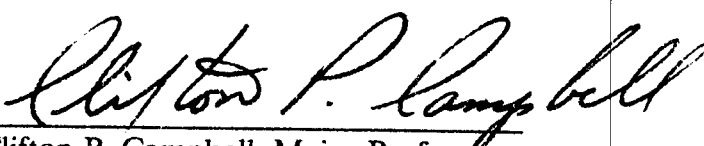
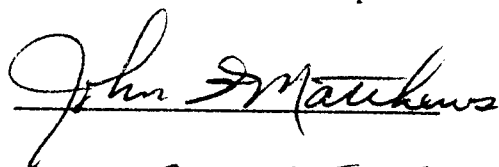


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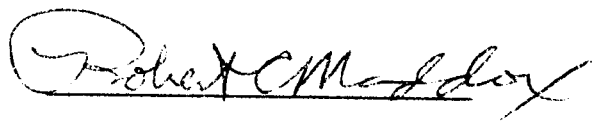
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Clifton P. Campbell, Major Professor

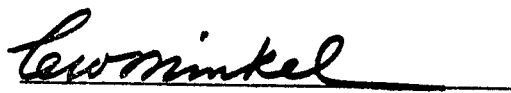
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and recommend its acceptance:







Accepted for the Council:


Associate Vice Chancellor
and Dean of The Graduate School

AN EVALUATION OF THE CORE CURRICULUM
OF THE
COUNCIL ON HOTEL, RESTAURANT AND INSTITUTIONAL EDUCATION
ACCREDITATION STANDARDS

A Dissertation
Presented for the
Doctor of Education
Degree
The University of Tennessee

Mark McGrath

August, 1993

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DEDICATION

This dissertation is dedicated to the special people that accompanied the author from the beginning to the end of this journey:

Suzanne E. and Matthew R.

J. Robert and Jeanne

Sister Maria Elizabeth

Bob and Lorie

Cathy

Patti and Dale

Drs. Betsy Haughton and John Bushore

Dr. Carol Costello

A traveler may choose from many roads. The author is thankful to these people for their support in his choice. Although it was a long, and frequently bumpy road, the scenery was marvelous.

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ABSTRACT

This study determined that the core curriculum for Hospitality Administration, as outlined in the Accreditation Standards of the Council on Hotel, Restaurant and institutional Education, for four-year, baccalaureate degree granting hospitality programs, provides the knowledge graduates need for entry-level food service management positions, as perceived by food service administrators. Randomly selected members (n=484) of the National Restaurant Association were surveyed by mail following Dillman's methods. Completed questionnaires were returned by 244 of the selected members, for a response rate of 50%. Respondents' perceptions of subject area importance and appropriate learning format for the subjects served as dependent variables. Independent variables were gender, age, industry segment in which employed, years of management experience, level of responsibility, level of education, and for those with at least a four-year degree, type of school from which they graduated. Frequency distributions, anova, and chi square were used to determine level of importance, learning format, and if significant differences existed within independent variables.

Results suggest almost unanimous agreement that the subject areas Operations Management, Human Resource Management, Accounting and Marketing are highly important. Hospitality Law, Financial Management, and Organization Theory were found to be moderately to highly important. Specialization, Administrative Processes, Quantitative Methods, Economics, and Ethical Considerations were found to be moderately important. History was the only

subject area found to be of moderate to low importance.

Over 60% of the respondents felt that school was the most appropriate learning format for the subject areas History, Marketing, Accounting, Financial Management, Economics, Hospitality Law, and Quantitative Methods. About 55% of the respondents felt that school was the most appropriate learning format for the subject areas Ethical Considerations, Organization Theory and Administrative Processes. Fifty-two percent of the respondents felt on-the-job was the most appropriate learning format for the subject areas Human Resource Management and Specialization. Respondents were almost evenly split between the formats on-the-job and school for the subject area Operations Management.

The core curriculum in the CHRIE Accreditation Standards appears to have the potential to provide the knowledge graduates need for entry-level food service management positions.

KEY WORDS: Accreditation; Evaluation; CHRIE; Food service managers

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

The preparation of students for careers in the hospitality industry by baccalaureate degree granting institutions has grown immensely in the past 15 years (Riegel, 1991, p. 5). A Guide to College Programs in Hospitality and Tourism 1991-1992 listed the number of universities offering a degree in hospitality management or a related field at more than 140 (Council on Hotel, Restaurant and Institutional Education [CHRIE], 1991). Riegel (1991) stated, "Most programs experience outstanding placement rates for graduates and more and more hospitality and tourism organizations are seeking candidates with degrees [baccalaureate] for management positions" (p. 6). University placement offices report high placement rates for hospitality graduates, even during sluggish economic periods. The combination of a large number of programs, reported enrollments of 100 to 1200 (CHRIE, 1991), and high placement reports means that a large number of graduates are entering the hospitality industry every year.

Inherent to growth of such magnitude, in both number and size of programs, is the question of quality of graduates. Those involved in the educational process have, or will, at some time, asked this very question. There are many ways to answer the question of quality, but one of the most common is by evaluating the resources, curriculum, and faculty involved in the process. Typically, this is done through an accreditation process. While educators and managers employed in the hospitality industry generally agree on the basic definition of a hospitality program,

their definitions of curriculum and teaching methods vary greatly. This debate has been ongoing since Cornell University began the first hospitality education program in the United States in 1922 (CHRIE, 1991, p. 224). When only a few hospitality programs were in operation, comparing program curricula, and objectives was much simpler. According to Sally Conway (personal communication, April 1, 1993), Director of Operations for The Council on Hotel, Restaurant and Institutional Education (CHRIE), in the 1940's only about a dozen hospitality programs existed. "In the mid 1970's, there were approximately 40 four-year [baccalaureate] programs in the U.S. that offered degrees in hospitality management" (Riegel, 1991, p. 6). Now that service industries have assumed economic leadership in the United States, accounting for 70% of the nation's income (Heskett, 1987), and hospitality programs are growing, program content and quality are very diversified (Marshall, 1988).

Quality has been a concern of students, parents, and the industry, as well as university administrators and state legislators who evaluate programs from a budgetary standpoint. Beginning in the 1940's the emphasis of educators' concern shifted from the quantity of available education to the quality (Zito, 1982/1983, p. 1). With this shift came the development of innovations in curricula and models for their evaluation (Domanico, 1976, p. 17). The federal role in modern education grew in the 1950's and 60's, "because of massive increases in federal funding of institutions and of student assistance" (Harcleroad, 1980a, p. 7). "This marked the end of an era in evaluation and the beginning of profound changes

that would see evaluation expand as an industry and into a profession dependent on taxpayer monies for support" (Madaus, Stufflebeam, & Scriven, 1983, p. 11). The 1960's saw a shift to equal educational opportunities and quality education for deprived or disadvantaged students. "The increase in number and variety of current curricular options in education emerged from the legacy of the 1950's and 1960's" (Zito, 1982/1983, p. 2). Evaluation of these options was sought by educators as well as government officials. This resulted in the present emphasis on post-secondary educational accountability.

History repeated itself as hospitality education matured. Industry organizations like the American Hotel and Motel Association (AHMA) and the National Restaurant Association (NRA) supported the idea of program evaluation (Marshall, 1988; "Industry Educators," 1988). Hospitality educators saw a need for evaluation and in 1982, through CHRIE, created an accreditation program for baccalaureate degree granting hospitality programs. By January, 1993, more than 65 of the 135-plus CHRIE member institutions had registered to participate in the accreditation process and 15 programs were accredited (Staff, 1993).

Standards for accreditation were published in the CHRIE Handbook of Accreditation. Seven areas for evaluation, including curriculum, were outlined. A common core was outlined within the curriculum standards. The core was broken into three areas: (a) General Education, (b) Hospitality Administration, and (c) Work Experience (CHRIE, 1989a).

CHRIE chose the accreditation goal-based model (Conrad & Wilson, 1985, p.

20) and used the self-study method as the basis for the evaluation (CHRIE, 1989b; Tanke, 1985b). The model and method focus on determining if programs meet their objectives. Many objectives contained in the CHRIE accreditation program were identified initially by Tanke in her 1984 dissertation, Accreditation Criteria for Hospitality Management Curriculum. Hospitality education administrators and lodging industry human resource managers were queried as to what subject areas should be included in the curriculum of a hospitality program (Tanke, 1984/1985a, pp. 39 & 40). While education was represented by hospitality program administrators, and the hospitality industry was represented by lodging human resource managers, faculty and other segments of the hospitality industry were not included. The largest number of baccalaureate hospitality programs were a part of "Home Economics" schools or colleges (Schmelzer, Costello, Blalock, & Meszaros, 1989, p. 54). Most of these programs grew out of the traditional nutrition, dietetics, or institutional food service programs. As a result, many hospitality programs have a food service base. Tanke (1984/1985a, p. 111) recommended that the food service and tourism segments of the hospitality industry, as well as hospitality program faculty, should be included as additional subject samples.

Statement of the Problem

The problem of this study was to determine if baccalaureate degree granting hospitality programs which follow the CHRIE accreditation standards adequately prepare graduates for entry-level management positions in the food service industry. Research literature did not show a relationship between the accreditation standards and food service management job requirements. To be meaningful and useful, accreditation standards should relate to the job needs of the industry the graduates will serve.

Statement of Purpose

The purpose of this study was to determine if the subject areas contained in the Hospitality Administration section of the CHRIE Accreditation Standards for baccalaureate degree granting hospitality programs: (a) provide hospitality graduates with needed knowledge for entry-level food service management positions; and (b) should be learned by the individual (outside the job and school), on-the-job, or in school, as perceived by food service administrators.

Statement of Need

The results of this study would assist the researcher in evaluating the hospitality curriculum at The University of Tennessee. This could result in an improved curriculum, better-prepared graduates, and improved student recruitment. In turn, this would translate into greater satisfaction of graduates and

employers. The results could be of interest to administrators of other hospitality programs for the same reasons.

Members of CHRIE and administrators of the accreditation program would be interested in the results of this study to further evaluate the accreditation standards. Evaluation of any or all components of the accreditation program, on a continuous basis, would assist CHRIE in maintaining relevant standards.

The results of this study could lead food service administrators to: (a) encourage hospitality programs to modify their curricula, (b) be more supportive of hospitality programs, or (c) have more confidence in the knowledge base of hospitality program graduates.

This study could also assist hospitality program administrators and educators as well as food service administrators in determining optimum teaching/training roles, or, at least, lead to further study of their roles.

Research Questions

1. How important is the core curriculum, as a whole, to the needs of an entry-level food service manager?
2. How important is each of the subject areas in the core curriculum to the needs of an entry-level food service manager?
3. Do any of the demographic factors defining the administrators affect their perceived importance of the subject areas in the core curriculum?

4. Where should subject areas of the core curriculum be learned: (a) individually, (b) on-the-job, or (c) school?

5. Do the seven demographic factors defining the administrators affect their perceptions of the appropriate learning format for any subject areas in the core curriculum?

Statement of Hypotheses

It was hypothesized that:

1. There is no relationship between the perceptions of subject area importance by food service administrators and the demographic factors.
2. There is no relationship between the perceptions of subject area learning format by food service administrators and the demographic factors.

Rationale for the Study

The CHRIE accreditation program was implemented for the first time in 1991. The criteria included in the program were developed from the results of a study of the lodging industry, not including the food service industry. A large number of hospitality administration programs grew from commercial or institutional food service programs. Food service is a major component of most hospitality administration programs (Schmelzer et al., 1989). Numerous and varied career opportunities are available in the food service industry for graduates of hospitality administration programs. "Regardless of the field of specialization, it is generally

assumed that a basic purpose of a college education is to provide the learner with the competencies that will best assist her/him in performing effectively in industry, immediately upon graduation and in the distant future" (Tanke, 1984/1985a, p. 8).

The number of hospitality administration programs has increased rapidly during the past 20 years. There is a great variation among the curricula of these programs. Many segments of society are interested in program evaluation. Sagan (1974) indicated that sizable segments of society believe that colleges and universities do not contribute effectively to the goals for which funds have been allocated.

Curriculum standards are a key component of the accreditation process. The CHRIE accreditation program needs curriculum standards that meet the requirements of education and industry. Hospitality education program administrators and the lodging industry were included in the research that was the basis for the current core curriculum standards. Most hospitality administration programs cover the lodging, food service, and travel industries. Including evaluation of the core curriculum by the food service industry would provide a more thorough and representative assessment of industry feedback and could be very insightful for the further development of an accreditation design (Tanke, 1984/1985a, p. 111).

Definition of Terms

The following terms are defined operationally to lend clarity and understanding to this study:

Accreditation: a voluntary process in which recognition is granted to educational programs "for a level of performance, integrity, and quality which entitles them to the confidence of the educational community and the public they serve" (The Council on Postsecondary Accreditation [COPA], 1990, p. 3).

AHMA: an acronym for the American Hotel and Motel Association.

CHRIE: an acronym for The Council on Hotel, Restaurant and Institutional Education. The primary professional organization to which hospitality educators belong and the body responsible for the planning, development, and implementation of the accreditation process for programs in hospitality administration.

COPA: an acronym for The Council on Postsecondary Accreditation. The umbrella organization that provides recognition to CHRIE as the accrediting body for hospitality administration programs.

Core curriculum: the hospitality administration subject areas included in the Handbook of Accreditation: contains the core curriculum for CHRIE accreditation (CHRIE, 1989a, p. 8).

Criteria: the foundation upon which educational evaluation occurs. Criteria are developed and defined by the accrediting body. "Criteria" is synonymous with "goals", "objectives", and "standards".

Curriculum: the specified courses, sequence, and requirements designated for a baccalaureate degree in a hospitality administration program.

Educational evaluation: the selection of educational phenomena, the description of the phenomena, and the judgment of worth or merit of the phenomena.

Entry-level manager: typically, the initial job assigned to a recent college graduate.

Food service industry: the sub-segment of the hospitality industry that is involved in commercial production and service of food.

Hospitality administration core curriculum: same as core curriculum excluding General Education and Work Experience.

Hospitality administration program: any college or university unit granting a baccalaureate degree in the hospitality management field.

Hospitality educator: a current member of the faculty of a program, department, school, or college that grants a baccalaureate degree in the hospitality management field.

Hospitality industry: includes the hospitable and social enterprises of food service, lodging, and tourism.

Importance: the value or worth of the subject areas as determined by the mean scores of the respondents on the 7-point Likert-type scale anchored by least important (1) and most important (7).

Key member: approximately 18,000 of the 100,000 members of the National Restaurant Association that meet the requirements of manager, owner, corporate executive, or other designated person for an operation that is a member of the NRA.

Learning format: the place and style in which education or training occurs, defined as: (a) individual, (b) on-the-job, and (c) school.

NRA: an acronym for the National Restaurant Association. Membership includes current and retired employees, managers, owners, and stockholders of commercial and non-commercial food service operations as well as suppliers, educators, and students associated with the food service industry.

Limitations

The following limitations are inherent in this study.

1. Only the hospitality administration section of the CHRIE core curriculum standards were used in the survey instrument. The General Education section was not included due to the vastness of subject matter that could be included. The Work Experience section was not included because the subject matter may or may not be gained through formal coursework. Work experience may be a non-academic requirement.

2. Respondents were limited to choosing one of the learning formats listed on the survey: (a) on-the-job, (b) school, or (c) individual. The researcher acknowledges that other formats may exist, or that there is potential overlap, and that respondents may feel a combination of formats would be ideal.

Delimitations

The following delimitations are acknowledged in this study.

1. Only individuals who are key members of the National Restaurant Association were included in the population. Therefore, the sample is limited by the representative nature of the organization, its membership registration requirements, and its database management system. The researcher had no control over the sample or the method by which it was drawn.

2. The knowledge statements used in the questionnaire were defined through an industry expert panel, based on the CHRIE accreditation curriculum standards for hospitality administration, in an effort to clarify statement meanings for respondents. Data gathered may not be generalizable to the CHRIE standards.

CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

The purpose of this chapter was to review the literature and research relevant to accreditation of hospitality education. The focus was on the goals of the accreditation program, including its roots in curriculum evaluation. Specifically, the differing perspectives of curriculum evaluation, the role of evaluation in the accreditation process, and the background of hospitality accreditation have been reviewed.

Curriculum Evaluation

In his historical summary of accreditation, Harclerod (1980a) stated that first accrediting agency was the New York Board of Regents, established in 1787 as an evaluating board for King's College (p. 20). Since then, the use and study of curriculum evaluation have increased. Many theories and models have been developed, attempting to provide insight and guidance into the evaluation process. Ongoing research has tested and refined existing theories and models and has sought new answers. Andrews and Goodson (1980) reported that at least 40 different evaluation models have been documented in the literature. To categorize or link all of them would be difficult. Some evolved from earlier findings, while others were derived by looking at evaluation from differing perspectives. Research to support each model was based on assumptions.

Because of the varying freedoms allowed, finding an actual situation that fits

all of a model's assumptions would be difficult. Typically, when a program, institution, or organization considers evaluation, the situation or need dictates which model or theory to use. According to Haggart and Rapp (1973), "Examination of the literature reveals no clear-cut evaluation methodology that fits all evaluation needs" (p. 2). If models don't fit every need, what are the researchers after?

Daniel Stufflebeam, in James Popham's Evaluation in Education (1975), defined educational evaluation as "the process of delineating, obtaining and providing useful information for judging decision alternatives" (p. 121). He then listed the four kinds of decisions that can be made as (a) context evaluation--identifying unmet needs, (b) input evaluation--projecting and analyzing alternative procedural designs, (c) process evaluation--monitoring project operations, and (d) product evaluation--identifying and assessing project results. Stufflebeam's definition makes decision-making the primary role of evaluation.

Jenkins (1976), from an unpublished address by Hugh Sockett, identified four central features to curricular evaluation: (a) Evaluation is appraisal in which we make judgments; (b) such judgments are made in the light of criteria; (c) criteria issue from, and are appropriate to, particular contexts; and (d) such contexts embody human purposes and evaluations made and, therefore, inform decisions (p. 9). While decision-making may be an important part of educational evaluation, it implies action. Not everyone agrees that this is the sole purpose of evaluation.

Sara Steele (1989) wrote that evaluation can focus on proof of effect, judgment against criteria, critical questions, and valuing. Decision-making would not have to be included for these to be complete or worthwhile. As Haggart and Rapp (1973) stated, evaluation can help in answering questions regarding quality, cost, alternatives, and achievement. Finding these answers may or may not lead to action. Robert Stakes (1981) listed four main purposes of evaluation to: (a) determine the degree to which program objectives were met, (b) identify reasons for success or failure, (c) improve future programs, and (d) improve organizational operations. The first two purposes resemble Steele's in some ways. Evaluating against objectives could be purely evaluative in nature or could lead to a decision. Items (c) and (d) are more action-oriented, to facilitate improvements. As David Jenkins (1976) emphasized, evaluation and decision-making are not necessarily connected. Their relationship depends on the purpose, occasion, and audience.

While the purpose of evaluation seems to be a combination of information-gathering and decision-making, determining what should be evaluated is much more complex. Robert Stakes (1981) listed five program aspects that evaluators should question. The first, effort, is defined as the resources available, the energy and activity involved. The second, process, is the factors that determine the success of the program. The third, effects, are the results of effort and process. The fourth, adequacy, is the extent to which the program solves the problem, meets the need, and/or achieves the goal that was identified before the program was initiated. The last, efficiency, is the question that asks whether the output or

results were achieved through the "best" use of resources or inputs.

Kirkpatrick (1983) placed evaluation in a time context, dividing it into four related stages: (a) reaction, (b) learning, (c) behavior, and (d) results. Reaction is an evaluation that occurs during the teaching/learning process; it is made by the participants, facilitators, and others involved. These evaluations describe how people "feel" about the process, environment, content, and so forth, while it is occurring. Learning evaluation occurs immediately upon the conclusion of a program. Again, anyone involved in the process could be involved. What did the participants learn in the program? The behavior stage evaluates the program after it has been completed. Did those involved in the program experience short-term and long-term changes? The final stage, results, evaluates the impact of the participants on the organization. Kirkpatrick did not place any level of value on the stages. In fact, he indicated that the program objectives would determine which stage was appropriate. He also suggested that learning is more difficult to evaluate than reaction, behavior more difficult than learning, and that results are the most difficult of the four to evaluate. Because of the passage of time and the influence of outside factors, determining direct causal relationships between behavior or impact changes and the program would be difficult.

Michael Scriven (1983) described another model that answers the question, "What should be evaluated?" This model is known as "goal-free evaluation". He noted that, "for the evaluators to be aware of the goals of the program is for them to be given a strong perceptual bias in a particular direction, which, in conjunction

with whatever positive or negative effect they possess for the program, unleashes the possibility of a distorted perception of the results" (p. 237). Scriven (1975) believed that identifying and properly judging actual results, whether planned or not, is the main concern.

Tyler (1949), in one of the first evaluation models proposed, suggests that a program's own objectives are the only basis for evaluation. "The process of evaluation is essentially the process of determining to what extent the educational objectives are actually being realized by the program of curriculum and instruction" (p. 105). If a program goal is for participants to attain a predetermined score on an end-of-the-event test, then that is what should be evaluated. Sarah Steele (1989) summarized and then questioned this notion: "Its strong emphasis on management by objectives assumes that the only important consideration is whether the program did what it said it would ... Evaluation needs to consider much more than the attainment of objectives" (p. 261). Jenkins (1976) summarized Hugh Sockett's belief, that as conditions and programs proceed, we modify or even abandon pre-specified goals for a number of reasons. Objectives are just one element considered in evaluation.

Another prominent theory concerning what should be evaluated is Scriven's formative/summative model. Haggart and Rapp (1973), in summarizing Scriven's model, defined formative and summative to mean evaluation of the process and product, respectively. Evaluation of process would include the resources, methods, environment, facilitator, and other related factors. Kirkpatrick's reaction

stage or a student's mid-term evaluation of an instructor are examples of formative evaluation.

Haggart and Rapp (1973) continued describing Scriven's model in stating, "Summative evaluation looks at the product of the process after the program is completed. This end-of-program evaluation provides more tangible evidence about the program's product. Did the program achieve its objectives?" (p. 2).

Steele's (1989) view was that, "Although the distinction between the concepts of formative evaluation as evaluating while a program is in process to improve the program and summative evaluation as evaluating the completed program for accountability has blurred over the past twenty years, summative evaluation is still more relevant to accountability" (p. 261). This opinion follows the increased emphasis of the objective-based model in educational evaluation. Steele also wrote, "Summative evaluation is designed to (a) account for program decisions and investments, (b) identify ways to enhance future offerings, and (c) determine further needs" (p. 262).

As noted earlier, evaluation results are requested and used by many audiences. For example, Steele (1989) wrote that (a) administrators need evaluation that summarizes quality, results, and value of programs; (b) federal and state administrators need information that summarizes programs carried out in many locations; (c) teachers are primarily interested in quality and results of their own work; and (d) participants are interested in understanding their progress in relation to that of others (p. 261). These reasons for pursuing educational

evaluation appear to be substantial. However, as David Jenkins (1976) stated, "Evaluation is beginning to appear as a branch of sophistry, with evaluations used as political weapons to attack and defend, to build or destroy reputations and to make money" (p. 11).

Many theories and models advocate methods, goals, and reasons for educational evaluation. The actual activities involved in evaluation are determined by the theory or model. Steele (1989) found that "Evaluation includes four major kinds of activities: (a) program review, (b) evaluative studies, (c) continuous monitoring, and (d) reflections on experience" (p. 267). While Steele viewed objectives as only one part of evaluation, she found that judgment against criteria (objectives) was one of the most traditional approaches in use. She wrote, "This focus is illustrated in accreditation, personnel evaluation, and behavioral objectives" (Steele, 1989, p. 268). This approach would be reflected in the first evaluation activity, program review. "Program reviews are sometimes called program assessment or accreditation" (Steele, 1989, p. 267).

Accreditation Process

Accreditation is a voluntary process, one in which formal evaluation occurs, and where recognition may be granted to educational programs that meet or exceed established standards of educational qualities (Tanke, 1985b). "The delicate job of educational accreditation, therefore, is to evaluate the quality of institutions and programs while preserving and even fostering their inherent

autonomy and creativity" (Young & Chambers, 1980, p. 90). The Council on Postsecondary Accreditation (COPA) Handbook (1990) stated the purposes of accreditation: to (a) foster excellence; (b) encourage improvement; (c) "assure the educational community, the general public, and other agencies or organizations that an institution or program has clearly defined and appropriate objectives, maintains conditions under which their achievement can reasonably be expected, is in fact accomplishing them substantially, and can be expected to continue to do so" (p. 4); (d) provide counsel and assistance to programs; and (e) protect institutions from encroachments which might jeopardize their effectiveness or academic freedom. "Public as well as educational needs must be served simultaneously in determining and fostering standards of quality and integrity in the institutions and such specialized programs as they offer ... [in the United States, accreditation] provides a major means for meeting those needs" (COPA, 1990, p. 4), and provides a basis upon which comparisons can be made, for a multitude of purposes.

Evaluation is an important part of accreditation, but it is not accreditation's sole purpose. Tanke (1985b) identified three purposes of higher education accreditation:

1. Identification of programs that meet predetermined levels of quality
2. Encouragement to improve educational standards

3. Protection against internal and external forces, political or other. One political force, the federal government, is having a greater impact on accreditation, through its "listing" process of programs eligible for funding (pp. 41 & 42)

Harclerod (1980b) added two purposes: (a) protection of the education consumer's rights, and (b) realization of social equity goals. In other words, programs should be evaluated for internal improvements and external comparisons.

Organizations, such as COPA, were established to facilitate the development of standards for external comparisons. Tanke (1984/1985a) in describing COPA, stated, "The purpose of COPA is to help maintain the balance of the total accrediting process, monitor its relationship to government interests, and increase the awareness and understanding of the various publics concerned with the soundness of institutions and their programs" (p. 24). Zito's (1982/1983) view of external comparisons was from a consumer's perspective in that "... it is hoped that systematic examination of compliance with established standards supports public confidence in the quality of professional education and the competence of practice" (p. 14).

Conrad and Wilson (1985) found the objective or goal-based model to be the oldest evaluation model used in higher education (p. 20). Accreditation programs using this model typically included standards for curriculum materials, content, and balance. Tanke (1985b) believed that these standards serve as the required minimum level of quality for educational institutions and/or programs seeking

accreditation status (p. 39). Young and Chambers (1980) felt that accreditation focused on institutional integrity, a judgment as to whether the institution is what it says it is, and educational quality, the comparison of an institution's own scope and purpose against defined standards for similar institutions. In 1983, Young wrote that one of accreditation's primary goals is to foster excellence through the development of criteria and guidelines for assessing it.

Opinions differed as to whether accreditation should be defined as formative or summative evaluation. Conrad and Wilson's (1985) viewpoint was that, "As used in academic program reviews, most goal-based evaluations seem to be summative" (p. 22). Tanke (1986) wrote, "The focus of accreditation standards has historically been process-oriented [formative] as opposed to oriented to products, results, or output [summative]" (p. 42). Harclerod's (1980b) view was, "Formative, internal program evaluation reports 'belong' usually to faculty involved in a program and are designed to be of service to them. Summative, external program reports 'belong' to outside decision makers, usually agencies with funding decisions to make" (p. 3). It appears that the accreditation process may include both formative and summative evaluation. Depending on the accreditation program and agency, it probably includes both.

Programs that prepare individuals for entry into professional careers are included in specialized or programmatic accreditation. Young and Chambers (1980) described some of the characteristics of specialized accreditation, "Although specialized accreditation is similar to institutional accreditation in that it also

involves an internal self-study and an external peer review, it focuses more on assuring that students have been exposed to certain learning experiences, professional practices, and common bodies of knowledge presumed to be necessary for professional practice" (p. 79). Tanke (1985b) found a number of professions that link licensure of practitioners with graduation from an accredited program (p. 43).

Hagerty and Stark (1989) saw specialized accreditation playing an important role in identifying and encouraging minimal standards of program quality. Young (1983) indicated that external validation of quality by appropriate professional groups (a) fosters continued excellence, (b) assures the public of program quality, (c) provides programs with internal negotiation leverage, (d) promotes inter-institutional communication, and (e) enhances the prestige and credibility of the professional program.

Selden and Porter (1977) found an increase in the number of specialized accrediting agencies since 1952. This was due, in part, to the availability of federal funds for programs recognized by an accepted agency. In 1975, a number of groups merged into The Council on Postsecondary Accreditation (COPA): the National Commission on Accrediting, with its constituent specialized accrediting associations; the Federation of Regional Accrediting Commissions of Higher Education; and several other already-operating national accrediting associations (Harclerod, 1980b). In 1983, Glidden found that about 50 specialized accrediting agencies existed. The COPA Handbook (1990) listed 60 specialized accrediting

agencies. Young (1979) stated that COPA, of which The Council of Hotel, Restaurant and Institutional Educators (CHRIE) was a member, had five major priorities, one of which was evaluating educational quality and measuring outcomes of education.

The accreditation process has some drawbacks and shortcomings (Lenn, 1989; Phillips, 1981; Uehling, 1987). Hagerty and Stark (1989) concluded that little evidence has been gathered showing a relationship between accreditation standards and educational excellence in professional education programs. Tanke (1986) found that much of the criticism of the accreditation process was due to the apparent lack of emphasis on student needs or benefits.

Since the accreditation process, to a great extent, was based on predetermined standards and objectives, it was a process that took a great deal of time to plan and implement. Steele (1989) wrote, "The focus on criteria is a static approach to evaluation in that the criteria usually are difficult to change" (p. 268). Zito (1982/1983) listed three concerns about the accreditation process:

1. The evaluative criteria are loosely constructed and arbitrary.
2. Educators and industry differ significantly concerning the requirements for a baccalaureate degree and for entry-level positions.
3. Development and refinement of standards lack practitioner input.

While these concerns may have some validity, the accreditation process is often used to evaluate higher education (p. 7).

Hospitality Accreditation

Heskett (1987) found that service industries had assumed the load in economic leadership in the United States, accounting for 70% of the nation's income and three-fourths of its non-foreign jobs. One result of this has been rapid expansion during the last 20 years of baccalaureate degree granting hospitality management programs. Riegel (1991) reported that "in the mid 1970's, there were approximately 40 four-year programs in the U.S. that offered degrees in hospitality management ... CHRIE estimates that there are now almost 170 hospitality programs granting baccalaureate degrees" (p. 6). Expansion has created a number of challenges. "The hospitality management field is currently suffering growing pains brought on by rapid development in the industry and the proliferation of university programs in this area" (Williams, 1990, p. 72). Marshall (1988) concluded that the expansion had also resulted in a great diversity of quality among such programs.

This diversity of quality has caught the attention and concern of many. Williams (1990) found both industry and educators were seriously concerned about whether students were being properly prepared for the field. Industry is an active partner in program development and evaluation. Managers in the hospitality industry continue to provide advice and basic information as to whether a program is academically sound (Swan, cited in Marshall, 1988). Although those in the hospitality industry and hospitality educators were concerned, Williams (1990) concluded, "While educators want the industry to play a major role in developing

curriculum, they are naturally unwilling to lose basic control of what is to be taught to future practitioners" (p. 74). In "Dean's Roundtable: The Future of Hospitality Education" (Lefever, 1989), nine hospitality program deans disagreed over the issue of accreditation. On one hand, accreditation was seen as an opportunity for introspection and improvement. The opposing view was "that accreditation would become a straitjacket that would choke off educators' incentives for innovation" (p. 46).

In a summary on the history of hospitality accreditation, Tanke (1984/1985a) stated that in 1982, educators, through The Council on Hotel, Restaurant and Institutional Education (CHRIE), began investigating the feasibility and practicality of an accreditation process. The need for an accreditation process was apparent to both educators and the industry (Williams, 1990). Tanke (1984/1985a), in her dissertation, provided the foundation from which the CHRIE accreditation standards were developed. Schmelzer et al. (1989) pointed out the need, stating "Although voluntary accreditation of hospitality programs is nearing implementation, at present there are no quality standards established by which to measure hospitality programs" (p. 58). Tanke (1984/1985a) stated that her dissertation "was undertaken specifically, to examine the reactions of baccalaureate degree granting college hospitality management educators and hospitality industry representatives to proposed criteria which would then be used to develop accreditation standards, and facilitate other subsequent accreditation decision-making" (p. 5). The curriculum standards included in CHRIE's self-study guide

(1989b) reflected the results of Tanke's dissertation. In 1990 the final accreditation standards were published and programs were invited to request participation in the accreditation process.

There have been many opinions concerning the content and emphasis of hospitality education curricula. In one study, Damonte and Vaden (1987) found that "Data suggest greater emphasis should be placed on service management in HRA educational programs" (p. 51). Meyer, Tse and Olsen (1987) reported that hospitality curricula did not require enough Human Resource courses. Bareham and Jones (1988) concluded that people skills of hospitality managers were becoming increasingly important and that hospitality educators had not sufficiently emphasized them in either the course content or the teaching methods. In another study, Tas (1987) found that entry-level hotel management trainees deemed human relations skills as essential; management processes of planning, organizing, leading, and controlling as considerably important; and financial management, law, food sanitation and safety, room reservation management, and guest room maintenance standards as important.

Many hospitality educators have addressed the question, "What subject areas need to be included in a hospitality curriculum?". Unfortunately, they often have focused only on their area of expertise or have attempted to support a position and thereby concluded that certain subject areas were not included satisfactorily (Brymer & Pavesic, 1990; Casado, 1991; Krohn & Ahmed, 1991; Meyer, Tse & Olsen, 1987; O'Halloran, 1991a; Pavesic, 1991; Schrock & Schrock, 1991; Tas,

1987; Warner, 1991 & 1992). Or, due to changes affecting the hospitality industry, educators saw the need to include in hospitality curriculum new topics such as the AIDS disease and its ramifications (Lazarus, 1990). Overall, Williams (1990) found, "Accreditation is embraced in the struggle to decide whether hospitality educators should train or educate" (p. 76).

Industry input is important in the development of accreditation standards in professional programs (Marshall, 1988; Tanke, 1984/1985a; Williams, 1990; Zito, 1982/1983). Tanke (1984/1985a) surveyed the hospitality industry, but she reported findings based only on the lodging industry subpopulation. The food service subpopulation was not included in the findings of her study due to the low rate of return from that segment. She recommended that, "The subpopulation of food service should be included as an additional subject sample and as means for comparing the findings in this study" (p. 111).

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

Population and Sample

The target population for this study was all food service administrators in the United States. However, identifying this population in order to draw a random sample was impossible. Therefore, members of the National Restaurant Association (NRA) were chosen as a representative body of all food service administrators. The NRA, with more than 100,000 members, is the largest association representing the food service industry. The membership of the NRA represents (a) all segments of the food service industry; (b) owners of food service operations; (c) all levels of food service administrators; (d) hourly employees; (e) food service suppliers, known as allied members; (f) faculty and students associated with food service education; and (g) retirees of the previous categories (S. Boyette, personal communication, April 1, 1993).

Using the table of sample sizes developed by Wunsch (1986) a list of 500 randomly selected members was requested from the NRA's membership office. A computer-generated, random sample of 500 key members was received. The NRA membership office explained that the key members would be (a) more interested in the study, and therefore more likely to respond; (b) in decision-making positions, and thus concerned with the qualifications of management trainees; and (c) more likely than non-key members to be still employed by the

company listed. The NRA key membership list includes about 18,000 of the more than 100,000 regular NRA members. The research questions of this study were answered using the data-collecting instrument completed by key NRA members from this sample.

Questionnaire Development

The data collection questionnaire's content was based on information gathered from a number of sources. The first source was the dissertation by Dr. Mary L. Tanke (1984/1985a), which was the basis for the CHRIE accreditation standards. For her study, Tanke gathered data from hospitality education administrators, lodging industry human resource managers, and food service industry representatives. However, due to the low number of responses, data from the food service industry was not considered in her results.

Zito (1982/1983) reported in his doctoral dissertation the perceptions of Missouri recreation professionals on the accreditation standards of the Recreation, Leisure Services and Resource Education National Council. The purpose of Zito's research and his research questions were similar to those of this study. His Standard Relevancy Opinionnaire and Professional Information Questionnaire (Zito, 1982/1983, pp. 73-75) were used as models for the initial development of the survey instrument for this study.

Literature on questionnaire development and mail surveys was reviewed. Don Dillman's total design method (1978) was chosen as a model (pp. 160-199).

Dillman's method was the most inclusive model found and included most elements suggested by other sources (Best, 1977; W.A. Cameron, personal communication, April 20, 1989; C.P. Campbell, personal communication, September 21, 1990; Gregg, 1989; Heath, 1987; Tuckman, 1972;). Dillman specified questionnaire format, style, length, content, testing methodology, distribution methodology, and a distribution and collection timetable. Dillman's model addressed validity and reliability, as well as the key objective, a high response rate.

Personal interviews were held with research experts and fellow doctoral students in the Departments of Technological and Adult Education and Nutrition at The University of Tennessee. These individuals acted as an informal panel of experts on the structure, clarity, accuracy, and relevancy of the survey instrument.

Subject area descriptions were developed, following the Delphi method described by Weaver (1988), with the assistance of a panel of five experts familiar with the CHRIE accreditation process¹(Appendix A). A list of descriptive words further defining the subject areas contained in the Self-study Guide (CHRIE, 1989b, p. 9) was compiled, sent to panel members for editing, revised, then returned to panel members for further editing. This process was repeated twice, until all members agreed on the descriptors.

The survey instrument was critiqued by officials and/or officers of CHRIE, the NRA, and the East Tennessee Restaurant Association. After the questionnaire was revised to incorporate their suggestions, it was reviewed again by selected

¹ All lists and figures are contained in the Appendices

members of the informal panel of experts at The University of Tennessee. The layout of the items, length of the survey, its physical size, and other physical properties were chosen to conform to the total design method prescribed in Mail and Telephone Surveys (Dillman, 1978, pp. 119-159).

The final draft of the questionnaire was distributed to members of the East Tennessee Restaurant Association, the local affiliate of the NRA, for field testing. Comments concerning format, style, readability, content, and appropriateness for the sample were gathered. The data from the survey instruments was tested utilizing the Cronbach-alpha statistical test for content validity. Personal comments and data analysis results were incorporated into a final survey instrument. The final survey instrument was divided into three sections: (a) cover letter (Appendix B); (b) Importance/Format Questionnaire (Appendix C.1), which requested 13 perceptions of importance, 13 perceptions of format, a listing of importance, and an open-ended question concerning omissions; and (c) Professional Information (Appendix C.2), which included seven demographic questions .

Data Collection

The questionnaire, along with a cover letter and a self-addressed, stamped envelope, was mailed to all members of the chosen sample. A code number on each questionnaire was used to identify nonrespondents. An incentive, a chance on a free weekend at a Hyatt hotel of the winner's choice, was included in the

cover letter in an effort to achieve a high response rate.

Three additional mailings were sent one week, four weeks and nine weeks after the initial mailing. The first was a postcard reminder (Appendix D); the second was a follow-up cover letter (Appendix E), with a more insistent tone than the original, and a replacement questionnaire. These were sent only to nonrespondents. The final mailing included a third cover letter (Appendix F) and another questionnaire, but it was sent by certified mail to emphasize its importance (Dillman, 1978). A phone call follow-up was made to a randomly selected 10% of the nonrespondents because the return rate was 50% (Babbie, 1973; Fowler, 1990; Miller, 1991, pp. 145 & 155; Wunsch, 1986, p. 33).

Independent Variables

Seven independent variables were used in answering the research questions. These were (a) management experience, (b) industry segment employed, (c) level of responsibility, (d) level of education, (e) for those with a degree, the type of college attended, (f) gender, and (g) age. These variables were defined as follows:

1. Management experience -- the number of years of management experience the individual has in the food service industry.
2. Segment employed -- the segment of the food service industry in which the individual is currently employed, such as fast food.
3. Level of responsibility -- the management level at which the individual is currently employed, such as front line supervisor.

4. Level of education -- the highest educational level the individual has completed.
5. Type of college -- for respondents having completed a baccalaureate degree, the type of college from which it was earned, such as Business, Home Economics, etc.
6. Gender -- female or male.
7. Age -- chronological age of the respondent.

Dependent Variables

Two dependent variables, (a) subject area importance, and (b) learning format, were used in the study. The variables were defined as:

1. Importance -- the perceptions of the respondents calculated as the mean scores for the 13 core subject areas.
2. Learning format -- the perceptions of the respondents calculated in frequencies as the most appropriate place and style in which the 13 core subject areas could be learned.

Data Treatment

Raw data were obtained from survey instruments to measure subject area importance and learning format for the core curriculum contained in the Handbook of Accreditation approved by the Accreditation Commission for Programs in Hospitality Administration (CHRIE, 1989a). Common descriptive

terms were added to the subject areas to increase understanding by the respondents, thereby increasing the reliability and validity of the questionnaire. No change in meaning was intended.

A 7-point Likert-type scale was used in the questionnaire to measure respondents' perceptions of the importance of each subject area. The scale was anchored by least important (1) and most important (7). Ratings were combined for analysis.

Learning formats were labeled I for individual, J for on-the-job, and S for school. Letters were used, rather than numbers, to reduce confusion within the questionnaire and so as not to imply that any relative order was intended. The headings were assigned numerical values for ease in computing frequencies.

In response to a concern raised by the panel of experts, that all of the subject areas would be perceived as most important, the respondents were also asked to list the three subject areas they considered most important. A point was given for each time a subject area was listed. Points for each subject area were totaled and the subject areas ranked by total points.

Perceptions of importance data were considered interval variables for analysis of differences within the segments of the independent variables. Frequencies were used to determine if relationships existed within the independent variables. The data on perceptions of learning format were considered nominal variables; again, frequencies were used to determine if relationships existed within the independent variables (W.A. Cameron, personal communication, September 21, 1990; G.D.

Cheek, personal communication, September 21, 1990).

The information obtained from the questionnaire was coded, keyed into a computer, and verified. Frequency distributions of the seven independent variables were computed to identify the profile of the respondents. Since no base data on the dependent variables existed, comparisons to expected perceptions, for each subject area, could not be made. The descriptive statistics mean, standard deviation, and standard error of the mean were computed from the ratings of perceptions of importance for the 13 subject areas. An overall mean for perceptions of importance and means for all the subject areas were computed. The means were used to rank order the subject areas. Standardized z and t scores were also computed for the subject areas.

Frequencies, reported as percentages of the sample, were computed on the perceptions of appropriate learning format data. These were compared to the perceptions of importance means. Conclusions were drawn and questions raised for further research.

The data for the two dependent variables then were analyzed in relation to the seven independent variables.

The one-way analysis of variance (anova) test, at the .05 confidence level, was used to determine if significant differences existed between the groups in the independent variables, for perceptions of subject area importance, . If a significant difference was found, Tukey's Studentized Range test was used to identify which groups were significantly different.

The statistical test Chi Square, at the .05 confidence level, was used to test if a relationship existed between perceptions of subject area importance, learning format and the groups in the independent variables (Borg & Gall, 1989, pp. 562-564). If a relationship was found, the relative strength of the relationship was determined by computing a Phi Coefficient (Norusis, 1986, p. B99-B100) and the direction, positive or negative, was determined by computing Kendall's Coefficient (Ferguson, 1981, p. 385).

The Mann-Whitney U test was to be used for further analysis. Siegel (1956) found the Mann-Whitney U test one of the most powerful of the non-parametric tests and referred to it as a most useful alternative to the t test (p. 116). However, due to the homogeneity of the respondents found by the previously described analysis, it was considered unnecessary to process the data further (R.A. Muenchen, personal communication, December 10, 1991).

Data collected from a randomly selected 10% of the nonrespondents were compared to the data collected from the respondents. The statistical t-test for unequal groups (Borg & Gall, 1989, p. 565), at the .05 confidence level, was used to test if there were significant differences between the two groups' perceptions of importance, learning format or professional information.

All data were analyzed, utilizing the Statistical Analysis System (SAS) data analysis software, on The University of Tennessee's mainframe computer.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS

The methods followed in selecting the sample were described in Chapter 3 under the heading Population and Sample. A mailing list containing 500 key members of the National Restaurant Association was obtained. Seven names were duplicates, resulting in a sample of 493 individuals. A questionnaire and cover letter were mailed to everyone in the sample. A week later a postcard was sent to everyone in the sample, encouraging submission and thanking those who had already submitted. Two follow-up letters, along with an identical questionnaire, were sent to non-respondents. The first follow-up letter was mailed four weeks after the initial mailing and the second, nine weeks later. Of the 493 questionnaires sent, seven questionnaires were returned undeliverable, two were returned blank as non-applicable, and 244 usable questionnaires were returned. This resulted in a response rate of 50%.

A telephone follow-up was made to a randomly selected 10% (25 individuals) of the final non-respondents to determine if differences existed between the respondents and non-respondents. All 25 individuals selected were contacted, and completed the questionnaire over the telephone. Each was queried as to the reasons for not responding to the mailed questionnaires. The reasons given were (a) I don't remember receiving it, (b) I'm too busy to answer every questionnaire I receive, (c) I thought it was junk mail and never read it, or (d) I wasn't interested in the topic.

The 25 telephone responses were compared to the 244 written responses. A significant difference was found between the two groups' responses for age. No other significant differences were found between the two groups' responses to demographic questions.

A few significant differences were found between the two groups' perceptions of subject area importance and learning format of subject areas. Appendix G shows the means and probabilities of the categories where significant differences were found. The data gathered from the 50% of the sample that responded appear to be representative of the whole sample.

Computing the mode and means of the seven independent variables resulted in a respondent profile of a 42-year-old male manager with 15 years of food service management experience, employed in the full-service segment of the food service industry, with a four-year degree from a business program. The percentage breakdowns of the seven independent variables are presented in Appendix H.1.

The overall importance of the subject areas was determined by computing the means of the respondent perception ratings, on the 7-point Likert-type scale, anchored by least important (1) and most important (7). Appendix H.2 shows the subject areas, ranked by means. Food service Operations Management, Human Resource Management, Accounting, and Marketing had the highest means. Quantitative Methods, Economics, Ethical Considerations, and History had the lowest means.

A second method of determining overall importance of the subject areas was also used. Respondents were asked to list the three most important subject areas. The overall rankings for the most important subject areas were derived by adding the number of times each subject area was listed. Appendix H.3 shows the subject areas ranked by frequency from the highest to lowest. These overall rankings were consistent with the perceived importance of subject area rankings derived from the means (Appendix H.2). The subject areas identified as the four most important and five least important were identical. Respondents were not asked to list the subject areas in rank order, so these derived rankings, if taken independently, may not be meaningful. Nevertheless, they are consistent with the results of the perceived importance of the subject area mean rankings.

Analysis of Variance (anova) Results

Differences between the means of the perceptions of the subject area importance, for the categories within the seven independent variables, were tested for statistical significance using the anova test. Means ranged from 3.26 to 6.50. If a significant difference was found, Tukey's Studentized Range test was used to identify which groups were significantly different. The following sections summarize the nine significant differences found in the 91 tests of significance made. This low number of differences accentuates the homogeneous nature of the sample.

Perceived Importance of History by Level of Responsibility

Managers perceived the subject area History as more important than did owners/corporate executives. The group means were 3.5 and 2.98, respectively. The overall mean for the subject area History was 3.26.

Perceived Importance of History by Level of Education

A significant difference was found for perceived importance of the subject area History and the independent variable, level of education. Tukey's test showed the difference between the means, of the respondents with the level of education beyond high school and those with a graduate degree, to be 1.15.

Perceived Importance of Marketing by Level of Education

A significant difference was found for perceived importance of the subject area Marketing and the independent variable, level of education. Tukey's test showed the difference between the means, of the respondents with the level of education beyond high school and those with a 4-year degree, to be .77.

Perceived Importance of Economics by Level of Education

A significant difference was found for perceived importance of the subject area Economics and the independent variable, level of education. Tukey's test showed the difference between the means, of the respondents with the level of education high school and those with a graduate degree, to be 1.20. A difference

between the means of 3.33 was shown for those with the level of education less than high school and 4-year degree and for those respondents with the level of education less than high school and high school.

Perceived Importance of Ethical Considerations by Level of Responsibility

A significant difference was found for perceived importance of the subject area Ethical Considerations and the independent variable, level of responsibility. Managers perceived Ethical Considerations as more important than did owners/corporate executives. The group means were 4.38 and 3.77, respectively. The overall mean for the subject area Ethical Considerations was 4.13.

Perceived Importance of Administrative Processes by Gender

A significant difference was found for perceived importance of the subject area Administrative Processes and the independent variable, gender. Females perceived Administrative Processes as more important than did males. The group means were 4.9 and 4.3, respectively. The overall mean for the subject area Administrative Processes was 4.45.

Perceived Importance of Accounting by Age

A significant difference was found for perceived importance of the subject area Accounting and the independent variable, age. Tukey's test showed the difference between the means, of the respondents in the age groups 50-59 years and 30-39 years to be .711.

Perceived Importance of Organization Theory by Gender

A significant difference was found for perceived importance of the subject area Organization Theory and the independent variable, gender. Females perceived Organization Theory as more important than did males. The group means were 5.5 and 5.0, respectively. The overall mean for the subject area Organization Theory was 5.15.

Perceived Importance of Specialization by Level of Responsibility

A significant difference was found for perceived importance of the subject area Specialization and the independent variable, level of responsibility. Managers perceived Specialization as more important than did owners/corporate executives. The group means were 5.0 and 4.5, respectively. The overall mean for the subject area Specialization was 4.82.

Chi Square Results on Importance Data

The following sections summarize the seven relationships shown to be significant from the 91 comparisons between importance and the independent variables. This low number of differences further reinforces the homogeneous nature of the sample.

Significant Relationships Within Levels of Education

A negative relationship was found within levels of education for the subject areas Marketing and Economics. Those respondents with a 4-year degree or graduate degree perceived Marketing to be less important than did those with lower levels of education. Those respondents with a 4-year degree or graduate degree perceived the importance of Economics to be less than did those with high school or beyond high school education. Perceptions of those with a 2-year associate degree did not fit in the relationship found; they perceived Economics as more important than did any other group. The relative strengths of the relationships within Marketing and Economics were about equal.

Significant Relationship Within Gender

Females perceived Economics as more important than males did. The chi square value indicated that this was not a very strong relationship. No other significant relationships were found between females and males, perceived importance of subject areas.

Significant Relationships Within Levels of Responsibility

Managers perceived Ethical Considerations and Human Resource Management as more important than did owners/corporate executives. However, the relationship within Ethical Considerations was much stronger.

Significant Relationship Within Age

A positive relationship was found between age groups for the subject area Ethical Considerations. Generally, the older the respondents the higher their perceptions of importance of Ethical Considerations. However, the relationship by age groups was not perfect. The 40-49 year age group did not fit the trend.

Significant Relationship Within Segment of Industry

A relationship was found between pairs of industry segments: fast food /lodging food service and full service/institutional. Respondents in fast food and lodging food service segments perceived Organization Theory as less important than did respondents in full service and institutional.

Summary of Importance Analysis

The major focus of this study was to determine how important food service administrators perceived the 13 subject areas in the CHRIE Accreditation standards for a person accepting an entry-level food service management position. Two methods, the Likert-type scale and the listing of the three most important

subject areas, were used to rank the subject areas. The results from the two methods were almost identical. The overall mean of all perceptions of importance was 5.04. It could be inferred that the respondents felt that all 13 of the subject areas, were relatively important.

It was not assumed that the 13 subject areas were inclusive of all major subject areas needed for success. An open-ended question was included on the survey instrument, asking respondents to list any subjects not included in the 13 subject areas provided, but which they felt should be included in a 4-year hospitality curriculum. Thirty-one different subjects were suggested by one or more respondents. Customer Relations was listed by 12 different respondents, while Communication Skills was listed by seven. As shown in Appendix H.4., these were the two most frequently suggested subjects. Although many subjects listed are often included in one or more courses in the 13 CHRIE subject areas, none were omitted from the listing in the appendix.

While identifying subject areas needed for entry-level managers is important, individuals may acquire their knowledge in many ways, places or learning formats. Consequently, knowing where the subject area could best be learned is also important.

The second part of the questionnaire attempted to identify which learning format, (a) individual, (b) on-the-job, or (c) school, the respondents considered most appropriate for learning the content of the 13 subject areas.

Chi Square Results on Learning Format Data

More than 50% of the respondents preferred the learning format school for the subject areas (a) History, (b) Marketing, (c) Accounting, (d) Financial Management, (e) Economics, (f) Hospitality Law, (g) Ethical Considerations, (h) Quantitative Methods, (i) Organization Theory, and (j) Administrative Processes. More than 50% preferred the on-the-job learning format for the subject areas Human Resource Management and Specialization. The respondents were split almost 50%-50% on their preference of learning format for the subject area Operations Management between on-the-job and school. The subject areas History and Ethical Considerations had the highest rankings in the individual format, although they were only 23% and 26%, respectively. These overall rankings can be found in Appendix H.5.

The homogeneity of the sample was again very evident in the analysis of relationships within the independent variables. Fifteen significant relationships were found within the 91 possible.

Learning Format by Gender

History was the only subject area where a significant relationship was found for gender. Females chose individual as the appropriate learning format more often than males did. Females chose school as the appropriate format less often than males did. However, more than 60% of both males and females considered school to be the most appropriate learning format.

Learning Format by Age Categories

Significant relationships were found for age categories in the subject areas (a) Marketing, (b) Accounting, (c) Financial Management, (d) Organization Theory, and (e) Human Resource Management. School was perceived to be the most appropriate format for learning all of these subject areas.

No respondents younger than 30 years or in the 60-69 years age range felt that individual was the appropriate format for learning Marketing. More than 70% of the respondents between the ages of 40 and 60 felt school was the most appropriate format. The 29 years or younger group was split 45%-55% between on-the-job and school formats.

The age group 60-69 years felt the least strongly (70% versus at least 80% by all the other age categories) that the most appropriate learning format for Accounting is school. They felt more strongly than respondents in other age categories that on-the-job was the appropriate format for learning Accounting.

The age groups 30-39 years and 60-69 years felt more strongly (10 to 18% more than the other age groups) that on-the-job was the appropriate learning format for Financial Management. However, all age groups felt strongly, 78% or higher, that school was the most appropriate format for learning Financial Management. Twenty percent of the 70 years or older age group felt individual was the appropriate format for learning Financial Management.

Respondents between the ages 50 and 70 years felt the least strongly that individual was the most appropriate learning format for Organization Theory. All

age groups except 70 years or older were split close to 30% for on-the-job, and 55% for school format.

The subject area Human Resource Management had the greatest diversity of opinion as to which learning format was most appropriate. The age groups 50-59 years and 70 years or older felt school was the most appropriate. All other age groups considered on-the-job as the most appropriate learning format for Human Resource Management.

Learning Format by Years of Management Experience

There were three subject areas where a significant relationship was found within years of management experience categories: History, Organization Theory, and Human Resource Management. Respondents with 31 or more years of experience perceived school to be the most appropriate learning format and on-the-job the least appropriate for these three subject areas.

Those respondents with 31 or more years of experience felt most strongly that school was the most appropriate learning format for History and the least strongly that the individual is the most appropriate. The respondents with 11-20 years of experience, representing 43% of the respondents, felt more strongly than other groups that the individual is the most appropriate format for learning History. The respondents with 10 or fewer years of experience felt the least strongly that school was the most appropriate format for learning History.

Respondents with 31 or more years of experience felt more strongly (74% to

56% or 49%) than the other groups that school is the most appropriate learning format for Organization Theory. Those with 21-30 years of experience felt the least strongly (9% to 17%) that individual was the appropriate format.

The respondents with 31 or more years of experience felt much more strongly, 30% more than the next closest group, that school is the most appropriate learning format for Human Resource Management. No respondents in the 21-30 years of experience group felt the individual was the appropriate learning format for Human Resource Management.

Learning Format by Level of Responsibility

History was the only subject area where a significant relationship was found for levels of responsibility. Managers and owners/corporate executives felt school was the most appropriate learning format for History, 63% and 78%, respectively. Managers felt the individual was a more appropriate format than did owners/corporate executives, 29% to 16%.

Learning Format by Industry Segment

Operations Management was the only subject area where a significant relationship was found within industry segments. Seven percent of the respondents in the full-service segment felt the individual was an appropriate learning format for Operations Management, while no respondents in the other segments perceived the individual to be appropriate.

Respondents from the fast food segment felt more strongly concerning on-the-job as the most appropriate learning format for Operations Management, 32% greater than the next closest group.

Learning Format by Level of Education

There were two subject areas where a significant relationship was found between levels of education: History and Economics. Respondents in the categories high school equivalent and graduate degree felt less strongly, 54% or less, that school was the most appropriate format and felt more strongly that the individual was a more appropriate learning format for History. However, all categories perceived school as the most appropriate learning format for History.

Respondents in the categories high school equivalent and two-year associate degree rated school much lower than other groups did as the most appropriate learning format for Economics. Those in the high school equivalent category rated on-the-job higher, while those with a two-year degree rated the individual higher than did any other level of education category. Again, all categories perceived school as the most appropriate learning format for Economics.

Learning Format by Type of School from Which Graduated

Specialization was the only subject area where a significant relationship was found for the types of school the respondents with college degrees graduated from.

Respondents in all categories except home economics felt on-the-job was the most appropriate learning format for the subject area Specialization. Those who graduated from a home economics program felt school was the most appropriate learning format. Hospitality program graduates had the highest perception that the individual was the most appropriate learning format for Specialization. They rated it 23% higher than the next closest group.

Comparisons Between Importance and Format

The following are the results of comparing the perception of importance mean ranking to the preference of the learning format school for each subject area:

1. Operations Management ranked first in importance and 47% of the respondents felt school was the most appropriate learning format.
2. Human Resource Management ranked second in importance and 43% of the respondents felt school was the most appropriate learning format.
3. Accounting ranked third in importance and 86% of the respondents felt school was the most appropriate learning format.
4. Marketing ranked fourth in importance and 64% of the respondents felt school was the most appropriate learning format.
5. Hospitality Law ranked fifth in importance and 78% of the respondents felt school was the most appropriate learning format.
6. Financial Management ranked sixth in importance and 85% of the respondents felt school was the most appropriate learning format.

7. Organization Theory ranked seventh in importance and 55% of the respondents felt school was the most appropriate learning format.

8. Specialization ranked eighth in importance and 31% of the respondents felt school was the most appropriate learning format.

9. Administrative Processes ranked ninth in importance and 57% of the respondents felt school was the most appropriate learning format.

10. Quantitative Methods ranked tenth in importance and 77% of the respondents felt school was the most appropriate learning format.

11. Economics ranked eleventh in importance and 78% of the respondents felt school was the most appropriate learning format.

12. Ethical Considerations ranked twelfth in importance and 54% of the respondents felt school was the most appropriate learning format.

13. History ranked thirteenth in importance and 68% of the respondents felt school was the most appropriate learning format.

CHAPTER 5

CONCLUSIONS, RECOMMENDATIONS, AND FINAL CONSIDERATIONS

The purpose of this study was to determine if the subject areas contained in the Hospitality Administration section of the CHRIE Accreditation Standards for baccalaureate degree granting hospitality programs: (a) provide hospitality graduates with needed knowledge for entry-level food service management positions; and (b) should be learned by the individual (outside the job and school), on-the-job, or in school, as perceived by food service administrators.

The questions that this research sought to answer were:

1. How important is the core curriculum, as a whole, to the needs of an entry-level food service manager?
2. How important is each of the subject areas in the core curriculum to the needs of an entry-level food service manager?
3. Do any of the demographic factors defining the administrators affect their perceived importance of the subject areas in the core curriculum?
4. Where should subject areas of the core curriculum be learned: (a) individually, (b) on-the-job, or (c) school?
5. Do any of the seven demographic factors defining the administrators affect their perceptions of the appropriate learning format for any subject areas in the core curriculum?

One related question could be answered also from the information gathered:

Should any other subject areas be included in the core curriculum?

The overall mean for perceived importance of the subject areas, 5.04, suggests that the core curriculum, as a whole, meets the needs of an entry-level food service manager as perceived by food service administrators. The individual subject area means range from 3.26 to 6.50. This suggests that the respondents did not feel the subject areas were equally important. Based on the means, the subject areas (a) Operations Management, (b) Human Resource Management, (c) Accounting, and (d) Marketing were perceived as very important. The subject areas (a) Hospitality Law, (b) Financial Management, (c) Organization Theory, and (d) Specialization were moderately important. The subject areas (a) Administrative Processes, (b) Quantitative Methods, (c) Economics, and (d) Ethical Considerations were perceived to be fairly important. History is the only subject area that was perceived as having little importance.

The results suggest that the hospitality core curriculum includes almost all of the subject areas food service administrators consider necessary. If the general education and work experience requirements within the Handbook of Accreditation (CHRIE, 1989a) are considered, the respondents' concerns about the hospitality core curriculum are addressed. Although 31 additional subject areas were suggested, none were listed by more than 12 of the 244 respondents. Most of these additional subject areas are included in courses covering the required subject areas.

The anova test found very few differences between the independent variables for subject area importance. The Chi Square test of independence found very few significant relationships within the independent variables. Of the seven significant relationships identified, only segment of the industry appears to have an impact on curriculum evaluation. Respondents in the fast food and the lodging food service segments perceived Organization Theory as less important than did respondents in the full service and institutional food service segments. Organization Theory was defined as behavior and interpersonal communication including organization structure; leadership; motivation; power; and group dynamics. While fast food and lodging food service, two segments of the food service industry, do not appear to have much in common, many operations in these segments are a part of large chains or franchises. These types of food service organizations make policies at the corporate level and then pass them on to the operations level. This allows the unit manager to focus on the day-to-day activities included in the subject area Operations Management. On the other hand, full-service and institutional food service operations, especially those that make up the majority of NRA membership, are independent and not a part of large chains or franchises. While they too focus on day-to-day operations, the tasks, duties, and responsibilities included in Organization Theory have to be addressed by the unit manager, because there are no corporate level managers.

It can be concluded that demographic factors defining the respondents did not affect their perceived importance of the subject areas.

The respondents felt strongly, more than 70%, that school was the most appropriate learning format for the subject areas Accounting, Financial Management, Economics, Hospitality Law, and Quantitative Methods.

The respondents felt less strongly, between 50% and 70%, that school was the most appropriate learning format for the subject areas History, Marketing, Ethical Considerations, Organization Theory, and Administrative Processes.

Less than 50% of the respondents felt school was the most appropriate format for learning the subject areas Operations Management, Human Resource Management, and Specialization.

The comparisons of perceived importance and appropriate format have some important implications for hospitality educators. The two top-ranked subject areas by importance were Operations Management and Human Resource Management. These suggest that while the subjects are very important, about half the content should be covered in school and the other half, on-the-job. Of course, a hospitality program could offer internships, co-op, or other work experiences, in an effort to meet the food service administrators' expectations. Hospitality educators should be careful to structure the experiences to include adequate amounts of each subject area, as perceived by the respondents.

Statistical analysis found few significant relationships within the independent variables for the learning format data. No patterns or trends were identified from these relationships. It appears the perceptions of the appropriate learning format were independent of the seven demographic factors defining the respondents.

Conclusions

The data from this study confirm what Tanke (1984/1985a) found in her initial study on accreditation criteria for hospitality management programs. The subject areas included in the core curriculum have the potential to provide the knowledge entry-level food service managers need to be successful. The data analysis suggests that if baccalaureate degree granting hospitality programs include the 13 subject areas they have a high probability of producing graduates that will be successful as entry-level food service managers.

Of course, other factors may influence the level of success of any graduate. This conclusion is supported by the findings of Knutson and Patton (1992) in their study of hospitality graduates. They reported that only one in five of the graduates felt well-prepared for success in the hospitality industry (p. 40). Other factors such as (a) work ethic, (b) leadership, (c) adaptation to corporate politics, and (d) communications were related to success by these graduates (Knutson & Patton, 1992). Success can be measured in many ways. O'Halloran (1991a) found that "hospitality curricula have often neglected to educate students as to their role in the community and how to interact with the environment in which they hope to conduct business" (p. 33). The findings of this study could assist in designing the curriculum for a hospitality program that would provide the necessary knowledge or "tools" for success. Hospitality programs, however, cannot provide all the necessary knowledge, skills, abilities, and attitudes needed for success.

The findings of Meyer, Tse and Olsen (1987), Tas (1987), and O'Halloran

(1991b), that human resources, financial management, accounting, marketing, and law are essential, as cited earlier, are supported by the findings of this study. The findings of Warner (1991 & 1992), that institutional and recreational food service management should be a part of the curriculum of every hospitality program, are somewhat supported by the moderate to high importance ranking given the subject area Specialization.

The finding of Schrock and Schrock (1991) concerning the importance of a course in computer applications relevant to the hospitality industry was not supported by this study. That is not to say the respondents did not feel computers were important, but it was mentioned by only one respondent as a subject area that should be included in a hospitality curriculum. The finding of Casado (1991), cited earlier, that a leadership course should be required by hospitality programs, was not specifically supported by this study. However, leadership is often included in the content of human resource, operations or organization theory courses and therefore it cannot be assumed that respondents did not feel it was important.

The findings of this study support the notion that the hospitality core curriculum in the CHRIE Accreditation Standards provides graduates of an accredited program with the knowledge required to be successful in the food service industry. This is in agreement with the findings cited earlier of Pavesic (1991). These standards are also broad enough to support what Casado (1991) found, that a wide variation of courses can be taught among the four-year hospitality programs.

From another perspective, the homogeneity of the responses tends to support the notion of a generalist food service management program. It appears that if students graduate from a program that includes the 13 subject areas, they will be prepared to enter any type of food service operation. The perceptions of importance did not change across segments of the food service industry. Therefore, a comprehensive baccalaureate degree granting hospitality program could serve all segments well. Specific knowledge, skills, and abilities necessary to succeed in a specific segment of the industry should be taught on-the-job or within specialization courses. Programs could choose to emphasize any desired segment based on specialization offerings or work experiences. Offering a program aimed at producing graduates for any single segment of the industry seems restrictive and may not allow sufficient flexibility to those graduates seeking entry-level management positions.

The current standards may meet the needs of today's graduates, but as Steele (1989) stated, "The focus on criteria is a static approach to evaluation in that the criteria usually are difficult to change" (p. 268). As Sherry (1992) found, in light of the changing economic and cultural environment, a unified initiative is needed to reexamine hospitality education (p. 63). These standards may be sufficient today, but they will need to be evaluated continuously.

The findings of this study related to the importance of the subject areas confirmed, for the most part, the findings of earlier research. The data provided by the questions concerning format were exploratory in nature. Previous research

involving the appropriate format for learning in the hospitality industry could not be found. However, the format findings put the importance findings under a new light, and raised a number of important questions, as well.

Concluding that the 13 subject areas of the core curriculum are important may be fairly reliable, but to assume that school is the most appropriate format for learning them all may not be. A combination of school, on-the-job, and individual learning may be more appropriate. Faculty need to consider learning format during course development. They also need to consider depth and specificity in their courses. Hospitality managers, human resource managers, and trainers need to consider learning format during training program development. What the trainees already know, what needs to be supplemented, and what has not been covered at all need to be considered, along with which learning format or combination of formats is the most appropriate. Neither education nor training alone can provide all the knowledge needed by an entry-level manager.

Recommendations

The findings and conclusions of this study lead to the following recommendations:

1. This study should be replicated with the population of tourism managers. Both Tanke (1984/1985a) and O'Halloran (1992) reached this conclusion. While this study found the subject areas important for food service managers, they may not be the same areas as those needed by tourism managers.

2. This study should be replicated with the population of rooms division managers in the lodging industry. Tanke (1984/1985a) used a sample of 20 members of the Educational Institute of the American Hotel and Motel Association. Lodging food service managers were a part of this sample. A study with rooms division managers could provide additional insight into the differing academic needs of the lodging industry.

3. This study should be replicated with the population of hospitality educators. Tanke (1984/1985a) used a sample of 127 hospitality program administrators. It appears from the literature cited that hospitality educators feel strongly about the importance of the subject areas they teach. Asking them to look at the complete core curriculum could provide additional insight into the differing perspectives of educators and hospitality administrators.

4. "Continuous self-study and review" of the accreditation process and standards is needed to maintain the effectiveness of the program (COPA, 1990, p. 4). All of the standards, including the core curriculum, contained in the CHRIE Accreditation Self-study Guide (1989b) should be continuously analyzed, evaluated, and challenged. This can be accomplished internally by the accreditation commission and externally by administrators, educators, students, and the general public. Keeping up-to-date with the knowledge and skills hospitality managers need for success in the ever-changing world will be one of the most difficult and most important challenges facing the CHRIE accreditation program.

5. The findings resulting from the appropriate learning format data point out the need for further study to determine education's place in the preparation of hospitality managers. A joint exploratory study between hospitality industry trainers and hospitality educators to determine how education and training fit together would be an appropriate starting point.

This study strongly supports the original research findings of Tanke (1984/1985a) and the CHRIE core curriculum standards. Current hospitality literature, as well as most of the literature concerning evaluation and accreditation, support the belief that programs must be evaluated continuously. Recent political and social changes, as well as the current economic fluctuations in education funding, will force this evaluation process if it is not voluntarily undertaken by educators.

Final Considerations

This research did not attempt to evaluate the curriculum of any specific baccalaureate degree granting hospitality program. This research did, however, provide representatives of the food service industry with the opportunity to evaluate subject areas that were included in the Hospitality Administration section of the CHRIE Accreditation Standards. Hospitality educators can use these results in an attempt to better prepare students to earn a living in the food service industry. This is a goal Barton (1986) found to rank high among educators. If research is to be of any use, it must be applied. The following is an example of

how this could be done.

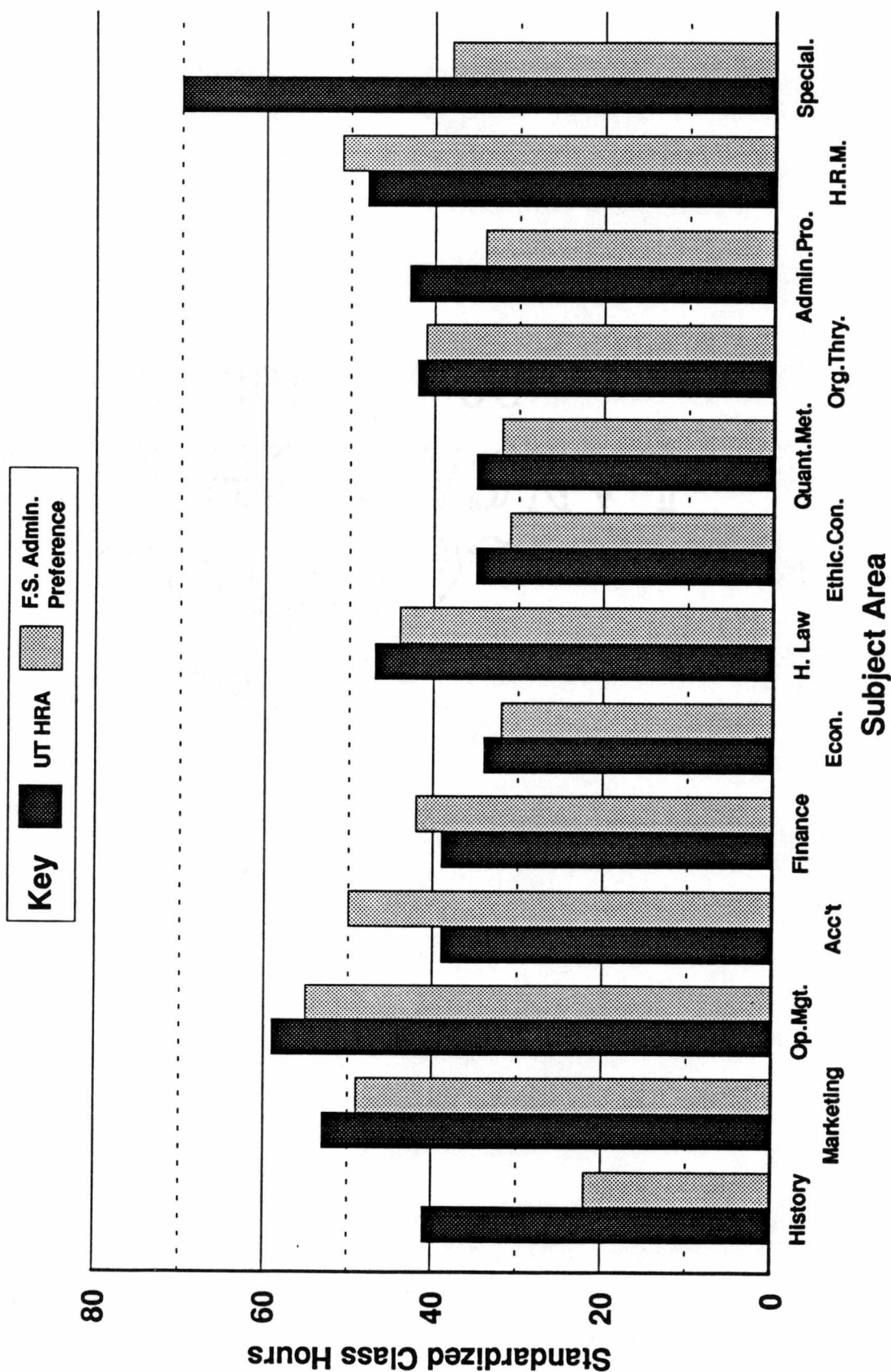
Using the standardized mean scores, hospitality educators could compare the number of credit hours or class hours they offer to the number of hours inferred by the food service administrators importance data. Using 128 credit hours as a basis for a 4-year, baccalaureate degree, and assuming 38 of those hours would be specified as hours required in the major (restaurant management), a model for course hour requirements was derived from the standard scores of perceptions of importance. These model hours would be compared to an actual hospitality program's required hours.

The University of Tennessee's (UT) Hotel and Restaurant Administration (HRA) program's curriculum requires 128 semester hours. Thirty-eight of those hours make up the specific HRA courses. The other 90 hours are made up of general education, college, and general business requirements. If 15 class hours make up one credit hour, then 38 credit hours translates into about 570 class hours.

Actual hours were computed by analyzing course syllabi, textbooks and credit hours assigned. Comparing the actual hours offered in the HRA program with the hours "recommended" by this research study's data showed (Figure 1):

1. The UT HRA program met or exceeded 10 of the 13 subject area standardized class hours.

Figure 1. Comparison of Standardized Hours



2. If UT HRA Program's general business course requirements were taken into consideration, all 13 of the subject area's standardized class hour estimates would be met.

3. The UT HRA Program offers considerably more than the standardized number of class hours in History and Specialization. Adjustments could be made by reducing the number of History and Specialization class hours, and moving the extra hours into subject areas rated of higher importance, Operations Management and/or those subject areas that needed class hours added, such as Human Resource Management.

The work experiences included in the HRA Program could be structured to include the subject areas identified as appropriate for on-the-job learning. UT HRA educators could also meet with food service managers to evaluate, coordinate, and collaborate on the content included in the on-the-job learning experiences.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A

Subject Area Panel of Experts

1. Mr. John Dienhart, Instructor
Kansas State University
Hotel, Restaurant Management & Dietetics
Justin Hall
Manhattan, KS 66506
2. Mr. Bruce Lazarus, esq., Associate Professor
Accreditation Team Coordinator
Purdue University
Restaurant, Hotel & Institutional Management
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West Lafayette, IN 47907
3. Ms. Donna McHugh, Coordinator - Membership & Governance
Council on Hotel, Restaurant & Institutional Education
1200 17th Street, N.W., Seventh floor
Washington, D.C. 20036
4. Dr. Sandra Strick, Assistant Professor
Accreditation Team Coordinator
University of South Carolina
Hotel, Restaurant & Tourism Administration
Carolina Coliseum, Rm. 108
Columbia, S.C. 29208
5. Dr. Mary Tanke, Associate Professor
CHRIE Accreditation Program Chair
Florida International University
School of Hospitality Management
15101 Biscayne Blvd.
North Miami, FL 33181

Appendix B

Initial Cover Letter

June 17, 1991

Dear Foodservice Manager:

This year, the Council on Hotel, Restaurant and Institutional Education (CHRIE) began an accreditation process for 4-year, degree granting college and university hospitality programs. Included in the accreditation process are the standards and guidelines against which the programs will be evaluated.

Please take five or ten minutes to complete the attached questionnaire on the CHRIE core curriculum. As a food service manager, you may be hiring graduates of hospitality programs that have met these accreditation standards. You have the best perspective for evaluating hospitality education against industry needs.

To help meet our research deadline, please return this questionnaire on the day you receive it. As an incentive to early returns, a drawing will be held for those responding by July 5, 1991 for a weekend package at the HYATT REGENCY of your choice within the continental United States. Only a few members of the National Restaurant Association were chosen to participate in this study. The return envelope has been coded for the purposes of this drawing. Your responses to the questionnaire will be held in strict confidence and will not be individually identified. If you would like a copy of the results, please print your name and address on the questionnaire.

Thank you very much for taking the time to complete this questionnaire and for your interest in hospitality education. This survey will assist CHRIE in evaluating their accreditation curriculum standards.

Sincerely,



Mark McGrath, Director
Hotel & Restaurant Administration Program

University of Tennessee
1215 Cumberland Ave. Room 229
Knoxville, TN 37996-1900

Appendix C.1.

Questionnaire, Front of Page**CHRIE CORE CURRICULUM QUESTIONNAIRE****Directions - Left side**

Check one box under the number that best reflects how important the subject is for a person to know, prior to taking an entry-level, foodservice management position.

One represents least important and seven most important.

Directions - Right side

Check one box under the letter that represents the format you feel is appropriate for learning the content of the subject areas.

I = individual, self-directed, self-taught
J = on-the-job training and development
S = school

SUBJECT AREAS

1 2 3 4 5 6 7		I J S
☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐	1. History of the hospitality industry including: leaders and innovators; issues and trends; overview of all segments of the industry; and industry structure.	1. ☐ ☐ ☐
☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐	2. Marketing of hospitality goods and services including: planning, promotion, pricing and positioning; sales strategies; market analysis; and buyer behavior	2. ☐ ☐ ☐
☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐	3. Food service operations management including: menu planning; quality control; purchasing, receiving, storage and production; forecasting; and sanitation.	3. ☐ ☐ ☐
☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐	4. Accounting procedures and practices including: profit & loss; transaction analysis; income and balance sheets analysis; ratio analysis; cash management; and cost control.	4. ☐ ☐ ☐
☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐	5. Financial management including: forecasting & budgeting; break-even analysis; short and long-term financing; contracts; valuation; investments; leasing and mergers.	5. ☐ ☐ ☐
☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐	6. Economics including: supply and demand; elasticity; competition; monopolies; fiscal & monetary policies; inflation; and employment theory.	6. ☐ ☐ ☐
☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐	7. Hospitality Law including: fundamentals of law, rules and regulations; negligence; wage & hour; taxation; discrimination; liability; and innkeeper/guest relationship.	7. ☐ ☐ ☐
☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐	8. Ethical considerations and socio-political influences including: society & culture; values; government and legislation; and international factors.	8. ☐ ☐ ☐
☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐	9. Quantitative methods and management information systems including: applied statistics; computer applications; data file management; and information processing.	9. ☐ ☐ ☐
☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐	10. Organization theory, behavior and interpersonal communication including: organization structure; leadership; motivation; power; and group dynamics.	10. ☐ ☐ ☐
☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐	11. Administrative processes including: trend analysis; strategic planning; policy determination; and management of change.	11. ☐ ☐ ☐
☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐	12. Human resource management including: staffing; training & development; compensation; performance appraisal; retention & turnover; labor relations; and health & safety.	12. ☐ ☐ ☐
☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐	13. A specialization in some area such as: food, beverage, lodging, resort, club, convention, institutional, or facilities management; tourism; or marketing.	13. ☐ ☐ ☐
	14. From the above 13, what are the three <u>most important</u> subject areas?	
	1. _____ 2. _____ 3. _____	

List any subjects you feel should be included in a 4-year, hospitality curriculum, that are not included in the previous statements.

Appendix C.2.

Questionnaire, Back of Page**Professional Information**

Instructions: Fill in the blank or check the box next to the letter of the one response that best applies to you.

1. How many years of management experience do you have in the foodservice industry? _____

2. In what segment of the food service industry are you currently employed?

A. ☐ Fast food	D. ☐ Institutional/contract
B. ☐ Full service	E. ☐ Convenience/grocery store
C. ☐ Lodging food service	F. ☐ Other (please specify): _____

3. What is your primary level of responsibility?

A. ☐ Front line supervisor of hourly employees	B. ☐ Support service manager, member of management team but may or may not supervise hourly employees
C. ☐ Department head, responsible for 2 or more front line supervisors and their employees	D. ☐ Assistant manager, responsible for 2 or more department heads and/or the operation during a shift
E. ☐ Manager, responsible for total operation	F. ☐ Other (please specify): _____

4. What level of education have you completed?

A. ☐ below high school	B. ☐ high school diploma or equivalent
C. ☐ beyond high school and less than a baccalaureate degree	D. ☐ associates degree (2-year degree)
E. ☐ baccalaureate degree (4-year degree)	F. ☐ graduate degree

If you checked E, or F please answer number 5.

5. In what type of school or college was the program you received your baccalaureate degree in?

A. ☐ Business or equivalent	B. ☐ Home economics or equivalent
C. ☐ Hospitality (Hotel/Restaurant/Institutional/Tourism Management)	D. ☐ Other (please specify): _____

6. Gender:

A. ☐ Female	B. ☐ Male
------------------------------------	----------------------------------

7. Age: _____

Appendix D

Follow-up Postcard

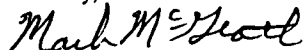
June 24, 1991

Last week a questionnaire seeking your opinion about hospitality education was mailed to you. Your name was drawn in a random sample of National Restaurant Association members.

If you have already completed and returned it, please accept my sincere thanks. If not, please do so today. Remember, if I receive it by July 5, 1991, you will be included in the drawing for the Free weekend package at a Hyatt Regency. Because you are a part of a small, representative sample of foodservice managers, it is extremely important that your opinion be included in my study if the results are to accurately represent the opinions of all foodservice managers.

If by some chance you did not receive the questionnaire, or it got misplaced, please call me right now, collect at (615-974-5445) and I will get another one in the mail to you today.

Sincerely,



Mark McGrath
Project Director

Appendix E

Follow-up Cover Letter

July 15, 1991

Dear Food Service Manager:

I realize that your operation probably demands 10 to 12 hours of your time each day, and that completing a survey is very low on your priority list. But, as I stated in my first letter, industry evaluation of the CHRIE accreditation standards is very important. You, your operation, and the food service industry will be the first to feel the effects of the graduates of these programs.

Your opinion is critical for the success of my study. I have already received a number of responses from managers just like yourself, but a higher percentage of returns is important to insure meaningful analysis of the data.

If you returned my original survey, thank you for your input and disregard this mailing. I have enclosed another copy of the questionnaire in case the one sent originally has been misplaced. Please take a few minutes to help me out.

Thank you again for your time and prompt response.

Sincerely,

A handwritten signature in cursive script that reads "Mark McGrath".

Mark McGrath, Director
Hotel & Restaurant Administration

Appendix F

Third Cover Letter

September 16, 1991

Dear National Restaurant Association member:

I realize this is the fourth time you have heard from me and I have taken more than enough of your time. But, your opinion is crucial for the analysis of my data to have any meaning. What you think the content of hospitality education should be is very important.

Since you are a member of the National Restaurant Association I assumed you would appreciate the opportunity to have input on this important subject. Please, take just a few minutes to complete the enclosed survey and return it to me in the envelope provided.

If you returned a completed survey already, thank you and I apologize for sending another.

I appreciate the time you have taken and the opinions you have provided.

Sincerely,

A handwritten signature in cursive script that reads "Mark McGrath".

Mark McGrath, Director
Hotel & Restaurant Administration Program

enclosure

Appendix G

Significant Differences in Respondent and Non-respondent Data^a

Category	Mean	Probability > t
Importance of Operations Management		
Respondents	6.50	.0284
Non-respondents	5.90	
Importance of Financial Management		
Respondents	5.26	.0158
Non-respondents	5.40	
Importance of Hospitality Law		
Respondents	5.38	.0146
Non-respondents	5.40	
Importance of Human Resource Management		
Respondents	6.15	.0216
Non-respondents	5.80	
Format for Quantitative Methods		
Respondents	2.69	.0010
Non-respondents	2.11	
Format for Human Resource Management		
Respondents	2.37	.0100
Non-respondents	2.65	
Age		
Respondents	43.7	.0002
Non-respondents	37.0	

Note. Respondent N=244, Non-respondent N=25.

^ano significant difference found in other categories

Appendix H.1.

Overall Percentage Breakdown of Independent Variables

Variable	%	Variable	%
Age		Gender	
20-29 years	8	Female	22
30-39 years	36	Male	78
40-49 years	26		
50-59 years	18		
60-69 years	10		
70 or older	2		
Industry Segment		Years of Management Experience	
Fast Food	11	1 - 10 years	30
Full Service	63	11 - 20 years	43
Lodging Food Service	11	21 - 30 years	19
Institutional/contract	5	31 or more	8
Other	10		
Level of Education		Type of School Graduated from	
Below High School	1	Business	45
High School Diploma	13	Home Economics	5
Beyond H.S. w/o B.S.	25	Hospitality	15
2-year Degree	8	Other	35
4-year Degree	42		
Graduate Degree	11		
Level of Responsibility			
Manager	59		
Owner/corporate exec's	41		

Note. N = 244

Appendix H.2.

Overall Perceptions of Importance - Mean Rankings

Subject area	Mean	Std. dev.	Rank
Operations Management	6.50	.94	1
Human Resource Management	6.15	1.08	2
Accounting	5.99	1.26	3
Marketing	5.91	1.32	4
Hospitality Law	5.38	1.52	5
Financial Management	5.26	1.57	6
Organization Theory	5.15	1.52	7
Specialization	4.82	1.59	8
Administrative Processes	4.45	1.50	9
Quantitative Methods	4.26	1.63	10
Economics	4.25	1.59	11
Ethical Considerations	4.13	1.61	12
History	3.26	1.74	13

Note. N=244

Appendix H.3.

Importance of Subject Areas - Frequency Rankings

Subject area	Ranking of importance	
	Frequency count	Overall ranking
Operations Management	188	1
Human Resource Management	141	2
Marketing	116	3
Accounting	98	4
financial Management	52	5
Hospitality Law	42	6
Organization Theory	36	7
Specialization	18	8
History	7	9t
Economics	7	9t
Ethical Considerations	7	9t
Administrative Processes	7	9t
Quantitative Methods	1	13

Note. N=244

Appendix H.4.

Suggested Subject Areas to be Included in a 4-Year Hospitality Curriculum

Recommended subjects	Number of respondents listing
Customer Relations	12
Communication Skills	7
Cooking/Culinary Skills	5
Nutrition	5
Facilities/Plant Management	5
Advertising	3
Beverage Management	3
Stress Management	3
Time Management	2
Housekeeping	2
Foreign Language	2
Motivation	2
Social/Environmental Issues	2
Franchising	1
Sanitation	1
Cost Control	1
Team Building	1
Ethics	1
Culture	1
Logistics Management	1
Social Behavior	1
Benefits Management	1
Food Production	1
Computers	1
Demographic Research	1
Safety	1
Psychology	1
Finance	1
Profit Sharing	1
Real Estate	1
Problem Solving	1

Note. N = 244

Appendix H.5.

Learning Format Preferences

Subject area	n	% of Respondents
Accounting		
Individual	7	3
On-the-Job	29	12
School	210	86
Financial Management		
Individual	10	4
On-the-Job	27	11
School	207	85
Economics		
Individual	17	7
On-the-Job	37	15
School	190	78
Hospitality Law		
Individual	17	7
On-the-Job	37	15
School	190	78
Quantitative Methods		
Individual	17	7
On-the-Job	39	16
School	188	77
History		
Individual	56	23
On-the-Job	20	8
School	166	68
Marketing		
Individual	15	6
On-the-Job	73	30
School	156	64
Administrative Processes		
Individual	22	9
On-the-Job	83	34
School	139	57
Organization Theory		
Individual	34	14
On-the-Job	76	31
School	134	55
Ethical Considerations		
Individual	63	26
On-the-Job	49	20
School	132	54
Operations Management		
Individual	12	5
On-the-Job	59	49
School	115	47
Human Resource Management		
Individual	12	5
On-the-Job	127	52
School	105	43
Specialization		
Individual	41	17
On-the-Job	127	52
School	76	31

Note. N=244

APPENDIX H.6.

Importance Rankings versus Ranking by Preference for School

Subject area	Importance ranking	Rank by preference for school
Operations Management	1	11
Human Resource Management	2	12
Accounting	3	1
Marketing	4	7
Hospitality Law	5	3
Financial Management	6	2
Organization Theory	7	9
Specialization	8	13
Administrative Processes	9	8
Quantitative Methods	10	5
Economics	11	3
Ethical Considerations	12	10
History	13	6

Appendix H.7.

Preferred College Class Hours versus The University of Tennessee
Hotel & Restaurant Program's Actual Class Hours

Subject area	Respondent preferred		UT HRA actual	
	z score ^a	class hours	z score ^a	class hours
Operations Management	0.97	55	1.36	59
Human Resource Management	0.62	51	0.32	48
Accounting	0.46	50	-0.57	39
Marketing	0.38	49	0.75	53
Hospitality Law	-0.02	44	0.24	47
Financial Management	-0.27	42	-0.57	39
Organization Theory	-0.04	41	-0.34	42
Specialization	-0.07	38	2.50	70
Administrative Processes	-1.08	34	-0.19	43
Economics	-1.28	32	-1.10	34
Quantitative Methods	-1.27	32	-.095	35
Ethical Considerations	-1.40	31	-1.03	35
History	-2.27	22	-0.42	41

^az score Mean = 45, SD = 10

VITA

Mark McGrath was born in Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania on October 28, 1954. He attended elementary schools in West Lafayette, Indiana and graduated from Central Catholic High School in May, 1972. The following August he entered Creighton University as a business major. In August, 1973 he transferred into Purdue University's Restaurant, Hotel and Institutional Management (RHI) program and graduated with a B.S. in 1976. Immediately following graduation, he began as an assistant food service manager in Purdue University's residence hall system as well as began a masters program in Purdue's school of Industrial Education. In May, 1978 he received an M.S. degree in Supervision.

Between August, 1978 and August 1983 he was employed by Ft. Wayne Community Schools as a food service coordinator and by Marion Community Schools as the director of food services. During this time he also was a part-time RHI instructor at Indiana University - Purdue University's Ft. Wayne campus.

Between August, 1983 and May, 1986 he was an assistant professor in the RHI Department at Purdue University, teaching the Human Resource Management course as well as an assortment of others.

Since August, 1986 he has been employed as an Instructor in the Hotel & Restaurant Administration Program at the University of Tennessee, Knoxville and in August, 1991 assumed the duties of Director of the program.