knows about tourism is an epistemological question, epistemology being that branch of philosophy which studies knowledge) has been the subject of many claims and frameworks, mainly about the discipline/field debate (Tribe, 1997, p. 638).

Gunn (1991, p. 27), emphasising the importance of raising the question of whether tourism is still an academic discipline, agrees with those researchers who contend that tourism is a field and not a discipline. His list of the subjects included in the tourism field appears in the preceding chapter of this thesis. According to Gunn (1987, p.8), the main disciplines that he sees as contributing to tourism are Marketing, Geography, Anthropology, Behaviour, Business, Human Ecology, Political Science, Planning and Design, and Futurism (which is defined as “applied history and results” when “philosophers, scientists, technicians and planners have joined in making insightful studies of trends”).

Jafari and Ritchie (1981) offer a multidisciplinary model of tourism studies as a field. In this model, tourism studies are a centre for many disciplines. Their list of disciplines included in tourism is similar but not identical to that of Gunn (1987): Sociology, Economics, Psychology, Anthropology, Political Science, Geography, Ecology, Agriculture, Parks and Recreation, Urban and Regional Planning, Marketing, Law, Business, Transportation, Hotel and Restaurant Administration and Education.

A comparison of the two lists of disciplines indicates that both lists include Geography, Anthropology and Business. However, each has its own unique entries: Behaviour and Futurism in Gunn (1987), and Agriculture, Parks and Recreation in Jafari and Ritchie (1981). In other words, researchers are not always completely unanimous about the disciplines connected to the tourism field. Tourism studies in Israeli institutions of higher education initiated in recent years are usually part of other departments, namely Geography, Management and Land of Israel Studies (Appendix 3). This approach has implications for the material included in the high school tourism curriculum, and it is therefore no surprise that Geography, Management (hotel and tourist) and Land of Israel Studies hold a central role in the curriculum content (Ministry of Education and Culture, 1991).

Tribe (1997) provides some important elements in the background of the issues facing tourism as it develops as an area of study. He makes a case for tourism not being a discipline, contending that the attempt of some to legitimise tourism studies by wrapping them together as a discipline fails on logical grounds. Rather, he says, tourism is a field: "Fields are formed by concentrating on particular phenomena or practices such as tourism or housing engineering. They call on a number of disciplines to investigate and explain the area of interest" (p. 647).

Tribe (1997, p. 654) also suggests breaking tourism down into two fields, one concentrating on the "business inter-disciplinary approach" and the other on the non-business elements of tourism which, as he says, "does not appear to have a unifying element". According to Airey and Johnson (1999, p. 230), in practice it is difficult to maintain a precise distinction between the two types of courses, particularly with modular programmes that allow students to combine business/vocational modules with those of a non-business/non-vocational nature. The

inclusion or exclusion of industrial placements may provide a guide to the business orientation of individual courses. Indeed, it is possible to identify many courses, particularly at the postgraduate level, that are clearly vocational yet do not include placement experience. In brief, the boundaries between the types of courses are not clear-cut. Despite this, Tribe's analysis is important for the debate about a core body of knowledge for tourism and points to the possibility that a core may be developing around the business elements of tourism, while no such coherence is evident for the non-business elements. Such elements relate more closely to their underlying disciplines than to the field of tourism.

A review of academic studies in Israel reveals that hotel and tourism management studies include curriculum materials that emphasise the business aspect of tourism. Thus, for example, the Hotel and Tourist Management Department at Ben-Gurion University offers an interdisciplinary and intersubject programme with an emphasis on the business management of hotels and tourism. Courses offered belong to the main fields of organisational management, including quantitative methods, marketing, financing and long-range planning. Professional courses deal with specific fields such as hospitality, tourism and transportation in courses like managing tourism attractions, business strategies in hospitality and tourism, aviation management, catering management, hotel bookkeeping, hotel and tourist marketing, and entrepreneurial initiatives and development in tourism. The main approach is to instill an awareness of the mutual dependency of the various fields. Courses with a non-business orientation to tourism are few and deal with subjects such as the sociology of tourism, heritage tourism and the geography of tourism (Ben-Gurion University of the Negev, Hotel and Tourism Management Department, 2000). In contrast, tourism studies in the Geography Department of Haifa University do not

emphasise the business aspect as much as the diversity inherent in tourism and connections between the various subjects. Examples would be the geographic, social and environmental aspects of tourism in subjects such as: the geography of leisure, religious and pilgrimage tourism, tourism preservation, acculturation, tourism-host relations, and tourist information. Tourism courses with a business orientation are more limited to subjects such as management of tourism systems, managing tourism, transportation and aviation infrastructures (Haifa University, 2000).

The influences of these trends are reflected in the tourism tracks in Israeli high schools, in terms of the combinations of tourism subjects offered with a clearly business nature (such as tourism management, hotel management, tourism marketing, hotel bookkeeping and tourism economics), and subjects with a clearly non-business association with the field (such as the geography of tourism, social influences of tourism, environmental effects of tourism and leisure studies). A certain emphasis on applied-business areas related to professional training can also be seen in the division of learning hours (Ministry of Education, 2000, p. 2).

The debate about a core body of knowledge for tourism

The issue of establishing a core body of knowledge has been under debate for as long as tourism has been studied. Part of the survey of publications addressing and defining this problem (Airey & Johnson, 1999) is presented here.

The report issued by the Council for National Academic Awards (1993, p. 22) highlights the lack of agreement about the content of tourism programmes. Tribe (1997, p. 639) suggests that “the map or the boundaries of tourism studies are still not agreed upon”. In brief, as a new area of study whose boundaries have not had

sufficient time to become firmly established and that has attracted academics from a wide range of backgrounds, the tendency has been for academics and others to propose their own concepts and approaches.

Cooper, Scales and Westlake (1992, p. 236) note that tourism programmes “take the character of the particular expertise of its faculty”. Commenting on the situation in the United States, Koh (1994, p. 853) writes that “several studies found that most of the tourism curricula were designed by educators (influenced by individual biases) with little or no representation from the tourism industry”. Airey (1997, p. 10) suggests that in many ways there is nothing wrong with this. Different perspectives and insights are part of a subject's development. But a problem does exist, as Middleton warns in the CNAA Report (Council for National Academic Awards, 1993), if tourism is allowed to mean what academics want it to mean. Lack of clear common agreement about what tourism means creates two difficulties. First, it leads to confusion among course applicants, students and potential employers. Koh (1994, p. 854) stresses this point strongly: “If tourism hopes to gain professional recognition, curriculum diversity cannot be allowed to continue because professionalism demands standardisation”. Similarly, at the international level, Jaspres (1987) identified the need a decade ago for international harmonisation of tourism education and for a core of tourism curriculum as a first step to achieve this harmonisation. Second, and perhaps more importantly, this diversity limits opportunities for the continued development of tourism as a robust and coherent area of study. Cooper, Scales and Westlake (1992, p. 236) draw attention to the need for standardisation “in order to give the subject a credible and identifiable focus”.

This issue is further exacerbated by the development of modular course programmes. With no agreement as to what constitutes the study of tourism, there is

little to guide students in terms of modular programmes or creating a coherent area of study. Financial restrictions coupled with large student intakes and the need to achieve cost efficiency by opening large-sized classes for students drawn from a range of cognate areas led Middleton and Ladkin (1996, p. 10) to comment: “We believe that a key issue for tourism studies over the next few years is likely to focus on how far the subject can not only retain, but also develop its coherence against powerful pressures for diversification and fragmentation and the recent blurring of distinctions between courses in tourism, leisure, recreation and hospitality”.

Airey and Johnson (1999) tried to identify a core body of knowledge in tourism studies in the UK over a twenty-year period by comparing the definitions from three sources: Burkart and Medlik (1974), the Tourism Society (1981), and the National Liaison Group (1995) (see Table 2).

Table 2: Core body of knowledge (headings from three initiatives)

Burkart and Medlik (1974)	Tourism Society (1981)	National Liaison Group (1995)
Anatomy of tourism	What is tourism	The meaning and nature of tourism
Historical development	Historical development of tourism	The structure of the industry
Statistics of tourism	Statistical measurement and dimensions	The dimensions of tourism and issues of measurement
Passenger transport	Determinants and motivations in tourism	The significance and impact of tourism
Accommodation	Significance of tourism	Policy and management in tourism
Marketing in tourism	Marketing	The marketing of tourism
Planning and development	Physical planning and development	Tourism planning and management
Tours and agencies	Component sectors	
Organisation and finance	Organisation	
Future of tourism	Finance	

(Airey and Johnson, 1999, p. 231)

The first source, from the early 1970s, was based on the content of the first tourism courses, which was strongly influenced by the contents of an early and influential textbook (Burkart & Medlik, 1974). The second source, from the early 1980s, was part of a study of careers in tourism (Nightingale, 1980; Airey & Nightingale, 1981), in which the UK Tourism Society set out its own core body of knowledge. The third source, from the mid-1990s, was formulated in a document by the National Liaison Group for Tourism in Higher Education in the UK (Holloway, 1995) and was based on a report by Middleton that returned again to what he called the 'core curriculum' in the report reviewing degree courses in tourism that he prepared for the Council for National Academic Awards (CNAA) (1993). Drawing on previous work and on information supplied by academic institutions, he identified seven subject areas for the 1990s which he proposed should constitute the tourism elements of a minimum common core for tourism degrees (Table 2).

In Israel, the subjects comprising the core body of knowledge in tourism as compiled by Airey and Johnson (1999, p. 231) and presented in Table 2 (p. 66) actually appear in the curriculum of university tourism departments in Israel (Ben-Gurion University of the Negev, 2000; Haifa University, 2000) as well as in the high school tourism track curriculum. For example, professional studies in "tourism characteristics" comprise a number of different subjects such as the meaning and nature of tourism, the structure of the industry, the dimensions of tourism and issues of measurement. Tourism management and hotel management studies include marketing tourism, tourism planning and management, management policy in tourism, historical development of tourism and financing (Ministry of Education and Culture, 1991).

The main purpose of core bodies of knowledge for tourism as they have developed in the UK, is to set out a series of headings that serve to identify the topics embraced by the study of tourism. It is neither prescriptive, in the sense of that all courses have to include these headings, nor restrictive in the sense that courses cannot contain other topics. In fact, the CNAA report (1993, p.32) specifically makes the point that its core headings might represent about 20% of the total content of a degree course. Also no attempt is made to set out the relative importance of the headings. These matters are left to those who design and organise individual programmes. It is against this background that academics in the UK have broadly welcomed and supported the idea and suggested headings of a core body of knowledge (Richards, 1993; Holloway, 1995)

However, this broad base of support for a core body of knowledge does not obviate problems or controversy. The CNAA report (1993) clearly sets out the arguments in favour of a common core body: it would aid communication and transferability, provide a sounder basis for subject development and encourage recognition. It contends that if the stated objective of courses is to prepare students for careers in tourism, the content of such courses should also be broadly comparable. In rebuttal, critics such as Baum (1997) argue that this would weaken the successful development of tourism as an area of study by reducing variety, hindering flexibility and stifling innovation. He suggests that this would not only hamper the successful development of the subject in its own right but would weaken the ability of courses to meet the employment requirements of a diverse industry. Johnson (1997) summarizes the arguments against a core body of knowledge, and Airey and Johnson's (1999, p. 231) summary of the arguments pro and con such a core body are presented in Table 3.

Table 3: The case for and against a core body of knowledge

For

- Facilitate the definition of course and teaching objectives
- Assist in communicating what is offered
- Facilitate course validation and quality assurance
- Assist teachers to focus their research and develop and enhance academic integrity
- Facilitate the development of understanding and progression
- Facilitate the transferability of credits
- Facilitate communication, liaison and ease of progression

(CNAAs, 1993, p. 31)

Against

- Make tourism too homogeneous for a heterogeneous industry
- Stifle innovation and creativity
- Reduce popularity of programmes for students
- Reduce flexibility of programmes to meet needs of industry

(Johnson, 1997, p. 115)

(Airey & Johnson, 1999, p. 231)

In examining the content of degree courses in tourism, Airey and Johnson (1999) found a great deal of similarity in the provision of higher education for tourism, at least in the UK. The courses pursue very similar aims and objectives and offer similar content coverage. In short, while debate about a core curriculum continues, the courses actually being offered cover the elements representing the minimum core, by and large. However, a degree of uncertainty exists about the idea

of a minimum core, as well as some strong feelings that it is detrimental to the development of tourism as field of study.

Much discussion in recent years has centred on the development of tourism education, and particularly on the 'fit' between tourism in higher education and the tourism industry. This discussion has so far been limited to individual countries, or to comparisons between one country and another. The increasingly international scope of tourism programmes, however, will probably create a need for a much wider debate about the nature of tourism education which deals with the emerging transnational content of the curriculum and the global distribution of tourism graduates (Richards, 1998, p. 1).

After surveying the European network for tourism education, Richards (1998) argues that signs have appeared indicating that such a debate is now beginning to develop in Europe. In recent years international programmes have been developing rapidly in Europe, thanks to support from the European Commission through its ERASMUS Educational Exchange Programme, between 1989 and 1994, and its SOCRATES programme since 1996. The new programme shifts the emphasis of educational exchange agreements from a large number of small subject-based networks to 'institutional contracts' covering all subject areas in a single university. The European Commission helped to develop the European Thematic Networks (ETN), which are designed to bring together groups of academics in a single subject area on a European-wide basis to discuss issues of common interest. The stated aim of the ETN is to

define and develop a European dimension in a given academic discipline... through co-operation between university facilities or departments and academic associations. Such co-operation should lead to curriculum development which will have a lasting and widespread impact across a range of institutions (Richards, 1998, p. 1).

One successful project is the European Association for Tourism and Leisure Education (ATLAS) tourism and leisure network whose basic aims are:

to define the scope and content of the study area at European level, by developing a 'body of knowledge' for European tourism higher education; to provide a basis for Europeanising the curriculum by developing European teaching and learning resources on the basis of transnational research information; to develop European modules which can deliver transnational perspectives on tourism and leisure in a variety of contexts (Richards, 1998, p. 1).

ATLAS hopes to be able to contribute to tourism development at the European level, and ascribes great importance to the establishment of tourism as a discrete subject area in European education, rather than being an appendage to other disciplines, as has tended to be the case in the past. At the same time, it is important to build bridges to other disciplines, and not to isolate tourism from developments in other areas. In the context of ATLAS, it is particularly important to try to link tourism and leisure studies as disciplines, particularly as recent work has indicated the important contribution which leisure theory can make to the study of tourism (Ryan, 1996).

An important aspect of the ATLAS project, therefore, concerns the development of closer links between the tourism and leisure subject areas, which in the past have been separated by the production orientation of the former and the consumption focus of the latter. As the boundaries between tourism and leisure consumption become increasingly blurred, it will be important to develop new ways of analysing and teaching these subject areas. However, achieving this aim will be difficult in view of the cultural divide between the two areas, and the spatially confined distribution of leisure studies and leisure management as academic subjects (Richards, 1998, p. 3).

ATLAS hopes to be able to open up the debate on such issues in the future, particularly as the European Commission is keen on developing co-operation between

thematic networks in different subject areas. This may permit the development of initiatives in areas such as sports tourism in conjunction with the sport science network, or heritage tourism in conjunction with the archaeology network. Another objective of ATLAS is to broaden the scope of the tourism network in the future (Richards, 1998, p. 3).

These projects illustrate the need, the desire and the manner in which it is possible to formulate curricula and agreed-upon core bases of knowledge in tourism beyond national boundaries. Such transnational developments are thus not only possible theoretically but also implementable in practical terms. In a country such as Israel, which began relatively later than other countries to develop education and professional training in tourism (see Appendix 3), it would seem advisable to participate in an international project such as the ATLAS project in order to learn from the knowledge and experience amassed in other countries.

The training-education debate

Historically, the relationship between tourism education and the tourism industry has been complex and characterised by a lack of trust. Increasingly, however, both education and industry are recognising the natural benefits of developing a more co-operative relationship and the importance of narrowing the divide that has traditionally separated them. The need to satisfy both academic requirements and industrial investors creates special implications for the delivery of tourism education, as opposed to more traditional subject areas such as geography or history (Cooper & Shepherd, 1997, p. 34).

An important distinction should be drawn between tourism education and tourism training (the training-education debate) since this influences the type and depth of the relationship between industry and education. Traditionally, training has dominated the tourism sector, with vocationally-orientated courses providing the work force with the necessary craft skills. The development of training courses for transmitting practical knowledge and techniques has historically been linked to the needs of intermediaries in travel and tourism. However, increasingly, as industry demands a more professional workforce, the provision of these courses has expanded to embrace a much wider set of industrial sectors (Cooper & Shepherd, 1997, p. 35). Tourism education, on the other hand, is relatively new and in an early stage of its evolution.

Education for tourism focuses on a process that imbues individuals with a set of principles and the necessary skills to interpret, evaluate and analyse. It develops students' critical capabilities and encourages their understanding of conceptual issues in order to contribute to professional and intellectual development. While training and education have evolved independently in theoretical terms, training and education in practice are heavily interwoven. In higher level education, for example, industry views training in practical skills as essential, as is reflected in the integration of an industrial year or professional stage into the majority of degree level course structures (Cooper & Shepherd, 1997, p. 35).

The fundamental question facing tourism educators in their relationship with the tourism industry is the contribution university education makes to the grooming of an effective tourism workforce. Universities see themselves primarily as educators rather than trainers and therefore perceive their mandate as imparting an expanding

body of knowledge, both theoretical and applied, thus providing the theoretical base for the best practice in a highly competitive industry. It is evident that the dynamics of tourism education involve much more than vocational competencies; however, the case for a systematic approach and promotion of the tourism discipline by tourism educators remains a question for discussion and debate (Wells, 1996, p. 29).

In a study of tourism education in the United States in the 1990s, Koh's (1994, p. 853) view is that if tourism hopes to gain professional recognition, diversity must be reined in because professionalism demands standardisation. Furthermore, like any other market offering, the four-year tourism curriculum must be periodically reviewed so as to maintain its relevance to the needs of students and industry. The primary purpose should be to develop a tourism curriculum with the industry rather than for the industry.

In Israel, tourism studies in the Geography Department of Haifa University do not include professional training in tourism, and as noted, most courses do not deal with the commercial aspect of tourism (Haifa University, 2000). On the other hand, the Hotel and Tourism Management Department of Ben-Gurion University of the Negev requires 1200 hours of professional tourism training workshops in addition to university studies. The prevailing approach in that university is that training management personnel academically for service in the industry requires hands-on and unmediated student experience in the field (Ben-Gurion University, 2000). High schools in Israel, as noted, combine academic tourism studies with professional training. At times disagreements have arisen in Israel about the role of high school: is it to deal with training or should training be postponed until after high school graduation, with a concomitantly greater emphasis in the high schools placed on theoretical and educational aspects as a basis for developing a career or for further

studies. Among the main aims of the reform in technological education in Israel initiated in the 1990s was to strengthen academic knowledge in technological studies, among them tourism, by offering Matriculation examinations similar to those in academic tracks (Yunai, p. 197-201).

The concept of tourism

The term tourism may encompass a variety of meanings, although its everyday use generally favours the consumer and pleasure aspects of the term (Tribe, 1999, p. 75). Differentiation type analysis (Soltas, 1968) helps clarify these different meanings. According to Tribe (1997), tourism as a concept is used in three ways. First, it is a phenomenon that exists in the external world. In this sense, tourism is what people are engaged in when they visit friends and relatives, or go skiing, and this is the usage that Tribe proposes for the concept of tourism. Second, tourism has generated interest among academics engaged in the construction of a body of knowledge of tourism. This dimension of tourism is labelled the study of tourism or tourism knowledge. The third dimension has emerged from courses in tourism and may be referred to as tourism education and training.

Tribe (1999, p. 80) contends that the concept of tourism (as a phenomenon that exists in the external world) is open to different framings. According to Tribe's suggestion (Table 4) the major framings include the tourist, the business of tourism and the non-business environment. According to how tourism is framed, different phenomena are included or excluded. The tourist and the business of tourism occupy the most prominent frame, displacing much of the non-business environment framing.

Table 4: Different framings of tourism

	The Tourist	Business Environment	Non-business Environment
Focus	Consumer	Producer The economy	Stakeholder Communities Environment
Boundaries	Variable	Well-defined	Fuzzy
Aspects	Tourist activities	Business profits and economic impacts	Impacts on people and the planet
Measurement	Qualitative and Quantitative	Mainly quantitative	Mainly qualitative
Data	Tourism flows Experiences Photographs Accounts	Accounting data Economic data	Biographies Ethnographies Descriptions Ecological data Economic data
Related concepts	Traveller Recreation seeker Explorer Visitor	Conventional tourism Old tourism Hard tourism Commercial tourism	Alternative tourism New tourism Soft tourism Responsible tourism

(Tribe, 1999, p. 78)

Table 4 summarises some of the key attributes of different framings of tourism. Column 2 identifies the main features of tourism framed around tourists' activities. Column 3 presents tourism framed around its business environment, including economic impacts. Table 4 also identifies a range of features related to the different framings of tourism. For example, the terms commercial and conventional tourism (Dernoi, 1981), and hard tourism have been used to describe a territory similar to that encompassed by the business environment of tourism (Tribe, 1999, p. 78).

The territory mapped out by columns 2 and 3 describes the attributes of tourism under a narrow traditional framing. In contrast, column 4 encompasses an extended framing and is similar to what has been defined as alternative tourism. However, alternative tourism has become synonymous with a particular prescriptive discourse which endorses a specific attitude to tourism. Under this heading, responsible tourism, eco-tourism and green tourism have variously been used to underline the purposes of alternative tourism. The prescription carried by these terms is to minimise the negative impacts of tourism on its environment. Lanfant and Graburn (1994, p. 92) criticise alternative tourism as an empty concept, arguing that it cannot maintain a steady meaning as it is always relative to something else – generally what is mainstream or conventional.

One of the purposes of delineating the non-business environment of tourism is to allow the concept of tourism more scope, to rescue it from an over-concentration on the tourist and associated business and to capture the wider imprint of tourism. Thus, “tourism society” is expanded to include hosts and other stakeholders, and “tourism world” is extended to include the physical environmental or planet upon which tourism is enacted (Tribe, 1999, p. 79).

According to Pearce (1991, p. 300), an emphasis on a flexible, creative, mindfulness-inducing approach to tourism education is highly consistent with personal development goals – not only in terms of creative abilities but in more socio-emotional and personal development, stress management and relationship skills. Recognition that these universals are best taught as a part of the education process and not as content in tourism courses, will help to promote professional advancement in the tourism specialisation. It is possible to argue that classifying the learning style of

tourism as concrete and reflective supports and provides rich opportunities for a mindfulness-inducing approach to tourism education.

In evaluating the effectiveness of a series of exercises designed to create mindful approaches to tourism decision-making, Moscardo (1997, p. 23) finds general support for the use of mindfulness training exercises for developing more flexible thinking among tourism management students. Mindfulness seems a particularly appropriate concept to apply to tourism and to management as many questions in tourism seem best answered with a definite “could be”.

According to Woolcock (1991, p. 282), few would deny that graduates should have a sound knowledge of their industry and the skills needed to perform well within it. Moreover, one of the most important of these skills in the tourism industry is an awareness and appreciation of not only how one’s own society functions, but how others perceive and respond to it. The nature of industrial relations, employment conditions, and the rapid expansion within the tourism industry demand that professionals have problem-solving skills, are able to see alternative ways of proceeding, and are able to transcend cultural barriers. Sociology has much to offer in the realisation of these important and ideals.

Ryan (1995) addresses the perceived over-production of graduates from university tourism courses. He argues that any debate conducted in terms of a simple student supply-industry demand relationship deals with only part of the problem and fails to recognise the wider changes within education and the changing pattern of the wider workplace. He concludes that in a postmodernist society, good reasons can be found for responding to student demands, with certain qualifications.

This chapter has presented the main central issues in the tourism education debate over curricular content and concepts. For a better understanding of curricular

research, the next chapter presents a survey of the development of curricular studies, as background for the research in this thesis.

Chapter four

Development of curriculum exploration and evaluation

The purpose of this chapter is to present a view of curriculum development and evaluation as an independent domain within the education sciences. Included are definitions of curriculum and its domains, a conceptual view of curriculum and teachers' views of curriculum. These issues underlie the disciplinary basis for the present research, which investigates the tourism curriculum. The principles of curriculum research can lead to approaches and models of research of all the subjects for which curricula have been prepared, among them tourism. Curriculum research in tourism can be based on scientific knowledge accumulated from studies of other school subjects in Israel and the world.

Curriculum evaluation, which will be discussed further on in the chapter, developed as an integral part of curriculum research in order to meet the need of evaluating curriculum results and achievements. This chapter presents methods and processes of and approaches to curriculum evaluation. This thesis, which deals with the evaluation of tourism curricula, is based on the various approaches described herein and relies on the evaluative tools dealt with in the chapter.

Survey of curriculum development

Development of curriculum development as a scientific pursuit with a recognised status began only in the 1950s, even though it was possible to discern the systematic and scientific principles of curriculum development much earlier, as in the books by Bobbitt (1918, 1924, 1941). Bobbitt presented a systematic administrative model for planning curricula that was influenced to a great extent by the conceptions

of Frederick Taylor (1911). Bobbitt saw his model as an auxiliary aid for curriculum planners and teachers, whereby the learners undergo a series of experiences and activities in order to attain the aims of the curriculum. Bobbitt saw the final aim as training the younger generation to effectively perform their jobs when they grew up.

Tyler (1949) details the scientific foundations of curriculum development, and in essence, the information base he set down is dominant to this day. Although Tyler's model has undergone significant changes and variations, his ideas are still influential today. It should be noted that Taylor not only theorised, he also practised what he preached, and thus gave a scientific basis to his theories.

The technological competition between the former USSR and the Western world, especially the United States, instigated many of the changes and the revolution in education. The Federal government of the United States allocated tremendous budgets for improving teaching in American schools, and a considerable part of this money was channelled to producing new school curricula. This process transpired a few years after Taylor's book was published, which is what led to such great interest in and influence of his ideas and their application. In the United States and England, and a few years later in many other places in the world, many centres were established for developing school curricula (Guri-Rosenblitt, 1996, p. 16). Israel was one of the pioneers in this area and in 1966 the Ministry of Education and Culture established a centre for curricula, after a number of projects for curriculum development had already been conducted in various university departments.

Since the beginning of the 70s, many new centres for curriculum development have appeared in the world. At the same time, journals are devoted to the subject, such as Curriculum Inquiry, and the Journal of Curriculum Studies.

Rogan and Luckowski (1990) conducted a comparative study of nine basic and popular textbooks on curricula that are taught in hundreds of colleges around the United States and elsewhere in the world, and found that the history of curriculum studies in the books they examined is presented from Ancient Greece until the 1960s. They found that the academic area of curriculum, in contrast to other areas of education (educational psychology, educational sociology, educational management) around which their practitioners had drawn clear boundaries, was growing and expanding into many areas, and its boundaries were more open than in the stages of its formulation. Rogan and Luckowski indicate the lack of consensus among various writers about the subjects of the discipline, for example: curricular theory, the principal approaches to the area and its main concepts. Some researchers of curriculum emphasise the examination of the leading theoretical paradigms in curriculum (Eisner, 1985; Schubert, 1986), while others contend that it is important to follow the historical development of curricular theory (Zais, 1976; Schubert, 1986; Walker, 1990). Some think the main effort should be expended in basing curriculum as a scientific, theoretical and academic domain. Others contend the importance of practical models through which planners and activators of curriculum can work (Schwab, 1971; Walker, 1990; Walker & Soltis, 1991).

The definition of curriculum and its domains

The term “curriculum” derives from the Latin verb ‘currere’ which means to run, to advance. This means that curriculum means a path or direction of progress. Curriculum vitae means a description of the course of one’s life, and curriculum in educational terms means planning a series of studies and the progress of the students at various levels and in various frameworks. Curriculum can be defined in many

ways, from the narrowest meaning in which it is perceived as an outline presenting aims, principles and study subjects of a given subject or course (the synonym would be “syllabus”). Others interpret curriculum as meaning learning materials that include textbooks, workbooks, work pages, and guides for the teacher and student, auxiliary aids and illustrative materials. In a wider version, curriculum is perceived as a set of planning, activation and evaluation of teaching/learning processes in a given subject, beginning with the planning and evaluation of learning material, through its actual implementation in the field, and to the ongoing and final evaluation of the learning/teaching processes and the students’ achievements. Because of the many interpretations, misunderstandings can develop (Guri-Rosenblitt, 1996, p.11).

Shermer (1993, p.1) determines that since there is no unequivocal and accurate definition of curriculum, it changes according to the position of the person defining it and the meanings stemming from that definition in relation to the individual’s specific work. According to this, Shermer believes that “curriculum” says different things to different people. He proposes using curriculum as a code word for the specific meaning it has in a given circle and in a given context, and not as an unequivocal, set and universal concept. This disciplinary approach means that each group of people using the word must set its meaning - teachers, parents, principals, teaching mentors, teacher educators, curriculum writers, educational policy-makers and other interested parties.

Guri-Rosenblitt (1996, p. 12) contends that Shermer’s (1993) conclusion reflects one of the prominent developments in curriculum in the past two decades. There is no more searching for one rational, all-encompassing theory with one uniform model for all curriculum makers the world over. The emphasis is placed on variety and the relativity of the educational work. Awareness is growing that

educational processes involve many “interested parties” and each one has his own view, needs and approaches to planning implementing curriculum. Education policy-makers at the macro level of international or national policy need different models from those used by classroom teachers. Subject coordinators for curriculum must be sensitive to the needs and roles of the partners in implementing the curriculum in the various subjects.

One of the substantial subjects that relate to the boundaries of curriculum centres on the question: what is the reciprocal relationship between curriculum and teaching/learning processes? Many answers can be given to this question, and they can be classified into three main approaches. One sees teaching/learning processes as a sub-subject of curriculum and sees the latter as the main implementation of the pre-teaching planning. A second approach sees the two as separate issues, of equal value in the hierarchy, between which there are reciprocal relations. The third approach sees curriculum as a subdivision within the theories dealing with learning/teaching processes (Guri-Rosenblitt, 1996, p. 12). During the last two decades curricular planning and development, and learning/teaching theories have come much closer to one another. Curriculum experts deal more and more with the significance and consequences of learning theories and learning/teaching styles for the planning, developing and implementation stages of curriculum. At the same time, curricular theory holds a place of honour in the teacher education process and in professional in-service courses for teachers (Silberstein, 1983, 1990; Ariav, 1992).

What has characterised the development of curricula as an academic field in the last twenty years has been the growing tendency to redirect the weight of curricular planning from professional centres to the schools, the classroom teachers, the pupils and other interested parties in the education system. The centralised

approach has been giving way to decentralised approaches. Increasing attention has been devoted to examining the processes in the field and to in-depth observation of the complex interrelationship of theory and practice. As long ago as the late 1960s, Schwab (1971) emphasised that the curricular field was in a sad state and was destined to extinction if those involved persisted in their stubborn adherence to theories and did not direct more of their energies to the practical aspects. According to Schwab, only through examination of educational events by those in the field could the dying curriculum field be revived and injected with vitality.

Since the early 1980s increasing attention has been paid to the central role of teachers in the process of implementing and interpreting curricula. Eden, Moses and Amiad (1986) summarised the trends of the transition from the “centre” (professional centres for planning and developing curricula) to the “periphery” (the schools), emphasising that the two extremes of “centre” and “periphery” form a continuum of planning options. Possibilities include fruitful cooperation between teachers, groups of teachers, the school as a unit, a community centre and the professional centres. Another approach evolving is that of school-based curriculum planning (SCP) that places the school at the centre of the curriculum-planning experience. This approach emphasises that the arena of curricular decisions is the school as an organic unit (Skilbeck, 1984; Robertson et al., 1995). The SCP approach is based on a view of the school as an autonomous framework.

As noted earlier, “curriculum” and “teaching/learning” have drawn closer to each other during the past decades. Curriculum development is no longer perceived as a pre-teaching stage that produces signed and sealed curricula as final products where the teacher’s role is simply to implement them. Emphasis is now placed on examination of the ongoing process of curricular development. Ben-Peretz (1974,

1990) coined the phrase “curriculum potential” to encompass the spectrum of possibilities that can be extracted from using learning materials prepared in professional centres or written by external writers. Moreover, Ben-Peretz (1990) tried to relieve teachers of the “tyranny of the written text”. As she sees it, teachers should exploit the potential latent within written texts as creatively and as richly as they can, and then go beyond the texts, giving maximal expression to the personalities, skills, knowledge, tendencies and traits of their students. Implementing and interpreting curricula during the actual teaching/learning processes become an inseparable part of their essence. Materials developed by outside experts are thus perceived as learning materials that require further development to be turned into teaching situations in the classroom.

Most of the professional literature on the subject of curriculum during the 1980s and 1990s criticises the concept of curriculum as a product that stands unto itself (Guri-Rosenblitt, 1996). Sheinman (1995), who developed the “organic curriculum planning” model, emphasises that

organic curriculum planning sees the curriculum not as a product – a written and set curricular document as is prominently accepted in industrial models and in other models with sociological, anthropological or psychological orientations – but rather as a process. This is a process of joint experimenting by teachers and pupils with the nature of an event. There are set participants and a defined time and place. This is a process that invites unpredictable opportunities based on the clarification and proper understanding of the conditions in which it takes place. Therefore, it is exploratory and rational (pp. 36-37).

Formulation of objectives and curriculum planning

Great weight has been attributed to the formulation of objectives as a basic and inviolable condition for planning curricula of any sort. Criticism of this condition, in the main, addressed the following points: lack of quality control to examine the nature and worthiness of the objectives, the elimination of important objectives in education

because of the inability to define them in behavioural terms, and the setting of objectives as an initial stage in the process of curriculum planning (Guri-Rosenblitt, 1996, p. 14).

The great emphasis placed on the formal formulation of crystal-clear objectives diverted attention from their nature and quality. The three rules for formulating behavioural objectives (Mager, 1962) can serve as a manifest example: the overt act that the learner must perform should be defined; the conditions under which the behaviour is to be performed should be defined; clear criteria must be set down for assessing the behaviour. However, the question arises whether the fact that a given objective is formulated clearly according to Mager's rules makes it an important and worthy aim to be attained as part of the studies. It is also possible to use these rules and offer totally meaningless definitions. The critics of the behavioural objectives contended that they lacked a quality control mechanism for examining their nature and worthiness. In their view, training the spotlights on form overshadowed the importance of content. Thus, it is important that the formulators of objectives at all levels be aware and careful not only about the style and form but also, perhaps even mainly, about the essence of the objectives (Guri-Rosenblitt, 1996).

Furthermore, many critics claimed that emphasising the formulation of behavioural objectives caused many other important objectives in the curriculum to disappear or be omitted since they could not be defined in behavioural terms. Eisner (1970) came out in the 1960s against the tendency to delineate objectives only in terms of how people act. He emphasised that important central educational objectives cannot be formulated behaviourally, but this does not detract from their importance (for example, to appreciate the meaning of Milton's Paradise Lost). In addition, detailed objectives accurately delineate the final product and expect that it will be

identical among all learners, while a considerable portion of the educational experience is artistic activity that cannot be defined and its outcomes cannot be predicted. The interaction process between teacher and pupils creates a variety of products. Therefore, Eisner distinguished between teaching objectives that specifically indicate the special behaviour that the pupil must acquire after having completed a given activity, and expressive objectives that are accepted as unforeseeable and can be known only after the fact. Eisner notes that there is place for both types of objectives, according to the domain of the material being learned, but in his opinion the weight of the expressive objectives is much greater in the education field (Guri-Rosenblitt, 1996, p. 15).

Additional criticism took aim at the designation of objectives as the first stage of the linear planning of learning activities. Walker (1971), in his “naturalistic model,” contended that it is not natural to formulate clear, detailed and precise objectives as the first step of curriculum planning.

Curriculum planners usually begin with a platform that includes a set of their beliefs, values and knowledge in a given subject. Only after experimentation and a process of elucidation and debate are they able to select the best alternative for presenting a given subject. Therefore, only at a more advanced stage of the planning and developing process of any curriculum is it possible to formulate its objectives in well-defined detail. During the first stage of groping and seeking the way, planners do not have sufficient information or the proper tools to define clearly and definitively the objectives of the curriculum of a given subject (Guri-Rosenblitt, 1996).

It is important to note that the criticisms raised about objectives are not intended to dismiss their importance or undermine their status in the process of planning, developing and implementing curricula. They are intended, instead, to shine

a critical spotlight mainly on the behavioural approach that ruled curricular theory in the sixties and seventies and to stress that broad, inclusive or vague objectives have an essential role in education. They also want to emphasise that it is not possible to define all “educational products” in terms of “final products” as is possible in industrial and technocratic frameworks (Guri-Rosenblitt, 1996).

A conceptual view of curriculum

According to Walker (1971), Bridgham (1971) and Strauss (1972), it is possible to differentiate between the terms “conception” and “platform.” The platform is the province of those who engage in writing the curriculum itself. It provides them with considerations for discussion and in its framework decisions are taken that determine the content and form of the curriculum. Platform has both overt and covert aspects. Overtly, the platform is written after it has been formulated and appears openly in a programme or curriculum. It can be analysed through contextual analysis of the programme’s rationale. The covert aspect is everything that does not appear in the curriculum but is documented in the work that accompanies the discussions leading to decisions. Teachers are interested in the overt aspect of the platform since that is the basis for formulating the conception, found in various statements, that expresses the decisions that the authors took regarding various aspects of the curriculum.

Silberstein and Ben-Peretz (1983) defined aspects common to most curricula which in their opinion constitute the conceptual framework of the curriculum, i.e., the overt side of the curriculum’s platform.

- a. **The essence of the subject:** How the curriculum authors see and define the discipline with which they are dealing, what it includes and what its special qualities are.
- b. **The essence of teaching the subject:** How the curriculum writers see the manner of teaching the subject under discussion, whether from the viewpoint of the subject's essence or from any other viewpoint, and what they consider the preferred teaching-learning methods to be.
- c. **The place of the subject being taught in school studies in general:** The unique contributions the subject makes to the learners' personality. How the subject can be integrated with the other school subjects.
- d. **The image of the teacher implementing the curriculum:** What is the image of the teachers who are supposed to function within the curriculum framework? What is required of them? Are they perceived as having professional or pedagogical authority? Are they perceived as autonomous teachers able to deliberate, select, plan or create learning materials?
- e. **The image of the learners:** How the writers think the curriculum can or should be adapted to the various target populations.

The teachers' need for "autonomous expression" is reflected in various domains grounded in the concept (Silberstein & Ben-Peretz, 1983, p. 26). Following are three of the domains:
 - a. **The syllabus domain:** Teachers familiar with the curriculum and able to reveal its conception can use it when setting long-range educational objectives. This familiarity will sharpen their critical approach to the syllabus and help them in making decisions, criticising and filtering materials when preparing various learning materials in the spirit of the syllabus.

- b. **The learning material domain:** Teachers are offered a wide variety that includes many didactic formats. Teachers may use all or some of them when building their instructional plans. The teachers' role is to read the learning materials critically in order to exploit the educational potential inherent in them. They must choose the appropriate materials, changing and adapting them to their needs, and perhaps even create learning materials themselves.
- c. **The instructional plans domain:** In this domain the teachers set down their instructional plans for defined time spans, such as a semester. Preparing these plans requires the intelligent use of sources. The planners must weigh a number of factors such as learning methods, contextual variables, timing, emphases and organising a varied and stimulating learning environment. These plans are supposed to be both original and faithful to the concept as well as considerate of the needs of the pupils, the school and the community. They are individual by their very nature.

In essence, the activity of autonomous teachers does not occur schematically and only in one domain at any given time. Their activity is varied and transpires in a number of domains simultaneously. This is a consequence of viewing the curriculum as an evolving process that is part of the planning policy of the education system. Familiarity with the curricular conception thus facilitates the basic role of autonomous teachers: to know the objectives, principles and underlying assumptions of the curriculum and to reveal the considerations that guided the authors. Similarly, it invites teachers to criticise or identify with the writers' decisions, rationales and considerations.

How the teachers and students perceive and evaluate the curriculum and its implementation can be investigated by examining their attitudes towards the curriculum.

Attitudes

The literature for the behavioural sciences and psychology contains a number of studies about attitudes (Ajzen, 1988, 1993; Eagly & Chaiken, 1993) but no definition of attitude can be found that is shared by all. A number of common general characteristics exist from which "attitudes" can be seen as intentions to evaluate reality positively or negatively and a tendency to express these evaluations in cognitive, affective and behavioural responses. Studies usually indicate a close correspondence between attitude components and behaviour, therefore, learning about attitudes can help to predict behaviour.

Entity here means the object of an attitude including individuals, inanimate objects, concepts, social groups, nations, social policies and behaviours. The cognitive component of an attitude consists of beliefs, opinions, knowledge or information held by a person towards an entity. Cognitive indicators of an attitude thus involve verbal expression or beliefs or non-verbal perceptual reactions. The affective component of an attitude is its emotional or feelings segment. Affective responses include verbal expressions of feelings towards the attitude object as well as physiological reactions, facial expressions and other non-verbal indicators of positive or negative feelings. Finally, the connotative component of an attitude refers to behavioural inclinations, plans, intentions and commitments, as well as overt motor acts involving the attitude entity (Ajzen, 1993, p. 42).

The concept as seen by the teachers

How the teachers see the concept has two main aspects (Adar & Fuchs, 1978): the cognitive aspect that refers to familiarity with the concept, and the affective aspect that refers to the teachers' identification with this concept. Connelly (1979) calls them the overt aspect and the covert aspect. The overt aspect is expressed by the extent to which teachers recognise the characteristics of the curriculum so that they can implement it properly. The covert aspect refers to the extent of the teachers' internal identification with the "spirit" of the curriculum. Thus it is not sufficient to assess the overt aspect since in many cases it is actually the covert aspect that determines the success of the curriculum. In a study of 50 teachers implementing a new curriculum, Harron (1971) found only eight who correctly interpreted the viewpoints of the curriculum. In his opinion, the assumption that teachers undertaking to teach according to a new curriculum actually understand its rationale, has no basis.

In terms of teacher awareness (the cognitive aspect) and teacher identification with the rationale (the affective aspect), Harron (1971) defines four possible situations:

- a. Teachers do not grasp the curriculum planners' viewpoint appropriately and their personal opinions do not coincide with the curriculum's viewpoint.
- b. Teachers do not grasp the curriculum's viewpoint properly but their personal opinions coincide with the viewpoint of the curriculum.
- c. Teachers grasp the curriculum's viewpoint correctly but their personal opinions are not in agreement with it.
- d. Teachers grasp the curriculum's viewpoint correctly and there is overlap between their views and that of the curriculum.

Obviously, in terms of implementing the curriculum, the fourth option is the most desirable (Harron, 1971).

The importance of teacher identification with a curriculum is presented both by curriculum writers and developers and by researchers, on the basis of evaluative findings (Dreyfus et al., 1985). According to Shavit (1976), only if teachers understand the curriculum and identify with its objectives is it possible to expect success. Tamir (1975) found that pupils whose teachers expressed personal opinions in consonance with the curriculum's rationale showed a clearer preference for the thinking patterns that characterised the curriculum. This finding indicates a possible correlation between students' opinions and teachers' conceptions.

From the definitions presented in this chapter of the general field of curriculum and the survey of related subjects in education, it can be seen that curriculum evaluation has become an independent aspect of curriculum research. Since this thesis deals with the evaluation of tourism curricula in high schools in Israel, a survey of the literature about issues and processes involved in curricular evaluation is in order.

The development of curriculum evaluation

Since the 1950s, many countries have begun to develop large-scale projects for writing and improving school curricula. In developing countries, the need for this derives from the introduction of new educational methods, and in the developed countries, it stems from dissatisfaction with the existing curricula which emphasised mainly knowledge and memorising, with less emphasis on ways of thinking. Furthermore, these books (mainly textbooks), had a great influence on the nature of the activities and teaching methods used in the classroom. Teachers concentrated

mainly on explaining the material appearing in the books, and questions that the pupils were asked in class could be answered easily with the information gleaned, or memorised, from the textbooks. Expansion of the curriculum development activities gave momentum to evaluation programs in education. Both the initiating agents with their supervisors and the program developers themselves were interested in proof that the new curricula brought more satisfactory results (Lewy, 1977).

This evaluation examined to what extent the new curricula were relevant to the needs of society and the learner, the scientific significance and validity of the new learning material, the ability of the program to interest teachers and students through the use of series of learning materials. Moreover, it was necessary to answer questions such as: to what extent is it worth using a program developed for learning the material? Does the material reflect recent innovations in knowledge and in the scientific areas dealt with by the material? Is the material free of conceptual and ideological obstacles? Is the program better than the one it supersedes and is it worth implementing? Does the program encourage the development of students' skills? Does the program contribute to the development of students' ideas and values? Do the teachers accept the program's approaches and objectives? Can the program cause unexpected results?

In order to answer questions of this type, systematic models have been developed in the realm of curriculum evaluation and in recent decades, curriculum evaluation has taken its place as an independent field within the education sciences (Lewy, 1977, pp. 4-5).

Different researchers place different emphases in their definitions of evaluation and the new methods of assessment (Owen, 1985; Cannel, 1989; Haladyna, Hass, and Nolen, 1990; Wolf, Bixsby, Glenn and Gardner, 1991; Berlak et al., 1992;

Gipps, 1992; Eisner 1993). Assessment is a general term that includes the full complement of methods and means of obtaining information about students' learning and about a value judgement of their progress in studies with reference to the quality of the individuals' performance (Birenbaum, 1997). The definition given by Gipps (1994) is broader and reflects more an innovative interpretation that is prevalent in England of the term assessment. According to Gipps, assessment is "A wide range of methods for evaluating pupil performance and attainment including formal testing and examination, practical and oral assessment, classroom based assessment carried out by teachers, and portfolios" (p. vii).

The use of the term 'assessment' indicates in most cases a focus on the students and on the learning process (Eisner, 1993; Popham, 1993; Lewy, 1997), as well as criticism of the psychometric tests (Madaus & Kellaghan, 1993; Popham, 1993). Those using assessment raise questions about the relevance of certain psychometric principles of evaluating educational achievement (Lewy, 1997; Madaus & Kellaghan, 1993).

The innovative features of the assessment system used in England have been discussed at length in the professional literature (Nattall, 1991; Gipps, 1992; Gipps, 1994; Harlem, 1994; Daugherty, 1995). The basic parameters of the new assessment approach follow the recommendations of a planning committee known as the Task Group on Assessment and Testing (TGAT) 1987 (Zohar, 2000). In the United States, the National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) uses the term 'assessment' to indicate a consistent effort to supply information on pupil achievement at both the nation-wide and specific group levels. No attempt is made to judge specific schools or provide information on individual tests (Lewy, 1990).

In an attempt to differentiate between 'assessment' and 'evaluation', Birenbaum (1997) says defines 'evaluation' as "the ability to qualitatively and/or quantitatively judge the value of elements such as: ideas, works, methods, curricula and learning materials, using criteria or standards in order to determine matters such as accuracy, effectiveness, advantages and disadvantages" (p. 313). The emphasis in this definition is on evaluative analysis.

Since this study focuses on a school subject and on a specific curriculum in tourism, it appears that the most suitable definition to the nature of the study is the extended definition given by Cronbach (1974), who uses the term 'evaluation' and the definitions of Alkin (1974) and Stufflebeam (1974). Cronbach's definition includes both the meaning of 'assessment' and 'evaluation'. The definitions offered by Alkin and Stufflebeam are relevant to this research because they relate, in the main, to curriculum evaluation. Cronbach defined evaluation broadly as "the gathering and utilisation of information for making decisions about an educational program" (p. 53). The program can include a series of learning content intended for use in all schools in the state, educational activities for one individual school or even educational experiments for an individual pupil. Various decisions are required here, and many different types of information are needed. Therefore, it is clear that evaluation is a diverse activity and that one system of principles alone cannot encompass all situations.

Cronbach discerns three types of decisions in which evaluation are used:

1. Improving the learning material: providing adequate content and methods where there is need for change.

2. Decisions about individuals: identifying the needs of the pupils for planning their studies, determining their ability for classification and grouping, and evaluating the pupils on their progress and their difficulties.
3. Administrative supervision: determining the level of the school system and the level of the teachers.

The Centre for Evaluation in the United States defined evaluation as “a process of determining crucial areas, of choosing the information connected to the decisions and collecting this information and processing it in order to provide concise data that will help decision makers in their choice among various options” (Alkin, 1974, p. 76). According to Stufflebeam (1974, pp. 82-83), evaluation generally means providing information through formal means such as criteria, measurements and statistics in order to provide a rational basis for judging issues that are essential in decision-making situations. He further defines key terms within his definition: a decision is a choice among various alternatives. A decision-making situation is a series of alternatives. Judgement is the attribution of a set value to the alternatives. A criterion is a rule according to which a set value is attributed to alternatives, and optimally, this includes a detailing of the variables for measurement, and standards for judging everything that has been measured. Statistics is the science of analysis and interpretation of series of measurements. A measurement is the attribution of numbers to entities according to rules, and these rules usually contain samples, measurement instruments and conditions for using the measurement instruments and summarising results. In short, evaluation is the science of providing information for taking decisions.

Evaluation of school curricula is a practical activity and its nature is determined by certain conditions. Evaluation weighs the advantages and

disadvantages of a given educational program which was prepared and implemented as part of a given organisational and social framework. The manner in which an evaluation should be prepared and executed depends on the circumstances surrounding development and implementation of the program. A model that meets the needs of one situation may not necessarily fit other situations. The strategy and systems of evaluation vary according to the definition of learning curriculum, the nature of the education system for which the curriculum is intended, and the organisational structure of the evaluative activities (Lewy, 1974).

The methodology of evaluation includes four functions: collection, organisation, analysis and report. Criteria for evaluating the suitability of the evaluation includes validity (is this the information that is needed by the decision maker?), reliability (is the information repeatable?), timing (does the information appear at a time that the decision maker needs it?), distribution (does the information reach all those involved in the decision making?), and authenticity (does the decision maker trust the information?) (Stufflebeam, 1974).

A considerable lack of clarity exists in the differentiation between the study of curricula and curriculum evaluation activities and according to Baker (1974), this will only grow because of the tendency of many researchers to deal in their studies with the “process” as well as the “product.” Goodlad and Richter (1966) indicated the importance of longitudinal studies and the application of computer technology to the study of complex and interdependent variables. Logically, and perhaps even semantically, it is still possible to distinguish between research and evaluation, but it would not be effective to base this distinction on a literature survey that deals with the study and evaluation of curricula. The distinction between curriculum study and curriculum evaluation, on the basis of the terms used by the researchers in the titles of

their articles and on the basis of the operational definitions that they give to the terms in the body of the article, is almost impossible. The literature reflects quite extensive agreement, on a global level, about the objective of evaluative activities. However, beyond this, large differences are revealed in the subjects of the foci and methodology of evaluation. It seems that the creation of an empirical basis for the examination of means, content and methods is the joint task of evaluative samples (Baker, 1974).

Different approaches to curriculum evaluation

The list of criteria for evaluating learning material is allegedly anchored in common sense and is supposed to express the “natural logic” of educators. Thus it stands to reason that this list should be connected to the teacher interested in evaluating given learning materials. This approach raises the claim of subjectivity in analysis and evaluation. In order to balance the subjectivity reflected both in the choice of subjects for analysis and in the evaluation, it is proposed that an instrument be prepared that includes independent variables from a specific profession (Eden, 1985, p. 4).

A more objective evaluation instrument may be based on the professional literature and in the study of teaching and it can help in making rational decisions instead of using vague intuitive judgement. The roles of such an instrument are: (a) to collect data systematically, and (b) to direct the analysis in keeping with the aims of the evaluation (Eash, 1974).

Various evaluation instruments developed over the years rely on Tayler’s (1950) and Schwab’s views of curriculum planning as well as the didactic approaches prevalent today. Tyler gives us evaluation from the viewpoint of the subject matter, the learner and society. These three sources serve Tayler as a basis for determining the

aims of curricula and they provide criteria for evaluating learning materials. Schwab provides us with the foundations for adaptation to the teacher and adaptation to the environment (i.e., to the community in which the school is located, school conditions and social climate). Bruner (1966) adds an emphasis on the long-term value of studies which also serves as a balance for short-term evaluation. His question – is the material developed worthy of an adult, in his opinion? – is at the basis of the discussion on the various ranges for evaluating learning materials.

Eden (1985, p. 6) discerns a number of approaches in the domain of evaluating learning material. These approaches differ in terms of: (1) who determines the criteria, (2) the source of the criteria, (3) the scope and range of the criteria, (4) the evaluation method, and (5) the scope of the aims.

1. Who determines the criteria: Are those creating the criteria doing so for their own direct work or are they theoreticians and people in the field creating criteria for other evaluators?

Ben-Peretz, Katz and Silberstein (1982) present a list of criteria identified by teachers from content items selected at random. These criteria were separated into the following categories: content, teaching strategy, learners' tasks, level of difficulty, intellectual demands, form of the learning material, language, and classroom management. According to their findings, different teachers focused on different criteria: experienced teachers of English concentrated on teaching strategies and on giving learner tasks, while teachers of Arabic emphasised the structure of the book and the print (Arabic letters have four forms, depending on their place in the word). Teachers in disadvantaged schools were oriented towards the learner and cognitive demands. First year preservice teaching students in the teaching faculty emphasised

content, while third year preservice teachers emphasised teaching strategies and the learners.

Ben-Peretz, Katz and Silberstein (1982) are aware that the number of categories dwindles as teachers formulate their own approach, and they believe that the personal conceptual patterns that teachers may use for analysing and interpreting learning materials require supplementation by a systematic list of criteria.

A systematic list of criteria is by nature anchored in a theoretical basis and is prepared by a professional or a professional group and undergoes experimentation by evaluators and teachers before its public publication. It is only reasonable that a systematic list prepared by professionals be adapted to the needs of the teachers using it, either by choosing appropriate criteria from the list or by supplementing the list themselves (Eden, 1985, p. 7).

2. The source of the criteria: Do the criteria derive from the stated goals or characteristics of the curriculum and learning material or from goals determined outside of the curriculum and the material? The source of the criteria can be extrinsic or intrinsic. The list of criteria will be treated as extrinsic if it is inclusive of all the products and is independent of the aims and principles of the learning material being assessed. Such a general list is anchored in a theoretical approach. An intrinsic list is based on the aims, principles and stated characteristics in the learning materials that can be analysed and assessed (Eden, 1985, p. 8).

Theoretically, this approach is based on the discrimination by Goodlad et al. (1979) among the various levels of designing curricula:

- a. The ideal level, as expressed in the professional literature.
- b. The formal level, as expressed in the document.
- c. The level perceived by the teachers.

- d. The level implemented in class.
- e. The level achieved by the learners.

According to this approach, the characteristics of the program are stated or inherent in the material itself and the assessor examines the extent of the expression given to these characteristics in the learning materials in its various incarnations.

When analysing the processes of implementing a curriculum, attention must be paid to problematic foci. Goodlad, Klein and Tye (1979) see the critical stages as the transitions, the “rollovers” of the curriculum as it makes its way from theory to practice (ideal- formal-perceived-activation-experiential). They also emphasise the importance of curricular variables in determining the nature of the implementation. In the model that they developed, the researchers defined five levels of curriculum “rollover,” beginning with formulation of the planners’ intentions (the ideal curriculum), through teacher implementation in actual practice (the implemented curriculum), and concluding with the learners’ experiences in the classroom (the experiential curriculum). In the transition from stage to stage, changes may occur and gaps may be created. To locate these gaps, Goodlad and colleagues proposed characterising each of the levels of rollover by means of curricular variables and by means of qualitative variables that describe each curricular variable. They describe their model as three-dimensional: in each of the five levels of curriculum rollover, nine curricular variables are mentioned in the vertical dimension and nine qualitative variables are mentioned in the horizontal dimension (Zabar Ben-Yehoshua, 1988, p. 17).

Following are details of the five levels of the curriculum according to the model of Goodlad et al. (1978):

The ideal level is defined as the beliefs, opinions, values and views of professionals and educators about what the curriculum about to be developed should express. This level is expressed in a curriculum outline proposal, documents of the pedagogical secretariat, lectures, the legislative education committee and articles.

The formal level is composed of written statements that express what should be done so that curricular ideas and intentions can be realised. These are the expectations and the intentions of the curriculum developers, as expressed in their translation into accessible learning materials.

The perceptual level is the curriculum as it is perceived by the teachers utilising it. Teachers bring their own values, beliefs, experience and abilities to their planning for implementation. This level is in the head of the teacher, and can be revealed by means of questionnaire or conversation.

The activation level is everything that happens in practice in the class during teaching. This level can be observed as the curriculum is implemented in the classroom or in any other learning environment.

The experiential level is the one in which the learners try out the curriculum, and it can be interpreted in two aspects: a. How the learners perceive the curriculum being learned, and b. The products expressed in their academic achievements.

Each of the above levels has, as mentioned, curricular variables which are defined as follows:

1. Aims: The set of intentions in the cognitive, affective and motor domains.
2. Materials: Various aids intended to assist the learning.
3. Content: Subjects and processes on which the materials are based.
4. Learning activities: Opportunities or tasks in which the learners participate.
5. Strategies: Teaching initiatives to be activated by the teacher.

6. Assessment: A set of activities for collecting, using and distributing information and feedback about the learner's cognitive, affective and motor development.
 7. Organisation: The place of the learner, alone or with others, during the learning.
 8. Time: The allocation and use of time by the teacher and by the learners.
 9. Space: The allocation and use of space by the teacher and the learners.
3. The scope and range of the criteria: Are the criteria limited to content, a process or other category types, or do they aspire to a comprehensive evaluation that includes all aspects? It is usually possible to discern an approach that focuses on a given dimension or one that is comprehensive. Eash (1974) concentrates on one dimension – the didactic dimension. He seeks to identify the characteristics of the learning material and to determine the conditions necessary for their implementation. The categories that Eash deals with are: aims, organisation of learning material (scope and continuity), methodology, and evaluation. The instrument focuses on organising the material didactically and does not deal with content. The emphasis is on the process: developing, testing, evaluating and applying materials. The evaluator is asked to judge each of the items in the four categories on a scale of seven points and then to summarise the evaluation that emerges quantitatively.

Instruments designed according to the inclusive approach are intended to encompass a whole set of dimensions characterising learning material. Stevens and Morriset (1971) developed an instrument for evaluating learning material in the social sciences that incorporated a great number of dimensions including: content, learning theories and teaching strategies, and prerequisites (referring to both learners and the

environment). In addition, questions are asked about the theoretical characteristics, the rationale and the aims. Following the analysis there is also a general judgement.

Ben-Peretz (1980) uses four dimensions, based on Schwab (1971): content, learner, teacher and environment. Examination of the relative weight of each component helps to shed light on the entire program and assists in viewing what the learning material prefers and what it neglects. Gall (1981) approaches evaluation comprehensively, referring mainly to the following elements: structural characteristics, content, and teaching characteristics. Content includes aims, scope, continuity and time. Teaching characteristics include teaching methods, the role of the learner and the role of the teacher.

4. The analysis and evaluation method: In analysing learning material, several main methods can be discerned: the theoretical-analytical, the quantitative content analysis, the integrated content analysis, and qualitative evaluation.

The theoretical-analytical method is based on understanding the content and the interpretation accompanying its description. This method describes and interprets the principles and values that characterise events and explains the underlying didactic conception. In this method intuition plays an important role, amplifying the extent of evaluation subjectivity. It is doubtful whether two different evaluators can reach the same results using this method. In order to counteract this disadvantage, those using this method tend to cite detailed references and quotations from the textbook being evaluated, in order to maintain maximum accuracy in transmitting the content, nature and tone of the material. The method by itself is uncomplicated and practical, but its great shortcoming is in its unwieldiness which requires that many references be cited, and the difficulty in comparing different books (Eden, 1985, p. 10).

Quantitative content analysis is a technique of objective and systematic analysis that quantitatively describes explicit messages. Surface analysis and frequency analysis can be discerned. Surface analysis refers to how much space is given to a given event in terms of number of pages or number of lines. The quantities are given both in absolute numbers and in relation to other subjects. Frequency analysis refers to the number of times a concept or issue is mentioned in a given part of the book. The data in this analysis are accurate and can be compared but only things that can be quantified are measured and only in explicit data. In this analysis the nature and subtleties of the text tend to be lost (Eden, 1985, p. 10).

The integrated method, whose advocates also call it *qualitative content analysis*, combines quantitative description with the theoretical-analytical method. This method requires a detailed set of criteria to which statements in the textbook can be referred. In this analysis the principles and values of the textbook are clarified and its uniqueness is maintained in the description. It is also possible to replicate evaluations by other researchers and to expect similar results. The difficulty with this approach is its complexity, both in terms of the method and the amount of work it entails. The set of criteria that characterises this method derives mainly from the structure of the profession and is cut off from the reality of the school, perhaps even from its needs. The extent to which qualitative and quantitative analyses are combined and the weight given to each differ according to the views and tendencies of the researcher (Eden, 1985, p. 12).

All the methods mentioned above require the norms usually found in scientific research and they demand validity and reliability. In the case of qualitative analysis, the validity of the evaluation can be tested by comparing it to the opinions of peers as to whether they agree with the list and classification of criteria, while evaluation

reliability can be tested by seeing if other teachers assign a given task to the same category (Eden, 1985, p. 12).

There is a growing tendency in education to require qualitative evaluation (Eden, 1985, p. 12). This trend has also affected the assessment of learning material.

In quantitative research qualities are translated into quantitative terms which are treated statistically. The use of symbolism changes the nature of the information. A number is a representative symbol and not the exhibit itself. Qualitative evaluation uses symbols with similar structures for an event or for an object and the descriptions allow readers to experience feelings that they did not experience directly. Qualitative evaluation is similar in some ways to art evaluation. Eisner (1985) calls the art of conception 'connoisseurship' while criticism itself is the art of transmission and expression. This evaluation is similar to the processing of information and the experience of its expression by the artist. From this we can understand the importance of the metaphorical expression that reveals the qualitative aspects of life.

This trend towards qualitative evaluation has been influenced by ethnographic research. Its essence is an analytical description of an authentic cultural event, focusing on natural situations while refraining from manipulating the variables chosen for the study. The authenticity of ethnographic research depends, like experimental research, on the extent of its reliability and validity. Reliability deals with the reflectiveness of the findings while validity refers to their accuracy (LeCompte & Goetz, 1982).

5. Scope of the aims (comprehensive assessment vs. assessment for a specific aim):

The evaluation activity and the analysis of the learning material are performed both as a basis for inclusive evaluation and for specific defined aims. In many cases researchers tie analysis and evaluation to their conclusions and recommendations. In

some cases there is a separation between analysis and decision making, and the analysis report serves as a basis for decisions made by others.

A prominent example of evaluation for a defined purpose is the analysis of textbooks by the George Eckert Institute for the International Study of Textbooks in Braunschweig, Germany. Their aim is to enhance mutual understanding and to promote peace between nations by revealing and calling attention to factual mistakes, one-sided descriptions, prejudices and stereotypical descriptions (Eden, 1985, p. 13).

Eden (1985) developed an instrument for evaluating learning material based on criteria drawn from the professional literature and from studies in the learning-teaching field. Those using this instrument can choose the criteria that suit them best from a long list of criteria categorised according to eight subjects. They can also supplement the list with criteria of their own, as needed. The source of the criteria is mainly extrinsic. The instrument facilitates evaluation that encompasses many aspects and is directed towards a variety of aims. The method for utilising this evaluation instrument is very close to the theoretical-analytical method. Criteria for evaluation are given in great detail in order to strengthen the objective nature of the instrument. The desired description of the material after the analysis is mainly qualitative and verbal, although the opportunity for a quantitative description also exists, mainly in the summary of the evaluation. The eight subjects that are detailed in many criteria are:

1. Description of the learning material
2. Evaluation in terms of learning material
3. Evaluation in terms of the process
4. Evaluation in terms of the learner
5. Evaluation in terms of society

6. Suitability to the aims
7. Suitability to the teacher
8. Suitability to the school conditions and the environment

Each level can also be characterised by nine qualitative variables:

1. Description: Description of the curriculum variables in terms of: What?
When? Where? How?
2. Decision making: The level of influence that various groups have in making decisions about curricular variables.
3. Rationale: The reasons given for the ways in which it was decided to present or activate the curricular components.
4. Preferences: Those aspects of the curriculum that receive greater emphasis in terms of time or importance.
5. Attitudes: The views presented through the curricular variables.
6. Suitability: The extent to which the curricular variables suit the stated aims.
7. Inclusiveness: The level to which all the possibilities latent in the curriculum are exploited.
8. Uniqueness: The level to which the curricular variables are adapted to individual differences.
9. Facilitating and inhibitory factors: Factors that may stimulate or hinder proper activation.

The qualitative variables can appear in each of the curricular variables, and each of the curricular variables can appear in each of the five levels of the curriculum. The model developers assumed that each of the nine curricular and qualitative variables at all the levels will draw a picture of the correspondence between

perceptions and performance of the curriculum, in other words, what happens to the curriculum from its theoretical intentions through its learning interactions.

Eden's (1985) evaluative tool for content analysis was selected for use in this study. It is a general instrument based on the study and evaluation of learning materials and is suitable to a broad array of subjects and learning domains. Details about the tool and the rationale for its selection are presented in the Research chapter of this thesis (Chapter five).

Throughout this chapter, methods and processes of curriculum evaluation have been presented. The present study deals with the evaluation of tourism curricula in Israeli high schools but for the evaluation to be meaningful, it is necessary to review the development of Israel's education system and its high schools. Such a review is necessary because education in Israel is public and state-run, which means uniformity of frameworks and academic requirements. Studies in one specific subject, such as tourism, must therefore be co-ordinated in terms of the uniform requirements that apply to the entire system.

Chapter five

Curricula in Israeli high schools and curricula in tourism

This chapter presents the development and structure of Israel's education system, as a basis for the study which deals with high schools in Israel. Because Israel's education system is public and is managed centrally by the state, which sets the curriculum and finances and supervises the schools, an understanding of its system and structure is required before investigating a subject such as tourism studies. Israel as a state is very young, having celebrated its fiftieth anniversary in 1998. As is to be expected of a young country, the material offered by the education system has undergone many changes as part of an ongoing process of development, building and improvement of the national education system. The aim of this chapter is to present a survey that highlights and explains the main characteristics of the education system in Israel.

After the chapter introduces the education system in Israel and the academic structure of its high schools, it focuses on the aims, structure and content of tourism curricula in Israeli high schools. This background leads to chapters five, six seven and eight, which deal with the research of this curriculum.

Formulation of the education system in Israel

When Israel was established as a state in 1948, 130,000 students were enrolled in 820 educational institutions. By 1999 the number of pupils had reached 1,850,000. Education in the Arab sector expanded during this time span from 7,500 to 300,000 pupils (Sprintzak et al., 1991, 1995; Ministry of Education, 1999, p. 1). Dror and Liberman (1997) conducted a comprehensive study of the development and structure

of education in Israel and the following survey is based on their findings. The education system, which was divided and under the aegis of various parties and agencies, was unified after establishment of the state into one state system that was administered, financed and supervised by the Ministry of Education. In 1949, the Compulsory Education Act, 1949 was passed which imposed free compulsory education on all children aged five to 15. Maintenance of educational institutions was entrusted to the state through the education system and the municipal authorities. Similarly, supervision of the schools was standardised, and recently, the state has been obliged to provide free education to exceptional children up to age 21.

In 1963, a committee appointed by the Ministry of Education recommended to the Knesset [Israeli parliament] that the structure of the education system be reformed. It later recommended that the Compulsory Education Act be expanded as follows: a. Elementary education, will span six years. The second stage - high school - would span six years and be divided into: the middle school (grades seven, eight and nine) and the high school (grades ten, eleven and twelve). b. All graduates of sixth grade in elementary school would enter the middle school; the test which used to be a precondition for acceptance to academic schools would be cancelled and there would be no selection in the transition of pupils to the middle school. These recommendations were accepted and became law.

On the basis of these laws the education system is divided into four stages: early childhood, elementary education, post-elementary education and post-high school education. The general education system includes the Arab education system, whose language of instruction is Arabic, and the Hebrew education system, whose language of instruction is Hebrew. The general-Hebrew system is divided into the State and State Religious tracks. Each system maintains its own life style with

curricula in accordance. In addition to these, several recognised educational institutions, most of them belonging to the ultra-religious “Independent Education” system, also operate, accounting for 9.6 per cent of elementary school children in the 1994-95 school year. To this must be added another 4.3 percent of the children learning in other religious schools (Sprintzak, 1995).

The organisation of the high school is based on the Compulsory Education Act, 1978 which stated that high school education would also be free. This decision nullified the unique elite status of the academic school, which until then had financed itself through tuition fees and was open only to those with the means for paying. This democratisation of post-elementary education and the rising percentage of those attending it succeeded in “breaking the monopoly” that academic high schools had held in preparing students for matriculation examinations. Comprehensive vocational schools now included tracks leading to matriculation examinations, and for those who did not complete their studies in academic or vocational schools, external schools or pre-academic institutes were available to provide the necessary training (Dror & Liberman, 1997, p. 28).

Although academic high schools were established as private schools, and to this day enjoy a maximal amount of autonomy in practice, the curricula and teaching methods used by them are quite uniform. The reason can be found in the objective of the schools: to ensure that their students earn matriculation diplomas. Since the matriculation examinations have a crucial influence on high school studies, they are at the centre of an ongoing public debate, and various committees have been established to reform them (Ministry of Education and Culture, 1992a; Ministry of Education and Culture, 1994a; Levi, N.D.).

The aims of Israel's education system

The State Compulsory Education Law legislated in 1953 clearly defines the aims of education:

To base education in the state on the values of Israel's culture, on scientific achievements, on love of the homeland and loyalty to the state and people of Israel, on awareness of the memory of the Holocaust and its Martyrs, on belief in agricultural work and on labour, on pioneering and on the aspiration towards a society built on liberty, equality, tolerance, mutual aid and love of humankind.

This law also states that state education will have two tracks: State and State Religious (Dror & Liberman, 1997, p. 9).

These aims reflected a compromise between the various parties in the Knesset which is why they were formulated in such general terms. Despite their inclusive nature, translating them into curricula has not been simple. The aims reflected the ruling centralist trend of the time. It should be noted that not all elements of Israeli society accepted the educational principles as set down in the law, namely the Kibbutz movement [communal settlements], the Arab sector and the religious public. The main aim of kibbutz education was to nurture people who aspire to live on the kibbutz and uphold its communal values. To make this possible, kibbutz education demanded the utmost autonomy. In primary school this autonomy was achieved both in theory and practice while in high school the Ministry of Education established a special "Division for Agricultural and Nautical Education." Today it is called the "Division for Settlement Education" and is responsible only for high schools in the various types of settlements in the country (Dror & Liberman, 1997, p. 10).

The Arab sector faced serious dilemmas as its tried to juggle its national Arab identity, ties with the Palestinian people and loyalty to the state of Israel. A public debate about the aims of education for Arab youth, conducted after the state was established, yielded an acceptable approach to most sides: Arab youth should be given

a general humanistic education like their Jewish peers, but different systems should be set up for the two peoples, each one emphasising its own cultural values, language and traditions.

The religious public also treated the state education law in its own way. This public is divided in its opinions about the law just as it is divided about Zionism (the movement for the revival of Jewish settlement in the Land of Israel) and about the attitude towards the state of Israel. Some fundamentalists refused to accept the state's educational aims, or the authority of the Ministry of Education. The result was establishment of what is called the *Atzma'i* or Independent Education Track for ultra-orthodox Jews. The Zionist majority of the religious sector was partner, through its representation in the Knesset, to formulation of the education law. The law itself took the special interests of this public into consideration and set up the State Religious Track as part of state education. It is the same as state education "except that its institutions are religious and in keeping with their lifestyle, curricula, teachers and supervisors" (State Education Law, 1953, in Dror & Liberman, 1997, p. 11). The educational conception of religious Judaism sees the central aim of education as preparing youth to observe the Torah [Bible] and its commandments as a way of life, while other aims are accepted and interpreted in the light of this basic viewpoint.

Formulation of the aims of the education law aroused tremendous debate. Proponents contend that despite its vague and general formulation (so as not to offend anyone) the law has had considerable influence on how the Ministry of Education and many educators approach educational problems. Opponents of the law maintain that a democratic regime cannot and should not legislate any law dealing with the beliefs and opinions of its citizens (Dror & Liberman, 1997).

Stages in the formulation of the school curriculum in Israel

Dror and Liberman (1997) describe how the curriculum in Israel was forged, using Englund's (1990) categories to identify central trends in its construction and implementation. Englund sees the educational system as exposed to change processes because of social, economic and political environmental influences. Dror and Liberman find Englund's approach suited to the Israeli reality and using it they explain the changes that have taken place in Israel's curriculum and its present state. They also found that Englund's analysis has been adopted by many educational researchers in Israel (Lewy, 1986; Silberstein, 1987; Ben-Peretz & Zeidman, 1986; Eden, 1978; Zabar Ben-Yehoshua, 1988).

Englund (1990) describes three stages in curriculum development. Although each one can be categorised in a different educational paradigm, the borders between the stages are not absolute. Moreover, later stages retain patterns from previous paradigms. Following are the stages as reflected in curriculum development in Israel:

1. **The formal-patriarchal approach:** This approach predominated in Europe until the beginning of this century. The attitude towards democracy and to equality is mainly formal. Social strata are set and students receive training to take their place in the hierarchy. The status of the elite is legitimised through reproduction of existing social relationships...Cultural capital is transmitted within a social stratum from generation to generation (Englund, 1990). In comparing this with the reality in Israel, Dror and Liberman (1997) found that this approach prevailed in the country until the end of the 1960s. This system was chosen to maintain a statist approach and to unite the people. The Ministry of Education set binding curricula for each grade. These curricula were prepared by professional committees composed of supervisors, teachers and other experts

working in the education system. They provided general guidelines and chapter headings that were usually uniform for all types of populations in educational institutions. Textbooks were written by various authors, usually teachers and supervisors, who received permission to do so from the Ministry of Education (Ben-Peretz & Zeidman, 1986).

2. **The scientific-rational approach:** The aim here was for individuals to fulfil their potential regardless of social frameworks, so that students could be enlisted to serve the general system according to their skills. Science was perceived as not being concerned with values and could thus serve the progress of the technological system. Rationality is expressed in the attempt to adapt the means to measurable ends. There is a correlation between this approach and the psychology of learning and the division of the curriculum into subjects as in done in higher education.

Dror and Liberman (1997) contend that in Israel this approach became quite common: after the sixties, the Ministry of Education moved to this system of “systematic and detailed development of curricula and textbooks by institutions established for this purpose. They are responsible for constantly monitoring, testing and updating curricula, and writing new curricula in greater detail including booklets for the students and instruction guides for the teachers” (Yadlin, 1971, p. 9). From the viewpoint of Englund’s theory, this is a transition from the “patriarchal” to the “scientific-rational” conception (Dror & Liberman, 1997, p. 6). This process began when, towards the end of 1962, the Ministry of Education appointed a committee that recommended establishment of an institute for curricular development. Following the visit of Professor B.S. Bloom to Israel, a group of nine educators headed by Prof. Shevach Eden attended an inservice

course at the University of Chicago. The prevailing approach at the time was based on the theories of Tyler (1949) and Bloom (1956). When the delegation returned to Israel, the Unit (and later Division) of Curricular Development was established (1966) by the Ministry of Education that operated according to these principles (Dror & Liberman, 1997, p. 7). “The centre was established in a centralist education system and as an expression of its basic conception.

Therefore, it was clear that curriculum development would be done by the central authorities and that curricula would be distributed for implementation by the system as a whole” (Zabar Ben-Yehoshua, 1988, p. 12).

The process of completing the new curricula was accelerated at the end of the sixties with the change in the education system’s structure (establishment of junior high schools for seventh, eighth and ninth grades in 1968). By 1980 all curricula for use in primary and junior high school education were completed, as well as many curricula for high school. All of these curricula took the needs of students learning at different levels into consideration, especially the needs of what was then called disadvantaged youth (Dror & Liberman, 1997).

Shevach Eden, who headed the Curricular Development Division in those days, summarised the activities and the problems facing him at the end of the decade (Eden, 1980):

a. The needs of pupils, society and the subject areas were balanced in keeping with Tyler’s (1949) principles. Experience indicated that subject area and society had played the role of major influences. This meant that to attain balance more attention had to be paid to the pupils’ needs, to individual development and to cultivation of their autonomous personalities. Eden (1980) connected this to teacher functioning, so that developing teachers’

independence was essential for shaping an environment that nurtures learner independence and creativity.

b. The increased influence of scientists in serving on curriculum planning committees as chairpersons, members and advisers to the writing staffs. While their contribution was important, their view of the discipline as the main element prevented them from meeting the system's expectations. They were unable to select the main parts of the subject and relieve the curriculum of excess content. Thus many curricula remained content-heavy.

Eden's (1980) conclusion was that teacher autonomy must be promoted as a means of overcoming these difficulties. But this would be possible only if planning projects could link groups of teachers throughout the system and the central staff would serve as an auxiliary force in the planning process.

3. **The democratic approach:** In the analysis by Dror and Liberman (1997), based on the conceptions of Englund, the third, contemporary approach is that of democratic participation. Underlying this approach is the assumption that pupils are equal in value, as reflected in the assurance of each child's rights. This approach is very close to the thinking of the kibbutz educational philosophers and to the approaches of autonomous and community schools in Israel. Similar approaches flourished elsewhere in the world when it became clear that the new curricula imposed by the centres did not significantly raise pupils' achievements, especially not from those in low socioeconomic strata (Goodlad & Klein, 1970; Stake, 1978).

Pupils' experiences, which are the aim of the curriculum, are not dependent on the curriculum alone. There are experiences that depend on teaching and educational means (Peters, 1973), and identical programmes may create totally different

experiences in different “cultures” (Schein, 1985). There is a difference between schools managed by formal means and those based on democratic informal means (Jeffs & Smith, 1990; Kahane, 1988); between autonomous schools and schools ruled by the “colonisation of living space that cancels pedagogical freedom and teacher initiative and sets school norms with no regard for the needs and interests of the pupils, teachers and parents” (Haberman, 1988, pp., 2, 545). Thus one must ask both “what” to teach and “how” to teach it.

Parallel developments occurred in education around the world and in Israel. A conception evolved that saw curriculum as a totality, from setting objectives through implementation in the classroom (Silberstein, 1977). Since the end of the seventies, there has been a constant stream of changes in pedagogical conceptions. The demand for school autonomy has been accompanied by a call to raise the professional status of teachers. Attention is gradually being diverted from the quality of learning materials to giving more responsibility to the schools (Zabar Ben-Yehoshua, 1998, p. 14). At the same time, special emphasis has been placed on teacher training, for example, in the framework of MOFET activities in Israel (MOFET is a Hebrew acronym for the Ministry of Education’s institute of research and development of programmes for teacher training colleges).

In summarising the second decade of activity in the curriculum division, Ben-Eliahu (1989) notes the two issues that took centre-stage during that period: school autonomy and computerisation. The education system in Israel has remained centralist in structure, since no transition has been made to a decentralised system which is characterised by a lack of central curricula and a lack of national tests such as the matriculation examinations (Dror & Liberman, 1997, p. 9). Autonomy is perceived as an evolving process. This is a system that

maintains the centralist framework. Educators disagree about whether institutional autonomy within a general compulsory framework is paradoxical (Inbar, 1990), or whether this is a desirable and even necessary process that strikes a balance between contradictory trends and provides responses for a variety of needs. The education system has adopted the latter view, on the assumption that institutional autonomy has great latent educational and individual benefit. But it also holds the potential of becoming a nightmare for people lacking the skills to cope with it (Friedman, 1990).

In recent years a new direction that can be identified with the third, democratic-participatory approach has become evident. This direction derives from the Ministry of Education directorate, the halls of academe and a number of schools. For example, a “Proposal for a high school curriculum” published by the Ministry of Education in 1976 said, *inter alia*:

1. “The learning material in many subjects must be reduced drastically.” This demand reflects the feelings of distress experienced by teachers and students faced with increasing quantities of material to be completed (Dror & Liberman, 1997).
2. “Not only the needs of the subject as a scientific discipline must be taken into account, but also the abilities and emotional tendencies of the youth learning in school.” This is an attempt to create a balance between academisation of the subjects and the need to see each student as a person with individual needs which the system must meet.
3. “The same curriculum is not meant for all pupils.” Here the assumption is that all youth share certain areas and fundamentals that every cultured person must acquire. There is also the assumption that the curriculum must aspire to provide basic knowledge shared by all elements of the population. At the same time, the

curriculum must offer variety, both in scope and level and in the selection of subjects. This will enable students with different abilities and interests to find material that suits them (Dror & Liberman, 1997).

4. “The emotional needs of the students must be balanced and some teaching time must be devoted to singing, music, art and physical education.” The spirit of this document indicates the desire to be more considerate of students’ individual needs. It also tries to overcome the academisation process, which is perceived as far-fetched, to create a balance “between the scientific-universal direction and the Hebrew-national direction, between tradition and renewal” (Chen, 1985, p. 388). Members of academe provide overly-clear definitions of the objectives of the new direction of school autonomy. “The nucleus of the idea of the autonomous school,” writes Silberstein (1990), “is the autonomous student...The school creates a framework that enables the autonomous functioning of the staff of educators-teachers. It is also the central tool through which it is possible to meet the unique needs and desires of the community in which the school operates and which it serves. At the same time, there is no value to school autonomy without autonomy of the teachers working there and there is no rhyme or reason for teacher autonomy without the constant striving for student autonomy” (p. 110). The main characteristic of this process is an interrelationship among the participants in the educational process in the form of a significant, multidimensional and fruitful dialogue between teacher and students (Silberstein, 1990).

The third approach again presents the ideal image in the form of the autonomous person-student. Emphasis is redirected from knowledge content and structure to the students and how they perceive and absorb this content. The tools are adapted

teaching methods, an integrative view of the components of knowledge and increased autonomy to the teacher and the school (Dror & Liberman, 1997).

The curricula in academic high schools

Although academic high schools are under state control, they were originally established as private schools and even today continue to enjoy a great deal of autonomy. The curricula and teaching methods employed are more or less uniform so that the schools can attain their goal of awarding matriculation degrees to their students. Since these examinations have a crucial effect on high school studies, they are at the eye of a constant public storm and various committees have been established to revise the tests.

The curriculum is composed of “learning units.” A learning unit includes material that students are expected to learn in about 90 lessons (i.e., three teaching hours per week over the course of a year). Curricula have been established for many subjects at various levels: the regular level of one to two learning units; the intermediate level of three to four units, and the highest level of five to six units. Students may choose subjects according to their abilities, interests and level. Students who wish to earn a matriculation diploma must study and be tested in compulsory subjects (Dror & Liberman, 1997).

According to the new programme of matriculation examinations that went into effect in 1991, students wishing to earn a matriculation degree must complete and be examined on 20 to 32 learning units. Examinations can be divided into three categories:

1. Compulsory examinations in Bible, Hebrew language, Hebrew literature, History, Jewish history, Citizenship, Mathematics and a first Foreign

language (usually English). In State Religious academic high schools students must also be tested on the Talmud and on the Oral Law. The academic track in the Arab sector includes tests on Arabic language, Hebrew language, History (general and Arab or Druse), Citizenship, Mathematics and a first Foreign language.

2. Compulsory group: In addition to the general compulsory exams, students must choose one study “cluster,” a group of academic or technological subjects on which they are tested.
3. Optional group: Students wishing to add learning units (up to a total of 32) can select electives on which to be tested. The choice is among subjects offered by the Ministry of Education or as part of the subject being taught within a school’s special programme. The tests are offered at several levels of difficulty (two learning units, three-four units or four-five units).

In 1993 the Ben-Peretz Committee was established to examine the format of the matriculation examinations. It submitted its report in October 1994 and its recommendations were accepted by the Minister of Education. Implementation began gradually, as the committee had recommended, at the end of the 1994-95 school year. The final objective of the proposed changes to offer three or four national matriculation examinations (from the Ministry of Education) which would be supplemented by school assessments that would be equivalent to the national examinations (Ministry of Education and Culture, 1994a). The students would be examined in nine subjects and all the tests (national and school-level) would be listed equally on the diploma. Each subject would have three levels. The committee set seven compulsory subjects (eight in the religious stream): Bible, General history and Jewish history, Literature, Citizenship, Hebrew, Foreign language, Mathematics (and

Talmud or Oral Law in the religious schools). In the Arab and Druse schools the compulsory subjects would be Islamic/Christian/Druse studies, Hebrew, History, Citizenship, Arab language, Foreign language, and Mathematics (Dror & Liberman, 1997, p. 30).

The list of subjects in academic junior and senior high schools clearly indicate that school is intended to prepare students for the matriculation examinations, i.e., for their future acceptance to universities. Most academic efforts are directed to subjects which form the “compulsory nucleus” of the matriculation examinations: Hebrew, including literature, Bible, Jewish history and Citizenship, Mathematics and English. Since students can be tested at different levels and still receive matriculation diplomas, students aspire to the higher levels (five units) of subjects that will ensure their acceptance to universities (four units in English and three units in Mathematics are the minimum for university acceptance). The fact is that not all those who apply are accepted to university, especially in the case of the more prestigious faculties where demand greatly outstrips supply (places in the university). Therefore, the race for high marks begins in junior high school, mainly in the subjects mentioned above (Dror & Liberman, 1997).

Studies in senior high school are divided into various tracks according to the students’ preparation for the test: the number of units in the “compulsory nucleus” subjects and other various options that lead to matriculation diplomas. This choice differs from school to school. In selective academic high schools, students must meet the demands of the subjects taught there.

In senior high schools, especially after the reform of 1991, the scientific-rational approach, with all its benefits and drawbacks, can be discerned in many school components. Subjects are taught according to their definition in the

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universities, with the clear intention of imbuing students with an academic knowledge of the disciplines by learning substantive structures (concepts and professional jargon) and syntactic structures (research methods characteristic of the domain). These structures are defined operatively, and mastery of them is tested through internal and external examinations. The methods and means of learning are directed towards success in terms of examination requirements, and are selected pragmatically, based on how well they prepare students to learn and retrieve information for the test (Dror & Liberman, 1997, p. 32).

Curricula in comprehensive technological schools

The technological education system, formerly the vocational education system, has undergone substantial changes as a result of the reform of the early 1990s. Underlying this reform is the assumption that technological education must adapt itself to the many changes transpiring in the country and the world in technology, science, economics and education. The change affected a number of areas: removal of barriers between technology and science, basing learning channels on a balanced combination of humanistic-Jewish educational content and technological-scientific content, as well as offering polytechnic education to all students and postponing vocational specialisation by one year. This enabled students to become familiar with as many options as possible. As part of the reform an attempt was also made to expose students in the academic track to technological education (Yunai, 1992).

Further stages of the proposed reform may implement changes in the curriculum of the entire education system. Primary schools will offer a new subject, "Technology," that includes electronics, computers and robotics together with material from the processing and designing of materials. This subject is to replace

vocational workshops in fifth and sixth grades. At the junior high school level, a compulsory nucleus is being planned that will include tools for understanding various principles in technology. This will be wrapped in a choice of optional subjects which students can take in various formats. The intention is to combine these studies with tours of various industries. In academic high schools, students will be offered an academic subject called “Generalized technology,” whose aim is to imbue students with basic academic knowledge, scientific thinking and understanding of technological applications, not as a specialisation in technological studies but rather as a component of general theoretical knowledge. Examinations will be offered in this subject at the three unit and five unit levels (Dror & Liberman, 1997).

In technological education at the high school level, tracks will be cancelled and all students will have the opportunity to learn and be tested in all subjects based on their abilities, their interests and the courses being offered by the school. Specialisation will be postponed from tenth to eleventh grade. Today’s tracks – about 90 in number – will be united into 25 “composites” and all students will receive a wide technological basis. The intention is to expand the academic element at the expense of practical experience in workshops. The reform should enable students at the lower levels to improve their achievements as they learn, by means of a series of overlapping lessons and modular curricula. The program will also enhance mobility and open the tracks to all students.

The general subject curricula – the compulsory nucleus of matriculation subjects – are no different from the programme for academic high schools. As for the technical subjects the question arises to what extent they actually lead to the acquisition of a vocation. Kahane and Starr (1986) analysed these curricula and found that this process does not occur in Israel as it does in other countries such as Japan,

Germany and the United States, where the curricula have a greater job orientation for the vocation. In Israel only a few of the components exist in the curricula and these, too, are related only indirectly to jobs within the work world. It appears that students learn only part of the job, in other words, they are able to perform only a few things but not fulfil a vocational position completely.

The central question about technological education is whether or not its role is to prepare students for a specific position. Vocational education deals at one and the same time with creating resources for two types of positions: the “worker” and the “student.” The latter assumes that the young men and women have still not made a definite career choice. Therefore, they need a multifaceted education that will provide them with a broad technological infrastructure that can serve as a basis for later specialisation. The emphasis on the “worker” position assumes that students must be imbued with patterns of responsibility and commitment to a given vocation and to the skills that will serve them in this profession (Shmida & Yahil, 1990).

The Harari Committee proposed a programme, parts of which have already been implemented, entitled “Tomorrow 98.” The programme offers education for science and technology, including computer literacy and reinforced studies of mathematics, as a foundation for all the sciences and science-technology programmes even for students who do not intend to specialise in these fields (Ministry of Education & Culture, 1992a, p. 19). As for high schools, the committee proposed two directions, for most students not specialising in the sciences. One direction was to build a new subject, “Science and technology in modern society,” whose purpose would be to inculcate the education appropriate for those youths not planning to specialise in science subjects. This subject would be based on an interdisciplinary approach, integrating classroom work, experimental work in the laboratory and

technological implementations. The objective is to illustrate to the students the connection between theory and practice, i.e., the scientific idea, technological performance and implementation.

As for students in the technological and science tracks, the committee offers a number of changes: unification of all the science curricula taught in the various tracks. As for those students intending to specialise at the lower levels, it recommends an experimental expansion of the academic studies to bring the students as close as possible to matriculation degrees (even if only partial), while integrating elements of practical training. This is based on the assumption that a general science basis will serve youths more than specific skills when they enter the work market later on. For other students the committee proposes offering the option of choosing subjects according to needs – according to the existing reform proposals – and to encourage the learning of basic subjects such as Mathematics, Physics and Chemistry, that form the foundation for most technological-scientific activity (Ministry of Education and Culture, 1992a).

Teaching in high schools

Teaching in high schools is still conducted in the light – or shadow – of the matriculation examinations. In the words of the public committee to examine the format of the matriculation examinations: “The central work assumption is that there is a mutual relationship between the means of evaluating achievements and teaching and learning methods. Varying the teaching is conditional, to a great extent, on adapting the evaluative means to the variety of teaching methods” (Ministry of Education and Culture, 1994a, p. 12).

Every change in the examination format entails a parallel change in the schedule of hours and the attitude towards the various subjects, both in academic high schools and in the parallel tracks in technological education. For each learning unit the Ministry of Education prepares a curriculum and specifies the level at which the students will be tested. The detailed extensive list of instructions and regulations shows the central role that the Ministry of Education and Culture plays in daily school life, setting teaching priorities, detailed curricula and external examinations and supervising daily life in the institution (Chen, 1985, p. 386).

In a study of teaching methods used in Israeli high schools, Gordon (1992) found that almost all lessons are frontal in nature (even though some of the frontal lessons were exceptional). He notes that “it is amazing to what extent innovations in teaching have not penetrated the senior high schools” (p. 381). It remains to be seen how the changes in the matriculation examinations as recommended by the Ben-Peretz committee will actually modify teaching methods in senior high school in Israel.

After having surveyed the development and structure of the education system in Israel, it is necessary to introduce the curricula in tourism being implemented in Israeli high schools, which is the subject of this thesis.

Tourism curricula for high schools in Israel

The tourism studies track belongs to the department of technological education in Israeli high schools. Technological education in Israel’s education system began at the beginning of the 1960s as vocational education, when various areas of vocational training were transferred from the Ministry of Labour to the Ministry of Education and vocational schools were established (Yunai, 1992). A substantial change in the

structure and nature of vocational training studies occurred at the beginning of the 1970s when it was decided to change this system into the “technological education system,” whose aim was not only vocational training but also the integration of general academic education, and education for cultural and social values with technological and vocational training. An effort was made to expand the technological areas of study and to adapt them to the changes in employment patterns in the ever-changing modern world. At the end of the 1970s the first tourism tracks opened in high schools (Yunai, 1992).

At the end of the 1980s and beginning of the 1990s the structure and curricula of technological education underwent reform. The main aims were to strengthen the relationship between curricula and the matriculation examinations, increase options for choice and modularise the components of the studies while limiting the number of specialisations and placing greater emphasis on basic academic studies and experimental studies in laboratories, workshops and computer laboratories. All specialisations offer the same number of learning hours. About half of the study hours are academic studies, which are defined as compulsory for all students taking the matriculation examinations in Israel (these include subjects such as Hebrew, Bible, Jewish history, mathematics, English, physical education). This adds up to a total of 59 hours per week for students in the matriculation track (levels A and B), and the second half, 57 hours weekly, in the technological specialisation, i.e., a total of 116 hours per week (Ministry of Education, Culture and Sport - Science and Technology Division, 1991).

Aims in the values domain

1. Nurturing students who see tourism as an economic and social blessing and who welcome tourists and tourism from a positive view of the subject.

2. Nurturing the younger population to serve as “agents for change” in relation to tourism, among the population at large, in the family and in society.
3. Nurturing judgement of tourist phenomena and processes according to pan-human moral values.
4. Nurturing understanding of and tolerance for feelings, traditions and life styles of other people and nations.
5. Enhancing awareness among youth of the importance of the tourism branch, as part of the activity required in the population at large, and from a view of the youth as citizens of the future.

Aims in the knowledge domain

6. Providing students with an academic basis in interdisciplinary knowledge domains from the various sciences (such as Geography, Land of Israel Studies, Management, Religions) that will serve as an essential infrastructure for the students’ further academic studies.
7. To further expand and deepen students’ theoretical knowledge of the tourism field.
8. Introducing students to important touristic phenomena.
9. Instilling knowledge of accepted terms and models for describing or explaining an event.
10. Acquiring a view of touristic phenomena in terms of the past and the present.

Aims in the skill domain:

11. Nurturing students with basic technological skills for using the computer and its applications in the tourism field, as part of contemporary economic and professional activity.

12. Providing a basis for the vocational training of students in the technological professions in tourism so that graduates who meet the requirements will have the option of fitting into the tourism branch more easily.
13. Providing structured experiences and instilling interpersonal skills in tourism.
14. Instilling the skills required for understanding the tourism profession” (Ministry of Education and Culture, 1997, pp. 1-2).

Students study according to the weekly schedule of classes determined for the track they have chosen but they have a choice of which matriculation examinations they will take and at what level. On the basis of what they have learned, students can choose a total of three matriculation subjects in which they can be tested at a higher level (A level is equal to 5 matriculation units) or at regular level (B level is equal to 3 units). In addition, the study program includes weekly hours of internal subjects, i.e., those not for external matriculation examinations, which are intended to round out the knowledge required in the subject field (Ibid.).

The tourism track is divided into two areas of specialisation:

1. Tourism operating and promoting for pupils at the A and B levels only. Pupils are entitled to three diplomas with the successful completion of their examinations: a matriculation diploma and a technological diploma, both given by the Ministry of Education, Culture and Sport, and a “licensed travel agent” diploma of the Ministry of Tourism.
2. Tourism reception for pupils at the A and B levels only also entitles students to a matriculation diploma and a technological diploma, as above. In addition they receive a “hotel reception clerk” diploma from the Ministry of Tourism.

Study subjects in the tourism track

The areas of study in the tourism track are varied and dynamic because tourism is constantly changing in the world and in Israel. Many changes stem from technological changes such as those in the transportation and computerisation fields, and constant changes in leisure, recreation and tourism habits and patterns among various sectors of the market.

Some of the study subjects are for all the pupils in the track while others are for specific specialisations.

Study subjects:

Option A: Geography (according to the academic track curriculum) or
Introduction to computers (from the computer track)
Computer applications in tourism

Option B: For those specialising in tourism operating and promotion:
Leisure studies
Tourism characteristics (incoming tourism, religions, preparing tours)

For those specialising in tourism reception:

Theory of management
Hotel marketing and management

Option C: For those specialising in tourism operating and promotion:
Operating and promoting tourism (touristic countries, tour operating and promotion, transportation means: aviation, shipping, trains, rules and regulations in tourism)

For those specialising in tourism reception: Reception clerking

Additional internal studies not for external matriculation examinations:

In the tourism operating and promotion specialisation: Management theory, tourism management and marketing, professional English.

A minimum of 15 days of touring according to a list of sites prepared by the Ministry of Tourism. The tours include visits to the most prominent tourism sites in Israel, in Jerusalem, the Galilee, the Golan, Tel Aviv, the centre of the country, the south of the country and Eilat.

In the tourism reception specialisation: Leisure studies, incoming tourism, business English, business French (Ministry of Education & Culture, 1991).

As presented in this chapter, the system of tourism studies in high schools in Israel includes a variety of subjects and specialisations connected to leisure, recreation and tourism that integrate academic studies with professional-technological certification. Presentation of the aims of the subject and the structure of studies in the track completes the theoretical background necessary for the research in this thesis.

Chapter six

Research methodology and approach

This chapter includes a discussion of the research methodology, aims, methods, study population and questions, as well as definitions of the variables, the research instruments and the process of data analysis.

This study raises the following research question: Based on students' and teachers' attitudes and on Eden's (1985) evaluative tool, what is the evaluation of the students and the teachers of the tourism curriculum in high schools in Israel? This problem is of great importance since it is the prelude to setting goals and questions that can lead to findings that, in essence, constitute initial feedback about tourism education and training conducted in high schools in Israel. Through such findings tourism education and training can improve and develop.

Methodology

The methodology selected combines the positivistic-quantitative approach utilising questionnaires for students and teachers with the naturalistic-qualitative approach of content analysis by means of Eden's (1985) evaluative tool, and with guided focused (semi-structured) interviews of teachers.

Quantitative research is intended to verify and confirm hypotheses. The analysis unit is predetermined and can be counted systematically. Analysis categories are formulated in advance according to the theory. The research is objective – setting categories, external concepts and relationships explain the analysis. The assumption is that there is a separate objective reality. The aim is to explain the findings in terms of rules and generalisations (Goetz & LeCompte, 1984).

Qualitative research is concerned with creating hypotheses and categories (it is interested in revealing structures and hypotheses, using the data as a source of

knowledge). The categories for analysis are created during the study, as are the analysis units. The research is subjective – describing the culture and behaviour patterns as they are seen in the research site. The assumption is that the existing reality is subjective. The aim is to rebuild the subjective reality of those under investigation (Goetz & LeCompte, 1984).

The combined use of the two different methodologies is recommended by several researchers (Scriven, 1972; Goetz & LeCompte, 1984). This combination is usually utilised to strengthen the internal and external validity of the study. Thus, for example, many closed questionnaires, a tool commonly used in the quantitative approach to research, are accompanied by open interviews, a tool commonly used in the qualitative approach, where the aim is to gain a better understanding of the subjects' approach (Sabar Ben-Yehoshua, 1995). According to Lawton (1978), the two approaches – quantitative and qualitative – are not far removed from one another in the study of curricula and should not be seen as two separate groups. In his opinion, qualitative evaluation, which usually develops as a result of limited findings of quantitative evaluation, can actually provide answers that supplement the unclarified elements and facilitate deeper understanding, discussion and analysis of the subject.

Aims of the study

The following aims were defined for this study:

1. To explore the attitudes of students learning in the tourism track towards their studies in the tourism track.
2. To explore the attitudes of students towards the main curricular aims as stated by the Ministry of Education and Culture.

3. To explore the attitudes of students in the tourism specialisation towards the learning methods and skills that are characteristic of the subject.
4. To explore teachers' evaluation of students' attitudes towards the learning methods and skills characteristic of tourism studies and compare this evaluation with that of the students themselves.
5. To explore the attitudes of teachers in the tourism track towards selected learning materials recommended by the Ministry of Education and Culture.
6. To analyse selected learning materials used in tourism tracks in high schools in Israel, in relation to the curricular variables of Eden's (1985) evaluative tool.

Research methods

The research methods included the following elements:

- Collection of data from a questionnaire investigating the attitudes of students in the tourism track; analysing and processing these data by means of the SPSS programme.
- Collection of data from a questionnaire investigating the attitudes of teachers teaching in the tourism track; analysing and processing these data by means of the SPSS programme.
- Analysis of the learning materials used in the tourism track curriculum, in relation to curricular variables in the evaluative tool offered by Eden (1985).
- Collection of data from guided, focused (semi-structured) interviews with teachers in the tourism track; discussion and analysis of these data.

Study population

The study was conducted among a population of high school students and of high school teachers in the tourism track, as follows:

1. The students' questionnaire was distributed in March-April 1998 to all students in their final year of studies (twelfth grade) in the tourism track in high schools in Israel, a total of about 420 students. Of these, 279 students, 66.4 percent of the population, returned the completed forms. Twelfth grade students, who have studied tourism for two years, have already been exposed to most of the subjects in the curriculum.

The distribution of the student population by gender shows 203 girls, constituting 72.7% of the study population, and 76 boys, constituting 27.3% of the study population. In other words, there is a distinct preponderance of girls. No significant differences were found between the responses of the boys and the girls to the questions in the study questionnaire.

Similarly, Ross (1997) examined travel agency employment perceptions and preferences among secondary college leavers in Australia and found that travel agency employment was favoured among potential tourism/hospitality industry employees among female respondents. Burrell, Manfredi and Rollin (1997, pp. 161-162) note that women make up a significant and rising proportion of the labour force in an increasing number of countries. The data that they found about female employment in the hospitality industry indicate the following percentages of women in these work places in four countries: 41% in Spain, 46% in Italy, 50% in France and 63% in England (this means that in England, more women than men hold jobs in this industry). This study reveals that although women make an important contribution to the hospitality industry in all four countries, they still tend to be concentrated in lower-status, less well-paid occupations. However, the detailed picture differs markedly across countries and across sectors

of the industry. Moreover, the situation is not static and women are slowly increasing their presence in higher-status jobs.

The geographic location of the schools encompassed most areas of the country, including large cities (Jerusalem and Tel Aviv), small cities in the periphery (Eilat in the far south and Nazareth in the north), and rural areas such as the Galilee in the north. Of the 27 schools in which the tourism track is offered, 19 have twelfth grade classes (the others have just opened the track and the tourism track students are in lower grades). Of these 19, students in 17 schools responded. The schools include various sectors in the social cross-section of the State of Israel, such as Jews (most of the schools), Arabs (the Nazareth Municipal school), a Bedouin school (Shibli High School), urban schools and rural schools (such as the Emek Hefer Regional High School in the Sharon plain) (see Appendix 4).

2. The teachers' questionnaire was distributed in March-April 1998 to all the teachers teaching tourism track subjects in high schools in Israel, a total of about 55 teachers, of them 16.4% males and 83.6% females (Ministry of Education and culture, 1998, p. 3). Of these, 38 returned the completed forms, in other words, the sample included 69 per cent of the population.

The distribution of genders among the respondents included 32 women, 84.2% of the study population, and six men, 15.8% of the study population. In other words, the distribution was similar to that of tourism teachers in general. Here, too, there was a strong majority of females, as is the case in the general distribution of teachers in high schools in Israel. Again, after a t-test for independent groups (Dixon & Massay, 1969, pp. 119-122), no significant differences were found between the male and female teachers' answers to the questions in the study questionnaire. The sample includes a large proportion of all tourism teachers.

However, this means that only a very small number of males are included (six), this means that some caution needs to be exercised in interpreting the finding in relation to males and females. The questionnaire was distributed to all the tourism teachers in all 27 schools in the country. Teachers from 24 schools responded (see Appendix 4).

The distribution of the teachers' seniority is presented in Table 5.

Table 5: Teachers' seniority

Years of teaching	Percent (Frequency)
1 - 2	26.4 (10)
3 - 5	39.5 (15)
7 - 15	13.1 (5)
Over 15	21 (8)

Table 5 shows that most of the teachers have relatively little experience (up to five years) and only a few have more than 15 years of teaching experience. The main reason for this is that tourism studies in high school have developed significantly only in recent years, thus creating the need for new teachers and teacher training in tourism as will be explained below. One might think that the gap between the evaluation of students' attitudes by teachers with less experience and those with more experience would be affected by the number of years they have been in the classroom (for example, more experienced teachers would be better able to evaluate students' attitudes because of their greater experience). However, in a t-test for two independent groups (Dixon & Massay, 1969, pp. 114-119), no significant differences were found between the responses of teachers with little seniority and those with more seniority to the questions in the study questionnaire.

The distribution of teachers according to education and training is presented in Table 6.

Table 6: Education and training for teaching tourism

Education and training	Percent (Frequency)
B.A.	2.6 (1)
B.A. + Teaching certificate in tourism or in another subject	2.6 (1)
B.A. + Teaching certificate in tourism or in another subject + Professional training for tourism (Ministry of Tourism /Labour)	18.5 (7)
Certified / Senior teacher of tourism + Professional training for tourism (Ministry of Tourism /Labour)	73.7 (28)
Professional training for tourism (Ministry of Tourism /Labour)	2.6 (1)

Table 6 shows that the great majority (73.7%) of teachers are certified or senior teachers of tourism and have also undergone professional training for tourism (Ministry of Tourism/Labour). This finding can be explained by the fact that until 1991 there were no training programmes for teaching tourism in school. The track opened in Ohalo College in the north of the country in 1991 (The College for Education for Tourism and Sport, 1995) provided a three-year training course for receiving Certification as a Senior Teacher of tourism + professional training for tourism from the Ministry of Tourism/Labour. Until 1996 there were difficulties in making tourism an academic study track leading to a B.Ed or B.A. since tourism as a discipline had still not taken its place in Israeli universities (as described in this dissertation – see Appendix 3). Only in 1996 was a co-operation agreement signed between Bar-Ilan University and the Jordan Valley College and since then, the tourism teaching track at Ohalo College has been integrated into the academic studies for a general B.A. degree in Geography and Tourism (a four-year programme). In the light of this, the teachers who were trained to teach tourism and entered the school system do not have Bachelor's degrees unless they completed their degree independently after their tourism studies. The teachers who are graduates of Ohalo College have in recent years entered the school system and have become the majority

among tourism teachers. They are for the most part the teachers with relatively less seniority, as can be seen in Table 5.

Another group of teachers comprises more veteran educators who came to the schools in previous years from the industry. In other words, they were employees in the tourism branch with professional training and experience who were recruited to teach in high schools, since in those years there were no certified teachers for tourism. Parallel to their work, these teachers received intensive training and were granted Teaching Certificates in Tourism. Some of these teachers have also completed their university degrees independently.

The data in Table 6 indicate that the educational background of almost all the teachers has in common a combination of certification for teaching and professional training in tourism.

Guided, focused (semi-structured) interviews were conducted with a sampling of 12 teachers from the teacher population that completed the questionnaires, three teachers for each learning material. All the teachers interviewed also teach in the tourism track in high schools in Israel.

Research questions

As noted in the introduction to this thesis, the research aims raise the following questions:

Question one – What are the attitudes of the students in the tourism track towards their studies in tourism?

Question two – What are the attitudes of the students towards the aims of the tourism curricula as stated by the Ministry of Education and Culture?

Question three – What are the students’ attitudes towards the learning methods and the skills required for learning the subject?

Question four – How do teachers evaluate the students’ attitudes towards the learning methods and skills required for the subjects?

Question five – What are the teachers’ attitudes towards selected learning materials in tourism?

Question six – How are selected learning materials in the tourism track evaluated in terms of Eden’s (1985) evaluative tool?

Definition of variables

The variables that were defined for this research include:

Students’ attitudes in the tourism track as they are reflected in the “questionnaire to students” (see Appendix 1).

Teachers’ attitudes in the tourism track as they are reflected in the “questionnaire to teachers” (see Appendix 2) and in the semi-structured interviews (see Appendix 5).

Learning materials of the tourism track, from the list of learning materials recommended by the Ministry of Education, Culture and Sport in the circular letter of the coordinating supervisor of tourism (Ministry of Education and Culture, 1994b) and updated in later editions and as appear in the catalogue of learning materials of the Technological Education Centre in Holon (Ministry of Education and Culture, 1996-7, pp. 34-35).

Curricular variables according to the evaluative tool of Eden (1985) which uses criteria according to classification into eight subjects: description of the learning material, evaluation in terms of learning material, evaluation in terms of process, evaluation in terms of the student, evaluation in terms of society, suitability to (stated) aims, suitability to the teacher, and suitability to school and environmental conditions.

Research instruments

The research questions were investigated using the following instruments:

Questionnaire for 12th grade students in the tourism track

The questionnaire for 12th grade students in the tourism track was composed for the purpose of this study, based on the structure of the questionnaire used by Padua (1986), together with a staff of experts in curricula headed by Professor Arie Lewy. The questionnaire includes two main parts. The first part includes questions about how students perceive the importance of the tourism profession and their attitude towards its educational aims. The second part contains questions about the students' attitudes towards teaching methods and skills in tourism studies (see Appendix 1).

The questionnaire was adapted to the research aims and questions, and it contains two main parts. The first part presents questions about the students' attitudes towards the importance of studies in the tourism track. The questions are usually statements for which the students are asked to mark the extent of their agreement or disagreement on a four-point scale. This scale was chosen so as to preclude responses that take no clearly positive or negative stand since interviewees, especially high school students, sometimes tend to content themselves with neutral responses throughout the questionnaire.

The second part of the questionnaire deals with the students' attitudes towards the learning methods and the skills required for the subject. A list of 14 learning methods and skills appears twice, in separate tables in the questionnaire. Students are asked to express their attitude towards each item, first in terms of its usefulness and then to what extent students like or dislike the item. Both scores are given on a

four-point scale. The correlation between the two tables can serve to give greater internal validity to the findings. In this part, as in the first part, the questions emphasise the uniqueness of the tourism track. For example: Comparing various tourist sites and hotels, using tourist maps, and computer applications in tourism. Attention is also drawn to learning methods that are commonly used in other subjects as well, such as learning through newspaper clipping and learning in groups. In this way the questionnaire combines elements that are unique to the tourism track with elements that can be found in the general learning framework in school.

A few open questions are also included to provide a further indication of the students' attitudes towards subjects in the questionnaire and the study. For example: "Why did you choose to study in this track?" and the final question in the questionnaire: "Is there anything else you would like to note about the tourism track in high school?"

Validation of the questionnaire was done by content analysis according to the judgement of experts, and through a pilot study (pretest) with 30 students from two different schools. As part of the present study, the questionnaire was distributed to the study population and internal reliability was found as follows: a. To questions about the importance of the profession and the attitude towards fulfilling educational aims, 0.76; b. To questions about students' attitudes towards learning methods and skills, 0.86. These values are on the alpha Chronbach scale that goes up to 1.00. The levels obtained are considered acceptable. (According to Norusis, 1996, pp. 143-148, a good questionnaire is one that yields stable results, that is, it is reliable: the questionnaire yields similar results when different people administer it and when alternative forms are used. The most common reliability coefficient is Cronbach's alpha.)

Questionnaire to teachers

The questionnaire to teachers in the tourism track was composed specifically for this study, based on the structure of the questionnaire used by Padua (1986), accompanied by a staff of experts in curricula headed by Professor Arie Lewy. The questionnaire contained two main parts: the first included questions about the teachers' attitudes towards the teaching materials in tourism recommended by the Ministry of Education and Culture. The second part contained questions about the teachers' evaluation of the students' attitudes towards learning methods and skills in tourism studies (see Appendix 2).

The questionnaire was adapted to the study aims and questions and includes two main parts. The first part contains questions about the teachers' attitude towards the high school curriculum in tourism in Israel, concentrating for the most part on four selected learning materials. Regarding these materials, the teachers are asked to express their opinion in terms of their satisfaction with the materials and the material's quality. In addition the teachers are asked a number of general questions about the curriculum such as their attitude towards the benefit of using professional learning materials (such as tourist guides and tourist maps) in tourism studies.

The second part includes two tables identical to those that appeared in the students' questionnaire. The tables contain a list of 14 learning methods and skills and the teachers are supposed to evaluate the students' attitudes towards each. In the first table, teachers are asked to evaluate the students' perception of the item's benefit and in the second table they must evaluate to what extent they think that the students like or dislike the learning method or skill. Both evaluations are given on a four-point scale.

In addition, the questionnaire contains a few open questions that can provide supplementary support to the teachers' attitudes to the subjects of the questions and the study. For example: why or how do you explain the rating that you gave in a given question to the students' level of interest in the selected learning materials.

Questionnaire validation was done by content analysis according to the judgement of experts, and through a pilot study (pretest) with ten teachers from five schools. After the teachers completed the questionnaire they were interviewed individually and were asked to relate to and emphasise the subjects that interested them (their "agenda") in their work in teaching tourism. The teachers' comments led to changes in the content of the questions, for example, in the types of skills related to professional training. As part of the present study, the questionnaire was distributed to the study population and internal reliability (alpha Chronbach) was determined as follows: a. To the questions about the teachers' attitudes towards the learning materials in tourism, 0.70~~2~~; b. To the questions about teachers' evaluations of the students' attitudes, 0.85. These values are on the alpha Chronbach scale that goes up to 1.00. The levels obtained are considered acceptable (Norusis, 1996, pp. 143-148). Eden's (1985) evaluative tool for content analysis

Content analysis of the learning materials in the tourism track was performed using the evaluative tool developed by Eden (1985), based on criteria in the professional literature and in teaching-learning research (Eash, 1974; Stevens & Morrisset, 1971; Adar & Fuchs, 1978; Goodlad, Klein & Tye, 1979; Ben-Peretz, 1980; Gall, 1981; Sabar Ben-Yehoshua, 1982). This tool was chosen because it is a general tool that can fit various subjects and areas of study. The method is defined as theoretical-analytical. It is practical and applicable and is based on understanding the content and interpretation of the description (Eden, 1985, p. 10). As a counterbalance

to the subjectivity of this evaluation, extensive use is made of citations from the book being evaluated, and the extent of suitability to the findings connected to the teachers' attitudes to the learning material in the quantitative part of the study.

Guided, focused (semi-structured) interview

Questions were prepared for a guided or focused interview (Shamir & Ben-Yehoshua, 1982; Ben-Yehoshua, 1995, p. 65; Bell, 1996, p. 94) with a sampling of the 12 teachers in the tourism track (see Appendix 5). This methodology, which Flick (1998, pp. 94-95) calls the semi-structured interview, was selected since the ethnographic open interview is a form of verbal event, similar to a friendly conversation (Spradley, 1979), and the standard structured interview is based on predetermined formulated questions, structure and order to which the interviewer adds nothing (Shamir & Ben-Yehoshua, 1982; Ben-Yehoshua, 1995, p. 65; Bell, 1996, p. 94). The guided, focused interview, on the other hand, is conducted according to a briefing that outlines the subjects pertaining to the goals of the study while also providing broad freedom of response for the interviewer. Thus, the researcher can respond to new points that the subject raises, even though subjects rarely raise new points of their own volition. Flick (1998) calls this the semi-structured interview because it is similar to the structured interview in that questions suited to the research are prepared in advance, but it also allows the interviewee to respond freely and to introduce new points, as in the open interview.

The questions that were asked are based on the categories in the Research Tool of Eden (1985) for analysing curricula. The categories were also used for analysing the qualitative content of the learning materials in the study. The questions address a variety of elements connected to the evaluation of learning materials, such as: quality of learning material, learning process and learning methods, attitude towards learners,

the extent to which it meets the aims stated in the curricula, conditions required in the classroom/school for using the learning material, and attitude towards society or community. One question asks teachers about their own ideas or suggestions for improving the learning material, and the final question asks whether the interviewee has anything to add about the learning material or the tourism track (see Appendix 5).

Data processing

The data processing in this study included:

1. Data analysis of students' and teachers' attitudes as expressed in the questionnaires.
2. Content analysis of the following learning materials of the tourism track:

Leisure studies textbook (Mansfeld, 1990)

Study book for Hotel reception clerking (Nussbaum, 1993)

Exercise booklet for Receptionist clerking exercises in bookkeeping (Duek & Nussbaum, 1996)

Study book for the Carmel demo programme (computer applications in tourism) (Ministry of Education and Culture, 1993a)

3. Content analysis of the teachers' attitudes as expressed in the guided or focused (semi-structured) interview.

The setting out of the research methodology and approach in this chapter leads to presentation and discussion of the findings according to the research questions, which will be done in the following three chapters. Chapter six presents the findings and discusses the attitudes and evaluations of the students and teachers in the tourist track.

Chapter seven

Attitudes of students and teachers

This chapter presents and discusses the findings of the research questions pertaining to attitudes and evaluations of students and teachers in the tourism track. The first three research questions deal with students' attitudes towards their studies in the tourism track, the main aims of the tourism curriculum and the learning methods and skills required for learning the subject. Two research questions are directed towards the tourism track teachers: research question four pertaining to the teachers' evaluation of the students' attitudes towards the learning methods and skills required for the subject, as reflected in the findings of this study, and research question five dealing with the teachers' attitudes towards the learning materials in the tourism track.

Students' attitudes towards their studies in the tourism track (Question one)

Studies conducted among students have shown that their opinion is similar to that of supervisors and experts. Moreover, the views of students are invaluable since they have first-hand familiarity with the school reality that no one else has (Abraham, 1975). Students' attitudes towards their studies can have a great effect on the success and image of a given subject as well as on its further development in the school. When students are satisfied with a study track they recommend it to their friends and acquaintances which can lead to the further growth and development of the studies in the school. This is especially true in the case of tourism, an elective subject whose continued existence in the school depends on sufficient student demand. Because of the increasing competition among the growing number of elective subjects being

added to high school offerings, tourism, like its competitors, needs to maintain a positive image and be as attractive as possible. Curriculum developers have many options open to them, and taking learners' perceptions and preferences into consideration can help raise the level of a programme's success (Lewy, 1990).

To study students' attitudes towards tourism track studies the following question was formulated: what are the attitudes of the students in the tourism track towards their studies in tourism? To examine this question, the responses to the questions in the students' questionnaire (Appendix 1) pertaining to the importance of tourism as a subject to the students were collected and processed. The students in the 12th grade are in their third and final year of tourism studies and have already learned most of the subjects included in the tourism curriculum. The findings of students' attitudes towards the importance of the subject are presented in Table 7.

Table 7: Students' attitudes towards the importance of tourism as a subject (n=279)

	Mean	Standard Deviation
It is important for me to learn tourism	1.92	0.73
I like learning tourism	1.90	0.74
Success in tourism is more important to me than success in other subjects	2.28	0.95
Tourism lessons interest me	1.89	0.77
I chose the tourism track because in addition to a matriculation certificate I will also receive a professional diploma	0.61	0.49
I am pleased that I chose to study in the tourism track	1.70	0.77

* The lower the mean, the more positive is the attitude about the importance of the subject. A mean greater than 2.5 indicates a negative attitude and a mean of 2.5 or lower indicates a positive attitude.

Table 7 shows that the students' attitudes about the importance of the subject are significantly positive. Nevertheless, large gaps exist among the students' attitudes towards various issues pertaining to the importance of the subject to them. A very positive mean (0.61) was given to the attitude: "The tourism track gives me both a matriculation degree and a professional diploma," proving that the students are highly aware of the importance of diplomas for their future. The matriculation certificate in Israel is a prerequisite for all post-high school studies and a professional diploma in tourism enables students to integrate into the tourism branch. A positive but lower mean score (2.28) was given to the attitude: "Success in tourism is more important to me than success in other subjects." It is possible that the students are aware that success in tourism subjects alone will not provide them with diplomas, since the Ministry of Tourism awards the diplomas on condition that students are eligible for a matriculation degree as well, and therefore, they must take all school subjects seriously.

Students' attitudes towards the statements: "It is important for me to learn tourism", "I like learning tourism" and "Tourism lessons interest me" reveal very similar positive means (1.92; 1.90; 1.89 respectively), indicating that the students feel similarly towards these elements. It appears that the students manifest similar assessments for parameters having a certain logical connection, such as how important and how interesting the subject is and how much the students like it. This, however, in no way indicates that a given subject of importance must also be liked or interesting, but interactions between elements of this type are certainly possible, as can be seen in these findings. An even more positive assessment than those for the preceding three statements is given for the statement: "I am pleased that I chose to study in the tourism track" (1.70). This serves to reinforce the validity of the

overlapping responses to the preceding statements and constitutes an interesting bit of evidence that students were not disappointed with their choice of tourism studies and are in fact satisfied. It is possible that this satisfaction is significantly related to the fact that the choice of tourism studies is made of the students' own free will – tourism is neither compulsory or imposed on them. It is also noteworthy that, as mentioned, the student population in this study is in its third and final year of tourism studies in high school and their opinion is based on active experience and studies over a relatively long time span.

The questionnaire also included an open question about the choice of the tourism track: “Why did you choose the tourism track?” To investigate the responses, a list was made of all the answers received and they were then classified by category. The answers to this question pointed to nine categories of reasons which are shown, with the distribution of the students, in Table 8. For example, in the category “the subject seems interesting,” representative answers included: “Interesting subject,” “I am interested in learning tourism,” and “It seems interesting to me.”

Table 8: Distribution of reasons for students choosing tourism by categories (N=224)

<u>Reasons for choosing the tourism track</u>	<u>Distribution</u>
1. The subject seems interesting.	42% (94)
2. The subject is more interesting than other subjects offered in school (or the other subjects are less interesting)	13.4% (30)
3. It was not my decision (parents, school...)	9.8% (22)
4. The desire to work in the profession or to continue studies in it in the future.	9.4% (21)
5. Receiving a professional diploma (+ matriculation)	6.7% (15)
6. Love of the subject	6.7% (15)
7. Recommendation of friends or family members	5.3% (12)
8. Love of travel/touring/nature	4.9% (11)
9. A desire to know the world	1.8% (4)
Total	100% (224)

Table 8 shows that more students (42%) see “the subject seems interesting” as a factor in their decision to choose tourism track studies. In other words, students perceived the main reason for their choosing the tourism track as related to the interest that the subject held for them.

The categories of love of touring/travel/nature (4.9%) and a desire to get to know the world are also related to personal motive but are the result of more specific calculations, where tourism is perceived as a profession that may satisfy certain interests that attract them.

Two other categories belong to the practical rewards, as students perceive them, that tourism studies can contribute to the students’ future: the desire to engage in the profession or to continue studies in the field (9.4%) and the desire to obtain a professional diploma (and matriculation certificate) (6.7%).

Other factors in choosing the subject pertain to external influences. The most moderate category belongs to “recommendation of friends or family members” (5.3%) and the most extreme is absolute lack of personal choice: “It was not my decision,” (9.8%) in other words, the school or parents decided for the student.

It is possible to find an explanation for these findings in Lisk’s (1968) view that many adolescents deny any external influences on their choice of subject, while only a small percentage is willing to “admit” to family and school influence and, to a lesser extent, peer group influence. Ginsberg et al. (1951) uphold this approach, stating clear divisions for professional development by age (“the imaginary period” until age 12, “the tentative choice period” until age 18 and the “realistic period” which is the period of formulating a decision). Students choosing a subject in tenth grade (age 15) are in the “tentative choice period” according to this classification, which is characterised by the structuring and formulation of self-image. It entails awareness of

interests and values, skills and tendencies but not enough to make a specific commitment to a specific professional choice. Only at the end of this period is it possible to see a tendency to consider reality and its factors. It is possible that expression of this awareness towards interests and values, skills and tendencies at this age were reflected in the findings as presented, because most of the students rationalise their choice with a personal motive of interest or love of the subject. However, it is important that most of the students state that they chose the tourism track because of their interest in or love for the subject. While their attitude is subjective and was influenced, as noted, by factors related to personality development in adolescence, it is still important to emphasise that the subjective attitude that the students choose to express to their friends and to those around them is positive. This interest and liking for the profession can contribute to a positive image and to the further development of the subject in the school. Children and adults learn well, if the subjects being taught interest them. Therefore, curriculum planners should try to discover what the target population actually wants and likes (Lewy, 1990).

From the questionnaire findings (Table 7) about the students' attitudes towards the importance of tourism as a subject, the most positive mean was manifested for the statement regarding certification: "I chose the tourism track because in addition to a matriculation certificate I will also receive a professional diploma". Here, students' assessments were for each question individually and students were not asked to rate the order of importance or choose one factor. However, in the open question, "Why did you choose the tourism track?" students usually noted the main factor that led them to this choice. The results indicate that the greatest number of students (42%) responded that they chose the tourism track because it seems to them to be interesting (Table 8).

Although the closed and open questions are two totally different types, an interesting difference is revealed about the students' attitudes towards the subject. When the students are not required to choose one specific factor (but instead are asked to rate each factor individually), they quite rationally and functionally choose to attribute the greatest positive value to the certification diploma and the matriculation certificate. In other words, they see the diplomas have having the greatest value, by themselves, and their attitude is more positive than to the importance of the subject. However, when they are asked about the factor underlying their choice of subject, most of them maintained that the subject seemed interesting to them, and only a few of the students (6.7%) said that they chose the tourism track because of the matriculation and certification diplomas. It appears that despite the great importance of matriculation certificates and certification diplomas, interest in the subject constitutes a more basic and prevailing factor for them in the choice of subject. These findings are in fact, less contradictory than complementary. Interest in a subject is an immediate prerequisite for choosing and learning it. Receiving certification and matriculation diplomas are the final result of the learning process that spans three years.

Students' attitudes about the main aims of the curriculum (Question two)

Examination of the 12th grade students' attitudes towards given education aims or their implementation as a consequence of having studied the subject is of considerable importance for ascertaining how successful the studies are. When examining tourism, a relatively new subject in high schools still in a process of formulation, students' attitudes towards the content and implementation of general

educational aims, as well as the supreme goals of the subject, can provide valuable feedback for designing future modes of activity and implementation.

To study the students' attitudes about the educational aims pertaining to the tourism track the following question was stated: what are the attitudes of the students towards the aims of the tourism curriculum as stated by the Ministry of Education and Culture?

To study this question, findings from the questions in the students' questionnaire pertaining to the students' attitudes towards the various aims of the subject and of education in Israel were collected and processed. The questionnaire addresses a sampling of aims related to the aims of education in Israel, or to the supreme goals of tourism studies (see Appendix 1). The findings are presented in Table 9.

Table 9: Students' attitudes about implementation of educational aims (n=279)

	Mean	Standard Deviation	P
Tourism studies increase students' love for Israel	2.63	1.98	0.05
Tourism lessons teach students what desirable behaviours are	2.30	0.95	0.001
Tourism studies contribute to greater awareness of the importance of tourism and hotels	1.49	0.62	0.001
Tourism studies expose students to a greater understanding of concept "leisure" and its importance today	1.76	0.87	0.001
Tourism studies teach students the skills for using professional computer programmes	1.60	0.83	0.001
Tourism studies will enable students to fit into the tourism branch in Israel	2.00	1.82	0.001
Tourism studies contribute to nurturing understanding and tolerance for the feelings, traditions and life-styles of other peoples and nations	1.93	1.38	0.001
Tourism studies develop judgmental ability for tourist phenomena and processes	1.72	1.00	0.001

* The lower the mean, the more positive is the attitude about the importance of the subject. A mean greater than 2.5 indicates a negative attitude and a mean of 2.5 or lower indicates a positive attitude.
 * p is the level of significance. The alpha level used to determine statistical significance is $p \leq 0.05$: there is less than a 5% chance that a statistically significant difference relationship or effect that was identified in fact does not exist. In the current Table, in one case p value is 0.05 and in all the other cases, p value reaches the extreme of $p=0.001$.

Table 9 indicates that the students' attitudes about the aims under investigation (from among the aims determined by the Ministry of Education and Culture) are highly positive and significant, except for one aim, "Tourism studies increase students' love for Israel", towards which students express a negative attitude in terms of its implementation (mean: 2.63). This aim, one of the general aims of education in Israel, is expressive, that is, it is a type of aim for which no results can be offered or defined in advance (Eisner, 1970). This stands in contrast to the conception that clearly indicates the learners' behaviour after having completed one type of activity or another. Obviously, a curriculum in tourism studies does not include specific content on love of the country. In Israel, however, a concept that connected learning about one's country with loving one's country developed in education even before the State was established. In the 1930s and 1940s, Zionist-pioneering education preached redeeming the land, conquering the wasteland, developing waterworks, forestation and manual labour and working the land. These concepts were reflected in the schools, in such subjects as Homeland (citizenship), and Geography (Bar-Gal, 1993, pp. 50-51). Zionist-pioneering education demanded that each individual undergo a personal revolution that would be expressed in activities such as setting up a Hebrew settlement far from the large city. Pioneers were people with knowledge of geography:

A son of the land cannot be surprised by its landscape, but his affinity to far-removed areas (such as the Galilee and the Negev) should be nurtured through frequent systematically planned hikes, especially through areas that are not properly settled, and through emphasising the heroism of the settlers and through clarifying the overt and covert blessings entailed in redeeming the wasteland (Oznia, 1961, p. 342).

Such ideological conceptions of learning about the land through hiking its length and breadth and implanting values and deep ties with it were amply reflected in the Geography and Citizenship textbooks that were published even after the State was established (Bar-Gal, 1993). In the light of these values that were deeply implanted in

education in Israel for dozens of years, an approach exists that a subject which includes studies about the country's history, geography, art, religion, culture and sites (and includes general tours around the country) will make students more familiar with a variety of aspects of their country, most of them beautiful and of special interest – and lead to a greater love of country.

The response to the aim, "Tourism studies increase students' love for Israel," may also be connected to significant changes in Israeli society in recent years. Society has become more individualistic and less patriotic than in the first years of the state's existence. This is both natural, and attributable in part to changes such as a continual rise in the quality of life and of life style and greater aspirations for self-fulfilment, with a concomitantly lower identification with national elements. Dror and Lieberman (1997, pp. 14-15) note that curricula today distance Israel's educational ideals from those characteristic of the early years of statehood, such as the aspiration to create an ideal "pioneer" image in which the values of love of country and service to the general public were emphasised. Instead of these ideals the curricular system has moved to the scientific-rational stage, as described in this dissertation, which is operational, measurable, academically oriented and connected to the evaluation and measurement of individual achievements according to the acquisition of skills and knowledge. It would appear that implementation of a value-oriented and idealistic aim such as a love of the country seems too esoteric and abstract for most students. Love of one's country is a subjective disposition of which students are not necessarily aware. Furthermore, it is especially hard to judge an "improvement" in the love of country. Perhaps a longer-term perspective (such as a few years after completing studies, and not during them) is necessary to answer this question. In any case, it should be noted that this aim appears as one of the supreme goals defined by the

Ministry of Education and Culture. Thus, it was necessary to ask about it and present the preceding findings and discussion on the subject.

Students expressed the most positive assessment of all the aims about which they were asked towards the aim: “Tourism studies contribute to greater awareness of the importance of tourism and hotels” (1.49). Obviously, this aim is of central value in tourism studies, which should lead to a clarification and internalisation of the importance of the industry. Such an approach may strengthen and enhance students’ motivation to learn the content matter of the subject and become familiar with its many aspects. The fact that the students assessed the implementation of this aim more positively than the other aims questioned (Table 9), indicates the effectiveness and relevance of the subject matter and the learning process to which students are exposed. Nurturing awareness of the importance of the industry with all that this entails is also part of the supreme national aims for the entire population – to encourage a positive attitude towards tourism and tourists (Ministry of Tourism, 1994c). This is especially important in a country such as Israel that aspires to develop incoming tourist traffic in the coming years (Ministry of Tourism, 1994a). It is possible to see the educational nucleus of the tourism industry in the school setting as an important foundation that should be expanded to the community and to the public at large. Studies have shown that there is a high correlation between local community attitude and the development of a country’s tourism (Gunn, 1988; Mansfeld, 1992; Chalker, 1994).

Another positive assessment, relative to all the aims presented to the students, was towards the aim: “Tourism studies teach students the skills for using professional computer programmes” (1.60). This aim is related to professional training studies and in the contemporary work world, the tourism industry is conspicuously dependent on

professional computer software. Learning to operate and use professional programmes constitutes an integral part of professional training for the industry, and the fact that the students see this aim implemented more positively than other aims, indicates that the students feel that they are actually applying the learning material in practice. This positive assessment may also be connected to the findings of the curriculum analysis using Eden's (1985) tool for the Carmel demo booklet (Ministry of Education and Culture, 1993a), a professional learning material for use with a computer programme to teach students about aviation and reserving flights (see Chapter eight). The findings for Carmel identify positive elements in the students' attitudes as reflected in the booklet. These include didactic aids that integrate sketches and tables to illustrate the learning process, encouraging understanding and implementation; convenient organisation of the material, encouraging independent work through the didactic aids; and as a result, nurturing thinking for problem solving and applying knowledge. The material was also rated as treating students as individuals involved in an investigation and having intellectual needs. It should be remembered, however, that the Carmel demo analysis also revealed significant deficiencies and drawbacks in the booklet and the software, such as not being up-to-date and not delving into the subject with sufficient depth.

Two aims that are the product of understanding tourism – developing judgmental ability towards it and applying it at a more basic social level – also earned positive assessments, relative to all the aims about which students were asked. The aims were: “Tourism studies develop judgmental ability for tourism phenomena and processes” (1.72) and “Tourism studies expose students to a greater understanding of the concept ‘leisure’ and its importance today” (1.76) (see Table 9).

The World Leisure and Recreation Association (WLRA), an organisation whose aim is to be recognised as a leading international catalyst for the advancement of leisure education programmes in schools, communities and training institutions of personnel (Ruskin, 1998, p. 4), issued an international position statement to the effect that "leisure is a most valued component of community development and requires an awareness of its advantages and benefits. Leisure literacy should be a societal goal" (WLRA, 1999, p. 3). Leisure education is a directed, systematic and structured process for individuals to recognise their right to leisure and what constitutes using it wisely. The aim is to use formal and informal educational settings to imbue and nurture desirable leisure time behaviour patterns. The need for leisure education can be attributed to factors at the individual and societal levels, therefore, the subject should be addressed from a broad perspective, one that transcends the connection between leisure and tourism. The societal factors include the need to utilise leisure time in Israel, as a modern society, for matters of interest that promote satisfaction in life. Leisure should help individuals make use of the channels available to them for self-expression, family ties, consumption of culture and contributing to the creation of quality culture in general. Other factors can also be added, such as the shortening of the work week which has resulted in more leisure time; daily life that does not provide satisfaction or creativity but is replete with tensions and routine. These constitute salient problems that demand solutions and proper direction for development (Ministry of Education, Culture and Sport, 1994c, p. 5). The leisure curriculum included in tourism studies in Israeli high schools conforms to the spirit of the WLRA statement and to the strategic policy of the Ministry of Education in Israel in its attempts to attain the supreme aims of leisure education in educational frameworks: "To help individuals, families, the community and society at large to achieve quality

of life and good health through the wise use of leisure time, by developing and nurturing values as well as physical, affective, cognitive and social elements, individually and/or in combination, in keeping with the aims of education in Israel and the various cultural heritages in Israeli society (Ministry of Education, Culture and Sport, 1994c, p. 6). According to the findings of this study, leisure studies within tourism studies expose students to a greater understanding of "leisure" and its importance today. In other words, the leisure studies curriculum effectively corresponds to the existing strategy of the Ministry of Education, as presented above, and makes a significant contribution to the students in keeping with the social aims of Israel's education system.

In terms of the learning process, this finding can be viewed positively because students give a positive assessment to the application of these aims. Not only does the course of studies instil knowledge, skills or professional training, it also nurtures an understanding of subjects of value both at the personal level and at the social level.

It is interesting to note that while two aims related to instilling values earned positive assessments in terms of their implementation, these assessments were lower than other aims about which the students were asked: "Tourism lessons teach students what desirable behaviours are" (2.30) and "Tourism studies contribute to nurturing understanding and tolerance for the feelings, traditions and life-styles of other peoples and nations" (1.93). Nevertheless, these results should be seen as an achievement. The fact is that these aims were evaluated positively, and in a state such as Israel, which is a social melting pot with a vast variety of ethnic groups, nations and religions, nurturing understanding and tolerance is of great value, even beyond its contribution to tourism.

It is possible that by nature, implementation of these value-related aims in the curriculum and in learning is usually covert to some extent. In this case, however, it appears that their application is actually felt and therefore the students' assessments are positive, but less so than for the other aims presented above which are more tangible and more conspicuous in the curriculum.

A positive but relatively lower assessment was given to application of the aim: "Tourism studies will enable students to fit into the tourism branch in Israel" (2.00). A discussion of the importance of this subject to the students is presented in this chapter in relation to the first research question. Perhaps the positive but low assessment about implementation of fitting into the tourism industry stems from the students' awareness that they may not be able, or want to join the industry. This perception can also be connected to the special circumstances that apply in Israel, whereby there is usually a hiatus between high school studies and joining any industry or employment field because of the compulsory army service that requires most citizens who reach age 18 to be drafted for two or three years. Also, in assessing the students' attitudes towards their reasons for choosing to learn in the tourism track, this study found that they mentioned the professional certification and matriculation diplomas awarded, but the factor of interest was more central.

A partial sampling was conducted among seven schools with relatively long-standing tourism tracks. From the data at their disposal, the tourism teachers reported that about 15-25% of their graduates actually work in the tourism industry. While these results are incomplete, because of the difficulty of gathering information about all graduates, the percentage seems relatively low, which may be connected to the military service that intervenes between high school and having to go out and make a living. Other studies have dealt with tourism students' attitudes towards the

possibility of working in the industry and the results are not uniform. Some found that direct experience in the industry as part of the training led to more favourable attitudes towards careers in tourism (Murphy, 1985; Ross, 1992, 1994) while others noted that direct experience with the industry actually may cause students to develop negative attitudes towards tourism jobs (Barron & Maxwell, 1993; Getz, 1994; Kusluvan & Kusluvan, 2000).

Students' attitudes about learning methods and the skills required for learning the subject (Question three)

What characterises curriculum development as an academic domain in the past twenty years is the growing tendency to move from the centralised approach (professional centres) to the decentralised approach (the school, the teacher in the classroom and the students). Most of the professional literature in curriculum of the 1980s and 1990s criticises the concept of “syllabus” as a product in its own right (Guri-Rosenblitt, 1996, p. 17). Learning methods and skill development are the part of the curriculum pertaining to processes occurring in the classroom, and they incorporate the potential to deviate from the written text and express creativity (Ben-Peretz, 1990). The special nature of tourism studies in high schools, combining as they do theoretical academic subjects with professional training, together with the tremendous dynamics of change in these fields, must be reflected in appropriate academic and professional skills, variety in teaching methods and the use of alternative teaching methods, together with frontal teaching (Amir, 1994, pp. 225-226). It is especially important to create student interest and a positive attitude towards the subject. Part of this can derive from effective teaching methods.

Tourism studies in high school require special learning methods for instilling the appropriate skills. In order to investigate the students' attitudes towards learning methods and skills in tourism studies the following question was raised: what are the students' attitudes towards the learning methods and the skills required for learning the profession?

To examine this question, the responses to the questions pertaining to learning methods and required skills that appear in the students' questionnaire (Appendix 1) were collected and processed. The questionnaire included a table listing a number of learning methods and required skills, and students were asked to rate the usefulness of each one. In a second table, students were asked to rate their liking for these elements. Findings, as well as correlations between usefulness and liking, are presented in Table 10.

Table 10: Comparison within students' group: correlations between usefulness of and liking for skills and learning methods (N=279)

	Mean Useful	SD Useful	Mean Liking	SD Liking	r
1. Learning using tourist newspaper clippings	2.04	0.75	2.26	0.84	0.46*
2. Learning using simulation games	2.00	0.87	1.93	0.93	0.51*
3. Comparing different tourist sites or hotels	1.90	0.95	2.28	0.83	0.33*
4. Identifying sources of demand for tourism, recreation and hotels	1.69	0.71	2.14	0.84	0.37*
5. Reading and identifying information written in professional jargon	1.62	0.73	2.13	0.89	0.41*
6. Learning in groups	2.09	0.89	2.02	1.62	0.31*
7. Using drawings and pictures that describe phenomena from the studies	2.28	1.68	2.09	1.59	0.11*
8. Listening to a guest lecturer from the tourism industry	1.91	0.88	2.20	1.01	0.50*
9. Looking at a map to identify a site and to deduce tourist data	1.72	0.81	2.26	1.59	0.25*
10. Learning by heart	2.77	0.93	3.20	1.11	0.38*
11. Learning through study tours in Israel	1.27	0.84	1.30	0.64	0.33*
12. Learning through study tours abroad	1.22	0.48	1.16	0.49	0.37*
13. Dealing with professional forms in tourist offices and hotels	1.46	0.65	1.93	1.05	0.42*
14. Performing professional actions using appropriate computer programmes	1.50	0.69	1.71	0.85	0.52*
Items N=14	Overall mean	1.82	0.41	2.04	0.48

SD - Standard Deviation

The lower the mean, the more positive is the attitude about the importance of the subject. A mean greater than 2.5 indicates a negative attitude and a mean of 2.5 or lower indicates a positive attitude.

r = correlation between the two factors. The correlation ranges from (-1) to (+1). The more positive and higher the value is the stronger is the correlation between the variables in the same direction. In other words, the more positive one is, the more positive the other one will be.

* p <= 0.05

The findings in Table 10 indicate that students' attitudes towards usefulness of learning methods and required skills for the subject are highly positive except for one learning method ("learning by heart"). Similarly, the attitude towards liking these elements is highly positive (except for "learning by heart"), and there is a relatively high correlation between the attitudes towards usefulness of the items and the students' liking for them.

"Learning by heart" is almost not used in Israeli schools today. Perhaps because students consider it an old-fashioned and uncreative approach, they expressed a negative attitude towards its usefulness (2.77) and an even more negative attitude in terms of liking it (3.20). In contrast, other learning methods mentioned are considered alternative learning methods (not frontal teaching) and include elements of active learning (identification, comparison, using pictures), individualised learning and shared learning (simulation games, learning in groups) (Dror & Liberman, 1997, p. 59).

Skill development plays a central role in tourism studies, therefore it is important that students have a positive attitude towards performing tasks and learning through active learning methods (Globman & Harrison, 1994, p. 58). The internalisation and instilling of skills is effective mainly when students become accustomed to the material and try it out by themselves, through activities such as those the students were asked about: comparing tourism sites or hotels, reading and identifying information in professional language, identifying and using data from tourism maps and using computer applications.

Tourism as a subject is varied and derives from practical life, with many attractive and interesting elements. It is extremely important that students have a

positive attitude towards active learning methods that can illustrate the attractiveness and uniqueness of tourism, such as: using simulation games, learning in groups, using drawings and pictures that describe tourist events, inviting guest lecturers from the industry and conducting study tours in Israel and abroad.

The subject of study tours earned the highest positive assessments among the students, both for tours in Israel (usefulness: 1.27; liking: 1.30) and abroad (usefulness: 1.22; liking: 1.16), relative to their assessments of the usefulness and their liking for the other learning methods and skills mentioned. This response should come as no surprise, since students love study tours in the country and certainly abroad. However, it should also be kept in mind that touristic study tours in Israel and abroad facilitate the attainment of the academic aims of the subject such as familiarity with tourist sites and their characteristics, and especially turning the learning process into something alive and concrete by bringing the subject closer to the students. The tourism subject, more than others, is based on activity and dynamic happenings in the field and, therefore, it is desirable and even advisable to leave the classrooms of the school and see tourist sites such as hotels, recreational centres, historical sites, museums and commercial and entertainment centres.

Study tours constitute a learning element that breaks the learning routine and a means of achieving learning aims that are difficult to attain in the classroom (Oznia, 1961; Bar-Gal, 1993). Such tours also have social value because of the opportunity they provide for students to undergo special experiences together. Thus tours offer benefits not only academically and socially; they also make students like the field even more.

Students assessed most positively the usefulness of instilling the skills required for professional training: "Dealing with professional forms in tourist offices

and hotels” (1.46) and “Performing professional actions using appropriate computer programmes” (1.50). It might be that learning these skills during tourism lessons gives students a feeling that the material is relevant and practical and that it is essential and important for their professional training. This is material connected directly to the field, and therefore it gives students tools for work and the confidence that they can use this information should they actually work in the industry. It is interesting to see that the students also like these skills (1.89 and 1.71 respectively), but their assessments for liking are lower than for usefulness. In other words, they like learning these skills but see the usefulness in them as of greater significance. This response expresses a quite understandable sentiment: that just because something is important does not necessarily mean that those who must learn it have to like it. The result about learning professional computer programme skills corresponds to the positive finding for the second research question in this dissertation that deals with students’ assessment of implementation of the aim: “Tourism studies teach students the skills for using professional computer programmes” (1.60). This was found to be especially positive in relation to the other implementation aims about which students were asked. Thus, this indicates consistency and provides additional validation of the students’ attitudes on this subject.

Other skills belonging to tourism studies also received relatively positive assessments in terms of their usefulness: “Identifying sources of demand for tourism, recreation and hotels” (1.69), and “Looking at a map to identify a site and to deduce tourist data” (1.72). In comparison, while students’ assessments of learning methods in these activities, such as: “Learning in groups” (2.09) and “Learning using simulation games” (2.00) were positive, they were significantly lower than the

attitudes towards the usefulness of the skills. It appears that instilling the skills constitutes a much more tangible element than the learning methods used.

Teachers' evaluations of the students' attitudes towards the learning methods and skills required for the subject (Question four)

To investigate the correlation between students' attitudes towards the use of given learning methods and special skills for learning the subject, in contrast to the teachers' evaluation of the students' attitudes, the following question was formulated: How do teachers evaluate the students' attitudes towards the learning methods and skills required for the subject?

To examine this question, the responses to the questions pertaining to learning methods and required skills that appear in the teachers' questionnaire (Appendix 2) were collected and processed. The questionnaire included a table listing a number of learning methods and required skills, identical to the table the students received in their questionnaire (Appendix 1). Here, however, they were asked to rate the students' attitudes towards the usefulness of each method and skill. In another parallel table, the teachers were asked to rate the students' attitudes in terms of how much they liked each element. Table 11 presents the findings obtained about the teachers' evaluation of the students' attitudes towards the usefulness of the learning and how much they like the teaching methods and skills required for the subject. The table also includes the students' actual attitudes, which were presented in Table 10 and discussed in the preceding research question, to provide a basis for comparing the two groups of results.

Table 11: Teachers' perceptions of students' attitudes about the usefulness of and their liking for the subject's skills and learning methods (N=38); and the students' attitudes about it (N=279)

	Teachers' perceptions of students' attitudes: Usefulness		Teachers' perceptions of students' attitudes: Liking	
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
1. Learning using tourist newspaper clippings	1.40 2.04*	0.49 0.75*	1.69 2.26*	0.52 0.84*
2. Learning using simulation games	1.52 2.00*	0.64 0.87*	1.64 1.93*	0.69 0.93*
3. Comparing different tourist sites or hotels	1.80 1.90*	0.67 0.95*	2.25 2.28*	0.68 0.86*
4. Identifying sources of demand for tourism, recreation and hotels	1.89 1.69*	0.51 0.71*	2.00 2.14*	0.70 0.84*
5. Reading and identifying information written in professional jargon	1.46 1.62*	0.60 0.73*	2.29 2.13*	0.71 0.89*
6. Learning in groups	1.81 2.09*	0.69 0.89*	1.85 2.02*	0.74 1.62*
7. Using drawings and pictures that describe phenomena from the studies	1.47 2.28*	0.60 1.68*	1.54 2.09*	0.56 1.59*
8. Listening to a guest lecturer from the tourism industry	1.52 1.91*	0.60 0.88*	1.67 2.20*	0.68 1.01*
9. Looking at a map to identify a site and to deduce tourist data	1.27 1.72*	0.45 0.81*	1.84 2.26*	0.50 1.59*
10. Learning by heart	3.05 2.77*	0.73 0.93*	3.58 3.20*	0.60 1.11*
11. Learning through study tours in Israel	1.05 1.27*	0.22 0.84*	1.23 1.30*	0.43 0.64*
12. Learning through study tours abroad	1.13 1.22*	0.35 0.48*	1.48 1.16*	2.09 0.49*
13. Dealing with professional forms in tourist offices and hotels	1.37 1.46*	0.54 0.65*	1.82 1.93*	0.61 1.05*
14. Performing professional actions using appropriate computer programmes	1.23 1.50*	0.59 0.69*	1.68 1.71*	0.53 0.85*

The lower the mean, the more positive is the attitude about the importance of the subject. A mean greater than 2.5 indicates a negative attitude and a mean of 2.5 or lower indicates a positive attitude.
SD - Standard Deviation

* - Students' attitudes about usefulness of and their liking for the subject's skills and learning methods.

The sign test (which takes its name from its use of plus/minus signs) was used because it is applicable to the case of two related samples when the experimenter wishes to establish that two conditions are different (Siegel, 1956, p. 250). The aim of the test was to see if the pattern of the teachers' responses was more positive than that of the students (in other words, whether the teachers consistently evaluated the students' attitudes more positively than the students themselves did). The two profiles (of the teachers and students) have an identical number of components (these are matched cases) that are not independent, therefore, the differences are also not independent. This is the reason that the sign test was chosen. As Siegel (1956, p. 68) notes, "The sign test does not make any assumptions about the form of the distribution of the differences". The means of the items for the two groups – in this case the teachers and the students – were compared (skills and learning methods) and the following findings were elicited. In comparing students' attitudes towards usefulness of the subject's skills and learning methods, and teachers' evaluation of students' attitudes, it was found that in most cases (12 of the 14 items), the teachers rated the students' attitudes as being more positive than they actually were (Table 11). (The two items for which the students' ratings were more positive were: Identifying sources of demand for tourism, recreation and hotels, and Learning by heart.) The probability of this happening is $p=0.006$ and is significant for $p < 0.05$, according to Siegel's (1956, p. 250) table. In other words, in terms of "usefulness", the teachers' ratings were more positive than were the students' ratings.

In comparing students' attitudes towards liking for the subject's skills and learning methods, and teachers' evaluation of students' attitudes, it was found that in most cases (11 of the 14 items), the teachers' evaluations of the students' attitudes were more positive than the students' actual attitudes (Table 11). (The three items for

which the students' ratings were more positive were: Reading and identifying information written in professional jargon, Learning by heart, and Learning through study tours abroad.) The probability of this occurring is $p=0.029$ which is significant at $p < 0.05$, according to the table in Siegel (1956, p. 250). In other words, in terms of "liking", the teachers' evaluation is more positive than is that of the students.

These findings correspond to those of Tamir and Zur (1977, p. 207) who investigated teachers' and students' preferences among various teaching activities in Biology. They found that students note lower frequencies than teachers for more innovative activities and higher frequencies for more conventional activities (in other words, here too the teachers' evaluation was too positive). In light of this, it would seem that teachers tend towards exaggeration and idealisation in their evaluations. An explanation for this can be found in Abraham (1975), who found that teachers tended to exaggerate in their self-evaluation and to idealise the nature and manner of teaching, while identifying themselves with the role. Therefore, they tend to see in themselves the positive qualities required, and to distance themselves from negative characteristics in them and in their manner of teaching. The fact that in the present study the teachers' evaluation of students' attitudes were found to be consistently and significantly higher than the students' evaluations of usefulness and liking, makes these findings more meaningful and more clearly valid. Tamir and Zur (1977) contend that this means that teachers should be aware of the gap between their perceptions and the students' actual attitudes to what is happening in class and try to fulfil their good intentions.

Teachers' attitudes towards the learning materials recommended by the Ministry of Education and Culture (Question five)

The fact that teaching in high schools is conducted in the light of the Matriculation Examinations (Dror & Liberman, 1997), ensures a highly centralised approach in matters pertaining to curriculum and learning materials. These must be uniform so that they fulfil the guidelines and requirements of the Ministry of Education and Culture.

To investigate teachers' attitudes towards the learning materials recommended by the Ministry of Education and Culture for teaching the subject the following question was formulated: what are the teachers' attitudes towards selected learning materials in tourism? To investigate this question, the findings from the teachers' questionnaire of teachers' attitudes towards the four selected teaching materials (see Appendix 2) were collected and processed. Table 12 presents the teachers' attitudes towards these materials.

Table 12: Teachers' attitudes towards the textbooks and booklets

	N	Teachers' satisfaction		Increases students' interest in learning tourism		Students' understanding of explanations	
		Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
Leisure studies textbook	20	3.05	0.94	2.64	0.70	2.60	0.75
Hotel reception clerking textbook	14	2.28	1.13	2.50	0.70	2.33	0.88
Receptionist clerking exercises in bookkeeping	6	2.66	0.51	2.20	0.44	2.33	1.03
"Carmel Demo" booklet	10	3.10	0.87	2.55	1.01	1.85	0.90

The lower the mean, the more positive is the attitude about the importance of the subject. A mean greater than 2.5 indicates a negative attitude and a mean of 2.5 or lower indicates a positive attitude.
SD - Standard Deviation
N - Number of teachers

From Table 12 it is apparent that the teachers' attitudes towards all the parameters pertaining to the Leisure studies textbook were negative (satisfaction level, enhanced students' interest and extent of student understanding). What is especially obvious is the very low level of teacher satisfaction (3.05). The teachers' attitudes towards the Hotel reception clerking textbook were positive for all the parameters even though in "enhanced student interest" the score was borderline (2.50). As for the Receptionist clerking exercises in bookkeeping, positive attitudes were expressed towards two parameters and a negative attitude towards one (teacher satisfaction – 2.66). For the Carmel Demo booklet, negative attitudes were expressed for two parameters and only one parameter was judged positively (student understanding – 1.85).

The findings gathered by means of the questionnaires indicate, in most cases, a general tendency towards dissatisfaction with the learning materials. This is reflected in the teachers' evaluations and in certain differences between them and the categories about which they were asked (satisfaction, enhancing students' interest and extent of students' understanding). However, the findings were found to be limited for three main reasons: 1. The extremely limited size of the teacher population responding to the questions, mainly about three of the learning materials: Hotel reception clerking textbook (N=14), Receptionist clerking exercises in bookkeeping (N=6) and Carmel demo booklet (N=10). The reason for this is that the number of teachers responding to these questions was much smaller than the total number of teachers who responded to the entire questionnaire (N=38). Teachers do not teach all the subjects in tourism since there are so many of them, and therefore, each teacher specialises in a few areas. 2. In examining the questionnaires it was found that some of the teachers teach the subject but do not use one or another of the learning materials that appeared in the

questionnaires. 3. On the questionnaire, the teachers did not explain their evaluation even though an open question adjacent to the table asked them to explain their evaluation. Even those teachers who did refer to the open question did so in a few words with no explanations.

In light of the limited findings, the need arose to supplement study of the subject in order to understand the reasons and causes for their attitudes towards the learning materials. To this aim, a qualitative-naturalistic method was selected for use in this study, the interview. A major advantage of the interview is its adaptability. Through an interview it is possible to follow up ideas, probe responses and investigate motives and feelings, which a questionnaire can never do. The way in which a response is made (tone of voice, facial expression, hesitation) can provide information that a written response would conceal. Questionnaire responses have to be taken at face value but a response in an interview can be developed and clarified (Bell, 1996, p. 91). A number of types of interviews can be used. Among them are the ethnographic open interview, the standard structured interview and the guided, focused interview, which was the one selected for this research.

The ethnographic open interview is a form of verbal event, similar to a friendly conversation (Spradley, 1979). The standard structured interview is based on predetermined formulated questions, structure and order to which the interviewer adds nothing (Ben-Yehoshua, 1995, p. 65), while the guided or focused interview (Shamir & Ben-Yehoshua, 1982; Ben-Yehoshua, 1995, p. 65; Bell, 1996, p. 94) is begins with an outline of subjects pertaining to the goals of the study but also allows the interviewer latitude for responding to new points that occasionally arise. Flick (1998, pp. 94-95) calls this the semi-structured interview. Freedom for the respondent to talk about what is of central significance to him or her, rather than to the

interviewer, is clearly important. However, providing some loose structure, to ensure that all topics considered crucial to the study are covered, eliminates the problems of entirely unstructured interviews. The guided or focused interview fulfils these requirements (Bell, 1996, p. 94).

In order to study the attitudes of teachers to the learning materials under investigation a sample of twelve teachers was interviewed, three interviews for each learning material. The sample includes teachers who were selected from the group that responded to all the questionnaires. All of them use the learning materials they were asked about and all consented to participate in the interviews. On the basis of piloting with two teachers, changes in question content were made. The questions prepared for the semi-structured interview were composed as follows (see Appendix 5). The first question provides information about the teacher (number of years teaching, school in which he/she teaches, subjects taught, and educational background). The second question asks which of the learning materials the teacher uses in his/her lessons, and if they are not used at all, why not.

The following six questions are based on the categories in the Research Tool of Eden (1985) for analysing curricula. The categories were also used for analysing the qualitative content of these learning materials in this study. The questions address a variety of elements connected to evaluation of learning materials, such as: quality of learning material, learning process and learning methods, attitude towards the learner, the extent to which the material meets the aims stated in the curriculum, conditions required in the classroom/school for using the learning material, and attitude expressed towards society or community. The ninth question asks teachers about their own ideas or suggestions for improving the learning material, and the last question

asks whether the subject has anything to add about the learning material or the tourism track (see Appendix 5).

In order to illustrate the findings of the interviews with the teachers, four abridged sample interviews are appended to this dissertation, one for each of the four selected learning materials. Appendix 6 contains the interview with Teacher A about the Leisure studies textbook, Appendix 7 the interview with Teacher B about the Hotel reception clerking textbook, Appendix 8 the interview with Teacher C about the Receptionist clerking exercises in bookkeeping booklet and Appendix 9 the interview with Teacher D about the Carmel demo booklet.

The teachers' responses emphasised different aspects of each of the learning materials. In regard to the Leisure studies textbook, the teachers referred mainly to the fact that the material was written on too high a level and was not processed or edited for high school students. The material also lacked didactic aids and seemed to totally ignore the learning process. The book required special efforts on the part of the teachers to adapt it to the learners' level. The Hotel reception clerking book was, in the teachers' opinion, good and matter-of-fact, but certain parts had to be updated because of the changes that had occurred in the field. The Receptionist clerking exercises in bookkeeping booklet was found to be a good learning material that led students to a concrete understanding of the subject matter. Criticism of the booklet centred on the exercise instructions, which were not written in a manner that was easy for the students to understand. Because teachers had to explain and clarify the instructions, students could not progress completely on their own. It was also noted that a number of the exercises had to be updated because of changes in hotel calculation processes. The interviews with teachers about the Carmel demo booklet elicited a very positive attitude towards the booklet's didactic structure and its ability

to activate the students. However, the booklet was also cited as irrelevant, because it was outdated and far removed from the original programme that had developed and become more sophisticated since the learning software had been prepared to teach airline reservations.

On the subject of learning processes and learning methods encouraged by the books, clearly defined attitudes towards each of the four learning materials under review emerged. Teachers maintained that both the Leisure studies textbook and the Hotel receptionist book did not encourage learning processes and methods since they do not include any didactic aids such as questions or exercises for the students. As for the two exercise booklets, the teachers noted, with satisfaction, that they encouraged student thinking and active learning and were both effective and enjoyable in their variety.

As for how the materials seemed to treat the students, the Leisure studies textbook was found to treat high school students like university students who are provided with information, theories and models that they must read and learn. The reader was written with no material to activate students or facilitate the learning process, and, as noted, the material was too hard for high school students. The writing style was too scientific and unattractive to the students. The Hotel reception clerking book seemed to the teachers to be, in the words of Teacher B, like the Bible: “See and accept it” (Appendix 7). In other words, there was no logic, no thinking process leading to the material. In comparison, there was great satisfaction with the attitude of the two exercise booklets towards the learners. The teachers felt that the booklets encouraged thinking and exercise, and nurtured independent learners who could deal with the material and solve problems by themselves.

In regard to teachers' attitudes about the extent to which the materials met the stated aims of the Ministry of Education, the teachers responded in all cases that the materials met some of the aims. The Leisure studies textbook met the aims related to information and content according to the subject's syllabus but very little in the areas of instilling skills and values, mainly because the book did not address the students directly. The Hotel reception clerking book met the aims related to learning the subject, little in instilling skills because there is no active reference to the students, and in the domain of values, its main emphasis was on nurturing manners and courtesy. The two booklets, on the other hand, fulfilled the aims that related mainly to instilling professional-technological skills but not to fulfilling aims regarding knowledge in the syllabus. This is understandable, since they contain exercises with almost no learning material. For the same reason, they do not deal with values, either.

In general, the materials do not require special conditions in the school or special equipment, except for the Carmel demo booklet that requires a computer room equipped with the relevant programme. All the teachers noted that the equipment is available in their schools, and even when equipment is required (such as audio-visual aids or a simulative desk of a hotel reception desk), it is available in their schools for teaching the subject.

For all the learning materials, the teachers recommend that the required revisions be made, as needed, to improve the materials. In relating to the Leisure studies textbook, they recommend conducting inservice courses for teachers on the subject and they especially encourage teachers to present lesson plans for their colleagues to learn from, including student activation. The teachers think that it is necessary to re-edit the material, reduce its scope, adapt it to high school students, vary it and pay attention to the students who are the readers. In the Hotel reception

clerking book, suggestions were raised to make it more lively by including colour photos and by encouraging students to think integratively. In the Receptionist exercises in bookkeeping booklet, suggestions included rewriting the instructions for the exercises in a manner that was more appropriate for and clearer to the students. In the Carmel demo booklet, a suggestion was raised to send students to intensive courses given by El Al Airlines or the instruction centres of the colleges to receive hands-on experience working with the Carmel On-line programme.

The teachers found the learning material in the Leisure studies textbook to have importance for society or the community as a whole. Leisure as an issue, in their opinion, affects almost everyone in almost all aspects of life, especially today as leisure time increases and the working week becomes progressively shorter. The utilisation of leisure time can be a “blessing” or a “curse” and therefore, it is of importance for individuals and society. The Hotel reception clerking book was found by the teachers to contribute to society mainly in that it educates for and encourages courtesy, reliability and sensitivity as important traits required for working in hotels. This is logical, since reception and good public relations are of the utmost importance in the hotel industry. The teachers found no content of importance for society or the community in the two work booklets about which they were asked, mainly because these learning materials included little content and concentrated almost exclusively on practising professional-technological matters.

The teachers’ attitudes as reflected in their responses to the questionnaires for each of the learning materials in most cases corresponded to a great extent to the findings that emerged from analysis of the materials using Eden’s (1985) evaluative tool. As part of the evaluation using this tool in the following chapters (seven and eight), the study will go into greater depth and detail about the findings, including a

discussion of the learning materials and the tourism curriculum in high schools in Israel.

After discussing the findings about the teachers' attitudes towards the learning materials in tourism, it is necessary to evaluate and examine these materials through an evaluation tool that deals with various aspects of the tourism curriculum.

Evaluation of the learning materials is presented in Chapters seven and eight, utilising Eden's (1985) evaluative tool.

Chapter eight

Evaluation of textbooks in the tourism track

In this chapter, Eden's (1985) evaluative tool for curricula is presented with details of its criteria and categories, and the tool is used to evaluate two tourism track textbooks used in Israeli high schools.

In the following chapter (Chapter nine), two workbooks from the tourism track are evaluated, after which the findings for all four learning materials (the two textbooks and the two workbooks), elicited using this tool, are analysed and discussed. Analysis of the learning materials in the two chapters deals with the sixth research question that pertains to analysis of the tourism learning materials by means of Eden's (1985) evaluative tool. This question satisfies the need to evaluate and examine tourism learning materials by means of an evaluative tool that encompasses a variety of aspects related to the tourism curriculum. It also provides a means for examining the teachers' attitudes towards the learning materials, as reflected in this research (in Chapter seven) and to explain these findings.

The discussion and analysis of this research question is divided into two parts because of the difference in the types of learning materials. While the materials analysed in this chapter are textbooks that contain mainly theoretical and academic material, the two learning materials in the next chapter are professional-technological exercise workbooks. As noted, however, all four materials are compared and discussed at the end of the next chapter.

Analysing selected learning material in tourism through the Eden (1985) evaluative tool (Question six – part A)

Evaluation of the learning material in the tourism track serves as an important indicator of implementation of the curriculum in school and raises the following question: how are selected learning materials in the tourism track evaluated in terms of Eden's (1985) evaluative tool?

The tourism curriculum is broad and divided into subjects and a variety of learning topics, combining various specialisations. Each of these subjects has appropriate learning materials. For the purpose of the analysis, four learning materials were selected representing a characteristic cross-section of the learning subjects in the tourism track. A naturalistic-qualitative research approach (Feinber, 1977; Erickson, 1977) was chosen, using content analysis (Berelson, 1952; Hoslti, 1969; Krippendorff, 1980; Guba & Lincoln, 1981; Sabar Ben-Yehoshua, 1995). The content analysis of the four representative materials in tourism studies will be performed by means of the evaluative tool developed by Eden (1985), which is based on criteria in the professional literature and in teaching-learning studies (Stevens & Eash, 1974; Morrisset, 1971; Adar & Fuchs, 1978; Goodlad, Klein & Tye, 1979; Ben-Peretz, 1980; Gall, 1981; Sabar Ben-Yehoshua, 1982). Eden's (1985) evaluative tool was chosen because it is suited to many subjects and areas of study.

For the purpose of analysis, the theoretical-analytical method was chosen that is based on an understanding of the content and the interpretations accompanying the description. This method describes and interprets the principles and values that characterise the description of the events. The didactic concept is also explained. In this method, intuition plays an important role, enhancing the subjectivity of the evaluation. To counterbalance this drawback, it is possible to bring detailed quotations

from the textbook under evaluation, in order to maintain maximal precision in transmitting the content, nature and tone of the book. The method itself is practical and applicable (Eden, 1985, p. 10). For analysis purposes, four learning materials were selected, each of which is the sole source of learning a given subject. All are recommended by the Ministry of Education and they represent a cross-section of the theoretical and professional subjects learned in tourism studies in high schools in Israel. Of the four learning materials selected, the following two are analysed in this chapter:

Leisure studies textbook (Mansfeld, 1990)

This is a reader for the leisure studies component of the curriculum as part of the academic matriculation examination in “tourism” at the regular and enhanced levels (3 and 5 units). This curriculum and the reader represent the theoretical side of the studies in the tourism track.

Hotel reception clerking (Nussbaum, 1993)

This book is for the “tourism reception” (hotel reception clerk) part of the curriculum at the regular and enhanced levels (3 and 5 units). The curriculum and book represent learning materials belonging to this part of the professional training in the tourism track.

The following two materials are analysed in the next chapter:

Receptionist clerking exercises in bookkeeping (Nussbaum & Duek, 1996)

This is the exercise booklet for one subject (bookkeeping) of the “tourism reception” curriculum. The booklet represents applied learning materials for practising skills from the curriculum for professional training in the tourism track.

Carmel demo (Ministry of Education and Culture, 1993a)

This is a booklet of exercises for learning how to operate and use a simulated computer programme for reserving flights in a travel agency, as part of the “computer applications in tourism” curriculum. The booklet represents applied learning materials for practising the curriculum through the use of the computer as part of the studies of professional training in the tourism track.

The criteria for evaluating the learning materials according to Eden’s (1985) tool can be organised according the following eight subjects:

1. Describing the learning material
2. Evaluation in terms of learning material
3. Evaluation in terms of process
4. Evaluation in terms of the student
5. Evaluation in terms of society
6. Suitability to (stated) aims
7. Suitability to the teacher
8. Suitability to school conditions and environment.

Each criterion has a list of elements for evaluation where the evaluator must choose the relevant criteria for the material being examined. The criteria of the analysis have been compiled in Table 13. The analysis for each learning material will relate to the relevant criteria for it, in accordance with the type of learning material such as reader versus exercise booklet.

Table 13: Criteria for evaluating learning material (from Eden, 1985, pp. 16-32)

Subject	Criteria	Details
1. Description of material	Basic data	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> *Book name, author, publisher, type of publication, year of publication *Number of pages and list of items in the package *Previous edition or report on experimentation of material
	Subjects of material for student	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> *Content of material *Reference to researchers *Subjects with special emphasis
	Manner in which material is presented	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> *Literary texts (story, poem, excerpts of diary, letters) *Informative texts (transmitting information, newspaper clippings) *Presenting data (maps, tables, diagrams) *Activating texts (experiments, interviews, observations, tours, tasks)
	Didactic mechanism	Questions, summaries, work with maps, activities through pictures and illustrations, raising subjects for discussion, role playing
	Graphic form	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> *Pictures and illustrations (as a source of information, example, creating atmosphere) *Graphic means (page set-up, line length, spaces, headings, colour, highlighting)
	Material for teacher	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> *Is there material for the teacher – details of the elements in the source (rationale, authors' considerations, operative aims, explanations of content, extensive information, recommended teaching methods, recommendations for student activities, bibliography) *Tools for evaluating achievements (like tests)
2. Evaluation in terms of learning material	Quality of learning material	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> *Importance to the subject *Timeliness and accuracy of data *Accuracy of interpretation of data *Presentation of additional thinking processes for information (e.g., knowledge, understanding, application, analysis) *Presentation to affective domain (e.g., awareness of social needs, consideration of others' needs) *Connection between theoretical subject and practical life
	Principles in organising the learning material	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Types of principles (disciplinary/interdisciplinary, main subjects) *Fundamentals of organising the material (principles, concepts, phenomena, aspects, problems) *Organisation that facilitates: independent learning, work in groups, dealing with students' difficulties, enrichment for talented students) *Principles for classifying the material *Adapting didactic aids to the material *Modular or consecutive organisation *Structured material (one activity after another) or suited for flexible use

Subject	Criteria	Details
	Quality of tasks	Clear tasks, suggestions for beginning tasks, direction for dealing with difficult parts of the task, clear guidelines for tasks, variety of tasks
	Quality of questions	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> *Questions that students can answer *Questions based on learner's experience *Variation of level of difficulty of questions *Questions that arouse interest to further study of the subject *Immediate answers to the questions are in the text *Activating different levels of thinking through the questions *Responses that require analysis of data *Responses that require students to formulate their own conclusions
4. From students' viewpoint	Readiness	Type of students for whom the material is intended, adaptation to the level of the intended students, basing the material on previously learned knowledge and skills that students should know
	Student activity in the learning material	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> *The senses towards which the activity is directed, encouraging effort, encouraging active participation *Facilitates integrated frontal, individual and group teaching of all types
	Student satisfaction	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> *Activities that arouse interest and the desire to learn and create enjoyment *Means of providing feedback to students (such as model answers) *Reinforcement of activities performed (e.g., marks, presenting the product, other evaluation)
	Student image	Material treats students as: passive absorber, investigatively involved, having intellectual needs, having affective needs
5. From the social viewpoint	Importance of content to society or community	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> *Helps in understanding the structure and order of society *Encourages learner involvement in social life *Encourages behaviours to foster quality of life and environment *Indicates connection between developing areas of science and population needs
6. Suitability to stated aims	Aims stated in the curriculum	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> *Extent of correspondence to stated aims of the curriculum *Extent of correspondence to stated aims of the authors of the material *Aims receiving special emphasis in the learning material *Attaining additional, unstated aims *Stance of the evaluator towards the aims
	The material and values	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> *How values are reflected in the aims *Expressing unequivocal stances or leaving room for discussion *Dealing with controversial issues *Inferences regarding fostering or preventing stereotypes (towards nations, minorities, ethnic groups, genders) *Expression of ethnic heritages in Israeli society

Subject	Criteria	Details
7. Suitability to the teacher	Independence provided to teacher	Opportunities to choose material, change organisation of the material, adapt material to special conditions
	Conception of teacher's role in the curriculum	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> *Structured or leaving room for teacher initiative *Leaving room for encouraging student initiative, involving them in planning and teaching activity as an expert helping students with questions *If there is a teacher's guide – its function in providing additional information required for teaching, and helping to solve foreseeable difficulties
8. Suitability to school and environmental conditions	School conditions	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> *The necessity for special conditions for implementing the programme (equipment, suitable place) *Adapting proposed work methods to the school budget and the students' options *Adapting proposed work methods in the material to the school climate (e.g., encouraging creativity, working in groups) *Extent to which the material requires parental and community involvement

Evaluation of Leisure studies textbook (Mansfeld, 1990)

1. Description of material. The book Leisure studies, published by the Ministry of Education, Science and Technology Division, contains 261 pages. It is an anthology of scientific articles on the subject from a variety of sources, selected and edited by Dr. Yoel Mansfeld. The material is intended for eleventh and twelfth grade students in a framework of 120 hours over the two-year period. This is the first, pilot edition. The reader constitutes the only source for teaching the material on the subject.

The book is divided into ten main chapters, each of them with subdivisions. The first chapter is a general introduction that includes various definitions of leisure and tourism. The remaining chapters appear in the following order: leisure in a historical perspective, leisure in modern society, psychosocial aspects of leisure, spatial aspects of leisure, tourism and leisure – general aspects, definitions of tourism as a system, developing tourism – aims and planning, sociocultural influences on tourism, tourism and the environment. The subchapters and main chapters are

followed by a list of references to the sources from which the scientific material was drawn, usually articles that appeared in journals and books in English. Some chapters have a text and/or discussion presenting the approaches of one or more researchers, citing them by name with the model or theory to which they lent their name. The material is broad and varied in scope, the main chapters usually differ from one another and it is hard to point to subjects that receive more attention or emphasis than others.

The book does not contain didactic tools such as questions, summaries, activities through pictures and illustrations, raising a subject for discussion or role playing. There is also no use of pictures for illustrative purposes, and what illustrations appear are used mainly as sources of information and not to create an atmosphere. There is no colour; the printing and page set-up are uniform with no variety to attract the eye. There is no material for the teacher or a teacher's guide for the book.

2. Evaluation in terms of learning material. The material in the book is both important and significant to the subject since it contributes to developing an academic basis for the students' knowledge of leisure, recreation and tourism. A problem exists regarding the timeliness of the material and accuracy of data, since the book was published in 1990 and is based mainly on research sources and data from the 1980s. While concepts, definitions and basic theories have remained relevant, research data pertaining to the leisure habits of the population or the movement of tourists to various countries change from year to year and are undoubtedly outdated and irrelevant ten years or more after the fact. Interpretation of the data is based on scientific studies published in some of the leading leisure and tourism journals, among them Annals of Tourism Research and Leisure and Recreation Management. This

makes the information reliable, especially in cases where a number of definitions and approaches to a subject are presented where there is no agreement or unity in the scientific literature. For example, on the discussion of definitions of leisure, various approaches are presented, such as: leisure as time, leisure as activity, leisure as an aim – an experiential situation, and leisure as a holistic idea/meaning (Mansfeld, 1990, pp. 7-10). The material includes a wide representation of thinking processes at high levels in addition to information (understanding, application, analysis), and presents complex theories and scientific conceptions that are not easy for high school students to learn. This, however, will not necessarily create independent thinking among the students on these subjects since the material is not accompanied by didactic tools for this purpose (such as questions and tasks for the students to perform). The book includes learning material from the affective domain in various subjects, such as psychosocial aspects of leisure (pp. 95-114). This chapter deals with theories of human motivation, emotional (and other) needs for leisure viewed socially and personally, subjects from the disciplines of psychology and sociology. In this case as well, the lack of didactic tools requires that teachers process the material so that the teaching process will be understandable and will stimulate students to greater awareness of the social issues under discussion.

There is a close relationship between the learning material in the book and practical life. The subjects of leisure, recreation and tourism are an integral part of our lives today, and as such are familiar to students from a number of aspects. The learning material teaches and gives the tools for understanding, analysing and sampling the phenomena, processes and positive and negative results involved. The book includes examples and data through which learning can be related to reality, but these seem to be rather limited in scope when compared to the theoretical and

informative aspects of the material. Among the examples of the connection with daily life is a list of categories of motivational factors for leisure activities in general: “pleasure from nature, escape from civilisation, escape from routine and from responsibility, physical activity-maintaining physical fitness, creativity, physical and emotional relaxation, social contact-the desire for society, the desire to distance oneself from society...” (Mansfeld, 1990, p. 104).

The learning material in the book is interdisciplinary, based on studies in leisure, sociology, psychology, history, geography, ecology, economics and tourism. The organisation of the learning material is not systematic and there is no organisational structure that repeats itself, except perhaps for the division of main chapters into subchapters, with no emphasis on principles, concepts and problems. This type of organisation of material does not encourage independent student work. Also, there is no gradation of material (from easy to difficult) that may ease some difficulties for the students. The material is not presented in modular fashion and this makes it difficult to use flexibly.

The order of the chapters may sometimes confuse the learner, since there are repeated references to the same subject from different aspects in different chapters. For example: references to definitions of tourism appear a number of times: 1. In the introduction from the approach that integrates with a leisure theory that spreads over five pages (Mansfeld, 1990, pp. 16-21); 2. Chapter 5 as part of a discussion of leisure and the spatial aspect under the subheading of “definitions of tourism” (pp. 122-123); 3. Again in Chapter 5, under another subheading “four types of tourism?” (pp. 124-129); 4. Throughout Chapter 7, “definitions of tourism as a system” (pp. 197-211). Perhaps a different type of organisation that focused on related subjects

instead of spreading them throughout the book might have made it easier to use and learn from the book.

The print is clear and easy to read but the page set-up is crowded and monotonous and does not try to arouse interest in the reader through spaces, headings, visual material or colour. What impinges most on the readability of the material is that it is based on the translation of articles from English (Mansfeld, 1990, p. 5). The consequent linguistic difficulties develop both because of the intensive use of scientific terminology and the use of terminology translated from English to Hebrew. In cases where translated terms have no recognised equivalent in Hebrew, new terminology is coined. The result is language that often is not suited to the linguistic level of the students.

Despite the terminological difficulties, the content of the learning material has generally high value at all levels: in the short term, it helps to understand phenomena related to leisure, recreation and tourism; in the intermediate term, it facilitates studies in tourism and helping to learn material from other disciplines, as noted above; and in the long term, it provides meaningful information that can provide students with the ability and awareness to utilise their leisure time as adults usefully and positively.

3. In terms of the process. Since the book, as noted, does not include didactic tools and its organisation does not encourage independent student activity, it also does not encourage elements of discrimination among theoretical fundamentals such as: classification and categorisation, comparison and discriminating between the more important and the less important, as well as elements that encourage various types of independent work, creativity or task implementation.

4. From the student's viewpoint. The material is intended for eleventh and twelfth grade high school students, at the academic matriculation level with intermediate and

high abilities. The material is new for the students and they generally have no basis or previous background in the subject. Since the book is written on a scientific-academic style, its language is at times difficult and as it has no didactic tools, it does not encourage the students to make an effort to be active learners. It does not create motivational factors and reinforcements for performing tasks, and students are treated as passive absorbers without creating conditions that fulfil intellectual and affective needs. In the light of this it appears that students will need the teachers as mediators between them and the areas of learning.

5. From the social viewpoint. Learning material about leisure studies is of great social importance. It includes content that can encourage behaviours that foster quality of life and of environment and underlines the connection between developing subjects (especially leisure, recreation and tourism) and the needs of the population. For example, Chapter 10, "Tourism and the environment," deals with the ties between tourist activity and the host environment, both physically and in terms of culture and the local population. It calls attention to the sensitivity that exists between tourists and environmental preservation and includes subjects such as: symbiotic relations between tourism and environment, conflicts between tourism and environment, tourism and water quality, tourism and fauna in their natural environment, and tourism and the needs of the local populace, the "bearability" of the environment, and tourist influences on the urban environment (Mansfeld, 1990, pp. 243-261).

In each of the subjects, examples are given of the interrelationships and mutual effects of tourist movement and the natural, cultural and human environment. The main message is that tourism is a welcome phenomenon economically and socially but when tourist movement becomes massive, it also has many negative consequences. Therefore, it is necessary to be aware of these consequences and to act

in a balanced manner that is sensitive to the needs of preserving the environment and the lives of the local residents in the host area. An example of the spirit of this message is reflected in the following quotation from the summary of the chapter: “Lack of consideration of bearability or unwise use of a place will of necessity lead, sooner or later, to damage of the environmental system, and as a result of the tourist system in the area, since a quality environment serves as a foremost attraction in most tourist sites” (Mansfeld, 1990, p. 261).

6. Suitability to stated aims. The stated aims of the subject were defined in three sources:

- a. The stated aims of the author as presented in the introduction to the book (Mansfeld, 1990, p. 5).
- b. The curricular aims of “leisure studies” (Ministry of Education and Culture, 1991b, pp. 2-3).
- c. The supreme aims of the tourism track (Ministry of Education and Culture, 1997).

a. The stated aims of the author as expressed in the introduction (Mansfeld, 1990, p. 5). No formulation of detailed and rationalised aims is given for the reader. But the first sentence notes that “this reader encompasses all aspects of study included in the leisure studies curriculum and represents a main instrument for teaching the curriculum...” From this we can learn that for the author, the aim underlying his preparation of the reader was to prepare learning material that includes all the subjects appearing in the Ministry of Education and Culture curriculum and meets the aims of that curriculum. It is also specifically stated that “the material was selected and organised in keeping with the structure of the leisure studies curriculum.” Thus a high

correlation should be expected between the stated aims of the curriculum and the book.

b. The aims of the leisure time studies curriculum (Ministry of Education and Culture, 1991b, pp. 2-3). The leisure time studies curriculum states a number of aims and a comparison of them and of the learning material in the reader yields the following conclusions:

- First aim: “To expose the students to various aspects of leisure time, leisure activities and their consequences for the individual, society and the environment.” It would seem that this aim, which is mainly in the domain of knowledge, is attained in the chapters of the book. The chapter headings of the book as presented in the analysis do indeed include various aspects of leisure time (for example, psychological, sociological, economic), and great attention is paid to the influences on the individual (leisure, work and unemployment, factors affecting participation in leisure activities – social status, gender, time, space, leisure activities, family, age, ethnic origins, accessibility, awareness). Reference to the effect on society can be found in almost every chapter in subjects such as: leisure in the historical and modern perspectives, sociocultural influences of tourism, leisure and human needs (such as Maslow’s hierarchy of needs). The issue of environmental consequences as noted above receives special attention in the chapter on “tourism and the environment.”
- Second aim: “To impart to the students a broad world of concepts deriving from the various aspects of leisure.” This aim in the cognitive domain seems to be attained since, as noted above, the great amount of scientific information included in the book contains many concepts deriving from the leisure aspect (e.g., “free

time,” “sold time,” active leisure, passive leisure, popular culture, leisure style, serious leisure).

- Third aim: “To impart to the students a theoretical basis that will enable them to understand the processes and the integration of factors affecting and being affected by leisure activities.” As noted, the theoretical material contained in the reader is quite broad, and it includes subjects that describe processes and connections between factors affecting and being affected by leisure activities such as the interrelationship of leisure and tourism, recreation, society, environment and economy. These subjects are discussed throughout all the chapters of the book and together they provide the students with a theoretical basis.
- Fourth aim: “To impart to the student tools for interdisciplinary analysis of leisure phenomena.” Imparting interdisciplinary tools is an aim from the information and skill domains. In the information domain the material includes, as noted, multi-domain approaches and combines areas such as psychology, sociology, economics and geography. On the other hand, the contribution of the reader in the domain of imparting skills is limited, since this aim requires activating the students through didactic tools such as questions, problems and tasks for applying theoretical material and using appropriate data (for example, analysing a tourist event using concepts from a number of disciplines). These elements, as noted above, do not exist in the book.

In addition, the curricular aims also state that

in order to attain the aims effectively, care should be taken that the curriculum be implemented in a manner that integrates frontal teaching with learning through experience, using extensive use of various teaching aids, discussions in class, analysis of newspaper clippings in general and especially tourist information, simulation games and tours that emphasise the interdisciplinary nature of leisure studies in general and especially of tourism as a leisure activity (Ministry of Education and Culture, 1991b, p. 3).

According to this criterion, the authors of the curriculum emphasise the need to use varied teaching methods that encourage active learning. The book, in contrast, contains only reading material and thus does not encourage such activity even though it is the only source for teaching this programme.

c. Supreme aims of the tourism track (Ministry of Education and Culture, 1997, pp. 1-2): The supreme aims of the track pertain to three domains: information, skills and values. Reference to aims that have not been discussed about the leisure studies curriculum yield the following findings:

* “Familiarity with important tourist phenomena”

The description of the material in the book, as noted, emphasises the fact that the material includes awareness and study of important tourist phenomena such as: models of tourist development and its effect on the regional area, tourist movement – causes and consequences, and the principles of tourist planning. Discussion of these subjects and of other important tourist phenomena appear mainly in Chapters 6-10 (Mansfeld, 1990, pp. 185-261).

* “Viewing tourist phenomena in relation to the past and the present”

Chapters 2 and 3 (Mansfeld, 1990, pp. 23-149) include extensive material about understanding development of the leisure concept on a historical continuum that is divided into historical periods. Each period is characterised by a different attitude towards leisure not only at the conceptual level but mainly at the level of substance and function. Through this material students can learn about the contribution of each period to the pluralistic view of leisure in modern societies. The historical survey in the book begins in the days of Ancient Greece, and concludes with the concept of leisure today.

Aims in the skill domain:

- “Developing students with basic technological skills for using the computer and its applications in the tourism field, as part of the economic and professional activity in our times.”
- “Imparting structured experiences and interpersonal skills in tourism.”
- “Acquiring the skills required for understanding the tourism profession.”

As noted, the book does not impart tools for developing skills and therefore does not encourage implementation of these aims, which will be examined in relation to other learning materials in the track.

Aims in the values domain

- “Nurturing students who see tourism as an economic and social blessing and who welcome tourists and tourism from a positive view of the subject.”
- “Nurturing a young population that will become ‘agents for change’ in relation to tourism, among its population, in the family and society.”
- “Nurturing judgement of tourist phenomena and processes according to pan-human moral values.”
- “Nurturing understanding of and tolerance for feelings, traditions and life styles of other peoples and nations.”
- “Enhancing awareness of the importance of the tourism branch among youth, as part of the activity required in the population at large, and from a view of the youth as citizens of the future” (Ministry of Education and Culture, 1997, pp. 1-2).

Since tourism studies include a group of supplementary and complementary subjects, an attempt to analyse the supreme aims in relation to one teaching aid rather than to the entire programme may be misleading. Attaining the values’ aims may be the result of what is accumulated throughout the studies in the track. The book itself,

as noted, deals with value subjects only through the written text, and does not encourage thinking and self-activation of the students. Its partial contribution to attaining these supreme aims can be seen only in what is related to the theoretical knowledge base in the value subjects in the book. For example: “Nurturing students who see tourism as an economic and social blessing” represents an aim that is based on information and data in the book, and thus it is possible to note the book’s contribution to attaining this aim. The main idea underlying this national aim is that awareness of the importance of tourism to Israel will lead residents to manifest a positive attitude towards tourists in the country.

7. Suitability to the teacher. Although the reader includes extensive material that encompasses the entire curriculum, this does not make the teachers’ work easier. Rather, it requires that they expend great efforts in preparing varied lesson plans that will lead to active teaching as recommended in the curriculum aims. It appears that the difficult scientific writing with its new concepts and models, some of which are quite complex, requires the teachers to process the theoretical material and present it to the students in a simpler and easier format. This need for teacher effort is especially true since the book has no teacher’s guide or workbook for the students.

8. Suitability to the school and environment. The curriculum does not require any special physical or budgetary conditions, or any special school climate. It is possible to develop learning methods for the subject that encourage special teaching methods and include parental and community involvement, but this is not reflected in the book.

Evaluation of Hotel reception clerking textbook (Nussbaum, 1993)

1. Description of material. The book Hotel reception clerking, published by the Ministry of Labour, Department for Training and Personnel Development, contains

249 pages, including all the theoretical material mentioned in the Ministry of Education and Culture curriculum (1991a) and in the requirements for the professional training programme for hotel reception clerks issued by the Ministry of Labour and Welfare (1995). The author of the book is an expert in hotels and hospitality with many years of experience in teaching and writing learning materials in this vocational track. The material is intended for eleventh and twelfth grade students in a 180-hour programme over a two-year period. This is a new and revised edition of the book. The book serves as the main source for learning material in hotel reception clerking.

The book is divided into eight parts with one appendix, and each part is subdivided into sections. Each of the first seven parts covers a main theme in the curriculum in the following order: a. Background of hospitality; b. Guest accommodation conditions in the hotel; c. Reservations; d. Room clerking; e. Information; f. Reception bookkeeping; g. Cashiering. The eighth part contains analyses of “case studies,” with various hotel scenarios each of which is followed by a case study analysis. The appendix to the book provides a lexicon of 320 professional terms. The table of contents of the book includes details of the subchapters as well (see Appendix 11).

In addition to the informative texts, the book also presents data in illustrations, pictures (black and white), tables, flow charts, sample forms, lists, reports and examples of calculations. Aside from Chapter 8 with its “case studies,” the book contains no additional didactic tools such as questions, summaries, activities through illustrations and pictures. The use of graphic aids adds to creating an environment connected to hotels and the subject matter, but the pictures included are old and their black and white format creates a visual impression not suited to contemporary modern

hotels. On the other hand, the other graphic aids (tables and flow charts) have great value for objectifying the material and making it comprehensible.

Printing and page layout make use of ample margins and spacing. Each subject is highlighted in large red print, and each subchapter and subheading is also emphasised in red. Together with a good division into paragraphs, this makes the material easy and pleasant to read. No material or guide for the teacher comes with the book.

2. Evaluation of learning material. The importance of the learning material in the book is for the professional training of hotel reception clerks. The book contains all the subjects and information about relevant fields. The material in the book is mostly professional and practical, including clear instructions for how a person in each hotel department should function in a variety of situations. The data are updated, for the most part, to the contemporary state of affairs and also mention how matters were dealt with in the past. Nevertheless, because of the rapid rate of change in the hotel branch as a result of stiff competition, and the need to constantly improve the level of service and efficiency, some changes and innovations are not mentioned in the book. For example, the book does not refer to guesthouses – types of rural accommodation that have become an important element in hospitality in Israel and elsewhere in recent years. While the book refers to several procedures for working with computerised systems, it appears superfluous for the book to include, as it does, material about non-computerised activities. Today it is virtually impossible to find hotels in Israel (and most countries of the world), even the smallest of them, that do not use computerised administrative systems.

The material in the book encourages students to learn at the level of knowledge and understanding of the professional aspects of the hotel. The learning

material which, as mentioned, is not accompanied by didactic tools, does not stimulate the students to additional thought processes such as application and analysis. The final chapter, on the other hand, with its hotel scenarios that include descriptions and analyses of cases from the hotel, can serve as a basis for application and analytical levels of thought. It should be noted that the basis of the knowledge included in the book is not academic for the most part, but rather professional and practical. Therefore, most of the emphasis is on knowledge and understanding or application. Representation of the affective domain is reflected in the book in the great number of elements related to the quality of service given in the hotel. The main success of the hotel branch is related to professionalism and the high level of service provided by the staff, thus emphasising the need to educate personnel for politeness and courtesy. The events chapter attempts to illustrate how sensitively and courteously students (potential future employees) should behave towards the guests, in keeping with the hotel's policy. For example: one event describes a guest's request to change rooms (Nussbaum, 1993, p. 212). The reception clerk's response to the request is to suggest that the guest move to a better but more expensive room. In the case analysis, however, it is noted that the reception clerk forgot to clarify the main point: why the guest was not satisfied with the room, express regret and clarify whether it is just a matter of fixing something. The clerk should have asked the guest whether s/he would be satisfied with repairing what was wrong; and if it was a matter of general dissatisfaction, the clerk's immediate concern should have been to change the room since the guest's satisfaction is the most important consideration to the hotel. Discussions and analyses of this sort in the learning process encourage sensitivity to giving service and responding to guests' requests courteously and with a sincere effort to help.

The theoretical and practical subjects in the book are closely intertwined since there are no theories or theoretical academic models intended to develop ways of thinking and understanding of a given subject. The object here is to exemplify facts and activities that actually occur in the hotel and must be dealt with professionally.

The subjects are generally multidisciplinary and based mainly on areas such as: hospitality, tourism, management, marketing, bookkeeping and calculations, and interpersonal communication. Organisation of the material is orderly and systematic. As noted, it is divided into subjects, chapters and subchapters. However, there are no lists or highlighted definitions of terms, and there is no emphasis in the text on particular phenomena or problems. The order of subject and chapter presentation is gradated, from introducing hospitality as a branch, through an inductive presentation of subjects and chapters containing details leading to generalisations. This approach serves to simplify and objectify matters well. The initial subjects are more theoretical matters – guest accommodation conditions, reservations, room clerking and information. The following subjects require more technical skills for independent learning by the students since the book offers no questions, problems or tasks to require independent student work and thought. The material is presented in easy-to-read and easy-to-find layout that simplifies learning for students with difficulties. The didactic aids in the book are co-ordinated as is reflected in the proximity of illustrations, tables, flow charts and other didactic materials to the text dealing with the same subject. Thus, for example, next to the explanation about tentative reservations there is a flow chart illustrating the various actions that must be taken to deal with the subject (Nussbaum, 1993, p. 52).

Despite the systematic organisation of the material and the ease of reading and orientation, the text lacks certain aids to learning such as summaries of subchapters

and of subjects, more examples in the body of the text itself, definitions of terms/concepts and notes. For example, the chapter on hospitality includes an explanation about different types of hotels. This was the place to mention the names of a few hotels as examples of each particular type, such as: commercial hotel, recreation hotel or apartment hotel (Nussbaum, 1993, pp. 3-6). The material lacks emphasis on the many concepts mentioned or generalisations and principles.

The print is clear and readable. The layout is, as noted, interesting to the reader and includes good spacing, highlighted headings and visual materials. However, the pictures are black and white only. The language is understandable and readable and the many concepts pertain to the profession and must be learned by the students. To this end, the author includes a lexicon of terms at the end of the book containing words and phrases in Hebrew and in English. The language of the writing is well suited to the students' verbal level.

As learning material, the book should be of great value at all levels: in the short term, for knowing and understanding hotel-related phenomena, and various aspects of hotel management and functioning. In the intermediate-range term, the material can facilitate students' entry into the branch while also offering opportunities for continued academic or professional studies in hospitality, tourism or other disciplines. In the long term, students acquire meaningful knowledge that can make them sensitive to and aware of interpersonal ties.

3. In terms of the process. Although the chapter presenting events in the hotel can serve as a basis for activation, it does not include questions or tasks for the students beyond the description of the cases, their analysis or demonstrating a better way of dealing with the situation. The book does not encourage elements of discrimination of theoretical fundamentals such as: selection and classification, comparison,

distinguishing between the more important and the less important. Similarly, there are no elements that encourage independent work, creativity or task performance.

4. In terms of the students. The material is geared to average to high-level eleventh and twelfth grade students taking academic-matriculation examinations. The material is new to the students and they usually have no previous background or basis in the subject. The book is written at a level adapted to the students' abilities, it is readable, clear, easy to use and facilitative of learning, but the lack of didactic tools offers no encouragement to expend effort and engage in active learning. There are no motivating factors and reinforcements for performing tasks, and students are treated as passive absorbers with no attempt to influence intellectual and affective needs.

5. In terms of society. The book's contribution to society lies in its importance in the vocational training of students for careers in the hotel branch, one of the growing and more important elements in tourism and in the country's economy. Beyond knowledge of technical details, methods and means of work, the book and especially the examples in the final chapter of analysis of case studies, emphasise the importance of service level and quality. Teaching students proper comportment and behaviour, sensitivity to manners and courtesy, has value in shaping students with a more positive personality for the good of society in general and especially for the hospitality branch.

6. Suitability to declared aims. The stated aims of learning the subject were defined in three sources:

- a. The stated aims of the author as they appear in the introduction to the book (Nussbaum, 1993, p. XIII).
- b. The aims of the curriculum for "reception clerks" (Ministry of Education and Culture, 1991a, p. 2).

c. The supreme aims of the tourism track (Ministry of Education and Culture, 1997).

a. The stated aims of the author as they appear in the introduction to the book

(Nussbaum, 1993, p. XIII). The book does not contain a detailed formulation of its aims but the author states that: "The book is intended to teach the principles of all aspects of hotel clerking such as reservations, room clerking, reception bookkeeping, cashiering. The book focuses on principles and processes of implementation, and the manual method is presented as a basis for the computerised system..." From this it is clear that the author's central aim was to prepare learning material encompassing all the subjects appearing in the curriculum. Since the book was published by the Ministry of Labour, "curriculum" refers to what that ministry prepared. But the curriculum set down by the Ministry of Education and Culture also followed that of the Ministry of Labour, since vocational and not academic matters are involved and it is the Ministry of Labour that awards professional training diplomas. A review of the chapter headings in the book reveals complete correspondence with the curriculum set down by the Ministry of Education and Culture (1991a).

b. The aims of the curriculum for reception clerks (Ministry of Education and Culture, 1991a).

- The first aim: "To become familiar with the organisation of the hotel industry."
- The second aim: "To become familiar with all the services that this industry provides."
- The third aim: "To become familiar with all the functions of the reception clerk in the hotel and his/her place in the (hotel) organisation."
- The fourth aim: "To be able to deal with reservations arriving at the hotel."

- The fifth aim: "To be able to receive guests at the hotel and to arrange arrival details for individual guests and groups."
- The sixth aim: "To be able to deal with departing individual guests and groups."
- The seventh aim: "To be able to deal with messages to guests, mail arriving at the hotel, and to locate outside sources required by hotel guests."
- The eighth aim: "To be familiar with and to deal with the various payment means accepted in the hotel."
- The ninth aim: "To be able to prepare a guest's invoice and draw up a daily test balance sheet on the basis of these invoices."
- The tenth aim: "To be able to work with others and to deal with guests and their complaints politely."

All the aims were defined in behavioural terms, defining what the students will be capable of performing or knowing for proper functioning in their professional capacity as hotel reception clerk. The content matter in the book corresponds systematically to the aims. Thus, for example, knowledge about the first aim, "being familiar with the hotel industry," is provided in the first chapter of the book, "General background of hospitality" (Nussbaum, 1993, pp. 1-8). The curriculum did not define additional aims to encourage learning at levels higher than knowing, understanding and implementing, and the book does not appear to stimulate student performance. Perhaps it could have provided the opportunity to probe the material more deeply and allow students to compare phenomena (such as types of hotels, types of services, various influences on the branch), and to attain higher levels of problem-solving ability independently by encouraging thought and creativity. This would make the learning more interesting and help students to internalise the material and be able to

implement it from independent thought and not only based on set guidelines, rules and regulations.

Some of the aims entail instilling professional skills, such as the ninth aim, "To be able to prepare a guest's invoice and draw up a daily test balance sheet on the basis of these invoices." While the book includes all the material necessary to explain in detail how students should perform these actions, and while it actually includes illustrated samples of appropriate forms, the book does not include exercises that require the students to practise the actions by themselves and to develop the appropriate skills. It is very hard to develop skills without practice, therefore, it would appear that attaining implementational aims is limited, or requires additional activities on the basis of material not found in the book.

c. The supreme aims of the tourism track (Ministry of Education and Culture, 1997, pp. 1-2). The supreme aims for the track encompass three domains: information, skills and values. Regarding the aims that were not discussed pertaining to reception clerk programme, the following findings emerge:

Knowledge-related aims:

* "Providing a basis for the vocational training of students in technological subjects in tourism, so that graduates meeting the requirements will have the option of fitting into the tourism branch more easily."

The learning material in the book pertains mainly to vocational training, serving as the main source for the training of hotel reception clerks. Students who successfully complete their studies in this specialisation receive not only a matriculation diploma but also professional certification from the Ministry of Labour. This is an official diploma, recognised by the tourism branch in Israel, thus, graduates

have the option of finding work in hotels, which constitute an important part of the tourism branch.

* "Familiarity with important tourism phenomena."

Although the book does not emphasise tourism phenomena since it is aimed primarily at vocational training, the material must at times mention various tourism phenomena, mainly those connected to the hotel branch. These include why certain hotel services are needed (motivators to tourism): "Commercial business requires long-distance travelling, spending vacations in appropriate sites in terms of landscape, entertainment and recreational facilities, pilgrimages to holy sites, healing at far-off health springs and spas..." (Nussbaum, 1995, p. 1).

* "Seeing tourism phenomena in the light of the past and the present."

The book does not encourage seeing tourism phenomena or even hospitality in the light of the past and present, but this does sometimes arise in connection to specific topics. Thus, for example, the chapter defining and describing the hotel branch today offers a concise survey of how the branch developed from early times. For example: "...The most ancient motive for [staying at a hotel] was actually related to the struggle for survival. This refers to a person forced to leave his home and wander far and wide because the sources of survival had been depleted. This situation, which has repeated itself from the dawn of history to this day, long ago created the custom, which is observed by desert tribes to this day, of taking in visitors. This is one of the cornerstones of hospitality" (Nussbaum, 1995, p. 1).

Skill-related aims

* "Developing students with basic technological skills for using the computer and its applications for the tourism branch, as part of today's economic and professional activity."

The book is aimed at developing these skills but for the most part only theoretically, since it does not contain any didactic tools, as mentioned, that would allow students to practise and acquire the required skills. As described above, attention is also paid to developing interpersonal skills that are so important to the branch and this is reflected mainly in the "case studies" and their analysis in the book.

Value-related aims

* "Nurturing students who see tourism as an economic and social blessing, who will greet tourists and tourism warmly from a positive view of the subject."

* "Nurturing a young population that will become 'agents of change' for tourism, among the population in which they have family and social ties."

* "Nurturing the judgement of tourism phenomena and processes according to universal human moral values."

* "Nurturing understanding and tolerance for feelings, traditions and life styles of other people and nations."

* "Enhancing youngsters' awareness of the importance of the tourism branch, as part of the activity required in the entire population, and from a view of youth as citizens of the future" (Ministry of Education and Culture, 1997, pp. 1-2).

As was noted in the analysis of value-related aims in the leisure studies reader, it is difficult in this case also to unravel the entire package of values that students

obtain through the various subjects and learning materials in the tourism track.

Nevertheless, as was shown above, it is possible to see the value-related elements that the book emphasises and to which it can contribute in formulating a positive attitude among students. This is true mainly in areas related to "nurturing understanding and tolerance for the feelings, traditions and life styles of other nations and people." One of the basic rules of the hotel reception clerk, as set down in the book, is to behave courteously and tolerantly to guests of all ages, genders and types.

7. Suitability to the teacher. Although the book has no teacher's guide or student workbook, the material is presented well and does not require processing or editing by the teacher to make it easier for students to absorb. The material is quite comprehensive, relevant and suitable to the curriculum and it can serve the teacher as an important tool for teaching this subject.

8. Suitability to school conditions and environment. The learning material in the book does not require any special physical, budgetary or climatic conditions in the school. It is true that the Ministry of Education and Culture recommends developing special teaching styles to encourage learning. For example: in some schools, classes set up simulated "reception desks," equipped with the various professional accessories and forms needed to illustrate the subject under discussion, to vary the lesson and to create more student interest and understanding.

The discussion analysing the findings of the two textbooks using Eden's (1985) evaluative tool leads to the evaluation of the professional-technological workbooks in the next chapter, in order to be able to relate to a variety of learning materials used in the tourism track in Israeli high schools.

Chapter nine

Evaluation of workbooks in the tourism track and a comparison of the learning materials analysed

This chapter is a continuation of research question six – the evaluation of learning materials in the tourism track using Eden’s (1985) evaluative tool. The two materials evaluated in this chapter are professional-technological workbooks, and thus the research refers to all types of materials (supplementing analysis of the textbooks in the preceding chapter). To conclude the chapter, a comparison and discussion of the findings for all four materials – those analysed in this chapter and the preceding one – will create a clear picture of whether the tourism curriculum is implemented by means of the learning materials.

Analysing selected learning materials in tourism through the Eden (1985) evaluative tool (Question six - Part B)

Evaluation of Receptionist clerking exercises: bookkeeping (Nussbaum & Duek, 1996)

1. Description of the material. The Receptionist clerking exercises bookkeeping booklet, published by the Centre for Professional Promotion in Hospitality in conjunction with the Ministry of Labour and Welfare and the Israel Hotel Association, contains 85 pages of exercises with no theoretical learning material. The authors, Nussbaum (who also wrote the previous book that was analysed, Hotel reception clerking textbook) and Duek, are both experts in hospitality with experience in the

branch and especially in the professional training of hotel reception clerks. They have also written curricula and other learning materials for the subject.

The material is intended for eleventh grade students and refers to the one chapter of the curriculum for hotel reception clerks – “bookkeeping.” This chapter is allotted 16 teaching hours of the 90 annual hours for hotel reception clerking in the Ministry of Education’s eleventh grade curriculum (1991a, p. 12).

The booklet contains 23 exercises, all of them arranged as work pages in the form of tables or flow charts depending on the type of exercise (see Appendix 12). Students must complete the exercises on the booklet’s worksheets, filling in the empty boxes with their solution. The exercises themselves usually present various types of invoices for students to practice on. Most of the exercises provide students with the forms usually used with the hotels' computerised system. The aim is to familiarise students with the types of calculations and recording with which they will contend when they enter the field.

As mentioned, the booklet contains only exercises, therefore, the text is minimal and includes: titles, concise instructions for implementation and many professional terms in Hebrew with their English equivalent next to them, or only the English terms. This is because English is the accepted language in ongoing work in the hotel computer systems, and students must know, and know how to use, professional English. The book contains no pictures or illustrations beyond the exercise tables as described. There is no use of colour, but the tables are printed clearly with ample space for reading and orientation. No material is available for the teacher and there is no teacher's guide.

2. Evaluation in terms of learning material. The learning material is of great importance to bookkeeping, since this is a subject that cannot be learned in theory

only. It is necessary to practise and drill it so that students can understand and use it in the profession. The material is up-to-date and suited to the hotel computer system. The details are accurate and based on real invoices, and the various problems presented for solution were gathered from many hotels. The material does not impart knowledge, which students must learn from other sources, but it encourages the development of skills requiring understanding and implementation by the students. The nature of the material is mainly technical-mathematical and by its nature does not entail the affective domain. The material is related to theoretical domains through the practical aspects of working in the hotel.

The material is not multidisciplinary, focussing as it does on one subject. It is intended mainly for independent student work. Throughout the book, the material is organised in the same format. In the first two pages, all the exercises are presented by means of a two-to-five-line introduction to each one that includes: the title of the exercise, the page number in the booklet, the aim of the exercise and a short explanation of what students are expected to do. Further on, 23 exercises appear one after the other. The order is not necessarily that of the curriculum, but there is a gradation and the exercises towards the end of the booklet are usually more difficult and require greater knowledge than the earlier ones. The material is not structured and usually one activity does not depend on doing the previous exercise. At times the same exercise may present a number of problems or a number of different ways of calculating and recording the same subject. For example, exercise seven includes a number of problems of preparing invoices for Israeli guests (Nussbaum & Duek, pp. 15-22). Students are asked to practise opening the invoice for the guests, calculating the V.A.T. and attributing each debit to the appropriate departments (by their professional names) according to the services provided. The exercise includes five

tables with various data and five forms for making out the invoice. Students must solve the problems by dealing with different data, recordings and calculations for each problem - all of them on the same subject.

The assumption underlying the organisation of the material is that students are equipped with knowledge gained from theoretical studies using other materials, therefore the booklet does not include elements that can help in the learning process such as: explanations, examples, emphasis on terms, notes, generalisations and principles. Although the aim of the booklet is practice, auxiliary material might have facilitated the process of understanding and learning the material, especially for those students who have difficulty because they lack some theoretical knowledge. At times it is easier to remember things through an available explanation without having to seek it out in other sources.

The material is readable and clear, the tables are carefully arranged, the lettering is highlighted and easy to read, and the language is understandable and suited to the verbal level of the students, despite the extensive use of professional terminology – which is an integral part of the learning material. The use of the learning material is mainly for acquiring the skills suited for working as a hotel reception clerk – in other words, intermediate and long range aims. In the short range, the exercises can serve as a very helpful factor in the learning process and coping with the exercises may provide students with a feeling of immediate achievement and of mastery of the skills.

3. In terms of the process. Since the booklet contains a set of didactic tools intended to activate the students, it encourages a variety of learning processes such as: 1. Nurturing thought about theoretical material and its application by means of problem solving. For example, in exercise one, “Creating departments on the computer”

(Nussbaum & Duek, 1996, p. 4), the aim is to apply what was learned in class in the chapter on debits and credits. Students must provide proper computer parameters for the departments in terms of name, reports, terms of credit or debit and how V.A.T. applies.

Students must think about the material learned in class and use it at the level of understanding and application in order to complete the details missing in the table (see this exercise in Appendix 13). Although the booklet does not teach this material, it encourages learning processes of this type. 2. Encouraging differentiation in terms of starting point, parameters, conclusions and their connection to the parameters can be seen in exercise 21, “Understanding the processes of reception bookkeeping” (Nussbaum & Duek, 1996, pp. 79-81). The exercise presents a flow chart composed of a large and complicated chain of activities connected to reception bookkeeping processes in the hotel, with arrivals and yes/no clarifications (usually to confirm or reject a given debit). Students are asked to refer to four different events, and to mark their answers for each of them (in a different colour) on the flow chart in choosing the correct process for preparing the invoice. An example of the event described: “The guest in room 301 enters the dining room with his family and signs the tab to debit his account for five lunches. The tab is transferred to the dining room cashier to determine the amount to debit and from the computer he find that three guests are registered in room 301 on full board basis. Using a red pen, mark on the attached flow chart the process described in case number one of the story and attach a reasoned explanation for your marking.”

Using the same method, students are asked to relate to three other events. They must follow all the options as they appear on the flow chart and choose the appropriate one, explaining why, until they arrive at the proper debit including how it

should be done. An exercise of this sort requires students to start at a certain point, go through the entire process and reach the proper conclusion while understanding the subject. The exercise also illustrates classification and categorisation of the activities and also practises data for different types of presentation, since each event requires that they use a different route of activities through the flow chart.

While the booklet encourages learning processes through didactic tools, as demonstrated, it obviously does not lead to learning processes deriving from content-based texts, since the booklet does not contain material of this sort. In other words, there are no processes such as discriminating between facts and opinions, between what is more important and less important, or discerning subjective fundamentals. The booklet, as noted, encourages independent student work, awareness of phenomena and even how to identify problems. An appropriate example of identifying problems can be found in exercises 14-17 (Nussbaum & Duek, 1996, pp. 68-71), "Correcting errors," in which students are required to identify errors in calculation, correct them and write up the corrections in proper form.

Despite the student activation stimulated by the booklet, the exercises usually do not encourage student creativity (such as role-playing, illustration, composition). Perhaps because of the professional nature of the material and subject of "bookkeeping," which is mainly calculations, the creative element does not arise here. Nevertheless, it certainly is possible to prepare creative exercises in a subject such as this, employing tasks that require students to plan certain hotel activities independently, including appropriate calculations. The planning process can encourage varied means of expression beyond calculation tables (such as writing rationales, illustrations/sketches).

4. In terms of the students. The material is intended for eleventh grade high school students of average to high achievement abilities, at the level of academic matriculation examinations. The students have learned the theoretical material pertaining to the subject through other learning materials, but exercise, understanding and application of the material is done initially through this booklet. Although the material is intended for independent work, it lacks stimuli that arouse interest and the desire to deal with it, such as pictures, illustrations, sample answers and more detailed instructions. Students, however, are treated as involved partners in an investigation with intellectual needs of their own, and not as passive absorbers. In essence, the students are required to think and to deal with the problems and tasks in the booklet.

5. In terms of society. The material contains no texts and learning material, and the exercises are of a professional-bookkeeping nature. Therefore, there is no content matter here pertaining to benefits to society and its needs.

6. Suitability to stated aims. The stated aims of learning the subject were laid out in three sources:

- a. The stated aims of the authors as expressed in the introduction to the book (Nussbaum & Duek, 1996, p. 1).
- b. The aims of the “bookkeeping” curriculum as part of the subject of reception clerking (Ministry of Education and Culture, 1991a, p. 2).
- c. The supreme aims of the tourism track (Ministry of Education and Culture, 1997).

a. The stated aims of the author as expressed in the introduction to the book (Nussbaum & Duek, 1996, p. 1). The book contains no detailed formulation of aims. The authors note in the introduction that: “The booklet ensures that the material learned in class will be transmitted completely, and no chapter or section of this

important system will be forgotten.” In other words, they see this booklet as a didactic tool to ensure that the subject is learned in detail. The material suits the curriculum and the theoretical subject matter.

b. The aims of the “bookkeeping” curriculum as part of the reception clerking subject (Ministry of Education and Culture, 1991a, p. 2).

From the aims of the reception clerk subject discussed in this study as part of the evaluation of the Reception clerking textbook (Nussbaum, 1993), the following aims apply to the material in the booklet:

“Students will become familiar with various means of payment received in the hotel and be capable of dealing with them.”

“Students will be able to prepare guest invoices and calculate a daily test balance according to these invoices” These are behavioural aims related mainly to imparting knowledge, and understanding and applying the material in bookkeeping. The booklet supplements the theoretical aspects and contributes significantly to implementation of these aims.

c. The supreme aims of the tourism track (Ministry of Education and Culture, 1997, pp. 1-2). The supreme aims of the track pertain to three domains: knowledge, skills and values. The discussion in this thesis of the evaluation of two previous learning materials (Leisure studies reader and the Reception clerking textbook) mentioned all the aims. In the context of this booklet of bookkeeping exercises, reference will be made only to the appropriate aims, since the booklet deals only with one subject within the curriculum of hotel reception clerking.

Knowledge-related aims:

* “Providing students with a basis for vocational training in the technological vocations of tourism, so that graduates who meet the requirements will have the option of joining the tourism branch more easily.”

The material in the book deals with exercises for a practical subject within the domain of vocational training, and it encourages a level of understanding and application of this material.

Skill-related aims:

* “Nurturing students with basic technological skills for using and applying the computer in the tourism branch, as part of contemporary economic and professional activity.”

The skills that the booklet encourages through the various exercises, as described above, are adapted to hotel computer systems and in general contribute to students’ familiarity with the activities usually performed by means of the computer.

* “Acquiring skills required for understanding the tourism profession.”

This aim is implemented in the booklet in matters pertaining to hotel bookkeeping, through its concentration on developing skills required for understanding the tourist aspect of bookkeeping by the hotel reception clerk.

Value-related aims:

The material is not textual in nature and, as noted, deals with a technical-mathematical area. It has no content that encourages implementation of and adaptation to value-related aims in the tourism track.

7. Suitability to the teacher. Although the booklet has no teacher’s guide or work booklet for the students, the material is well presented. It is comprehensive, relevant

and suitable to the curriculum and can serve teachers as an important tool for teaching the subject. As mentioned, at times a more comprehensive explanation about the tasks is lacking and perhaps more ties could have been created with other theoretical material. Teachers must find the ways of supplementing the missing parts in the booklet through explanations in class or by preparing supplementary material.

8. Suitability to school and environmental conditions. The learning material in the booklet does not require any special physical, budgetary or climatic conditions in the school. The material is adapted to work on a computer but computers are necessary for other subjects as well. Therefore, it is obvious that the school must be equipped with a suitable computer room and the hotel-related software could be included with the bookkeeping subjects.

Evaluation of Carmel demo (Ministry of Education and Culture, 1993a)

1. Description of the material. The booklet Carmel demo, which comes with a CD, is published by the Ministry of Education and Culture, and the Centre for Technological Education in Holon. It contains 96 pages, including instructions, guidance and exercises for using the instructional software for building PNR (Passenger Name Record) for reserving flights. The programme itself is used by El Al, Israel's national airline. The Carmel demo software is a simulation that allows students to experience working in school with the "Carmel" programme that in reality is utilised by El Al. The need to develop the simulated programme derived from the lack of opportunities for students to work in real time with the Carmel flight reservation system. The project, including the simulation disc and the booklet, was developed by the Galor Company which was delegated by El Al to oversee the marketing of the Carmel

programme, including guidance and support, with the co-operation of consultants from the Ministry of Education and Culture in didactic matters. This is the initial pilot edition of the project. The material is intended for eleventh and twelfth grade high school students as part of the 30 hours allotted to the subject over the two-year period (or concentrated in one of the years). The book serves as the main source for learning about flight reservations and is part of the laboratory subject of “computer applications in tourism” which introduces several computer programmes and applications used by travel agencies. The subject is part of the studies in the “travel agent” specialisation of the tourism track, combining a matriculation diploma with a certification diploma issued by the Ministry of Tourism.

The booklet is divided into four chapters plus appendices. The first chapter, an introduction, contains the rationale, aims and objectives, general guidelines for work and a description of the simulation activities. Each of the other three chapters deals with learning a different part of the programme. Each chapter is subdivided into lessons in chronological order, from lesson 1 containing more basic material, to much more complex matters in later lessons. The appendices contain lists of various codes (such as airline companies, airports, cities, countries and aircraft) necessary for working in aviation and in computer applications in travel agencies. Appendix 14 presents the booklet’s table of contents.

The booklet includes instruction and guidelines for activity within the computer programme. Therefore, the text itself is minimal. The instructional lessons usually combine sketches of the appropriate computer screen and in it the appropriate orders for performing the actions learned. Explanations and instructions for the students are readily available. Explanations in the text are usually short and to the point. There is extensive use of the English names of actions to be performed since

these are what appear in the programme (for example: “Sign in” or “Start of message”). A number of exercises have attached tables or flowcharts to illustrate the action to be performed more clearly. The text and illustrations are printed in black and white, with no colour. The printing is well spaced, readable, clear and convenient for getting one's bearings. The exercise pages have very little text on each page which makes the data stand out. The booklet does not include a guide or extra material for teachers.

2. Evaluation in terms of learning material. The learning material in the booklet is actually both the curriculum for the subject (since no other curriculum has been written on the subject) and the material that the students must know. Its importance is for the professional training of travel agents, which includes learning and developing skills for working with flight-reservation programmes. In practical terms, travel agents today usually work on a computer screen, making reservations directly through facsimile, direct communication lines to the companies or internet connections in all matters (such as reserving hotel rooms or renting a car). Flight reservations is one of the important subjects.

The greatest problem with the material in the booklet and the disc is keeping it updated. The airline's version of the programme changes rapidly to satisfy commercial needs and to utilise new technological developments in the computer field that upgrade the programme and expand the options it offers. In contrast, the rate at which a project of this sort develops in the Ministry of Education is much slower, since it requires budgets and long involved processes of writing, consulting, feedback and production that usually take a year or two to complete. The disc and the simulative material have become outdated in relation to the programme used in the field, but even a revised version of the simulation would probably be outdated by the time it

was marketed, for the reasons explained above. Thus, it is difficult to offer a practical solution to this problem other than using the original Carmel system on-line for learning. This, however, offers even greater technical and budgetary problems since the complete programme requires a much more expensive hardware system, it is costly to use, and the airline's conditions and limitations for use are difficult to abide by in a school setting. Thus, no alternative has been found for the material in the booklet and disc in use today for learning the material.

The material in the booklet is aimed mainly at attaining a level of knowledge, understanding and application by using the software on the computer. There is affective application. The content is connected to theoretical material that students learn about aviation studies in tourism and thus is tied to actual life in the professional work of travel agencies.

The content is mainly aviation-based, but students are required to have a background in additional areas such as tourist geography (familiarity with countries and cities), familiarity with and understanding of tourism routes for booking flights, and familiarity with hotels. The organisation of the material is highly systematic in its division into lessons. Each lesson is composed of the following elements: 1. Defining the aim or aims. 2. Explaining the computer commands required in their order of use. 3. Additional notes, where necessary, or a "Pay attention!" indication that highlights various options. 4. An explanation of terms or abbreviations as they are listed in English letters in the programme. 5. A number of exercises for learning the subject. Each exercise uses the same systematic presentation that includes: the aim of the exercise, preconditions for its performance (that is, previous technical actions that must be done), description (of the process to be done), the task (operatively), a picture of a screen with a list of the commands, an explanation that draws attention to

additional options (see an example of an exercise in Appendix 15). The material is presented in gradated form where each lesson is based on the previous one, and each exercise is more advanced than the preceding one. Organisation of the material in this form is both helpful and facilitative to learning. It enables students to progress according to their personal ability and encourages differential learning. The principles and terms learned in the material are mainly professional, and students can apply theoretical knowledge learned in the other subjects in tourism and in other learning materials.

The benefit of the material is mainly in acquiring appropriate skills for working in travel agencies, that is, intermediate- and long-term aims. In the short term the exercises can serve as a factor that contributes to the learning process. By successfully mastering the exercises, students may derive a feeling of immediate achievement in these skills.

3. In terms of the process. The material stimulates a learning process that the students perform using the booklet and sitting in front of a computer screen. Students can make use of the guidelines and instructions in the booklet and by applying them during the learning process, attain the desired results. Although the skills are technical, students must have knowledge and familiarity with the subject to use the work tool that the computer programme offers. The material does not lead to text-related learning processes since the booklet contains no material of this sort. In other words, there are no processes such as distinguishing between facts and opinions, between important and less important, or discerning subjective fundamentals.

4. In terms of the student. The material is intended for intermediate to high level eleventh and twelfth grade high school students in the academic matriculation track. The students have learned the theory from other sources but this booklet provides the

first chance to exercise, understand and apply what has been learned. Although the subject matter is intended for independent work and is presented clearly, it does not make use of elements that stimulate interest such as colour pictures, illustrations and sample answers. It is also possible to expand the simulation exercises and illustrate them more fully by means of graphs that are relatively easy to produce today. The uniform and repetitious organisational structure of the book in terms of presentation and exercises does not encourage variety in ways of thinking and may lead to a loss of interest. Students are, however, treated as involved parties in the investigation with their own intellectual needs and not as passive receivers, being required to think and deal with the problems and tasks in the booklet.

5. In terms of society. The material has no texts or learning material and the exercises are professional-technical in nature. Thus, there is no content matter pertaining to society and its needs.

6. Suitability to stated aims. The stated aims of learning the subject were defined in two sources:

a. The aims stated in the booklet that also constitute the aims of the curriculum as expressed in the introduction to the booklet (Ministry of Education and Culture, 1993a). The staff that composed the booklet for the Ministry of Education and Culture viewed the booklet as the curriculum for the subject, and defined the following aims:

1. At the conclusion of the learning chapters, students will be able to identify codes of destinations and airlines, to read ABC and APT sheets (professional codes in aviation) and to understand their content.
2. Students will be able to identify PNR (Passenger Name Record) and its details.
3. Students will be able to make changes and revisions to existing PNR.

4. Students will be able to construct PNR according to defined requirements of the travel agent.

All of these aims are operative in nature and suit the content of the booklet as reflected in the content of the chapters and lessons throughout the book (see Appendix 14 for the chapter headings of the book).

b. Supreme aims of the tourism track (Ministry of Education and Culture, 1997, pp.

1-2). The supreme aims of the tourism track contain aims in three domains:

knowledge, skills and values. In the discussion conducted in this thesis of the

evaluation of two previous learning materials (Leisure Studies Reader and the

Reception Clerking book), all the aims were mentioned. In relation to this booklet of

simulation for reserving flights, only the appropriate aims will be discussed since the

booklet deals only with one subject from the curriculum for the travel agent

specialisation.

Knowledge-related aims:

* “Providing a basis for the professional training of students in technological skills in tourism, where graduates meeting the requirements will have the option of fitting into the tourism branch with greater ease.”

The material in the book deals with exercises for a practical subject in professional training, and it encourages a level of understanding and application of this material.

Skill-related aims:

* “Nurturing students with basic technological skills for using and applying the computer for the tourism branch, as part of contemporary economic and professional activity.”

The skills that the booklet encourages through the various exercises, as described above, are suited to the computer systems in travel agencies and constitute an additional element contributing to students' familiarity with the activities that are usually performed by means of the computer.

* "Acquiring the skills required for understanding the tourism profession."

This aim is implemented in the booklet in matters pertaining to aviation in travel agencies, since the booklet encourages the development of skills required for understanding the tourism profession of travel agent.

Value-related aims:

The material is not textual and, as noted, deals with a technical-operational domain. It has no content pertaining to the value domain of the tourism track.

8. Suitability to the teacher. Within the existing exigencies as described with the problem of updating material, the booklet together with the disc constitute a basis for teaching the subject in the computer room. The material intended for the students represents only a part of the training and knowledge that teachers must have in order to teach the material well. Therefore, teachers should be expected to attend practical in-service courses in the use of computer programmes (this and others) and be given additional enrichment material. This is because the material as described does not encompass all the activities in the programme. In-service courses of this type are offered regularly in the tourism track throughout the year.

9. Suitability to school and environmental conditions. The material is suited to working on a computer. Therefore, the school must be equipped with a computer room with work stations for each student, including a teacher's demonstration screen. All schools with a tourism track have such a computer room equipped to run professional software and programmes.

Comparison of the evaluations of the four learning materials in tourism

After each of the learning materials had been evaluated using Eden's (1985) Evaluative Tool, the main findings were concentrated in Table 14 by categories. For each category, the essence of the evaluations for each of the materials is presented side by side, facilitating comparison and drawing clear conclusions about the learning materials used in the tourism track in Israeli high schools.

Table 14: Highlights of the findings of the evaluations of the four learning materials in tourism

Learning material	Leisure studies reader	Hotel reception clerking	Reception clerk booklet: Bookkeeping exercises	Carmel demo booklet (exercises for airline reservation software)
Subjects for evaluation				
Description of material	*Reader, 261 pages	*Book 249 pages	Booklet, 85 pages	Booklet (with disc), 96 pages
	*Varied and broad academic-Scientific material. Suits the academic curriculum	*Theoretical-professional material, suits and encompasses the professional training programme for hotel reception clerks	*Exercises in bookkeeping with no theoretical material. Subject is part of the training programme for hotel reception clerks	*Guidelines, instruction and exercise for using flight reservation software in travel agency. Suits the training programme for travel agents
	*No didactic tools	*Includes informative didactic tools but no student self-activation	*Includes exercises that are didactic tools, presented mainly in tables or flow charts. Very little text	*Includes exercises that are didactic tools presented together with sketches of computer screens and sometimes with tables. Very little text

Learning material Subjects for evaluation	Leisure studies reader	Hotel reception clerking	Reception clerk booklet: Bookkeeping exercises	Carmel demo booklet (exercises for airline reservation software)
	*No use of pictures	*Contains b/w pictures, some old, illustrations, tables, flow charts, sample forms and work papers	*No pictures and no use of colour	*No pictures and no use of colour
	*Uniform printing and page layout, no variation	*Printing and layout easy to read	*Readable printing and layout	*Readable printing and layout
In terms of learning material	*The material contributes to developing an academic basis in leisure, recreation and tourism. Level is high.	*The material contributes to professional training, based mainly on data from the industry	*The material contributes to developing calculation skills in bookkeeping. This is a professional domain whose study requires practice. The material is based on data from the industry.	*The material contributes to developing technological skills in the use of flight reservation software. This is a professional area whose study requires practice. The material is based on data from the industry.
	*Research data, at times outdated	*Material is usually but not always up-to-date	*The material is relatively up-to-date	*The material is not up-to-date
	*Presents thinking processes at high levels	*Stimulates learning mainly at the level of knowledge and understanding for application	*Stimulates learning at the level of understanding and application	*Stimulates learning at the level of understanding and application

Learning material	Leisure studies reader	Hotel reception clerking	Reception clerk booklet: Bookkeeping exercises	Carmel demo booklet (exercises for airline reservation software)
Subjects for evaluation				
	*Is connected to practical life	*Its connection to practical life is a consequence of professional training	*Its connection to practical life is mainly a consequence of professional training	*Its connection to practical life is mainly a consequence of professional training
	*Multi-disciplinary material	*Multi-disciplinary material	*Material is not multi-disciplinary	*Material is not multi-disciplinary
	*Organisation of chapters is difficult for learners	*Organisation of chapters is convenient and helpful to learners	*Organisation of material makes learning easy	*Organisation of material makes learning easy
	*Material is readable but crowded. Use of unclear terms/concepts	*Material is readable, easy on the eyes and understandable	*Material is readable, easy on the eyes and understandable but lacks depth of tasks. Relevant theoretical background not integrated.	*Material is readable, easy on the eyes and understandable but lacks expanded tasks
	*Lack of visual variety	*Some visual variety	*Some visual variety	*Some visual variety
	*Of high value in the short, intermediate and long term	*Of high value in the short, intermediate and long term	*Of high value in the short, intermediate and long term	*Of high value in the short, intermediate and long term
In terms of the process	Does not stimulate variety in the learning process	Does not stimulate variety in the learning process	Stimulates independent work through didactic tools, and thus nurtures thinking for problem solving and applying knowledge	Stimulates independent work through didactic tools, and thus nurtures thinking for problem solving and applying knowledge

Learning material Subjects for evaluation	Leisure studies reader	Hotel reception clerking	Reception clerk booklet: Bookkeeping exercises	Carmel demo booklet (exercises for airline reservation software)
In terms of the students	Student is treated as passive receiver. Lack of didactic tools, material is cramped and sometimes unclear writing presents difficulties for students	Student is treated as passive receiver. Material is readable, clear and suited to students' abilities. Lack of activating didactic tools does not encourage active learning and does not heighten motivation	Student is treated as one involved in investigation and having intellectual needs. Some learning stimuli are lacking, such as colour pictures, illustrations, sample answers and more detailed instructions	Student is treated as one involved in investigation and having intellectual needs. Some learning stimuli are lacking, such as colour pictures, illustrations, sample answers, greater detail in simulations
In terms of society	The material contributes to students' awareness of subjects of value to society	The material contributes to students' awareness of subjects of value to society	The material lacks text and does not entail specific benefit to society and its needs	The material lacks text and does not entail specific benefit to society and its needs
Suitability to stated aims	Suited to the curricular aims pertaining to knowledge but does not stimulate attainment of skill aims or variety of teaching methods. The material stimulates thought about the values of the track.	Suited to the curricular aims pertaining to knowledge but does not stimulate attainment of skill aims or variety of teaching methods. The material stimulates thought about the values of the track.	Suited mainly to the aims defined in the curriculum for the subject and track pertaining to skill development, less to knowledge and none to values, since the material does not contain learning texts.	Suited mainly to the aims defined in the curriculum for the subject and track pertaining to skill development, less to knowledge and none to values, since the material does not contain learning texts.

Learning material Subjects for evaluation	Leisure studies reader	Hotel reception clerking	Reception clerk booklet: Bookkeeping exercises	Carmel demo booklet (exercises for airline reservation software)
Suitability to the teacher	The teacher must invest effort in processing the material and supplementing the lacking didactic tools in order to adapt the book to the students. No guidelines or teacher's guide	The material does not require processing. It is ready for presentation to the students, but lacks didactic activation tools which must be prepared by teachers. No guidelines or teacher's guide	The material can serve as a relevant and suitable teaching tool. Sometimes lacks a comprehensive explanation. Teacher must supplement the link between the exercise and the theoretical material. No guidelines or teacher's guide	The material requires to teacher to have much broader knowledge and understanding than those presented in the booklet. Therefore, teacher should participate in regularly held professional in-service courses to keep up-to-date. No guidelines or teacher's guide.
Suitability to school conditions	No need for special conditions	No need for special conditions. Advisable to set up a simulated "reception desk" with professional accessories and forms	No need for special conditions	Computer room fitted with work stations for all students, including a teacher's demonstration screen

As noted, each of the materials represents a subject or a specific part of one of the disciplines learned in the tourism track. Two of the learning samples include theoretical material, one of them academic-scientific in nature (Leisure studies reader) and the other for professional training (Hotel reception clerking). The remaining two

materials are exercise booklets for professional training, one in calculating invoices and the other in technological programmes using the computer. This variety reflects the complex structure of the studies, which are intended to provide both academic and professional background and to provide students with the required vocational and technological skills.

The two theoretical materials generally lack didactic tools. While the Hotel reception clerking book offers a few such aids, the Leisure studies reader is totally devoid in them. Gavrieli (1959, Vol. 2, p. 789) assigns textbooks of this sort to the “logical type,” in other words, books prepared according to the approach that content matter should be at centre stage of textbooks and of the educational process. The logical structure of the book is based on the content matter structure of the subject, as reflected in the chapter headings, with no consideration given to pedagogical factors based on variance among schools or students. The two exercise booklets, on the other hand, present material that serves mainly as didactic tools since they contain tasks for independent work by the student. Thus, they are closer to what Gavrieli (1959, Vol. 2, p. 789) calls the “pedagogical type.” However, the booklets lack a number of elements characteristic of the pedagogical type. These include: a connection between the choice of subjects and their importance in the discipline (in contrast to booklets that are adapted to the discipline as determined in the curriculum), and organising the material to suit the students’ abilities to attain the goals (in these booklets the organisation of the material is uniform, according to the vocational training requirements).

None of the learning materials makes use of colour pictures. Hotel reception clerking is the only of the materials to integrate pictures of any sort but they are not in colour. Some are outdated and thus their visual ability to arouse interest and to

illustrate the text for the students is limited. Ghaye (1978), in a study of illustrations, graphs and colour in Geography textbooks, found that introducing colour pictures affects the students' ability to absorb the material. During the course of the twentieth century, the use of pictures in textbooks has developed steadily. If pictures served only as decoration in the early years of this century, they took on a descriptive role towards the middle of the century, and today they sometimes serve to investigate hypotheses and questions (Newman, 1975). Thus it would seem important to include colour pictures in the learning materials. In tourism subjects, various phenomena can be illustrated in colour, such as recreation areas, tourist services and hotels and tourist attractions.

The printing and page layout of the learning materials are easy to read, except for the Leisure studies reader which has uniform and unvarying page layouts. Both exercise booklets offer ample spaces between lines and paragraphs, facilitating reading and pleasing the eye.

One problem that affects three of the learning materials is their relevance in terms of being updated. The exception is the Reception clerking exercises in bookkeeping booklet, which was published relatively recently (1996). However, even in this case, there are certain gaps between the book and the field because of the rapid advances in the industry. The reason for the problem in general is twofold: the relatively great amount of time required by the Ministry of Education and Culture to publish learning materials (usually two to four years), and the rapid rate of changes in tourism, which is a very dynamic branch. These changes are the result of growth in the tourism branch, competition, technological developments in professional domains, and the theoretical academic research that has flourished. In some cases, the material is considerably outdated, which detracts from its relevance. This is the case in the

Carmel demo booklet, published in 1993, since the gap of a few years can be likened to centuries when dealing with computer programmes. Thus the software does not reflect the on-line system as it is actually in use in travel agencies. The Leisure studies reader, published in 1990, uses some data dating back to the 1970s. Since 1990, many studies in leisure have appeared and the data have changed quite appreciably. Therefore, it would seem important that such changes be reflected in a reader that serves as the source for learning the content matter of the subject.

In cognitive terms, Bloom's (1956) taxonomy classifies thinking into a number of levels, from the lowest to the highest: knowledge, understanding, interpretation, analysis, synthesis and evaluation. In the learning materials, only the Leisure studies reader contains thinking processes at higher levels that at times facilitate the cognitive aspects of synthesis and evaluation. The other learning materials stimulate learning at the levels of knowledge and understanding, as well as application or implementation. The reason for this may be that the other three materials deal with vocational domains, which are closely linked to the training programme and to knowledge relevant to the subject, and thus ignore the cognitive needs that should be stimulated in the learning process. The Leisure studies reader is based on high level scientific-academic material and constitutes a basis for stimulating learning at the highest cognitive levels as well.

The learning materials were found to have a link to practical life. In the three materials from the vocational domain this link is a consequence of the professional training. In the Leisure studies reader, the connection is a consequence of the subject, which has great relevance to individual and social life in contemporary times. The subjects in the reader serve as a basis for illustrating and implementing phenomena and events that occur in life today, and the students have an opportunity to understand and to analyse the processes and their meaning.

The two theoretical learning materials (Leisure studies reader and Hotel reception clerking) include multi-disciplinary subjects. This is quite appropriate as researchers refer to tourism as a field and as a discipline in the formal, traditional university sense. It has been difficult to orient the tourism curriculum construction towards a discrete body of knowledge.

The various definitions of tourism indicate that it is a field, based on a number of disciplines with a clearly multi-disciplinary nature (Gunn, 1991, p. 27). In comparison, the two booklets, which are exercises in professional-technological areas, are not based on academic material and in fact, contain virtually no text of learning material beyond the exercise. Thus, they are not multi-disciplinary.

The organisation of the chapters is convenient for learning in all the materials except for the Leisure studies reader. The organisation of the material in the reader hampers learners since some subjects are not concentrated in one chapter but rather are distributed over a number of chapters (for example, "The definition of tourism"). The result is difficulty and confusion for learners. The material is not gradated in construction (from the easy to the difficult) and is not modular, elements that are very important for helping the weaker students to cope.

The material in all four samples was found to be readable. It is also well laid out and understandable, except the Leisure studies reader which makes use of terms that are not understood and at times employs writing that makes comprehension more difficult for the students. The Reception clerking exercise in bookkeeping booklet lacks expanded information about the tasks and does not include relevant theoretical material. The Carmel demo booklet also fails to expand on the tasks.

All the learning materials were found to have little visual variation except for the Leisure studies reader which has no visual variation at all. All the learning materials were found to have value for the short, intermediate and long terms.

The two theoretical learning materials (Leisure studies reader and Hotel reception clerking) do not encourage variety in the learning process as they do not include didactic aids that could activate the students. Activities are the heart of the didactic process, serving to teach and instruct students in performing the tasks, whose aim is to develop students' thinking abilities and personality (Bar-Gal, 1993, p. 196). In the light of this, the lack of activities in these learning materials impinges seriously on their contribution to the students. The two exercise booklets represent, for the most part, a set of activities and thus they encourage independent work. As a result, they develop student thinking for problem solving and for applying knowledge.

As noted, the two theoretical learning materials can be classified as logical, primarily encouraging direct teaching (transmitting processed, detailed knowledge that students are expected to internalise by means of reading and learning by heart), and the two exercise booklets can be classified as the pedagogical type (Gavrieli, 1969, Vol. 2, p. 789). However, none of the learning materials belongs to another type that has developed over the years, as the concept of indirect learning has taken root (Kremer-Hayoun, 1986, pp. 96-118). Indirect learning posits varied textbooks that facilitate the integration of various types of learning materials in different learning situations, and leads to a lesson structure and discussion that are not always predictable. This type is an integration that tries to combine the advantages of the logical type - a lot of material from the knowledge domain - with the advantages of the pedagogical type - sources, processed and summarised texts, review and memorising activities together with activities of investigation and revelation. This

type of book tries to overcome the great variance among teachers and students by offering varied learning methods in one book (Bar-Gal, 1993, p. 193).

The attitude towards the students in the two theoretical learning materials is to passive receivers since they do not include the didactic tools (see Table 14 and Appendices 7-16). They belong to the logical type that encourages direct learning. But while the Leisure studies reader makes learning more difficult for the students through its crowded organisation and its sometimes incomprehensible language, the material in the Hotel reception clerking book is readable, clear and suited to the students' abilities. The two exercise booklets, in comparison, which belong to the pedagogical type that encourages indirect learning, see the students as people involved in an investigation and having intellectual needs. Nevertheless, they lack other learning stimuli such as colour pictures, demonstrations, sample answers and more detailed instructions.

While the two theoretical learning materials were found to contribute to the students' awareness of issues of importance to society (such as ecology or good interpersonal relations), the two exercise booklets, which have no theoretical text and contain only computational or technical exercises, do not encourage awareness of socially significant issues (see Table 14 and Appendices 12-15).

All of the learning materials were found to be suited to the operative curriculum of the subject or subject matter as defined by the Ministry of Education and Culture. In other words, the knowledge-related aims were adhered to. However, correspondence with the aims of the tourism track and the aims of other learning materials was found to be only partial. The two theoretical learning materials correspond to the aims of the track in the domain of values but do not encourage application of these aims in the development of skills. On the other hand, the two

exercise booklets encourage mainly implementation of the aim in the skills domain but do not contribute to implementation of the aims in the values domain.

None of the learning materials contains a teacher's guide or instructions. All of them require the teachers to act as mediators between the material and the students. This mediation activity is especially apparent in the two theoretical materials of the logical type. In the Leisure studies reader, teachers must expend much effort in processing the material that at times is difficult to understand and to adapt it to the students' abilities. They must also supplement the material with didactic tools that are not included in the reader. In the Hotel reception clerking book, the material does not require processing and is ready to be presented to the students, but here, too, the lack of didactic activation tools requires extra preparation by the teachers. In the two exercise booklets, of the didactic type, less mediation activity is required of the teachers, but here, too, it is necessary. The Reception clerking exercises in bookkeeping booklet can serve as a relevant and suitable teaching tool, but it sometimes lacks a suitable explanation and at times teachers must supplement the connection between the exercise and the theoretical material that does not exist in the book. In the Carmel demo booklet, the material requires the teachers to have much more extensive knowledge than that presented in the booklet, therefore, teachers can be expected to attend professional in-service courses in the area.

The learning materials do not require special conditions in the school except for the Carmel Demo booklet that requires a computer room equipped with personal work stations for all the students, a teacher's demonstration screen and the software installed in the system. It is also desirable to install a simulated "reception desk" equipped with forms and accessories for learning the material in the Hotel reception clerking book for the purposes of illustration and of varying the learning method.

This chapter constitutes the final section of the research questions dealing with the findings concerning evaluations of the learning materials in tourism. This leads to a discussion of the conclusions of the study which are presented in the next chapter.

Chapter ten

Conclusions

The background to the decision to conduct this study of tourism curricula in Israeli high schools was the greatly accelerated pace of growth in tourism around the world and in Israel, which has also contributed to the tourism industry's greater importance to national economies and societies (World Travel and Tourism Council, 1996; Sheffer, Amir, Frankel & Lu Yam, 1992) (Chapter one). Education and training for tourism have been found by researchers to be among the most important factors contributing to success in tourism. This can be explained by the personnel-intensive nature of the industry and by other factors such as the importance of quality service and of high professional levels among employees (Kusluvan & Kusluvan, 2000; Singh, 1997; Cooper, 1991; Go, 1991; Marland & Store, 1991; Hawkins & Hunt, 1988; Jafari & Ritchie, 1981) (Chapter two). Studies also indicate a substantial correlation between positive attitudes among the local populace towards tourists, and the development and success of the tourism industry (Chalker, 1994; Mansfeld, 1992; Gunn, 1988). This attitude can be nurtured through education. Researchers also note that tourism education and training should begin in school (Singh, 1997; Cooper, 1991; Go, 1991). Little has been written on tourism education in school (Marland & Store, 1991) and in Israel, no studies at all were found about tourism education and training or about the high school tourism curriculum which was introduced in the 1980s.

The content of tourism degree courses has been a subject of consideration and debate for as long as tourism has been studied at the degree level (Airey & Johnson, 1999, p. 229). The principles and content matter of the curriculum for degree studies have an effect as they filter down to Israeli schools since the professional committee

on tourism in the Ministry of Education, which is the supreme authority for deciding on curricular matters, is led by representatives of academia. Similarly, all learning materials must be under the scrutiny and counselling of academic advisers (Ministry of Education, 2000a). Various researchers have expressed their opinions about the debate and its prominent subjects. In the debate over the disciplinary nature of tourism, researchers see tourism as multidisciplinary rather than as an independent discipline (Jafari & Ritchie, 1981; Gunn, 1987, 1991; Tribe, 1997).

In the debate over the need for a core body of knowledge for tourism studies, researchers are of the opinion that defining the subjects that constitute the core body of knowledge for tourism is important and can contribute to defining the subject, its independence, its accreditation and even its harmonisation. At the same time, however, some researchers fear that such a core body of knowledge would prevent the subject from developing dynamically in new directions (Jaspers, 1987; Cooper, Scales & Westlake, 1992; Koh, 1994; Middleton & Ladkin, 1996; Tribe, 1997; Airey & Johnson, 1999). In the debate about the relations between and integration of education and vocational training in tourism, various researchers note that the issue is sometimes problematic, but nevertheless they see it as an essential part of the curriculum and ways must be found to implement it through co-operation between the education system and industry (Koh, 1994; Wells, 1996; Cooper & Shepherd, 1997) (Chapter three).

Curriculum study and evaluation have developed in the world since the 1950s (Lewy, 1977; Guri-Rosenblitt, 1996), beginning in the United States and Britain and spreading a few years later to many other places in the world, including Israel (Guri-Rosenblitt, 1996). Curriculum development created the need for research to

evaluate curricula, provide feedback, examine achievements and recommend improvements. In recent decades curriculum evaluation has earned the status of an independent field within the education sciences (Lewy, 1977, pp. 4-5) (Chapter four).

Tourism curricula are closely tied to the education system in Israel since high school education in the country is under state control. Curricula are set by the Ministry of Education and students are tested in uniform national matriculation exams (Dror & Liberman, 1997). Studies in the tourism track differ from other high school subjects, which are usually based on clearly defined academic disciplines from the natural or social sciences or the humanities. Tourism combines academic studies with vocational-technological training within a multidisciplinary framework (Ministry of Education and Culture, 1997, p. 2) (Chapter five).

In light of the above, this study raises the following research question (Chapter six): based on students' and teachers' attitudes, what is the evaluation of the students and the teachers of the tourism curriculum in high schools in Israel?

The methodology and approach of this study are presented in Chapter six, including the six research questions. This chapter presents the conclusions of the study in light of the data that were found, as follows. The conclusions for the first, second and third research questions pertaining to the attitudes of students in the tourism track, and the conclusions pertaining to the fourth and fifth research questions about the attitudes of teachers in the tourism track are set out in Chapter seven. The conclusions about the sixth research question pertaining to the learning materials in the curriculum are presented in Chapter eight (for the textbooks) and Chapter nine (for the professional workbooks). The continuation of this chapter contains the implications of the research, and ideas for future research.

Students' attitudes

The findings for the first research question (Chapter six) show the students' attitudes towards their studies in the tourism track (see Table 7, p. 153). Students were found to feel it important to study tourism: they like the subject, the tourism lessons are interesting and, in addition, they are satisfied with their choice of subject. Since the population participating in the study is twelfth grade students in their third and final year of tourism studies, it would appear that satisfaction with their choice indicates that the studies did not disappoint them. Perhaps these positive attitudes and satisfaction are also related to the fact that tourism studies in high schools in Israel are electives and the students chose these classes of their own free will, unlike the compulsory subjects set down by the Ministry of Education.

The factor cited by the majority of the students as the main reason for their choice of tourism studies is that the subject seemed interesting to them (see Table 8, p. 155). However, it is important to remember the age of the students when they chose the tourism track - about 15. According to Lisk (1968), many adolescents tend to deny the influence of external factors on their decisions, such as recommendations of friends or family, as also appeared in this study (Table 8, p. 155). It may also be that elements related to self-image affect their response to the question of their choice of vocation at this age.

The fact remains that most of the students stated that they chose the tourism track because of their interest in the subject. While their attitude was subjective and may have been influenced, as noted, by factors related to personality development in adolescence, it is still important to emphasise that the subjective attitude that the students chose to express to their friends and to those around them was positive. This attitude shows that the tourism profession has the potential to fill a central place in

high school curricula, since students enrolled in the track enjoy their studies and derive satisfaction from them. This interest in the profession can contribute to tourism's positive image and to the further expansion of the subject in the school. Furthermore, as noted, the students are satisfied with their choice of the tourism track. They like learning tourism and the lessons interest them, even in their third and final year of studies (Table 7, p. 153). Therefore, it seems reasonable to assume that they will express positive attitudes about interest in the subject in the school and in the nearby surroundings. This expression of interest in the subject is also important because children and adults learn well if the subject interests them. For this reason, curriculum planners should try to discover what the target population really wants and likes (Lewy, 1990).

An additional element mentioned extensively by the students is the vocational diploma and matriculation certificate that graduates receive (Table 7, p. 153). However, the students referred to this subject more positively as an isolated factor and not in relation to other subjects. This contrasts with their choice of tourism because of their interest in the subject, as explained above (see Table 8, p. 155). It appears that, despite the great importance of matriculation certificates and certification diplomas, interest in the subject constitutes a more basic and prevailing factor in choice of subject. These findings are, in fact, less contradictory than complementary. Interest in a subject is an immediate prerequisite for choosing and learning it. Receiving certification and matriculation diplomas are the final result of the learning process that spans three years and students find it difficult to project what will come later, in the form of useful diplomas.

In an attempt to examine the findings about the effect of professional training on students' decisions to study tourism, within the training-education debate, it should

be remembered that researchers see the relationship between education and training in tourism as both problematic but mutually essential to the curriculum. They also recommend finding ways to ensure ongoing co-operation between the education system and industry (Koh, 1994; Wells, 1996; Cooper & Shepherd, 1997). Ryan (1995) concludes that in a postmodernist society and the changing pattern of the wider workplace in which broad changes are occurring in education, good reasons can be found for responding to students' demands with certain qualifications. It appears that this reflects the importance that should be attributed to the students' attitudes towards their tourism studies.

Students' high levels of satisfaction with tourism studies in high schools in Israel, together with their attraction to the subject because it interests them and also offers professional certification, indicates a valuable and successful combination of theoretical tourism education studies and the professional-technological material of tourism related to training, as far as students in this track are concerned. In other words, it is possible to say that Israel's high school tourism track curriculum reflects practical implementation of the researchers' recommendations.

The findings of the second research question (Chapter seven) show the attitudes of the students towards implementation of the educational aims in tourism studies as defined by the Ministry of Education and Culture (Table 9, p. 159). The students' evaluation is highly positive in terms of attaining the aim of enhancing awareness of the importance of tourism. This aim is of central value for the students to clarify and internalise the importance of the industry. With these results, students will have greater motivation to learn the content matter of the subject and become familiar with its many aspects. One of the elements considered for inclusion in the core body of knowledge for tourism is "the significance and impact of tourism"

(Holloway, 1995; Airey & Johnson, 1999) (Table 2, p. 66), thus reflecting the importance attributed to this subject as a basis for tourism education. The fact that the students ~~assessed~~ ^{evaluated} implementation of this aim more positively than the other aims questioned (Table 9, p. 159), indicates the effectiveness and relevance of the subject matter and the learning process to which the students are exposed. Nurturing awareness of the importance of the industry with all that this entails, is also part of the supreme national aims for the entire population - to encourage a positive attitude towards tourism and tourists (Knesset, Education and Culture Committee, 2000). This is especially important in a country like Israel that aspires to develop incoming tourism traffic in the coming years (Ministry of Tourism, 1994c; 1995c). It is possible to see the educational nucleus of the tourism industry in the school setting as an important foundation that should be expanded to the community and the public at large. Studies have shown a high correlation between local community attitudes and the development of a country's tourism (Gunn, 1988; Mansfeld, 1992; Chalker, 1994).

The students positively assess the professional computer programme skills instilled in tourism studies (Table 9, p. 159). This aim is related to vocational training studies and in the contemporary work world, the tourism industry is conspicuously dependent on professional computer software. Learning to operate and utilise professional programs constitutes an integral part of professional training for the industry, and the fact that the students see this aim implemented more positively than other aims, indicates that the students feel that they are actually applying the learning material in practice. Pizam (1999) contends that the place of the computer in the tourism industry will continue to grow and will become dominant in the future. This prediction underlines the significance and importance of the students' positive attitudes towards this element of their studies.

The students perceive their tourism studies positively in terms of developing the ability to judge tourist phenomena and processes, and of exposing them to greater understanding of the subject of "leisure" and its importance today. Positive attitudes towards implementation of these aims should indicate that tourism studies endow students not only with knowledge, skills and vocational training, but also with an understanding of value-related issues at the personal and social level. The social importance of leisure education in the world was defined by the World Leisure and Recreation Association (WLRA). It sees leisure as a "most valued component of community development and requires an awareness of its advantages and benefits. Leisure literacy should be a societal goal" (WLRA, 1998, p. 3). This approach is reflected in the policy of Israel's Ministry of Education: "To help individuals, families, the community and society to achieve quality of life and good health through the wise use of leisure time, by developing and nurturing values and physical, affective, cognitive and social aspects, individually and in combination, as part of the aims of education in Israel and the various cultural heritages in Israeli society" (Ministry of Education, Culture and Sport, 1994c, p. 6).

The students express positive attitudes towards the contribution of tourism to greater understanding and tolerance for the feelings, traditions and life styles of other peoples and nations, and to learning what are considered desirable patterns of behaviour (Table 9, p. 159). It should not come as a surprise that assessment of these aims is lower than for the other aims presented, since these aims are much more abstract and value-oriented in nature, making them less salient in the curriculum. Thus, the positive evaluation of their implementation should be received with satisfaction, especially in a country such as Israel which is a melting pot of a large conglomeration of ethnic groups, nations and religions. For this reason, nurturing

understanding and tolerance is to be applauded as being of value even beyond the direct contribution to tourism.

Tribe (1999, p. 80) proposes a division of tourism into different framings (Table 4, p. 76). Curricular content leading to realisation of overall aims such as the ability to judge tourism phenomena and processes, exposure to greater understanding of leisure and greater understanding of and tolerance for the feelings, traditions and life styles of other people and nations, is related to the non-business environment framings of tourism and may reflect aspects that raise involvement in tourism above the purely business-oriented dimension. In this light, it is satisfying to see the positive responses of high school students in Israel in terms of their attitude towards implementation of these aims, indicating that the curriculum includes material that leads to this end.

In contrast, the students do not see tourism studies as enhancing their love for the State of Israel (Table 9, p. 159). This aim, one of the general aims of education in Israel, is expressive, that is, it is a type of aim for which no results can be offered or defined in advance (Eisner, 1970). This stands in contrast to the conception that clearly indicates the students' behaviour after having completed one type of activity or another. A curriculum in tourism studies does not include specific content on love of country. In Israel, however, learning about one's country was connected with love of one's country even before the State was established. In the 1930s and 1940s, Zionist-pioneering education preached redeeming the land, conquering the wasteland, developing waterworks, forestation and manual labour and working the land. These concepts were reflected in school subjects such as Homeland (citizenship) and Geography (Bar-Gal, 1993, pp. 50-51). Considering how deeply ingrained these values have been in Israeli education for decades, a programme that includes the

country's history, geography, art, religion, culture and tourist sites (most of them beautiful or having special interest, and seen first-hand in study tours) can be expected to result in a greater love of country.

The fact that the students do not see tourism studies as heightening their love of Israel may also be connected to significant changes in Israeli society in recent years. Society has become more individualistic and less patriotic than in the first years of the State's existence. This is natural, and attributable in part to changes such as a continual rise in the standard of life and life style, greater aspirations for self-fulfilment and a concomitantly lower identification with national elements. Dror and Liberman (1997, pp. 14-15) note that curricula today distance Israel's educational ideals from those characteristic of the early years of statehood, such as the aspiration to create an ideal "pioneer" image emphasising the values of love of country and service to the general public. Instead of these ideals, the curricular system has moved to the scientific-rational stage, which is operational, assessable, academically oriented and connected to the evaluation and measurement of individual achievements according to the acquisition of skills and knowledge. It would appear that implementation of a value-oriented and idealistic aim such as love of country seems too esoteric and abstract for most students. Love of one's country is a subjective feeling of which students are not necessarily aware. Furthermore, it is especially hard to judge an "improvement" in one's love of country (which could have been very high or very low before the learning process). Perhaps a longer-term perspective (such as a few years after completing studies, and not during them) is necessary to provide a more complete answer to this question.

The findings pertaining to the third research question (Chapter seven) show the students' attitudes towards the usefulness of and liking for the learning methods

and skills required for tourism studies (Table 10, p. 168). The students see study trips in Israel and abroad as the most effective and desirable means of learning. This response should come as no surprise, since students love to tour in their own country and certainly abroad. However, it should also be kept in mind that tourist study tours in Israel and abroad also facilitate the attainment of academic aims such as familiarity with tourist sites and their characteristics, and especially making the learning process vibrant and concrete by bringing the subject closer to the students. Tourism as a subject, more than others, is based on activity and dynamic happenings in the field and, therefore, it is desirable and even advisable to leave the classrooms and visit tourist sites such as hotels, recreational centres, historical sites, museums and commercial and entertainment centres. Study tours constitute a learning element that breaks the learning routine and helps to achieve learning aims that are difficult to attain in the classroom (Bar-Gal, 1993; Oznia, 1961).

The students hold highly positive attitudes towards the usefulness of teaching the skills required for vocational training: how to deal with forms in travel agencies and hotels, and performing professional activities through suitable computer programmes (Table 10, p. 168). Training courses intended to provide practical knowledge and techniques have historically been linked to intermediaries in the travel and tourism professional workforce (Cooper & Shepherd, 1997, p. 35). Perhaps learning these skills during tourism lessons gives students a feeling that the material is relevant and practical, and that it is essential and important for their vocational training. This is material connected directly to the field, and therefore gives students working tools and the confidence that they can use this information, should they actually work in the industry. Students also express a positive attitude towards performing these skills, but at a level somewhat lower than the usefulness with which

they view them (Table 10, p. 168). In other words, they like learning these skills but see their usefulness more in learning rather than using them. This response is understandable, since students may be able to understand the importance of elements of their studies but that does not make them like them. To take an example from another subject, students may recognise the importance of mathematics but this does not mean they like doing mathematical problems. The fact that students respond positively to their tourism training studies corresponds to the opinion of researchers who see such studies as essential despite the problem that sometimes arises when combining tourism education and training for tourism (Koh, 1994; Wells, 1996; Cooper & Shepher, 1997).

The students have a positive view of the usefulness of the general skills required for tourism studies: identifying sources of tourism demand, recreation and hotels, reading maps, identifying sites and eliciting data. However, while students' evaluations of learning methods in activities such as learning in groups and using simulation games to learn are positive, they are significantly lower than the attitudes towards the usefulness of the skills. It appears that instilling the skills constitutes a much more tangible element than the learning methods used. The students do not see any use in – nor do they like – learning by heart as a means of learning (Table 10, p. 168). Learning by heart is no longer used widely in Israeli schools today. Perhaps students consider this method old-fashioned and uncreative, and therefore express a negative attitude towards its usefulness and an even more negative attitude in terms of liking it. In contrast, other learning methods that are mentioned are considered alternatives to frontal teaching and include elements of active learning (identification, comparison, using pictures), individualised learning and shared learning (simulation games, learning in groups) (Dror & Liberman, 1997, p. 59).

Teachers' attitudes

In research question four (Chapter seven), comparing students' attitudes towards skill usefulness and learning methods, and teachers' evaluations of the students' attitudes, the teachers' evaluations of students' attitudes were found to be even more positive than the attitudes expressed by the students themselves except for two cases: learning through study tours abroad and learning by heart (Table 11, p. 173).

It would seem that teachers tend towards exaggeration and idealisation in their evaluations. An explanation for this can be found in Abraham (1975), who noted that teachers tended to exaggerate in their self-evaluation and to idealise the nature and manner of their teaching, while identifying themselves with the role. Therefore, they tend to see in themselves the positive qualities required, and to distance themselves from negative characteristics in themselves and in their manner of teaching. The fact that in the present study the teachers' evaluations of students' attitudes were found to be consistently and significantly higher than the students' evaluations of usefulness and liking, makes these findings more meaningful and more clearly valid. The findings also concur with those of Tamir and Zur (1977, p. 207) who emphasise that teachers should be aware of the gap between their perceptions and the students' actual attitudes towards what is happening in class and try to fulfil their good intentions. Although these findings were elicited in the context of tourism teachers, their correspondence to the studies of Abraham (1975) and Tamir and Zur may indicate that they can be applied to teachers of other school subjects as well.

The fifth research question (Chapter seven) deals with the attitudes of tourism teachers towards selected learning materials, as expressed in the interviews with them

(see examples in Appendices 6, 7, 8 and 9). On the subject of learning processes and learning methods encouraged by the books, clearly defined attitudes emerged towards each of the four learning materials under review. Teachers maintained that the textbooks (theoretical materials) did not encourage learning processes and methods since they do not include any didactic aids such as questions or exercises for the students. As for the exercise booklets, the teachers noted with satisfaction that they encouraged student thinking and active learning and were both effective and enjoyable in their variety.

As for how the material seemed to treat the students, it was the teachers' opinion that while the textbooks provided information, theories and models, they did not relate to the students as active learners who needed encouragement in the processes of thinking and analysing. At times the material was written in a style that was too scientific and therefore difficult to understand; at others, the material was quite logical, full of facts but lacking in explanations and analyses. In comparison, teachers were satisfied with the attitude of the exercise booklets towards the learners. The teachers felt that the booklets encouraged thinking and practice, and nurtured independent learners who could deal with the material and solve problems by themselves.

Various researchers note the need to develop different thinking skills in tourism studies. Pearce (1991, p.97) emphasises a flexible, creative, mindfulness-inducing approach to tourism education. Moscardo (1997, p.23) finds general support for the use of mindfulness training exercises for the development of more flexible thinking among tourism management students. According to Woolcock (1991, p. 2), the nature of industrial relations, employment conditions, and rapid expansion within the tourism industry demand that professionals have problem-solving skills, be able to

see alternative ways of proceeding, and be able to transcend cultural barriers. From the teachers' responses to the learning materials, it can be seen that these recommendations are reflected only partially in the learning materials for students in the tourism track in Israeli high schools.

In regard to teachers' attitudes about the extent to which the materials met the stated aims of the Ministry of Education, the teachers responded in all cases that the materials met some of the aims. The textbooks met the aims related to information and content according to the subject syllabus but little in the areas of instilling skills and values, mainly because the book did not address the students directly. The booklets, on the other hand, fulfilled the aims related mainly to instilling professional-technological skills but not to knowledge in the syllabus. This is understandable since they contain exercises with almost no learning material. For the same reason, they do not deal with values.

It would appear that the differences in how the teachers see the nature of the aims addressed in the learning materials for professional-technical tourism training and in those for tourism education can also be seen in the definitions of these domains given by Cooper and Shepherd (1997, p. 35):

Training has dominated the tourism sector, with vocationally-oriented courses providing the work force with the necessary craft skills. Education for tourism focuses on a process that imbues individuals with a set of principles and necessary skills to interpret, evaluate and analyse.

Attainment of different complementary aims from each of the domains of tourism studies can reinforce the researchers' position that ways should be found to combine industry and training with tourism education (Koh, 1994; Wells, 1996; Cooper & Shepherd, 1997).

For all the learning materials, the teachers recommend that revisions be made to improve the materials (see Appendices 6, 7, 8 and 9). For the textbooks, they

recommend conducting inservice courses for teachers to learn how to transmit the material in the books. They especially encourage teachers to present lesson plans for their colleagues to learn from, including student activation. The teachers think that it is necessary to re-edit the material, reduce its scope, adapt it to high school students, vary it and pay attention to the students, who are the readers. In the exercise booklets, suggestions were raised to make them more lively by including colour photos and by encouraging students to think integratively. Furthermore, the teachers felt that the instructions for the exercises should be rewritten in a clearer manner that was more appropriate for the students. Another suggestion raised for one of the booklets was to send students to intensive courses given by local airlines or at college instruction centres to receive hands-on experience working with the Carmel On-line programme.

The professional-theoretical textbook (Hotel reception clerking) was found by the teachers to contribute to society mainly in that it educates for and encourages courtesy, reliability and sensitivity as important traits required for working in hotels. This is logical, since reception and good public relations are of the utmost importance in the hotel industry. The teachers found no content of importance for society or the community in the work booklets about which they were queried, mainly because these learning materials included little in the way of content and concentrated almost exclusively on practising mainly professional-technological matters. The teachers found the learning material in the academic textbook (Leisure studies textbook) to have more importance for society or the community as a whole. In their opinion, leisure is an issue that affects almost everyone in almost all aspects of life, especially as leisure time increases and the workweek becomes progressively shorter. The utilisation of leisure time can be a “blessing” or a “curse” and therefore, the subject is of importance for individuals and society (World Leisure and Recreation Association,

1999). Teachers' attitudes towards the tourism learning materials correspond to findings emerging from their analysis using Eden's (1985) evaluative tool, thus providing additional validation.

Evaluation of the curricular learning materials

The sixth research question (Chapters eight and nine) deals with analysing the learning material in the tourism curriculum in Israeli high schools (Table 14, p. 233), using Eden's (1985) evaluative tool. The analysis facilitates better understanding and expands the discussion of the learning materials to subjects that are not covered in the interviews with the teachers (research question five). This process of analysing the learning materials creates a greater familiarity with and understanding of the curriculum since the learning materials hold a central place in its implementation.

The organisation of the chapters in the learning materials is in most cases conducive to learning. The material in the learning materials was found to be readable and the printing and page layout easy to read, for the most part. The exercise booklets offer ample spaces between lines and paragraphs, facilitating reading and making the materials pleasing to the eye. The learning materials do not require special conditions in the school (as was also found in research question five), except for the booklet that requires a computer room equipped with personal work stations for all the students, a teacher's demonstration screen and the software installed in the system.

All the learning materials were found to have little or no visual variation. None of the learning materials makes use of colour pictures. Even when pictures are included, they are not in colour. Some are outdated, further limiting their visual ability to arouse interest and to illustrate the text for the students. The main reasons for this are the prolonged process (usually three to five years) required to produce new

learning materials in Israel's education system, and a dearth of writers with the proper combination of academic, professional and pedagogical background in tourism. As was explained earlier in this thesis, tourism has begun to develop academically in Israel only in recent years. Ghaye (1978), in a study of illustrations, graphs and colour in textbooks, found that introducing colour pictures affects students' ability to absorb the material. During the course of the twentieth century, the use of pictures in textbooks has developed steadily. While pictures served only as decoration in the early years of the 20th century, they took on a descriptive role in the middle of that century and sometimes served to investigate hypotheses and questions (Newman, 1975). Thus, it would seem important to include colour pictures in the learning materials. In tourism subjects, various phenomena can be illustrated in colour, such as recreation areas, tourist services and hotels and tourist attractions.

All of the learning materials were found to be well suited to the operative curriculum of the subject or the subject matter as defined by the Ministry of Education and Culture. In other words, the knowledge-related aims were adhered to. However, correspondence with the aims of the tourism track and other aims of the learning materials was found to be only partial. The theoretical learning materials (textbooks) correspond to the aims of the track in the values domain but do not encourage application of these aims in the development of skills. On the other hand, the exercise booklets encourage mainly implementation of skill-related aims but do not contribute to implementation of value-related aims (see Table 14, p. 233).

The theoretical learning includes multi-disciplinary subjects. This is quite appropriate as researchers refer to tourism as a field and a discipline in the formal, traditional university sense. It has been difficult to orient the tourism curriculum construction towards a discrete body of knowledge. The various definitions of tourism

indicate that it is a field based on a number of disciplines with a clearly multi-disciplinary nature (Jafari & Ritchie, 1981; Gunn, 1987, 1991; Tribe, 1997). In comparison, the booklets, which are exercises in professional-technological areas, are not based on academic materials and in fact, contain virtually no text of learning material beyond the exercise. In other words, the learning materials express the integration in schools and in tourism education of the needs shared by the industry and by education (Cooper & Shepherd, 1997, p. 37).

The learning materials were found to have a link to practical life. In the materials from the vocational domain this link is a consequence of the professional training the studies provide. In the theoretical source (Leisure studies reader), the connection is a consequence of the subject, which has great relevance to individual and social life in contemporary times. The subjects in the reader serve as a basis for illustrating and implementing phenomena and events that occur in life today, and the students have an opportunity to understand and analyse processes and their meaning, such as analysis of tourist influences on the environment and on society.

In cognitive terms, Bloom's (1956) taxonomy classifies thinking into a number of levels, from the lowest to the highest: from knowledge and understanding, to interpretation, analysis, synthesis and evaluation. The learning materials, in most cases, stimulate learning at the levels of knowledge and understanding, as well as application or implementation. The reason for this may be that most of the materials deal with vocational domains, which are closely linked to the training programme and to knowledge relevant to the subject, thus ignoring the cognitive needs that should be stimulated in the learning process. Only one of the materials (the Leisure studies reader) is based on high level scientific-academic material and constitutes a basis for stimulating learning at higher cognitive levels as well. The difficulty of this material

derives from the necessity to understand sociological, psychological and spatial models developed in academic research that are often abstract and difficult to illustrate.

One problem that affects the learning materials is their relevance in terms of being up to date. The reason for the problem in general is twofold. One is the relatively long time required by the Ministry of Education and Culture to publish learning materials (usually two to four years). The other is the rapid rate of change in tourism, which is a very dynamic branch, resulting from growth, competition, technological developments in professional domains, and theoretical academic research. In some cases, the material is considerably outdated, which detracts from its relevance.

The theoretical learning materials (textbooks) do not encourage variety in the learning process as they do not include didactic aids that could activate the students. Activities are the heart of the didactic process, serving to teach and instruct students in performing the tasks, whose aim is to develop students' thinking abilities and personality (Bar-Gal, 1993, p. 196). Considered in this light, the lack of activities in these learning materials impinges seriously on their contribution to the students. The exercise booklets represent, for the most part, a set of activities and thus they encourage independent work. As a result, they develop student thinking for problem solving and for applying knowledge.

The theoretical learning materials (textbooks) can be classified as logical, primarily encouraging direct teaching (transmitting processed, detailed knowledge that students are expected to internalise by means of reading and learning by heart), while the exercise booklets can be classified as the pedagogical type (Gavrieli, 1969, Vol, 2, p. 789). However, none of the learning materials belongs to a third type that

has developed over the years, as the concept of indirect learning has taken root (Kremer-Hayoun, 1986, pp. 96-118). Indirect learning posits varied textbooks that facilitate the integration of various types of learning materials in different learning situations, and leads to a lesson structure and discussion that are not always predictable. This type is an integration that tries to combine the advantages of the logical type – a lot of material from the knowledge domain – with the advantages of the pedagogical type – sources, processed and summarised texts, review and memorising activities together with activities of investigation and revelation. This type of book tries to overcome the great variance among teachers and students by offering varied learning methods in one book (Bar-Gal, 1993, p. 193). The attitude towards the students in the textbooks is to passive receivers since they do not include didactic tools. They belong to the logical type that encourages direct learning. The exercise booklets, in comparison, which belong to the pedagogical type that encourages indirect learning, see the students as people involved in an investigation and as having intellectual needs. Nevertheless, they lack other learning stimuli such as colour pictures, demonstrations, sample answers and more detailed instructions.

None of the learning materials contains a teacher's guide or instructions. All of them require the teachers to act as mediators between the material and the students. This mediation activity is especially apparent in the theoretical materials of the logical type. Teachers must also supplement the material with didactic tools that are not included in the reader. In the exercise booklets, of the didactic type, less mediation activity is required of the teachers but here, too, some mediation is necessary. The teachers must connect the exercises to the theoretical material and at times help students to understand the exercise instructions.

While the theoretical learning materials (textbooks) were found to contribute

to the students' awareness of issues of importance to society (such as maintaining a balance in human-environment relations or good interpersonal relations), the exercise booklets, with no theoretical text and only computational or technical exercises, do not encourage awareness of socially significant issues.

These findings about the characteristics of the learning materials correspond to or complement conclusions emerging from the teachers' responses to the learning material. It is also possible to see how the learning materials pertaining to tourism training differ from and often supplement those related to tourism education. As noted, researchers recommend combining these two elements (Koh, 1994; Wells, 1996; Cooper & Shepherd, 1997). Various learning materials are related to different framings of tourism (Table 4, p. 76), and the diverse elements can be referred to using Tribe's (1997, p. 80) classification. He sees the influences of tourism studies from the non-business environment framing on society and the environment. These influences form part of tourism education studies in Israeli high schools, mainly through the theoretical learning materials. The framings of the tourist and the business environment, on the other hand, are connected to aspects of tourist activity, business profits and economic influences, which in Israeli high schools appear mainly as part of tourism training and are transmitted through the professional learning materials.

Implications of the study

In light of the students' positive attitudes towards their studies in the tourism track (see Table 7, p. 153), there may be a greater potential for developing tourism as a subject in more high schools and expanding its presently limited circle of learners. In recent years Israeli high schools have been engaged in growing competition to attract more and better students, and the emphasis has shifted to marketing each

school's special programmes and quality (Dror & Liberman, 1997). Tourism as a subject might be an attractive subject for schools to offer, because of its uniqueness, its interdisciplinary nature (Jafari & Ritchie, 1981; Gunn, 1987, 1991; Tribe, 1997), and the fact that students see it as an interesting subject. It should also be possible to plan a marketing strategy through which to publicise the subject's advantages as well as its economic, social and national importance. This marketing effort should be shared by the educational authorities (schools and the Ministry of Education) and the tourism industry (Ministry of Tourism, Association of Travel Agents, Israel Hotel Association). Together, they could formulate an action policy combining national aspirations for tourism (to promote and develop the branch) with the educational aspects of training personnel for employment in the industry. Thus, Koh (1994, p. 853) recommends that the primary purpose should be to develop curriculum with the industry rather than for the industry.

The findings of this study indicate that tourism studies in Israeli high schools interest the students, who like what they are learning. It is possible to assume that the multidisciplinary nature of the tourism field (Jafari & Ritchie, 1981; Gunn, 1987, 1991; Tribe, 1997; Airey & Johnson, 1999) affects a broad spectrum of subjects in the tourism curriculum in the school, thus contributing to students' interest in the subject, as can be seen in this study. Yet, relatively few schools offer a tourism track: only 42 of the 950 high schools in Israel, with a proportionately small number of students (about 420 register each year Israel) (Ministry of Education, Culture and Sport, 1999, p. 2). This is a very small scale when compared with the number of 16-18 year olds who register for tourism studies in the UK. In 1996 this number stood at 35,000 registrants for at least one unit of the General National Vocational Qualification (GNVQ) in Leisure and Tourism (now the Qualifications and Curriculum Authority)

(Airey & Johnson, 1998, p. 229). In other countries, tourism studies for this age group are generally not developed or are in initial development stages. This was shown in Chapter two in relation to Spain (Fayos-Sola, Abellan & Franco-Martinez, 1991), India (Singh, 1997) and Kenya (Sindiga, 1996). The gap between Israel and the UK can be attributed to the substantially greater scale of tourism in the UK as compared with Israel. Moreover, Israel's tourism industry suffers from periodic crises ignited by political and regional factors (Mansfeld, 1996). Nevertheless, Israel and other countries in which education and training for tourism for 15-18 year olds is still not developed, can learn from the tourism curriculum in England and try to realise the potential inherent in this subject. They can take note of the fact that tourism is suitable for both high school and college studies, as was found in this study. Students take an interest in and like the subject, it contributes to achieving educational aims in terms of knowledge, skills and values (Table 9, p. 159), and it plays a role in implementing official policy in Israel and in other countries trying to encourage the development of tourism for economic and national ends. It would be difficult to deny that the relationship between tourism education and the tourism industry is complex and that an important distinction can and should be drawn between tourism education and tourism training. Such a distinction will influence the type and depth of the relationship that develops between industry and education (Cooper & Shepherd, 1997, pp. 34-35). Despite this complexity, this study reflects the students' belief that both the educational and vocational aims of the studies have been attained. In other words, it is possible to implement a combined, integrated curriculum to the students' satisfaction, despite the complexity involved. In light of the students' positive responses to the tourism training element in their studies, it would appear that they value implementation of the researchers' recommendation to combine tourism

education and tourism training studies, despite the complexity this entails (Koh, 1994; Wells, 1996; Cooper & Shepherd, 1997).

This combination and co-operation should be maintained between the education system, mainly the Ministry of Education, and the industry's training system, through agencies such as the Ministry of Tourism, the Ministry of Labour, the Travel Agents Association and the Hotel Association. It would also appear to be advisable, as noted above, to aspire to find ways to strengthen the ties between the agencies, and thus improve and ensure greater effectiveness in the education and tourism training systems.

An expression of national policy towards tourism education in Israel can be found in the decision of the Education and Culture Committee of the Knesset [Israeli Parliament] from 31.1.2000:

The Education and Culture Committee determines that since the State of Israel is also a tourism country, it is necessary for the Ministry of Education together with the Ministry of Tourism to allocate resources for and give higher priority to developing an interdisciplinary curriculum in tourism to be integrated in other subjects, at all educational levels and with an overall systemic approach, and to give preference to implementing the programme in 'tourism-intensive areas' (Knesset, Education and Culture Committee, 31.1.2000).

Tourism education is usually referred to in the context of meeting work needs in the industry and keeping up with changing needs resulting from changes in technological development, client habits and competition (Go, 1991). Hawkins and Hunt (1988) also suggested that these professional programmes be placed in a valid conceptual context, and be interdisciplinary in nature and sensitive to industry requirements and developments. A number of studies conducted in diverse countries examined the attitudes of tourism students towards actually making their career in the tourism industry (Kuslivan & Kuslivan, 2000; Airey & Frontistis, 1997; Ross, 1997,

1994, Getz, 1994; Baron & Maxwell, 1993). The results of this study of tourism studies in high schools in Israel indicate that tourism education can contribute to achieving value-related objectives such as developing sensitivity towards tourists, and other nations, ethnic groups and traditions (see Table 9, p. 159). Tribe (1999, p. 78) maintains that the concept of tourism is open to different framings, and suggests three major framings (Table 4, p. 76): the tourist, the business of the tourism and the non-business environment. He also emphasises that one of the purposes of delineating the non-business environment of tourism is to allow the concept of tourism more scope, to rescue it from an over concentration on the tourist and associated business and to capture the wider imprint of tourism. Keeping this in mind, it appears that tourism education should be treated not only as vocational training for the industry but also as a means of nurturing and educating for values such as being friendly to tourists, encouraging individuals to be tourists, hosting tourists, meeting with foreigners-guests, becoming more open to the world in general, and opening the world to the country. Words in this spirit were sounded in the meeting of the Education and Culture Committee of the Israel Knesset [Parliament] (Knesset, 31.1.2000) where the policy of the State of Israel on this issue was stated.

It would therefore seem important to find the ways and means of bringing tourism education to all schools in Israel and in other countries, not only as part of vocational training or studies within the tourism track, but for all students in the schools. Tourism could be included in other related subjects in school such as geography, sociology and economics. This possibility is especially suitable to the multidisciplinary nature of tourism as a subject (Jafari & Ritchie, 1981; Gunn, 1987, 1991; Tribe, 1997). This option of multidisciplinary education for values can also be instituted earlier in education, such as in elementary schools. Further research could

examine new options for introducing tourism studies as a multidisciplinary field related to other subjects, elementary and high school ages in countries in the world.

Study tours in Israel and abroad were found by the students to be both effective and very well-liked as teaching methods. This connection between tourism and tours could be developed, with more programmes that integrate the tourism curriculum with study tours in the country and abroad. This would have the dual effect of making students like the subject more, and helping them to internalise and understand tourism issues from first-hand acquaintance with them in the field and not only through textbooks and theoretical materials. Study tours are a very limited part of the tourism curriculum today, mainly because of budgetary and organisational problems. It is possible to overcome the limitations on the number of annual study tours. For example, it is possible to encourage the tourism industry agencies to co-operate by hosting students and giving them free entry to tourist sites, or group tours abroad at reduced rates. Tours of this sort are offered by a relatively small number of schools which generally take advantage of special reduced rates offered by large travel agents that are members of the Israel Association of Travel Agents and Tourism (IATAT). Association members ascribe great importance to these tours and are willing to bear part of the financial burden by minimising their profits. They also offer additional services at no additional cost, such as guides or free entrance to some tourist sites. The tours are generally scheduled for the low seasons in tourism in which the companies have greater flexibility and the basic prices are lower. Co-operation of this sort is part of the existing ties with agents in the tourism industry. The association has declared that: "The IATAT looks favourably upon co-operation with high schools teaching tourism and calls for co-operation in joint projects involving the association, the travel agents and tourism track students" (Israel Association of Travel

Agents and Tourism, 2000). Tours abroad can be held during the holidays during the year or the summer holiday, so that students do not miss material from their other courses in school.

The teachers generally evaluate positively the students' attitudes towards the usefulness of and liking for the teaching methods and skills required for tourism studies. However, their evaluation is usually more positive than the students'. This shows that teachers tend towards exaggeration and idealisation in their evaluations. Keeping this in mind, the teachers should be more aware of this tendency towards exaggeration and idealisation when dealing with students' attitudes. By doing so, the teachers can offer a more authentic evaluation and thus try to improve the learning and teaching processes in their classes. Considering the correspondence of this finding to other studies (Abraham, 1975; Tamir & Zur, 1977), it would appear that this implication is also applicable to other school subjects as well. Further research could examine this phenomenon in other subjects in Israel and in other countries, since it would appear that this perception is important and significant among teachers and thus important to understand.

The teachers' responses to the learning materials used in the tourism track in Israeli high schools, reflect the teachers' opinion that the learning materials encourage the development of thinking skills only to a certain extent. Various researchers note the need to develop diverse thinking skills in tourism studies. Pearce (1991, p.97) places the emphasis on a flexible, creative, mindfulness-inducing approach to tourism education. Moscardo (1997, p.23) is generally supportive of the use of mindfulness training exercises for developing more flexible thinking among tourism management students. According to Woolcock (1991, p. 2) the nature of industrial relations, employment conditions, and rapid expansion within the tourism industry require that

professionals master problem-solving skills, the ability to see alternative ways of proceeding, and the ability to transcend cultural barriers. In keeping with this, it appears that the learning materials in the tourism track should be improved, as will be explained, and that special attention should be paid to the use of elements that encourage students' independent thinking and problem-solving skills. Learning materials should include activities and exercises that encourage students to apply these elements.

It is important to find ways to improve the learning materials in the tourism curriculum, considering the problems and faults there were exposed. More visual variety should be integrated using graphic elements and illustrations, including colour. In a subject such as tourism, which has so many visual elements, there would seem to be a special need for integrating and emphasising visual elements such as colour photos. From the cognitive point of view, the learning material should contain more material, encourage higher levels of learning (such as synthesis and evaluation), and provide a wider basis of academic-scientific material. Material of this sort will lead to a higher level of studies and greater interest and intellectual challenge for the students.

Perhaps it is possible to learn new implementation methods by studying the curricula of other countries. For example, the syllabus for tourism studies of Myerscough College, England, is presented in this thesis (see Appendix 10). A review of this syllabus shows that some of the aims it defines are similar to those included in tourism studies in Israel (such as the social and environmental consequences of tourism). It may be possible to learn new ideas from the materials used to implement the curriculum in England so that they can be adapted for use in Israel.

The problem of the data and information in the learning materials in the tourism curriculum being outdated is significant because of the dynamic nature and

rapid pace of change characterising tourism. It does not seem reasonable that in an age of super-technology and intensive communications, students must deal with material that is not accurate and up to date. It is possible to develop flexible learning materials that are more amenable to updating and changes, perhaps through the use of a portfolio (Bird, 1990) or through dividing the materials into smaller booklets. This will make updating easier and more rapid. It is possible to learn from the materials and curricula of schools and colleges in other countries, especially England, with its extensive experience in developing curricula suitable for tourism education and training, both in high schools and junior colleges. The lessons to be learned from England, for example, might include the structure of education and training for tourism in which representatives of the industry are integrated through various organisations, depending on the subject being developed. This curriculum is built on a modular basis from the basic to the advanced levels, where the agencies involved make sure to update the curriculum regularly, award certification diplomas and even encourage contact between graduates and the industry, including employment opportunities (see Chapter two). Professional ties with organisations and institutions in other countries can contribute to the implementation and use of up to date learning materials developed there as well as learning from their experience.

In discussing degree studies in tourism, Richards (1998) notes that until now, discussion of tourism education has been limited to individual countries or to comparisons between two countries. However, the transnational nature and implications of tourism demand discussion of the content of the tourism curriculum on a global scale. Richards presents a number of examples of global co-operation in tourism courses, such as a successful project of the European Association for Tourism and Leisure Education (ATLAS). Projects like ATLAS can serve as a basis and model

for possible ways and means of global co-operation in matters pertaining to the development and improvement of the tourism curriculum in schools in Israel and other countries, not only theoretically, but on a practical level as well.

From the evidence, a strong case could be made for more curricular autonomy in the high schools teaching tourism, considering the great dynamism required to keep up to date in terms of curriculum and learning materials. Teacher initiative and involvement may significantly shorten the time required to prepare, develop and update learning materials in comparison to the long process involved when going through official Ministry channels. Such activities are in keeping with the trend in Israel towards educational decentralisation and giving more curricular autonomy to the schools (Eden, Moses & Amiad, 1986). The use of information technology should also be encouraged to facilitate the production of more relevant data with the computer, using data bases and the internet.

Since the textbooks were found to be of the logical type and the exercise booklets of the pedagogical type (Gavrieli, 1969, Vol. 2, p. 789) – and none to be of the integrated type, integrative learning materials should be developed that encourage indirect learning (Kremer-Hayoun, 1986, pp. 96-118). Materials of this sort try to combine the advantages of the logical and the pedagogical. Developing such learning materials can provide an appropriate response to knowledge-related needs and the need to encourage students as active learners and not passive receivers in the learning process, as is the case in much of the material being used in tourism today.

In this study, Eden's (1985) tool for curricular evaluation was chosen for content analysis. It is based on criteria in the professional literature about teaching-learning research (Sabar Ben-Yehoshua, 1982; Gall, 1981; Ben-Peretz, 1980; Goodlad, Klein & Tye, 1979; Adar & Fuchs, 1978; Eash, 1974; Stevens &

Morrisset, 1971). The content analysis conducted as part of this study using Eden's (1985) evaluative tool (in which the findings corresponded to those emerging from the questionnaires and the interviews), yielded many findings about tourism studies in high schools in Israel and the learning materials intended for this purpose. Based on the categories defined in the evaluative tool (see Table 13, p. 189 and Table 14, p. 233), the findings refer to general aspects of teaching/learning processes including the extent to which learning aims are fulfilled, the quality of the methodology and didactics utilised for teaching the subject, and the correspondence between subject matter and the needs of students, teachers and society. These findings also shed light on a number of problems pertaining to the learning materials in the tourism curriculum, such as materials being out of date or lacking visual and didactic variety. This comprehensive picture of the tourism learning materials contributes to a greater understanding of their advantages and shortcomings and the processes which they engender. They can also suggest ideas and strategies to be used for change and improvement. Future studies can use Eden's (1985) evaluative tool or other tools and models to perform content analysis of curricula and learning materials in other subjects in Israel and in other countries around the world.

This initial evaluation of the tourism curriculum in high schools in Israel has examined a number of elements and should contribute to formulating a basis of research knowledge in tourism education. Such a basis can serve as a source for improving the national curriculum. It can also be used for comparison and for international research in other countries. In light of the debates in tourism education about curriculum content (Airey & Johnson, 1999), the multidisciplinary structure of tourism, a core body of knowledge for tourism studies, and the relationship between tourism education and training for tourism, it is to be hoped that this study will serve

as a source of additional information and understanding as, in great likelihood, the debate will continue for years to come.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX 1
QUESTIONNAIRE TO 12th GRADE STUDENTS
IN THE TOURISM TRACK

Dear student,

You are kindly asked to complete this questionnaire, which is for a university study only! Read each question carefully and choose what you think is the most correct answer. Circle the number on the answer page that corresponds to the answer you chose.

This questionnaire is anonymous.

Name of school _____ Date _____

1. Gender: 1.1 Male 1.2 Female

1a. Why did you decide to study tourism? _____

Importance of the subject

Following are a number of statements that examine your feelings about the importance of tourism. Select only one answer regarding how you feel about each statement. Please be sure to respond to all the statements.

2. It is important for me to learn tourism.

2.1 Absolutely agree 2.2 Agree 2.3 Disagree 2.4 Absolutely disagree

3. I like learning tourism.

3.1 Absolutely agree 3.2 Agree 3.3 Disagree 3.4 Absolutely disagree

4. Success in tourism is more important to me than success in other subjects.

4.1 Absolutely agree 4.2 Agree 4.3 Disagree 4.4 Absolutely disagree

5. Tourism studies increase students' love for Israel.

5.1 Absolutely agree 5.2 Agree 5.3 Disagree 5.4 Absolutely disagree

6. Tourism lessons interest me.

6.1 Absolutely agree 6.2 Agree 6.3 Disagree 6.4 Absolutely disagree

7. Tourism lessons teach students what desirable behaviours are.

7.1 Absolutely agree 7.2 Agree 7.3 Disagree 7.4 Absolutely disagree

8. Tourism studies contribute to greater awareness of the importance of tourism and hotels

8.1 Absolutely agree 8.2 Agree 8.3 Disagree 8.4 Absolutely disagree

9. Tourism studies expose students to a great understanding of concept "leisure" and its importance today.

9.1 Absolutely agree 9.2 Agree 9.3 Disagree 9.4 Absolutely disagree

10. Tourism studies teach students the skills for using professional computer programmes.
10.1 Absolutely agree 10.2 Agree 10.3 Disagree 10.4 Absolutely disagree

11. Tourism studies will enable students to fit into the tourism branch in Israel.
11.1 Absolutely agree 11.2 Agree 11.3 Disagree 11.4 Absolutely disagree

12. Tourism studies contribute to nurturing understanding and tolerance for the feelings, traditions and life-styles of other people and nations.
12.1 Absolutely agree 12.2 Agree 12.3 Disagree 12.4 Absolutely disagree

13. Tourism studies develop judgemental ability for touristic phenomena and processes.
13.1 Absolutely agree 13.2 Agree 13.3 Disagree 13.4 Absolutely disagree

14. I chose the tourism track because in addition to a matriculation certificate I will also receive a professional diploma ("Certified Clerk" in travel agencies or "Hotel Receptionist")
14.1 Absolutely agree 14.2 Agree 14.3 Disagree 14.4 Absolutely disagree

15. I am pleased that I chose to study in the tourism track.
15.1 Absolutely agree 15.2 Agree 15.3 Disagree 15.4 Absolutely disagree

15. Write a few words about a subject you learned in tourism that especially impressed or influenced you:

Methods of learning the subject

17. How many hours a week do you devote to preparing homework in all subjects (including tourism) in addition to the regular class hours?

- 17.1 About an hour
- 17.2 Two hours
- 17.3 Three hours
- 17.4 Four hours
- 17.5 Other. State how many hours: _____

18. How many hours a week do you devote to preparing homework in tourism, above and beyond the hours you spend in class?

- 18.1 About an hour
- 18.2 Two hours
- 18.3 Three hours
- 18.4 Four hours
- 18.5 Other. State how many hours: _____

19. Following is a list of activities in tourism studies. Circle the number that indicates to what extent you think the activity is useful to you as a student.

	Very useful	Useful	Not very useful	Not at all useful
19.1 Learning using tourist newspaper clippings	1	2	3	4
19.2 Learning using simulation games	1	2	3	4
19.3 Comparing different tourist sites or hotels	1	2	3	4
19.4 Identifying sources of demand for tourism, recreation and hotels	1	2	3	4
19.5 Reading and identifying information written in the professional jargon and slang	1	2	3	4
19.6 Learning in groups	1	2	3	4
19.7 Using drawings and pictures that describe phenomena from the studies.	1	2	3	4
19.8 Listening to a guest lecturer from the tourism industry	1	2	3	4
19.9 Looking at a map to identify a site and to deduce tourist data	1	2	3	4
19.10 Learning by heart	1	2	3	4
19.11 Learning through study tours in the country	1	2	3	4
19.12 Learning through study tours abroad	1	2	3	4
19.13 Dealing with professional forms in tourist offices and hotels.	1	2	3	4
19.14 Performing professional actions using appropriate computer programs	1	2	3	4

20. Following is a list of activities in tourism studies. Circle the number that expresses how much you think the students like the activity.

	Like very much	Like	Don't like	Dislike very much
20.1 Learning using tourist newspaper clippings	1	2	3	4
20.2 Learning using simulation games	1	2	3	4
20.3 Comparing different tourist sites or hotels	1	2	3	4
20.4 Identifying sources of demand for tourism, recreation and hotels	1	2	3	4
20.5 Reading and identifying information written in the professional jargon and slang	1	2	3	4
20.6 Learning in groups	1	2	3	4
20.7 Using drawings and pictures that describe phenomena from the studies.	1	2	3	4
20.8 Listening to guest lecturers from the tourism industry.	1	2	3	4
20.9 Looking at a map to identify a site and to deduce tourist data	1	2	3	4
20.10 Learning by heart	1	2	3	4
20.11 Learning through study tours in the country	1	2	3	4
20.12 Learning through study tours abroad	1	2	3	4
20.13 Dealing with professional forms in tourist offices and hotels.	1	2	3	4
20.14 Performing professional actions using appropriate computer programs	1	2	3	4

21. Is there anything else you would like to note about the tourism track in high school?

APPENDIX 2
QUESTIONNAIRE TO TEACHERS

Dear Teacher,

We are conducting a study of tourism in high schools. We would very much appreciate your answering the questions according to the instructions that appear. Most answers require you to circle a number, a few ask you to write out your answer.

Your cooperation will help us greatly.

School _____ Date: _____

1. Gender: 1. Male 2. Female (circle)
2. How many years have you been teaching? _____
3. What is your education and training for teaching tourism? (circle all the appropriate answers)
 - 3.1 Certified teacher
 - 3.2 Certified/Senior teacher of tourism
 - 3.3 B.A.
 - 3.4 M.A. or Ph.D.
 - 3.5 Professional training certificate for tourism (Ministry of Tourism/Labor)
 - 3.6 Teaching certificate in tourism
 - 3.7 Teaching certificate in another subject (not tourism)
 - 3.8 Other education. Details _____

The curriculum in tourism

4. How did you obtain the curricula in tourism (circle all the appropriate answers)
 - 4.1 I bought them.
 - 4.2 The supervisor showed them to me
 - 4.3 The school principal showed them to me
 - 4.4 The subject co-ordinator showed it to me
 - 4.5 At a teacher inservice course
 - 4.6 I haven't seen them. Explain: _____
5. When do you study the aims detailed in the curriculum that you teach (note all the possibilities)?
 - 5.1 At the beginning of the school year.
 - 5.2 While planning my work for the next semester.
 - 5.3 At teachers in-service courses.
 - 5.4 At the beginning or each new chapter or subject.
 - 5.5 Other (detail) _____

Students booklets and learning materials

6. For teaching tourism you must use many professional learning materials (such as price lists, publications of tourism companies and hotels, tour guides, maps, etc.). What is your opinion about each statement relating to this great wealth of tourism learning materials:

	Not at all	Very little	Some-what	A lot	A great deal
6.1 Necessary for teaching the subject					
6.2 Makes it hard for the teacher to teach the subject.					
6.3 Makes it hard for the student to learn the subject					
6.4 Contributes to greater variety in teaching methods in the subject					
6.5 Contributes to greater interest in the subject					
6.6 Increases the students' feeling of learning something meaningful, practical and useful (and not only theoretical)					
6.7 Increases motivation for active student learning					

7. Following is a list of auxiliary booklets published or recommended by the Ministry of Education and Culture, and intended to serve as auxiliary material for tourism studies. (relate to what you teach). For each item (booklet) mark three things (indicated in columns A B and C). Please circle only one number in each column, according to the heading.

ITEM	A		B		C			
	Do you use the booklet for preparing lessons?		Do the students use the booklet?		Are you satisfied with the booklet?			
	YES	NO	YES	NO	Very satisfied	Satisfied	So-so	Not satisfied
7.1 "Leisure Readings" (or photocopied chapters)	1	2	1	2	1	2	3	4
7.2 Hotel reception clerking booklet (Nussbaum, 1993)	1	2	1	2	1	2	3	4
7.3 Bookkeeping workbook (Nussbaum and Dueck, 1996)	1	2	1	2	1	2	3	4
7.4 "Carmel Demo" booklet (Technological Education Center)	1	2	1	2	1	2	3	4

8. How and for what purpose do you use the existing learning material from those mentioned above? Rate your answer between 1 (very often) to 4 (not very much) and mark whether it is at home (1) or in class (2), according to where the students usually do the work in the booklets. Refer in your answer to one of the following books (and circle the book you are referring to):

"Recreational Studies" (Mansfeld) "Hotel Reception Clerking" (Nussbaum)

- 8.1 Preparatory work: 1 2 3 4 At home (1) In class (2)
 8.2 Reading and exercise: 1 2 3 4 At home (1) In class (2)
 8.3 Review work 1 2 3 4 At home (1) In class (2)

Why? _____

9. To what extent did the above booklets increase the students' interest in learning the subject (relate only to the booklets in your area of teaching)

Item	Increased very much	Increased considerably	Increased a little	Did not increase at all
9.1 "Leisure Studies" reader (or copies of parts)	1	2	3	4
9.2 Hotel reception clerking book (Nussbaum, 1993)	1	2	3	4
9.3 Bookkeeping booklet (Nussbaum & Dueck, 1996)	1	2	3	4
9.4 "Carmel Demo" booklet (Technological Education Center)	1	2	3	4

How do you explain this? _____

10. To what extent do most of the students in the class understand the learning material and explanations in the students booklets?

Item	Very much	Considerably	Somewhat	Very little
10.1 "Leisure Studies" reader (or copies of parts)	1	2	3	4
10.2 Hotel reception clerking book (Nussbaum, 1993)	1	2	3	4
10.3 Bookkeeping booklet (Nussbaum & Dweck, 1996)	1	2	3	4
10.4 "Carmel Demo" booklet (Technological Education Center)	1	2	3	4

Teaching methods

11. Some teachers think that intuitive teaching is preferable to preplanned lessons. To what extent do you agree with this?

11.1. Completely agree 11.2 Agree 11.3 Agree somewhat 11.4 Disagree

12. In your opinion, to what extent does homework contribute?

Rate the following options on the line to the left of the answer, Mark the main contribution down to the lowest, (1 is highest, 5 is lowest)

- 12.1 _____ Homework lets the student review the material learned in class.
- 12.2 _____ Homework arouses the student's motivation to learn.
- 12.3 _____ Homework enables the student to cope with the learning material by himself.
- 12.4 _____ Homework develops independent learning skills.
- 12.5 _____ Homework prepares the student for studies in class.

13. Following is a list of skills and teaching methods for tourism. Evaluate each skill and/or teaching method by circling **how useful you think it is for the student**.

	Very useful	Useful	Not very useful	Not at all useful
13.1 Learning using tourist newspaper clippings	1	2	3	4
13.2 Learning using simulation games	1	2	3	4
13.3 Comparing different tourist sites or hotels	1	2	3	4
13.4 Identifying sources of demand for tourism, recreation and hotels	1	2	3	4
13.5 Reading and identifying information written in the professional jargon and slang	1	2	3	4
13.6 Learning in groups	1	2	3	4
13.7 Using drawings and pictures that describe phenomena from the studies.	1	2	3	4
13.8 Listening to a guest lecturer from the tourism industry	1	2	3	4
13.9 Looking at a map to identify a site and to deduce tourist data	1	2	3	4
13.10 Learning by heart	1	2	3	4
13.11 Learning through study tours in the country	1	2	3	4
13.12 Learning through study tours abroad	1	2	3	4
13.13 Dealing with professional forms in tourist offices and hotels.	1	2	3	4
13.14 Performing professional actions using appropriate computer programs	1	2	3	4

14. Following is a list of skills and teaching methods for teaching tourism. Evaluate each of the skills and/or teaching methods and circle to what extent you think most of the students like to perform the activity.

	Like very much	Like	Don't like	Dislike very much
14.1 Learning using tourist newspaper clippings	1	2	3	4
14.2 Learning using simulation games	1	2	3	4
14.3 Comparing different tourist sites or hotels	1	2	3	4
14.4 Identifying sources of demand for tourism, recreation and hotels	1	2	3	4
14.5 Reading and identifying information written in the professional jargon and slang	1	2	3	4
14.6 Learning in groups	1	2	3	4
14.7 Using drawings and pictures that describe phenomena from the studies.	1	2	3	4
14.8 Listening to guest lecturers from the tourism industry.	1	2	3	4
14.9 Looking at a map to identify a site and to deduce tourist data	1	2	3	4
14.10 Learning by heart	1	2	3	4
14.11 Learning through study tours in the country	1	2	3	4
14.12 Learning through study tours abroad	1	2	3	4
14.13 Dealing with professional forms in tourist offices and hotels.	1	2	3	4
14.14 Performing professional actions using appropriate computer programs	1	2	3	4

16. Do you have anything else to add that you think would help?

APPENDIX 3
TOURISM STUDIES IN ISRAEL: TRAINING INSTITUTIONS,
SCOPE OF STUDIES AND CERTIFICATES

Study track or Course	Hours/years of study	Type of certification	Training institutions
1. Hotel and tourism management	3.5 years + 1000 hrs of practical work and specialisation	B.Sc. + Recognised Hotel Management certificate of the Ministry of Tourism	Ben-Gurion University of the Negev (since 1993)
2. Food resource management studies – hotel track	3 years + option to supplement hotel management	B.Sc. in Nutritional Sciences. Supplementation of program recognised by the Ministry of Tourism	Hebrew University – Agriculture Faculty, Rehovot. In conjunction with the Ministry of Tourism since mid-1990s
3. Geography and tourism	3 years	B.A. in geography	Haifa University (since 1996)
4. General B.A. with combined major of geography and tourism	3 years	General B.A.	Jordan Valley College, a branch of Bar Ilan University (since 1993)
5. Combined general B.A. and management certificate in tourism	3.5 years	General B.A. + Tourism Management certificate + Licensed Clerk (travel agent) certificate of the Ministry of Tourism	Central School for Tourism. In conjunction with the Open University since mid-1990s
6. Teacher training in Land of Israel Studies	4 years	Certified Tour Guide and National Tour Guide license of the Ministry of Tourism. B.Ed. and teaching certificate for teaching Land of Israel studies in school	Beit Berl College (B.Ed. since 1980)
7. Tourism Technician	2560 hours	Certificate of the Government Institute for Technological Training and of the college	Jordan Valley College

Study track or Course	Hours/years of study	Type of certification	Training institutions
8. Tourism management for academics	560 hours	Diploma from the institution in Tourism Management for Academics	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ❖ Haifa University ❖ The College for Management ❖ Jordan Valley College ❖ Rupin Academy ❖ Eilat College ❖ The Technion (external studies) ❖ Haifa University (external studies)
9. Senior Hotel Management (second stage)	400 hours	Hotel Management Certificate recognised by the institution and the Ministry of Tourism	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ❖ Jordan Valley College ❖ Rupin Academy ❖ Eilat College ❖ The Technion (external studies) ❖ Haifa University (external studies)
10. Hotel Management (first stage)	560 hours	Hotel Management Certificate, first stage, recognised by the institution and the Ministry of Tourism	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ❖ Same as above
11. Travel agents	450 hours + 1.5 months practicum + tours and workshops	Licensed Clerk in travel agencies, from the Ministry of Tourism	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ❖ Central School of Tourism (all 8 branches) since 1962. ❖ Since 1990s: ❖ College of Management ❖ Jordan Valley College ❖ Ramat Gan College ❖ Judea and Samaria College

Study track or Course	Hours/years of study	Type of certification	Training institutions
12. Tour Guides in Israel	680 hours + 60 days of touring	Certified Tour Guide, Ministry of Tourism	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ❖ Central School of Tourism ❖ Beit Berl College ❖ Zinman College of Physical Education and Sport Sciences, Wingate Institute ❖ Jordan Valley College ❖ Beit Shmuel College Jerusalem ❖ Judea and Samaria College ❖ The College for Tourism and Hospitality ❖ Bar Ilan University, Land of Israel Studies department (equivalent to B.A.)
13. Tourism Management and Marketing	296 hours	Certificate of graduation from institution	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ❖ Central School of Tourism ❖ Jordan Valley College ❖ Western Galilee College ❖ ORT Career
14. Tourism Entrepreneurship and Management	160-240 hours	Certificate of graduation from institution	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ❖ Central School of Tourism ❖ Jordan Valley College ❖ Western Galilee College ❖ Technological College of Beersheba
15. Wholesale Tour Operators	6 months	Ministry of Tourism certificate	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ❖ Central School of Tourism ❖ ORT Career
16. Tourism Management and Operating: Rural accommodation and recreation sites	200 hours	Graduation certificate of the institution	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ❖ Jordan Valley College ❖ Tel Hai College ❖ Sapir Shaar Hanegev College ❖ Western Galilee College ❖ Rupin Academy

Study track or Course	Hours/years of study	Type of certification	Training institutions
17. Tourism Experts	398 hours	Certified Expert diploma from the Ministry of Tourism	❖ Central School of Tourism
18. Tour Escort (abroad)	250-270 hours + workshops	Certificate from the institution	❖ About 21 schools belonging to institutions or travel and tourism companies
19. Integrated Hospitality	1344 hours + 924 hours practicum	Class 1 Professional Diploma from the Ministry of Labour	❖ Tadmor Central School for Hospitality, Herzlia ❖ Dvir School of Hospitality, Haifa and Jerusalem ❖ Hadassah College ❖ School of Hospitality, Tiberias and the Galilee
20. Hotel Reception Clerk	708 hours + 300 hours practicum	Level 1 professional certificate, Ministry of Labour	❖ Tadmor Central School for Hospitality, Herzlia ❖ Dvir School of Hospitality, Haifa and Jerusalem ❖ Eilat College ❖ School of Hospitality, Tiberias and the Galilee
21. Senior Business Management	450 hours	Level 1 Hotel Management (Ministry of Labour)	❖ Tadmor Central School for Hospitality, Herzlia ❖ Dvir School of Hospitality, Haifa and Jerusalem
22. The Art of Cooking (Chef)	630 hours + 1050 hours practicum	Level 1 professional certificate, Ministry of Labour	❖ Tadmor Central School for Hospitality, Herzlia ❖ Dvir School of Hospitality, Haifa and Jerusalem ❖ Eilat College ❖ Hadassah College ❖ Technological College, Beersheba ❖ School of Hospitality, Tiberias and the Galilee

Study track or Course	Hours/years of study	Type of certification	Training institutions
23. Confectioner	885 hours + 459 hours practicum	Level 1 professional certificate, Ministry of Labour	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ❖ Tadmor Central School for Hospitality, Herzlia ❖ Dvir School of Hospitality, Haifa and Jerusalem ❖ Hadassah College ❖ Technological College, Beersheba ❖ School of Hospitality, Tiberias and the Galilee
24. Maintenance management	462 hours + 336 hours practicum	Level 1 professional certificate, Ministry of Labour	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ❖ Tadmor Central School for Hospitality, Herzlia ❖ Dvir School of Hospitality, Haifa and Jerusalem ❖ Hadassah College ❖ Technological College, Beersheba ❖ School of Hospitality, Tiberias and the Galilee
25. Restauranting and hosting (waiting)	420 hours + 252 hours practicum	Level 1 professional certificate, Ministry of Labour	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ❖ Tadmor Central School for Hospitality, Herzlia ❖ Dvir School of Hospitality, Haifa and Jerusalem ❖ Hadassah College ❖ Technological College, Beersheba ❖ School of Hospitality, Tiberias and the Galilee
26. Food system management	200 hours	Graduation certificate from institution	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ❖ Jordan Valley College
27. Event management and production	120-200 hours	Certificate from institution	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ❖ Jordan Valley College ❖ Rupin Academy ❖ The Technion (external studies)
28. Operating rural accommodations and recreation sites	200 hours	Certificate from the institution	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ❖ Jordan Valley College

Study track or Course	Hours/years of study	Type of certification	Training institutions
29. Managing and marketing rural tourism	120-160 hours + workshops	Certificate of the institution	❖ Tel Hai College ❖ Jezreel Valley College ❖ Rupin Academy
30. Tourism management, marketing and development	120 hours	Certificate of the institution	❖ Western Galilee College
31. Fundamentals of entrepreneurship and managing small businesses in tourism	120 hours	Certificate of the institution	❖ Sha'ar Hanegev College
32. Tourism management in settlements	240 hours	Certificate of the institution	❖ Rupin Academy
33. Marketing, sales and advertising in tourism	80 hours	Certificate of the institution	❖ Rupin Academy
34. Room division management (Hotel management, Stage 1)	320 hours	Certificate of the institution	❖ Rupin Academy ❖ The Technion (external studies)
35. Food and drink management (Hotel management, Stage 1)	320 hours	Certificate of the institution	❖ Rupin Academy ❖ The Technion (external studies)
36. Managing institutional kitchens	100 hours	Certificate of the institution	❖ The Technion (external studies)
37. Food and drink control	60 hours	Certificate of the institution	❖ The Technion (external studies)
38. The Centre for Professional Advancement in Tourism	Ongoing series of inservice courses in all subjects related to professional training in Hospitality and tourism	Certificate of participation	❖ The Centre for Professional Advancement in Hospitality; Israel Hotel Association and other agencies

Study track or Course	Hours/years of study	Type of certification	Training institutions
39. Teacher education for tourism	3-4 years	Certified teacher. Certified clerk Hotel reception clerk. Together with Jordan Valley College, a general B.A. with a specialisation in geography and tourism	❖ Ohalo College
40. Physical education – with specialisation in leisure and recreation education	4 years	B.Ed. in physical education	❖ Zinman College of Physical Education and Sport Sciences at the Wingate Institute
41. Tourism tracks in high schools (academic and vocational)	3 years	Matriculation diploma. Vocational certification according to field of specialisation: licensed clerk (travel agent) or hotel reception clerk or hotel cook and confectioner	❖ 57 tracks in 42 school throughout the State of Israel

Sources for data in table: Ministry of Tourism, 1994c; Ministry of Tourism, Professional Training in Tourism branch, 1995b; data from the institutions appearing in the table.

APPENDIX 4
DISTRIBUTION OF TEACHERS AND 12TH GRADE STUDENTS
PARTICIPATING IN THE STUDY, BY SCHOOL

School	Number of students (12 th grade)	Number of teachers
1. ORT Afridar-Ronson, Ashkelon	21	2
2. ORT Habonim, Bat Yam	27	2
3. College of Administration H.S., Givataim	13	Did not respond
4. Yad-Giora High School, Herzlia	8	2
5. Sirkin School, Holon	27	2
6. Rene-Cassin High School, Jerusalem	16	Did not respond
7. Emek Hefer Regional H.S.	20	1
8. Nazareth Municipal School	15	3
9. ORT Leibowitz, Netanya	20	1
10. Rishon Lezion Municipal H.S. No. 5	6	1
11. Tichon Hadash, Ramat Gan	20	3
12. Shibli High School	7	1
13. Tel Aviv Municipal H.S. No. 11	19	1
14. Goldwater Comprehensive H.S., Eilat	20	3
15. Beit Hahinuch H.S., Jerusalem	17	1
16. Shifman H.S., Tirat Hacarmel	11	2
17. Ben-Zvi H.S., Kiryat Ono	12	1
18. Galili H.S., Kfar Saba	Did not respond	1
19. Rabin H.S., Kiryat Yam	No students in 12 th grade	1
20. Majar Comprehensive H.S.	- " -	1
21. ORT Ma'alot	- " -	2
22. ORT Kramim, Carmiel	- " -	1
23. Shuv H.S., Haifa	- " -	2
24. Beit Yerah Comprehensive H.S., Jordan Valley	- " -	2
25. Sharet Comprehensive H.S., Upper Nazareth	- " -	1
26. Ashdod Comprehensive H.S. No. 3	- " -	1
27. Olisky H.S., Jerusalem	Did not respond	Did not respond
TOTAL	279 students	38 teachers

APPENDIX 5

QUESTIONS FOR THE INTERVIEW WITH TOURISM TEACHERS ABOUT THE LEARNING MATERIAL IN THE TOURISM TRACK

1. a. Teacher's name _____ b. School _____
c. No. of years teaching _____ d. Subjects taught _____
e. Education _____

2. Which of the following learning materials are intended for the subjects you teach?

- A1. Leisure studies textbook
- A2. Hotel reception clerking textbook
- A3. Receptionist clerking exercises in bookkeeping
- A4. "Carmel Demo" booklet

b. Do you use the above material(s) for your subject in your teaching? _____

c. If not, why? _____

d. The materials you do use _____ (list the name of the learning material)

(Note: If he/she uses more than one material, a separate interview will be conducted for each one.)

3. What is your opinion of the quality of this learning material?

4. What is your opinion of the learning processes and learning methods that the book encourages?

5. What is the attitude of the learning material to the student?

6. Does the learning material satisfy the aims, or some of the aims stated in the curriculum?

7. Does the learning material require special conditions in the school/classroom for use (such as equipment, special place, financial outlay)?
8. Do you have any suggestions or ideas for improving the learning material in the future?
9. Is there anything about the subject or the tourism track that you would like to add?
10. Does the learning material have content matter of importance to society or to the entire community?

APPENDIX 6
ABRIDGED SAMPLE INTERVIEW WITH A TOURISM
TEACHER ABOUT THE LEISURE STUDIES READER

Teacher's name _____ A _____ School _____ 25 _____

No. of years teaching 4 Subjects taught Leisure studies, tourist countries, aviation

Education Senior certified teacher

What is your opinion of the quality of this learning material?

Ans: The learning material is very academic-university style, and despite its high level, it is too scientific for high school students and therefore it is not "alive". Some of the data are out of date, there is no variety. For me, as a teacher, it is very hard to work with this book and I must devote a lot of time and energy to adapting it for my students.

What is your opinion of the learning processes and learning methods that the book encourages?

Ans: The book does not lead to or encourage learning processes and learning methods of any kind. All the work with the book depends on the initiative and effort of the teacher. The material is solely theoretical.

What is the attitude of the learning material to the student?

Ans: The attitude to the student is more like to a university student to whom you provide information, theories, models etc. and expect him to read and learn. For this reason, I think that this attitude is unsuitable for high school students where you have to expend great effort in attracting and interesting them in a book using various pedagogical means.

Does the learning material satisfy the aims, or some of the aims stated in the curriculum?

Ans: I think that the material in the book clearly suits the subjects in the curriculum and the book is actually arranged according to these subjects. On the other hand, I find it hard to see how the book encourages the aims pertaining to developing skills and values, since it does not talk directly to the students.

Does the learning material require special conditions in the school/classroom for use (such as equipment, special place, financial outlay)?

Ans: Nothing special.

Do you have any suggestions or ideas for improving the learning material in the future?

Ans: Yes. I think the teachers should be involved in the process through teacher inservice courses and as was done in one of the inservice courses, teachers prepared and presented lesson plans, including student activities, to their colleagues. I think the book should be written differently, perhaps with less material connected to knowledge and information and more aids and illustrations for the students.

Does the learning material have content matter of importance to society or to the entire community?

Ans: Yes, in my opinion leisure affects everyone and almost everything in life. Especially today, where leisure is increasing and the work week is shrinking. Leisure time can be a “blessing” or a “curse”, depending on how you utilise it. That’s why it is of supreme importance to society.

APPENDIX 7
ABRIDGED SAMPLE INTERVIEW WITH A TOURISM
TEACHER ABOUT THE RECEPTION CLERKING BOOK

Teacher's name B School 15

No. of years teaching 6 Subjects taught Reception clerking, computer applications, hotel administration and marketing

Education Senior certified teacher of tourism

What is your opinion of the quality of this learning material?

Ans: The material is very matter-of-fact and encompasses the material in the professional curriculum quite well. The material is readable and clear and organised well. Some of the chapters need to be updated, such as in bookkeeping.

What is your opinion of the learning processes and learning methods that the book encourages?

Ans: The book doesnot encourage learning methods but it does mainly contain knowledge. The book does not include questions or exercises.

What is the attitude of the learning material to the student?

Ans: As is written in the bible: "See it and accept it".

Ques: What do you mean?

Ans: There is a mass of material, mainly profession, about how the hotel functions. This includes a lot of information. The book has no logic or reasoning processes that lead up to the material.

Does the learning material satisfy the aims, or some of the aims stated in the curriculum?

Ans: It seems to since the material follows the curriculum.

Ques: And what about the aims pertaining to skills and values?

Ans: It's hard for me to see how it encourages skills, but in values, maybe, in terms of human relations, courtesy and manners.

Does the learning material require special conditions in the school/classroom for use (such as equipment, special place, financial outlay)?

Ans: Basically, no, since the material is theoretical. In our school we set up a simulated reception desk in the classroom for practice.

Do you have any suggestions or ideas for improving the learning material in the future?

Ans: Update, refresh and make it more lively. The book must be suited to the spirit of the times.

Ques: What do you mean?

Ans: Make it more lively visually with colour pictures, for example, and also make it more lively mentally, by integrating processes that make students think and act.

Does the learning material have content matter of importance to society or to the entire community?

Ans: Absolutely, since the hotel branch, and especially the functioning of the reception clerk, is very much involved with courtesy, reliability and sensitivity to others. These are very important matters for the individual and for society as a whole.

APPENDIX 8
ABRIDGED SAMPLE INTERVIEW WITH A TOURISM
TEACHER ABOUT THE RECEPTION CLERK BOOKKEEPING
EXERCISE BOOKLET

Teacher's name C School 16

No. of years teaching 6 Subjects taught Reception clearing, hotel administration
and marketing, computer applications

Education Senior certified teacher + BA

What is your opinion of the quality of this learning material?

Ans: The material is good and interesting because it encourages the students to practice things that can only be learned by practice. There is a big problem with the instructions to the student. They are too complex and not understandable. The teacher must explain what the students must do and without explanations they usually don't succeed in advancing by themselves.

What is your opinion of the learning processes and learning methods that the book encourages?

Ans: Very good.

Ques: Why?

Ans: Because the exercises stimulate thinking, understanding and internalisation of the material, and because the problems reflect those that actually exist in the hotel, professionally speaking. The book also instils the required skills and knowledge.

What is the attitude of the learning material to the student?

Ans: It treats the students like active learners because the idea is that the students can work independently and solve problems on their own steam.

Does the learning material satisfy the aims, or some of the aims stated in the curriculum?

Ans: Definitely! Especially the aims connected with professional training of the students and instilling professional skills.

Does the learning material require special conditions in the school/classroom for use (such as equipment, special place, financial outlay)?

Ans: No, because these are exercises in bookkeeping and nothing technical is required.

Do you have any suggestions or ideas for improving the learning material in the future?

Ans: The instructions should be redone. They should be attached to the exercise and be more detailed and clearer to the students. There are also a few subjects that should be updated to keep up with what's happening in the field.

Does the learning material have content matter of importance to society or to the entire community?

Ans: I don't think so, at least not beyond the matter of the professional training itself.

APPENDIX 10

Abridged version of Unit 1 of Advanced Leisure and Tourism Studies at Myerscough College

Unit 1: Investigating the leisure and tourism industries (Advanced)

This unit introduces students to the leisure and tourism industries by investigating their structures, scale, products and services, tracing their development and investigating their impact on the environment and the community. These investigations underpin the remaining units in this GNVQ providing an understanding of what constitutes leisure and what constitutes tourism.

Because of the many differences between the leisure and recreation industry and the travel and tourism industry, each of the two industries is studied separately in terms of its structure, products and services. This forms the basis for further study of the industries through the optional unit pathways. However, students should also explore links and overlaps between the two industries when investigating their structures.

This unit is divided into four elements where each one represents the basis for the next one or the continuation of the preceding element:

Element 1.1- “Investigate the structure and scale of the U.K. leisure and tourism industries”: Investigates the structure and scale of the two industries by breaking them down into component parts. It also identifies the contribution made by the public, private and voluntary sectors and examines the relationship between them.

Element 1.2 – “Explore the U.K. leisure and recreation industry and its development”: examines major steps in the development of the leisure and recreation industry, and the factors that brought about this development. This element extends the understanding of the structure of both industries, gained through Element 1.1, by identifying the products and services made available by the leisure and recreation industry. This should help students understand leisure, recreation and play and how they interact in creating demand for leisure products and services.

Element 1.3 – “Explore the U.K. travel and tourism industry and its development”: uses the same developmental approach as that used in Element 1.2 to develop students’ understanding of the travel and tourism industry.

Element 1.4 – “Investigate the impact of the U.K. leisure and tourism industries”: investigating the impact of the two industries on the environment and the community. Environmental, economic and social impacts are investigated from both the positive and the negative point of view and this analytical approach is then applied to a selected locality (Myerscough College, 1997, p. 20).

To illustrate the composition and content of the elements, an abridged form of Element 1.1 will be presented:

Element 1.1- “Investigate the structure and scale of the U.K. leisure and tourism industries

PERFORMANCE CRITERIA

A student must:

1. describe the structure of the U.K. leisure and recreation industry (travel and tourism industry) and give examples of its facilities
2. assess the scale of the leisure and tourism industries nationally
3. explain the role of the public/private/voluntary sectors and give examples of public/private/voluntary sector organisations from both industries
4. investigate the relationship between the sectors.

RANGE

Structure of the U.K. leisure and recreation industry: arts and entertainment, sports and physical activities, outdoor activities, play, heritage, catering and accommodation

Structure of the U.K. travel and tourism industry:

Travel services (retail/business travel agencies, tour operators, principals)

Tourism (national/regional tourist boards, tourist information centres, tourist attractions, guiding services, currency exchange, accommodation, catering, transport)

Assess in relation to: economy, employment

Scale of the leisure and tourism industry

Role of the public/private/voluntary sector

Investigate the relationship in terms of: dual use, joint provision, partnership, contracting, co-operative ventures.

EVIDENCE INDICATORS

A report outlining in general terms the structure and scale of the U.K. leisure and tourism industries including a broad description of the structures and examples of their facilities.

The report should also assess the scale of the two industries nationally and explain the roles of each of the three sectors using examples from both industries.

AMPLIFICATION

Structure of the U.K. leisure and recreation industry (PC1): the categories given in the range are broad categories reflecting the breadth of the industry. The categories provide students with a framework for analysing the industry. The facilities that students observe often cover more than one category, e.g., a leisure centre can provide indoor sports facilities, outdoor facilities and catering facilities.

Scale of the leisure and tourism industries (PC3) figures are likely to be imprecise, particularly in relation to parts of the leisure and recreation industry, but the most recent figures should be used to give students a broad picture of the scale and importance of these industries.

Role of the public sector and role of the private sector (PC4 and PC5) as a result of compulsory competitive tendering (CCT) the roles of the public and private sectors are becoming more interdependent.

GUIDANCE

Students may develop understanding of the two industries by sharing their experiences of leisure and recreation and of travel and tourism in group discussions. This understanding may be further developed by using appropriate information sources both inside and outside school or college.

Teachers and tutors should ensure that the full breadth of both industries is covered. They should be aware of publications available from organisations such as National and Regional Tourist Boards, Sports Council and General Household Survey.

Appendix 11

Table of Contents of the book Reception clerking (Nussbaum, 1993)

Introduction of national supervisor

Preface

Author's introduction

A. Hospitality - General background

1. Introduction
2. Types of hotels and the services they provide
3. Other types of accommodations
4. Hotel chains
5. The organisational structure of a hotel

B. Conditions for guest accommodations at a hotel

1. Criteria for classifying rooms
2. Room occupancy
3. Arrival and departure times at the hotel
4. Eating arrangements
5. Room prices

C. Reservations

1. Reservations department of the hotel
2. Potential sources of reservations
3. Receiving hotel reservations
4. Registering hotel reservations
5. Maintaining records of hotel occupancy
6. Filing hotel reservations
7. Cancelling hotel reservations
8. Entering changes in reservations
9. Group reservations
10. Overbooking
11. Allotting rooms to travel agents in the "hot season"

D. Room clerking

1. Introduction
2. Types of room status
3. Room status documents
4. Blocking rooms
5. Requests and special services
6. Stages of dealing with expected arrivals
7. Dealing with unexpected arrivals
8. Adding a guest to an occupied room
9. Dealing with group arrivals
10. Changes in accommodation details
11. Departures
12. Shift reception

E. Information

1. Areas of activity and responsibility

2. Giving information to guests
3. Dealing with mail
4. Telephone operator
5. Facsimile
6. Ordering services outside the hotel

F. Reception bookkeeping

1. Introduction
2. Types of debits and credits in the reception bookkeeping system
3. Guest invoices and securities
4. Invoice confidentiality
5. Work procedures in the reception bookkeeping system
6. Night bookkeeping
7. Computer-prepared reports

G. Cashiering

1. Areas of activity and responsibility
2. Sources of monies in the reception till
3. Means of assuring money in the till
4. Payment means
5. Work processes in the reception cashier
6. Administration of safes

H. Case analysis

1. Introduction
2. A partner to a card game
3. Recommendation
4. Old woman
5. Overbooking
6. Changing a room
7. Unexpected visit
8. The case of the suitcase
9. The unexpected guest
10. A joint invoice
11. The babysitter
12. Unwanted payment
13. Television in the lobby
14. A friend of the family
15. Mistake in take-off time
16. The missing key
17. The guest left and had a change of heart
18. Morning visit
19. Pictures in the lobby
20. Financial difficulties
21. Collecting and persuading
22. The taxi fare
23. Conversations in the reception office

Appendix: Lexicon of terms

APPENDIX 12
TABLE OF CONTENTS: RECEPTION CLERKING EXERCISE
BOOKLET IN BOOKKEEPING (Nussbaum & Duek, 1996)

1. Exercise in creating computer departments
2. Arrangement breakdown
3. Exercise in splitting service payment
4. Exercise in types of room service
5. Exercise in calculating V.A.T.
6. Exercise in preparing separate invoices
7. Exercises in preparing invoices for Israeli guests
8. Exercises in preparing invoices for guests from abroad
9. Exercise "5" for tourists
10. Exercise in tourists' invoices
11. Preparing invoices for tourists and Israelis
12. Setting credit ceilings
13. Exercises for recording cash sales
- 14-17. Exercises in correcting mistakes
- 18-19. Exercise in preparing a "trial" balance sheet
20. Exercise in departmental co-ordination
21. Exercise in "understanding reception bookkeeping procedures"
22. Exercise in matching monetary value to services
23. Exercising in creating "sub-departments"

APPENDIX 13
SAMPLE EXERCISE FROM RECEPTION CLERKING
EXERCISES IN BOOKKEEPING (Nussbaum & Duek, 1996)

You must complete the definition of the departments in the bookkeeping system of the reception office that is to operate in the reception office's computer system in your hotel.

The names of the departments were determined, as you can see in the list below. You must add to each department the following details:

- 1.1 Aim and use -for which services and/or uses is it intended
- 1.2 Credits or debits the account
- 1.3 V.A.T.:

 - 1.3.1 Requires 17% V.A.T. (until the law is changed)
 - 1.3.2 Requires 0% V.A.T. (free of V.A.T.)
 - 1.3.3 Requires 17% V.A.T. (reduces V.A.T.)

1.4 List of departments

NAME OF DEPARTMENT	DEBIT/ CREDIT	% V.A.T.	AIM OR USE OF DEPARTMENT
1.4.1 Room charge			
1.4.2 Restaurant			
1.4.3 Bar			
1.4.4 Room service			
1.4.5 Room service fee			
1.4.6. Phone			
1.4.7 Laundry			
1.4.8 Health club			
1.4.9 V.A.T.			
1.4.10 Paid out			
1.4.11 Banquets			
1.4.12 City ledger			
1.4.13 Cash			
1.4.14 Credit card			
1.4.15 Traveller cheque			
1.4.16 Deposit			
1.4.17 Adjustment			
1.4.18 Deduction			
1.4.19 Reduction			
1.4.20 Miscellaneous			
1.4.21 Valet parking			
1.4.22 Tip			

APPENDIX 14
TABLE OF CONTENTS OF CARMEL DEMO BOOKLET
(Ministry of Education and Culture, 1993)

Chapter 1 - Introduction

- a. Introduction and rationale
- b. Aims and goals
- c. General guidelines for work
- d. Description of how to perform the simulation

Chapter 2 - Entering and coding the system

- Lesson 1 - Sign in/out
- Lesson 2 - Encoding/Decoding
- Lesson 3 - Availability display

Chapter 3 - Building and saving PNR

- Lesson 1 - Components of PNR
- Lesson 2 - Booking from an availability
- Lesson 3 - Entering name field
- Lesson 4 - Entering phone field
- Lesson 5 - Entering ticket field
- Lesson 6 - Entering received field
- Lesson 7 - PNR display
- Lesson 8 - End of PNR transaction
- Lesson 9 - Closing irregular PNR
- Lesson 10 - Ignoring changes

Chapter 4 - Actions on existing PNR

- Lesson 11 - PNR retrieval by PNR address
- Lesson 12 - Amendment of PNR Cancel/Change
- Lesson 13 - Queue work

Appendices

Codes

- Airline codes
- Airport and city codes
- Country codes
- Aircraft codes

APT pages

ABC pages

Software error notifications

Commands for "Carmel" programme

APPENDIX 15
SAMPLE EXERCISE FROM THE CARMEL DEMO BOOKLET
(Ministry of Education and Culture, 1993)

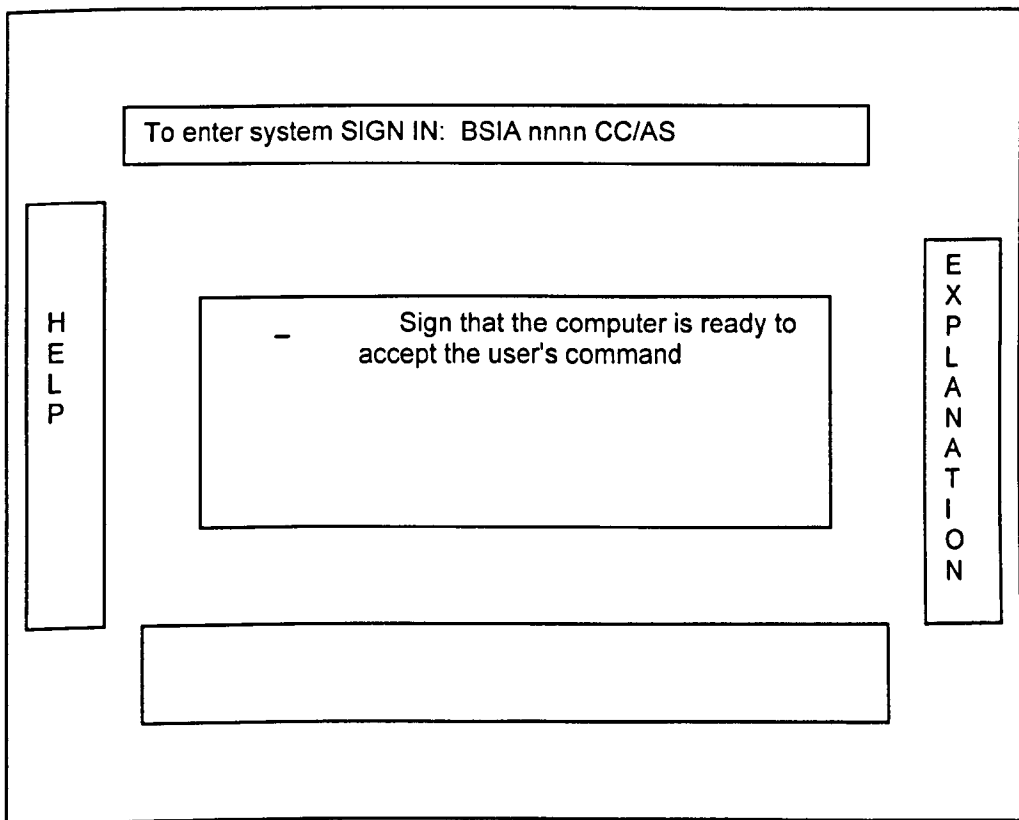
Exercise 1

Aim: Sign in to work field in the programme

Precondition: Loading Carmel Demo simulation software into computer memory

Task: Type in SIGN IN command for entry of user with code 1234CC/AS to work area.

A. Work screen



B. Explanation

1. In the work area the symbol _ tells the user that the system is ready to accept a command. This work situation is usually called START OF MESSAGE.
2. In the help window, a message will appear that directs the user to the command to be entered at this time.
3. In the explanation window a number of computer responses may appear. These follow the SIGN IN as the user entered it:
Option 1: Responses following correct entry to system
Option 2: Responses following incorrect entry/error in typing the command
Option 3: Responses following incorrect entry/Attempt to re-enter the field that has already been defined and confirmed for work in the system.

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