EXPERIENTIAL LEARNING AND DELIVERY EVALUATION AS ANTECEDENTS OF PERCEIVED COMPETENCY OF HOSPITALITY MANAGEMENT STUDENTS FROM SELECTED UNIVERSITIES IN KENYA

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DECLARATION

This thesis is my original work and has not been presented for a degree in any other institution. No part of this thesis may be produced without prior permission from the author and/or Moi University.

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DEDICATION

To my dear and honored Mother, whose life has been devoted to serving God and whose prayers have brought me this far, this thesis is affectionately dedicated.

ABSTRACT

There is a worldwide outcry on the inability of hospitality graduates to demonstrate competency in the industry. Although scholars show a mismatch of skills set and work performance, there is a dearth of studies on hospitality experiential learning in Kenyan universities. This study examined experiential learning and delivery evaluation as antecedents of perceived competency of Hospitality Management students from selected universities in Kenya**.** The specific objectives of the study were to: determine the relationship between School-based learning (SBL), Industry based learning (IBL) and Model based learning (MBL) on Delivery evaluation (DE) and Perceived competency (PC) of Hospitality Management students**.** It also determined the influence of DE on PC in addition to challenges and opportunities presented by university experiential learning. Silva's Management Competency Model, Kolb's Experiential Learning Theory, Social Learning Theory and Kirkpatricks' Evaluation Model anchored the study, which adapted the pragmatic research paradigm and utilized concurrent triangulation mixed methods research design. The target population was 652 undergraduate Hospitality students and 40 faculty staff of Hospitality departments in 10 selected universities. The sample size was 241 students, 10 practical lecturers and 10 heads of department. Purposive sampling selected the faculty staff while stratified and simple random sampling techniques selected students. Questionnaires and focus group discussions collected data from students while an interview schedule was used on faculty staff. Data was analyzed with the help of Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS 20.0) alongside Analysis of Moment Structures (AMOS 21.0) and Structural Equation Modeling (SEM). From the findings, IBL had a significant relationship with DE (β= 0.222, p=0.009) and PC (β= 0.239; p=0.020). MBL was insignificant in relation to DE (β= 0.201; p=0.084) but was significant in relation to PC (β= 0.186; p=0.044). SBL had no significant relationship with DE (β =-0.042; p=0.659) and PC (β = 0.097; p=0.406). There was a significant influence of DE (β= 0.316; p=0.038) on PC. Interview results revealed challenges such as large class sizes, lack of practical learning materials, inadequate lab facilities and time allocated for practical learning that hampered delivery of practical sessions. Focus group discussions highlighted lack of monitoring students in attachment as a hindrance to achieving competency. However, collaboration with hospitality establishments could be explored to expose students to more practical sessions. The study concluded that IBL and MBL significantly influence DE and PC, while SBL does not influence DE and PC. On the other hand, DE has a significant influence on PC of Hospitality Management students in selected universities in Kenya. The study recommends that universities invest in lab facilities to accommodate large class sizes, increase time for practical sessions, emphasize group work, and increase research-based and field activities in addition to innovative ways such as virtual labs for simulation of practical sessions for flexible and continuous learning. Supervision of students on attachment through virtual mechanisms should be enhanced. Further, the study revealed that Kolb's Experiential Learning Theory lacks inclusion of delivery evaluation crucial in achieving competency.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF FIGURES

LIST OF PLATES

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

AMOS	Analysis of Moment Structures
ANOVA	Analysis of Variance
AP	Apprenticeship
AVE	Average Variance Extracted
CUE	Commission for University Education
DIT	Directorate of industrial training
DW	Durbin-Watson
EMU-STHM	Eastern Mediterranean University School of Tourism & Hospitality MGT
EM	External Mentor
FBL	Food and Beverage Learning
FGD	Focus group discussions
FT	Field Trip
GW	Group Work
HKL	Housekeeping Learning
IA	Industrial Attachment
IBL	Industry Based Learning
ICHRIE	The international Council of Hotel Restaurant and Institutional Education
INT	Interview
IPA	Interpretative Phenomenological Analysis
KMO	Kaiser-Mayer-Olkin
MBL	Model Based Learning
NACOSTI	National Commission for Science Technology and Innovation
OECD:	Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development
PC	Perceived Competence
PCA	Principal Component Analysis
PDE	Delivery evaluation Evaluation
PRE_1	Predicted Values
PSCU	President's Strategic Communications Unit
RM	Role Mentor
ROI	Return on Investment

S.A.M.S	Self Assessment of Managerial Skills
SBL	School Based Learning
SEM	Structural Equation Modeling
SRE_1	Studentized Residuals
VIF	Variance Inflation Factors

OPERATIONAL DEFINITIONS OF TERMS

Apprenticeship: a job with an accompanying skills development programme under an agreement designed by employers to gain technical knowledge and real practical experience, along with functional and personal skills, required for their immediate job and future career (Ryan, 2012)

Competency: a cluster of related abilities, commitments, knowledge, and skills that enable a person to act effectively in a job or situation. It indicates sufficiency of knowledge and skills, personal values, authentic leadership, managing change and results orientation. (Business Dictionary, n.d.)

Experiential Learning: Experiential learning is defined as an active and interactive form of learning that pursues hands on learning and continuous reflection (Larmer & Mergendoller, 2010)

Delivery: For this study, delivery relates to conveyance of learning activities and experiences.

Evaluation: evaluation is operationalized to mean gauging the appropriateness of conveyance of learning experiences

Field Trip: a visit outside the university made by students who are accompanied by a lecturer for purposes of experiencing through observation, the goings on in the industry as well as simulate what is being taught (Behrendt & Franklin, 2014)

Group work: involves students working collaboratively on set tasks, in or out of the classroom. Group work includes any learning and teaching tasks or activities that require students to work in groups, any formal assessment tasks that require students to work in groups (Johnson, et al., 2008).

Industry based Learning: this is learning that takes place in the industry wherein the University appoints an academic staff member as a coordinator to liaise with the industry partners, assess and place students. This is manifested through service learning, internships, cooperative education and practicum, which empower learners to connect theory with practice (Austin & Rust, 2015).

Internship: the position of a student or trainee who works in a hospitality organization without pay in order to gain work experience and satisfy requirements for a degree (Coco, 2000)

Lab work: laboratory is a place used for practical teaching. The "on campus" lab is usually the simulation of the hotel lobby, guest rooms, kitchen, bar, restaurant etc. that aims at improving the students' practical ability (Davies, 2008).

Learning: is the increase, through experience, of problem-solving ability, i.e., an increase, through experience, of ability to gain goals in spite of obstacles (Washburne, 1936).

Mentor modeling: an off line help, which is given by one person to another in order to transit in knowledge, thinking and work (Norhasni & Aminuddin, 2012).

Model Based Learning: learning that occurs through observing the behavior of others. It is a form of social learning which takes various forms, based on various processes e.g. peer modeling, symbolic modeling, mentor modeling and visual modeling (Kolb, 1984).

Peer Modeling: provides students with the opportunity to learn social skills from typically developing peers through, among others, games and activities (Schunk, 1987).

Perceived Competence: Perceived competence is operationalize to mean how hospitality management students rate themselves on skills required for hospitality practice.

Delivery Evaluation: In this study, delivery evaluation is the gauging of the appropriateness of conveyance of practical learning experiences.

Practicum: also called work placement is a structured and supervised pedagogical approach designed to bring work experience (Jones, 2016).

Project: a learning experience that provides students an opportunity to synthesize knowledge from various areas of their field (Moon, 2004)

Reflection: the process of internally examining and exploring an issue of concern, triggered by an experience, which creates and clarifies meaning in terms of self, and which results in a changed conceptual and/or educational perspective" (Curry, 1990).

School Based Learning: learning that is 'hands on' designed to allow students to practice and develop a wide range of discipline-based techniques and personal skills. Learning that is carried out within the university, in labs. In this study, it includes lab work, group work, research and project work and field trips (Davies, 2008).

Symbolic Modeling: contains a set of representations (or ***symbols***) of something. Symbols are models that you do not have direct access to but can be seen and copied and possibly affect behavior and values e.g. media, films, videos, youtube (Lawley & Tompkins, 2011).

Visual Modeling: the use of semantically rich, graphical and textual design notations e.g. presentations, acts, activities, day-to-day interactions and behaviour (Quatrani, 2002)

Volunteering a form of pro-social behavior that involves a freely chosen decision to commit a sustained amount of time and effort to helping another person, group, or cause, typically through a non-profit organization (Stukas, Snyder & Clary, 2000).

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.0 Overview

This chapter presents background information, statement of the problem, purpose of the study, objectives of the study, hypotheses, significance of the study, scope, as well as limitation of the study.

1.1 Background to the Study

The critical role that the hospitality industry plays in the Kenyan economy has seen an emergence of many local colleges and Universities that offer hospitality management as one of their main courses. A key skill set that these institutions seek to maximize is the development of soft skills, which are critical for hospitality practice. Most of them therefore have invested in experiential learning that can expose student trainees to real life experiences to hone up their soft skills. Indeed, experiential learning that includes internship has been found to be an effective way of instilling soft skills in student trainees (Washor, 2015). Soft skills have also been associated with thriving businesses akin to those in the hospitality industry (Reich, 2007). It is argued that individuals in possession of requisite soft skills have the capability to initiate innovative and productive approaches that bring about positive social and economic gains (OECD, 2013). As such, employers expect graduating students to be employment ready by exhibiting required hard and soft skills.

Hospitality education has previously been viewed as a field that is multidisciplinary in the sense that, it encompasses several social science fields with inkling to the practices and applications in the hotel industry and other related sectors (Reigel as cited in Rahman, 2010). It is noted that hospitality education is a matter that has

attracted interest with many scholars studying it and its curriculum assessment widely (Rahman, 2010). Rahman further contends that the orientation of the hotel industry is service and therefore, emphasis in hospitality programs should focus on the service expectations of the industry. Moreover, it is argued that employers in the hotel industry lack the requisite knowledge and acumen to give a rational assessment of the hospitality curricular (Rahman, 2010). On the contrary, students wishing to eke out a career in hotel management have the ability to appraise the hospitality curricular in order to determine how well respective programs address career expectations and skills development.

Delivery and evaluation of hospitality curricular are no doubt necessary steps in the development of requisite skills for hotel industry expectations. Rahman (2010) posits that effective delivery and evaluation of the hospitality curricular can only be achieved with the involvement of hotel industry players. The argument advanced here is that hotel industry players, being the experts in hospitality industry matters and expectations are, at an advantageous position to provide the necessary experience and skills that hospitality graduates can lean on.

In spite of the critical role that delivery and evaluation of the hospitality curriculum plays in developing required skills, scholars consider experiential learning that includes attaching trainees to industries, as the panacea to glaring skills gaps among hospitality graduates (Moscardo & Norris, 2004; Ruhanen, 2005). Rowson and Lashley (2012) advocate for experiential learning by pointing out that employers in the hotel industry are keen on employees, who have hands on experience, are critical thinkers, have good social skills, and have strong ethics for work. Wurdinger (2005) defines experiential learning as a form of learning that draws from experience and

involves learning by doing. Wurdinger's perception of experiential learning is based on the notion that mimics learning in the real world, and aligns itself towards constructivism for which learners' are at the centre of their own learning. Maier and Thomas (2013) aver that by embracing experiential learning, the hotel industry puts itself in a position to experience improved industry advancement and placement.

The extant literature is inundated with evidence of the role of experiential learning in improving employee acumen. Dilorenzo–Aiss and Mathisen (as cited in Gault, Leach & Duey, 2010) for instance, note that experiential learning in form of internship programs, not only prepares students in terms of career and income advancement, but also brings value to universities and organizations involved. Gault *et al.* (2010) provide empirical evidence that experiential education enhances undergraduates' marketability and career preparation. Gault and colleagues argue that experiential learning significantly influences job offers and compensation.

Despite the potential benefits associated with experiential learning, it is argued that the success of such learning is pegged on existence of structures and avenues for the supervision of delivery frameworks (Eyler, 2009). Vogelgesang and Austin (as cited in Eyler, 2009) contend that when programs for service learning are poorly structured, they do not integrate the academic curriculum with industry expectations, and in essence contributes minimally to students learning. Moore (as cited in Eyler, 2009) identifies the mismatch between students' actual experiences and program goals as an avenue that inhibits anticipated benefits of experiential learning. The significance of these assertions is that, experiential learning in the University needs to work in tandem with delivery evaluation evaluation if competence in hospitality practice has to be achieved.

The emerging competition in the global job market has occasioned many challenges for hospitality graduates when trying to get jobs. Millar, Mao and Moreo (2013) argue that the hospitality industry is largely concerned with post-secondary institutions inability to align industry needs and expectation in their curricula. The argument is that operational post-secondary institutions curricula are devoid of integration of theory and practical orientation that could be more ideal in nurturing competence among hospitality graduates. The expectation among scholars in hospitality management is that training in hospitality should be structured in a manner that would see graduates address the issue of competition, meet employer demands, and change consumer perceptions (Alhelalat & Al-Hussein, 2015). Besides, Sisson and Adams (2013), argue that a combination of related knowledge and hands on experiential learning has the propensity to expose hospitality industry graduates to the required job competences for the hotel industry.

There has been global interest on the influence of experiential learning on hospitality graduates competencies. Brennen (2017) for instance, focused on experiential learning from the hospitality management perspective in the United States of America. Brennen was motivated by the graduates understanding that readiness among trainees in the hospitality industry does not only depend on academic knowledge derived from traditional classes and text books, but also requires experiential learning that gears the trainees towards hands on learning in the work place. Using interpretive phenomenological analysis (IPA), Brennen concluded that a hospitality education curriculum that provides opportunities for experiential learning goes a long way in developing student's strengths to be able to meet the hotel industry's expectations.

In yet another study conducted in the USA and focusing on the internship program in hospitality management, Anderson–Noto (2013), builds on the need for competent and skillful leaders in order for the hotel industry to remain competitive. The study by Anderson–Noto revealed that experiential learning through hands on learning leads to acquisition of problem solving, financial and analytical competencies. The study further revealed that internship; a form of experiential learning was useful in development of social skills such as employee interaction and conflict resolution that are vital for nurturing team spirit among employees.

Basaran (2016) examined experiential learning for tourism graduates in the Northern Cyprus context. Buoyed by the understanding that tourism as an industry contributes significantly to the Northern Cyprus economy, Basaran focused on how theory and practice are intertwined in the Eastern Mediterranean University School of Tourism and Hospitality Management's (EMU-STHM) four year programme through experiential learning. The study concluded that success of hospitality graduates undertaking the EMU-STHM programme was dependent on experiential learning which is advanced through industrial training, and which focuses on the development of leadership skills and interpersonal skills. I-Cheng (2015) used the mixed methods approach to examine management competencies that graduates in the hospitality industry in Eastern cultures required for occupational success. I-Cheng established that experiential learning ought to be employed in order to nurture management competencies that have practical implications to staff training, performance evaluation and recruitment among hospitality undergraduates.

Gerli, Bonesso and Pizzi (2015) explored the interplay between experiential and traditional learning approaches, and which is aimed at competency development.

Concentrating on first year master students drawn from Northern Italy, Bonesso and colleagues concluded that emotional competencies are best developed through training that combines both the traditional learning and individual experiential learning techniques. On the other hand, Bonesso and colleagues aver that social competencies are a product of the combination of traditional learning and social experiential learning.

Interest in experiential learning and hospitality graduates competency has also extended to the African continent. Van der Merwe and Septoe (2015) for instance, examined the viability and suitability of the South African hospitality management curriculum. Focusing on an international hotel school, Couradie used the quantitative approach to recommend a review of the curriculum used by the international hotel school to lean more towards experiential learning. From the Ugandan context, Opolot, *et al.* (2017) assessed use of experiential learning and teaching methods in undergraduate programs, which were however not drawn from the hospitality industry. Buoyed by the knowledge that competent graduates are critical to organizational competitiveness, Opolot and colleagues established that most programs still rely on the traditional lecture approach, as opposed to institutionalization of experiential learning approaches.

There is no doubt that the hospitality industry requires human resources capable of addressing emerging challenges occasioned by global competition. The industry does require employees who are still young and who can think critically, and possess strong work ethics. It is regrettable to note however, that various scholars continue to report a lack of relevant industry related skills among hospitality graduates (Alhelalat & Al-Hussein, 2015; Lee, 2007; Moscardo & Norris, 2004; Ruhanen, 2005). Suffice

it to say that examination of experiential learning and student competence from a Kenyan perspective was therefore necessary.

1.2 Statement of the Research Problem

The hospitality industry ranks high as a core sector in the service industry. Like many other sectors in this industry, the hotel industry, faces the challenge of maintaining a qualified and skilled workforce that can cater for the emerging dynamism in customer needs. Hotel industry stakeholders concede that hospitality graduates are lacking in the requisite skills to meet customer expectations in contemporary society (Alhelalat & Al-Hussein, 2015, Yang & Cheung, 2014). Goodman and Sprague (as cited in Millar, Mao & Moreo, 2008) contend that hotel industry education is an applied discipline that the hospitality industry ought to exploit in an endeavor to expose hospitality students to emerging and current trends in the industry. The need to invest in hotel education takes cognizance of the fact that a shortage of specialized and skilled work force remains an ongoing and thorny issue in the industry as a whole (Yang & Cheung, 2014). The bottom line is that there is need to maximize on the potential possessed by hospitality education in order to address the issue of specialized and skilled work force shortage, and by extension, to meet demands of the hospitality industry.

Despite being taken through experiential learning approaches, most students graduating from universities in Kenya, as is the case globally are lacking the essential soft and hard skills that they require to be effective at the workplace. Evidence in the extant literature, has shown that offering of the hospitality management course may not be congruent with the quality of graduates desired for the industry. It has for instance, been documented that hospitality graduates globally

lack the requisite skills relevant to the needs and expectations of the industry (Alhelalat & Al-Hussein, 2015; Wang & Tsai, 2014; Yang & Cheung, 2014). The inability of University graduates in Kenya to meet the expectations of the job market remains worrying. The Kenyan cabinet secretary for interior, the Hon. Dr. Fred Matiang'i for instance questions the quality of students graduating from public universities (Daily Nation, 2 March 2017). He contends that employers are increasingly passing up opportunities of hiring graduates from public universities for fear of the mismatch between industry expectations and graduates competencies.

The inability of hospitality graduates to display competency in the world of work has been attributed to poor University education, which has resulted to continued concerns regarding the mismatch between anticipated and actual skills acquisition among graduates. Rotich,& Belsoy (2012), in a study on assessment of quality of hospitality education in Kenya reported that laboratories were like commercial kitchens with a significant difference among the implication of the laboratories on the quality of education ($\chi 2=32.667$ $p=.000$) and concluded that the status of laboratories were poor and their unavailability contributed to poor quality education.

Anecdotal evidence further shows that the World Bank finds existence of a disconnect between labour market needs in Kenya and, the ability of university graduates to meet them. In essence, the World Bank views poor education as the cause of high unemployment in Kenya (Otuki, 2017). According to the President's Strategic Communications Unit (PSCU) 2017, the concern of Kenya's graduate inability to meet industry expectation has even caught the attention of the president of the Republic of Kenya. In his comments, HE President Uhuru Kenyatta reiterated the need for universities to match industry skills expectations by working in tandem

with industry stakeholders. Anyal (2014) decries the skills mismatch that exists between the hospitality industry expectations and the graduates joining the industry's job market.

Hospitality management students in Kenya are taught through experiential learning that subsumes school-based, model-based, and industry-based learning approaches. This learning is further elaborately evaluated by both the industry stakeholders and university lecturers. However, despite such a comprehensive learning and evaluation scheme, evidence shows hospitality management students graduating from Kenyan universities fall in the category of graduates who are short on job market skill expectations (Francis et al., 2020). If university experiential learning and delivery evaluation have to achieve the goals of nurturing expected job-specific hospitality skills, perhaps there was a need to examine the influence of experiential learning and delivery evaluation on the perceived competency of hospitality management students.

Contextually, studies have focused on single components of experiential learning, being either experimentation, experience or observation whereas this study combined school-based learning, industry-based learning and observations to give a holistic view of experiential learning.

In terms of methodology, studies mainly employed a single tool, for instance the questionnaire or interview schedule in data collection, thus missing out on the benefits of triangulating data collection and complementing the tools (Vrsaljko and Cukelj, 2016), which this study utilized.

Additionally, whereas similar studies have used qualitative and diverse statistical tools (Stansbie *et al*. (2016), in this study a multivariate statistical process, Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) was employed to analyze the relationships among the latent constructs of the hypothesised model of the study.

Whereas in existing studies industry players and employees with no university training or experience have been the focus (Opondo (2018), This study involved Hospitality Management students.

Further, studies on experiential learning have been conducted elsewhere in the world (Hsu *et al.* (2013) with little evidence from Kenya where university hospitality education is new.

Theoretically, previous similar studies have utilized single theories, particularly Kolb's Experiential Learning Style Theory, (Allodola, 2014), while a triangulation of four theories has been used in this study.

1.3 Research Objectives

The study was guided by a general objective and eight specific objectives as indicated below. The specific objectives were used to formulate research questions and hypotheses.

1.3.1 Main Objective

The study sought to establish experiential learning and delivery evaluation as antecedents of perceived competency of hospitality management students from selected universities in Kenya.

1.3.2 Specific Objectives

To achieve the desired objective, the following specific objectives were addressed:-

1. To establish the influence of school-based learning on perceived competency of Hospitality Management students from selected universities in Kenya.
2. To determine the influence of industry-based learning on perceived competency of Hospitality Management students from selected universities in Kenya.
3. To examine the influence of model-based learning on perceived competency of Hospitality Management students from selected universities in Kenya.
4. To analyze the influence of school-based learning on delivery evaluation in selected universities in Kenya
5. To explore the influence of industry-based learning on delivery evaluation in selected universities in Kenya
6. To establish the influence of model-based learning on delivery evaluation in selected universities in Kenya
7. To establish the influence of delivery evaluation on perceived competency of Hospitality Management students from selected universities in Kenya.
8. To explore challenges and opportunities presented by university experiential learning.

1.3.3. Research Hypotheses (Null)

The following hypotheses were tested:

1. **$H_0$1:** There is no influence of school-based learning on perceived competency of Hospitality Management students from selected universities in Kenya.

2. **$H_0$2:** There is no influence of industry-based learning on perceived competency of Hospitality Management students from selected universities in Kenya.
3. **$H_0$3:** There is no influence of model-based learning on perceived competency of Hospitality Management students from selected universities in Kenya.
4. **$H_0$4:** There is no influence of school-based learning on delivery evaluation in selected universities in Kenya
5. **$H_0$5:** There is no influence of industry-based learning on delivery evaluation in selected universities in Kenya
6. **$H_0$6:** There is no influence of model-based Learning on delivery evaluation in selected universities in Kenya
7. **$H_0$7:** There is no influence of delivery evaluation on perceived competency of Hospitality Management students from selected universities in Kenya.

1.3.4 Research Questions

1. What is the perception of students on aspects and activities undertaken in experiential learning?
2. What are the challenges faced and opportunities that can be exploited in delivery of experiential learning that can enhance acquisition of competency of Hospitality Management students?
3. What is the state or condition of the school-based learning components and the delivery of practical sessions?

1.4 Justification of the Study

Many hospitality programs in Kenya particularly and the world in general can use this study as a framework to evaluate their hospitality practical courses as part of the

curriculum. As such, this study adds greatly to the existing hospitality education literature mainly in the areas of experiential and experience-based learning. Findings of this study seek to help hospitality educators and administrators to revisit the hospitality curriculum in order to identify the dynamics and shortcomings of the curriculum. The strengths and weaknesses of the curriculum can be analyzed making this study a framework of reference. Moreover, the study serves as a good basis for researchers willing to work more in the areas of hospitality curriculum re-development and hospitality program rankings to some extent.

There has not been a research study published which is similar to the present study focusing on the relationships between university experiential learning components and competency in hospitality practice as perceived by the students of universities in Kenya. Similarly, there has not been a research study published which is similar to the present study focusing on the relationships between university experiential learning components and delivery evaluation and competency in hospitality practice in Kenya. Utilizing input from the representatives of the industry, academicians and students, the current research study aims to provide administrators and instructors a basis for curriculum redevelopment by effective use of experiential learning in hospitality management programmes in Kenyan universities.

This study may be presumed valuable to people in hospitality industry as a guide to understand contemporary trends in university's hospitality management programmes in order to offer appropriate suggestions. The current study is also considered beneficial to students presently studying hospitality management programs. The study serves as an enlightening reference to students in understanding the importance of practical learning to provide expertise or qualifications that the industry is seeking

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

The findings provide a framework upon which the government can come up with policies to guide the success of the government's Competency-based Education programme.

1.5 Scope of the Study

The academic scope of this study was Tourism, Hospitality and Events management, delimited to Hospitality management. The study sought to establish the influence of experiential learning components and delivery evaluation as antecedents to perceived competency of Hospitality Management students from selected universities in Kenya. This was achieved by establishing the influence of university experimental learning components, specifically, school-based learning, industry-based learning and model-based learning on delivery evaluation and perceived competency of Hospitality Management students from selected universities in Kenya. The study covered ten universities namely Kenyatta University (KU), United States International University (USIU), University of Eldoret (UoE), University of Eastern Africa-Baraton, Maasai Mara University (MMU), Moi University, Kabianga University, Maseno University, Technical University of Kenya and Technical University of Mombasa. The respondents for the research were drawn from these universities and included final year hospitality management students, heads of department and lecturers handling practical classes. Multiple sampling techniques, including Stratified, purposive, census and simple random sampling techniques were used to select research respondents. The study was carried out between October, 2018 and January, 2019.

Basing the study towards the pragmatist paradigm, the study used the concurrent triangulation mixed methods design in which quantitative ((questionnaires) and qualitative (semi-structured interviews, focus group discussions, and non-participant observations) data were collected concurrently in the data collection phase. This approach was seen ideal since perceptions about competency required cross validation or corroboration of findings and the mixed methods approach overcomes weaknesses that may arise due to reliance on one method of research. Quantitative data was analyzed using Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS 20.0) alongside Analysis of Moment Structures (AMOS 21.0) software. A multivariate statistical process, Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) was used to analyze the relationships among the latent constructs of the hypothesized model of the study. Qualitative data was analyzed using content analysis.

1.6 Limitations of the Study

Delivery of content measured via evaluation of training and development, features as a critical component of any training programme. There was however, scarcity of literature on delivery evaluation. Where there was literature, the context of the studies was however different from that of Kenya. In addition, their studies did not focus on delivery evaluation alone but looked at the entire concept of programme delivery. The current study sought to address these gaps by replicating the study in the local Kenyan context, and by manipulating experiential learning components directly on delivery evaluation. The study also incorporated Kirkpatricks' Four – Level Training Evaluation Model. The model can help objectively analyse the effectiveness and impact of training, so that improvement can be made in the future.

Another limitation was that the study was limited to Silva's Management Competency Model to arrive at indicators for perceived competency despite the fact it did not emanate from hospitality industry.

Further, the study relied on final year hospitality management students whose competencies had only been acquired from a short time in industry during industry-based learning.

1.7 Assumptions of the Study

The researcher assumed that experiential learning components such as school-based, industry-based and model-based learning are employed in training in both public and private universities. Further, the study assumed that all the institutions under study send their students on industrial attachment and field trips. The study assumed the field observation would yield the desired information to beef up study findings. The researcher also assumed that all final year students had gone through all the experiential learning components under study.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.0 Overview

This chapter reviews literature relevant to the research problem under investigation and gives some exploration of previous or related studies. This was necessary to expose gaps and theoretical perspectives relevant to the research problem. The chapter reports reviews of literature on among others, the concept of competency, job related competencies, hospitality practice competencies, school-based experiential learning, industry-based experiential learning, model-based experiential learning, theoretical framework, empirical review, critique of existing studies, and knowledge gap.

2.1 The Concept of Competency

Competency has in the recent past replaced the concept of skill set in organizational discourse. It is argued that organizations have had a shift in strategy with an eye to excelling as opposed to just competing (Chouhan & Srivastava, 2014). The question then is what is competence? According to Coupin (2006), the word competence is a derivation from the latin civilization and draws from the word ‘competentia’ which is decoded to imply ‘authorized to judge’ and also ‘the right to speak’. Cooper (as cited in Chouhan & Srivastava, 2014) laments the lack of uniformity in definitions, methodologies, and compositions of competence, which to him, are a source of the misunderstanding.

Several definitions of competence have been advanced right from the early 1970s. McClelland (1973) for instance, viewed competence as a trait inherent in a person or a set of habits the person possesses and which are responsible for superior or effective job performance. Klemp (1980) maintained the characteristics of superior and

effective performance by defining competence as an underlying characteristic that individuals possess and which leads to superior or effective job performance. Spencer and Spencer (1993) viewed competencies in terms of abilities and skills that are often acquired through study, training, life experience, or work experience. Page and Wilson (1994) also bought into the skills and abilities notion in defining competence as abilities, skills, and characteristics that a good and effective manager requires. Boyatzis (2007) defines competency as a characteristic within an individual and which is casually responsible for superior job performance.

Although there is no consensus in the definition of the term competence, it is safe to argue that competence is a function of skills and traits inherent in people and which result in efficiency in job performance. Indeed, Tucker and Cofsky (as cited in Chauhan & Srivastava, 2014) delineate five key characteristics of competency namely; knowledge, skills, self-concepts and values; traits, and motives. Tucker and Cofsky argue that a combination of these characteristics defines competence which results in the critical behaviour required for performance. These views by Tucker and Cofsky, blend well with the definition of competence advanced by Hoskins and Deakin (2010). According to the two scholars, competence is a complex combination of desire, attitudes, values, understanding, skills and knowledge that results in effective and embodied human action in a given domain.

2.1.1 Essential Job Related Competencies

A number of competencies required for effective job performance have been identified and have empirical support from the extant literature. Career management, emerges as a critical job related competency. Sauder, Sefton and Evans (2016), define career management as the capability to shape a career and balance work, learning and,

other lifelong expectations. According to Bridgstock (2009), career management involves the creation of career goals that are not only realistic but also meaningful. Besides, it also involves the identification of learning opportunities and work decisions that are strategic, as well as striking a work life balance. Bridgstock (2009) further observes that despite being overlooked in most cases, career management is an important attribute of new graduates when transitioning into the world of work. It informs decisions such as choosing when discipline–specific and generic skills can be learned, exhibited and applied at work.

Evidence further exists in the extant literature showing benefits that accrue from improved career management competency. Hughes, Bosley, Bysshe, and Bowes (2019) demonstrated that skills in career management have the ability to result in reduced employee turnover, reduced job–search times, lower unemployment rates, and enhanced productivity at work. Sturges *et al*. (as cited in Ngirande & Mazanai, 2016) established that acumen in career management relates directly with organizational commitment. It is imperative that undergraduates be exposed to training that develops career management skills that are congruent with new graduates' success in the work force.

Communication is identified as the second competency relevant within an organization. It is argued that communication facilitates coordination and motivation, decision making, and information sharing (Cheney *et al*, 2004). Furthermore, Sias (2009) notes that communication is central to maintenance of relationships within employees, and between employees and the organization. It is noted that despite written communication being a requisite skill in the work place, most graduates are found wanting in this skill (Moore & Morton, 2015). It is incumbent upon

stakeholders to focus on programmes that encourage learning by doing and which can enhance oral and written skills.

Discipline specific knowledge is the other competency associated with the work place. Everwijn, Bomers and Knubben (1993, as cited in Stuckey & Munro, 2013) contend that discipline specific knowledge is that knowledge which oversees success in a specific domain or industry. The argument posited is that, discipline specific knowledge augments broader skills such as interdependence, communication and thinking skills (Everwijn *et al.*, 1993 as cited in Stuckey & Munro, 2013). In order to succeed in the work place, it is therefore important that new graduates have the basic knowledge expected for the respective field. Garkovich, Bunch and Davis (2015) agree that all educational programmes are underpinned in discipline specific knowledge and therefore a framework that can enable students to examine how much knowledge they have acquired and its applicability is of utmost importance.

Professionalism is yet another competency identified as crucial for the work force, but which is not well imparted in today's post-secondary students (Gardner, 2011). Lui, Ngo and Tsang (2003) posit that professional training that encompasses experience at the work place is key to the development of professionalism. Hammer (2006) adds that education as a professional field that exposes students expected attitudes and behaviours brings a lot of value in terms of professionalism.

The work ethic competency is also associated with job performance. Miller, Woehr and Hudspeth (2002) view work ethnic as a commitment to the importance and value of hard work. They argue that higher levels of absences and turnover are a product of deficiency in work ethic. Moreover, Webrukor (1993, as cited in Miller et al, 2002)

points out that lack of work ethic can lead to an increase in behaviours such as employee theft and unauthorized breaks that are on the overall counterproductive.

Despite the importance of work ethic being documented (Miller *et al.,* 2002), there have been concerns about the decline in work ethic among employees (Keith *et al.,* 2016). It is argued that in hiring managers, most organizations are more concerned with prospective employees' attitude than aptitude, and expect employees to demonstrate commitment to their work (Flynn as cited in Keith *et al.,* 2016). Smith, Appleman and Wilhelm (2014) argue that an educational programme ought to be flexible and should allow customization of students learning experiences to interests and goals, strengths and commitment.

Perhaps the competency that has gained recognition in the recent past owing to increased digital culture is technical competence. Albino (2018) observes that there is need for employees to demonstrate technical competence if they have to succeed at the workplace. LeBlanc views technical competence as the ability to solve problems in contemporary work environments which are loaded with technology. Koltay (2011) maintains that digital literacy and technical skills allow selection and retrieval of appropriate information which is required for solving problems.

The concern however, is that there seems to be a digital divide manifested by inability of students to transfer technical skills learned in programs to the work place (Vodoz, as cited in LeBlanc *et al.,* 2015). According to Sithole, (2015), although the industry values industry–specific technological skills, entry level graduates often display technological skills that are aligned to more general technology. A University learning program needs to take cognizance of such a gap experienced across a range of industries. Other notable competencies associated with the work place, and which

entry level graduates need to acquire are identified as teamwork, self-management, leadership and, thinking skills.

2.1.2 Essential Competencies for Hospitality Management

The hospitality industry is noted to be diverse in nature making it difficult to discern the precise competencies and skills that hospitality graduates require. Kay and Russette (2000 as cited in Johnson, Ghiselli, Shea & Roberts, 2010) admit that industry leaders have been crucial in offering guidance to hospitality educators regarding the requisite competencies needed by hospitality graduates. Nevertheless, it is important to identify competencies that the industry has put emphasis on over the years.

Employee competencies for the hospitality industry graduate have attracted wide interest among scholars, who have gone on to identify diverse competencies relevant for the industry. Buergermeister (1983, as cited in Liaman, 2014) and then Tas (1988 as cited in Liaman, 2014) identified eight competencies that they deemed essential for hospitality management. The eight competencies are sensitivity and understanding, work ethics, communication, professionalism, leadership, teamwork, motivation, and interactional skills.

Chung-Herrera, Enz and Lankau (2003), identified fourteen competencies required of hospitality graduates. They included; acting ethically, time management; continual learning and development; adapting to change, taking into consideration customer needs; promotion of company services and goods; exhaustion of all factors when making decisions, taking risks, studying the competitors, being convincing; offering encouragement; listening, conflict resolution and promotion of respect. The many

competencies can however be summed up into clusters of competencies specific to hospitality orientation.

The international Council of Hotel Restaurant and Institutional Education (ICHRIE, as cited in Johanson *et al.*, 2010), identifies basic competencies relevant for contemporary hospitality oriented jobs. First, on this list is competency in communication. Johanson and colleagues argue that the capability to communicate with confidence with customers, employees, managers, suppliers and partners, whether orally or in written is important for day to day operations in hotels. It is argued that communication is perhaps the most commonly utilized competency in hospitality and tourism (Essays, UK, 2013).

According to Essays UK (2013), managers utilize most of their times communicating with employees and partners either verbally or in written format. Besides, employees engage in communications with each other, and also with their managers with a view to sharing information relevant to their work. Communication competencies' are ranked among the top competencies a hospitality graduate should possess (Su *et al,* 1997 as cited in Nilsson, 2018); and are required to succeed in the hospitality industry (Lin, 2002 as cited in Nilsson, 2018). Nilson contends that communication enables adaptation to change in competitive and complex environments.

Interpersonal competencies represent the next set of competencies that is needed in the hospitality industry. This set of competencies includes customer relations which relates to the capability to handle customer problems and manage the problems sensitively and in an understanding manner (Johanson *et al.* 2010). Previous research on hospitality competencies have shown that interpersonal competencies have been ranked alongside self-management and problem solving as being among the skills an

individual should possess to carry out tasks effectively (Raybould & Wilkins, 2006). Su *et al.* (1997 as cited in as cited in Nilsson, 2018), identifies people skills, teamwork, employee relations and listening skills as interpersonal competencies that should be possessed by hospitality personnel. Nilson, 2018), Tesone and Ricci (2012) support the importance of interpersonal competencies by observing that capability to work in a team; ability to empathize and ability to listen are a must for hospitality staff.

Indeed the Sydney Bar School Training Courses and Industry News (2017), delineates teamwork, communications, and public speaking as the three interpersonal skills that are very important in hospitality. According to this news, teamwork enables creation of great experience for guests. Communication complements teamwork in ensuring that directions given are clear and that feedback is shared. Besides, through effective communication, staff understands and appreciates decisions made. The ability to speak in public is no doubt viewed as a part of communication, and a competency that a hospitality graduate must surely possess.

Another competency that features prominently in hospitality discourse is digital competency. According to the European Commission (2006, as cited in Poutanen, 2016), digital competence entails the confident ability to use information technology for communication and work, and is underpinned in by ICT skills such as retrieval, assessment, storage, production, presentation and exchange of information and use of the internet to participate in collaborative work.

Leadership competencies belong to another set of competencies that are viewed central to the hospitality industry. Testa and Sipe (2012) argue that being a service industry; the hospitality industry pegs its success on leadership competencies. These

scholars observe that soft competencies such as employee service and, behaviour related competencies are crucial for customer satisfaction, requiring that hospitality managers be able to show leadership in these skills. Kay and Russete (2000 as cited in Nilsson, 2018) recognize leadership competencies as being fundamental to hospitality industry leadership. They argue that leadership competencies allow for capacity development and management of employees. Ashley *et al,* (1995 as cited in Nilson, 2018) contend that competencies such as problem identification and solving, service orientation and total quality management are very important general management competencies in hospitality.

Testa and Sipe (2012) aver that ability to manage the organization and, ability to manage oneself are facets of competencies that leaders must possess. Cheung, Law and He (2010) on the other hand, view leadership as basic competencies that hotel managers require in order to train, practice and develop themselves. Cheung and colleagues argue that the hospitality education curriculum ought to include such basic competencies. Ashley *et al.* (1995 as cited in Nilsson, 2018) point out that hospitality students should be exposed to competencies in thinking, learning and adapting to diverse situations.

The next set of competencies associated with hospitality practice includes technical competencies. Testa and Sipe (2012) construe technical competencies in the hospitality industry as relating to the ability to use systems, standards and processes to cater for guests efficiently. Tsai, Goh, Wu and Huffman (2006), aver that technical competencies in the lodging industry operation and processes are essential since the industry is unique and requires knowledge of this uniqueness. Wessels, du Plessis and Slabbert (2017) posit that, hospitality educators should take the responsibility of

teaching technical competencies as well as other competencies, and this should contain the requisite practical experience.

The bottom line drawn from these arguments is that the hospitality industry is a unique and sensitive industry that requires graduates to have the necessary competencies that can help satisfy customers. The diversity among guests is such that those handling them need to have a range of skills, and be able to adapt to various environmental settings seamlessly.

2.2 The Concept of Delivery Evaluation

Delivery of content measured via evaluation of training and development, features as a critical component of any training programme. According to Gopal (2009), effective training and development programmes ought to identify training needs, which should then be evaluated after the training, in order to gauge the effectiveness of the programme delivery. Nagar (2009) posits that evaluation of training ensures that trainees' are able to implement skills acquired during training. Training evaluation concepts and models have attracted interest among scholars whose focus is to evaluate and demonstrate the effectiveness of training programmes (Khawaja & Nadeem, 2013; Kearns, 2006; Kline & Harris, 2008). Programme delivery assessment through training measurement and evaluation has evolved through stages as reported by Varsha (2018). Varsha points out that the first stage, which ranged from 1950 to 1987 was the a-theoretical stage that was practice–oriented. This stage marked the start of efforts, though unconscious, among practitioners to understand the concepts of training measurement and evaluation.

Wang and Spitzer (2005) identify the Donald Kirkpatrick's evaluation model as the most significant outcome of the first stage. This is a four-step model comprising of reaction, learning, behaviour and results. According to Kirk Patrick (1959a as cited in Ho, 2012, p.4), in the reaction step, emphasis should be on anonymous evaluation of participant reaction in order to obtain honest feedback. In the learning step, focus is on the amount and quantity of knowledge participants acquire from training. The third step; commonly known as behaviour, focuses on participants' application and absorption of acquired knowledge in their jobs. In the fourth step, the argument is that tangible results are a sure way to evaluate training in spite of them being complex to measure. The four- step model advanced by Kirkpatrick has been the foundation upon which later models of evaluation have been based owing to its ability to popularize evaluation of training delivery (Kearns, 2006, Wang & Spitzer, 2005). Moreover, most scholars have widely used this model having found it to be a standard approach to measuring and evaluating training effectiveness (Khawaja & Nadeem, 2013; Kline & Harris, 2008).

The second stage in the evolution of training measurement and evaluation ranged between 1987 and 2000 and was called the operational stage. This stage was process–driven and involved large amounts of research on return on investment (ROI) occasioned by demands for accountability, global competitiveness and fragile economic conditions (Wang & Spitzer, 2005). The second stage saw the emergence of Phillips' model with a fifth level of evaluation that focused on ROI and a comparison of training benefits with training costs (Wang & Spitzer, 2005). According to Phillips (as cited in Ho, 2012), training also has intangible benefits and therefore requires a combination of methods in order to increase credibility of training measurement. This stage increased awareness among managers' and practitioners' with regards to the

significance of measurement and evaluation with an emphasis on ROI. Moreover, the stage acted as a motivator for researchers and practitioners to seek better approaches for measuring and evaluating effects of training (Wang & Spitzer, 2005). Emergence of the operational stage attracted critics of Kirk Patrick's model who pointed out that it lacked the requisite criteria that warrants a complete model and it therefore only served as the stepping-stone to deeper understanding of training evaluation within organizations (Alliger & Janak, 1989; Holton, 1996 as cited in Ho, 2012). As a consequence, Wang and Spitzer (2005) point out that the four-level model was rather considered taxonomy and a tool for evaluation communication as opposed to a method of measuring and evaluating training (check this criticism and its impact on the model).

The third stage of the evolution measurement and evaluation of training was referred to as the comprehensive research oriented stage. This stage is reported to have emerged in 2000 and was driven by the bubble surrounding dot.com and the subsequent recession (Ho, 2012). The push for this stage was informed by a desire for comprehensive methods founded on research and practice. Consequently, existing theories formed the basis for research which was comprehensive and strongly evaluated (Wang & Spitzer, 2005).The stage advocated for training evaluation that was more structured and which took cognizance of intended outcomes. Kearns (2005) for instance argued that planning for training evaluation ought to precede training and the criteria for evaluation needed to inform the training design. In essence therefore, Kearns (2005) advocated for another step for evaluating training which required that the value addition to the organization be established and measures to assess effectiveness of training be developed prior to start of training. Adding to this school of thought, Russ-Eft and Preskill (2005) posited that the organization's infrastructure

in terms of mission, vision, systems and structures, leadership, communication system, strategic goals and culture should inform the evaluation process. They further pointed out that an evaluation process needed to account for external factors such as customer expectation, global environment, workforce diversity, competition, technology, and legal requirements.

2.2.1 Training Evaluation in the Hotel Industry

The hotel industry has and continues to contribute significantly to Kenya's economy (WTTC, 2017). Quality customer service remains a critical tenet in the hotel industry and requires training factors in the high level of customer interaction experienced. Chang (2010) argues that Kirkpatrick's model can effectively be used to assess training in hotels. The argument Chang advances is that, comprehensive training evaluation in hotels can be carried out if hotels collect organizational level as well as individual level performance data.

Kline and Harris (2008) identify two themes associated with training evaluation in hotels. The first theme focuses on the fact that training budget is anchored on training needs, and is reviewed by the top management. On the basis of ROI measurements, Kline and Harris (2008) observe that to measure the business impact of hotel performance, easily acquired data such as turnover and informal methods like feedback sessions with employees are suitable. It is however important to note that such measurement does not formally measure ROI which then requires that training designs for managers in the hotel industry should be equipped with tools and approaches that effectively measure ROI (Kline & Harris, 2008).

Gopal (2009) argues that evaluation of training and development is a critical component in any training programme. According to Gopal, good training and development ought to identify training needs, which should then be evaluated after the training. Nagar (2009) posits that evaluation of training in the hospitality industry for example, ensures that trainees are able to implement skills acquired during the training.

Evaluation of delivery evaluation is particularly of utmost importance in the hotel industry owing to the sensitive nature of the industry. Hayes and Ninemeier (2009) for example, point out that some of the practices in the industry, such as food safety, first aid, avoidance of sexual harassment, and alcohol beverage knowledge are mandatory by law. This therefore requires that staff are properly trained or informed. Uyen (2013) argues that lack of training among Chef's can lead to food poisoning and points to a case in which a restaurant had to close due to suspicion of food poisoning affecting more than 200 people.

In assessing training and development in the hotel industry, Prasanth (2015) points out that the growth and success of a hotel must take cognizance of training and development. Ryan (2008 as cited in Prasanth, 2015, p.29) argues that training should desire to explain in details tasks which staff are expected to perform. Failure of which may render employees incapable of helping clients as expected, unable to satisfy customers, and frustrating employees. Whitelaw *et al.* (2009) postulate that evaluation of training, cannot be wished away in any training process if desired results are to be achieved.

2.2.2 Empirical Literature on Delivery Evaluation and Perceived Competency

The quality of the training programme has been associated with acquisition of competencies required for performance in the job market. Valle et al. (as cited in Ackah & Agboyi, 2014) for instance, points out that effective training which is synonymous to programme delivery, benefits a firm in a number of ways including capacity building and development, capacity to retain skilled workforce, and work–force longevity. Sadaf, Iram and Naeem (2014) posit that a well designed training programme requires investment for long term benefits, and sets the direction of delivery which is compatible with work force skills management aimed at improved performance.

In a study conducted in the Ugandan context seeking to establish how programme delivery in form of training impacts on employee performance, Nassazi (2013) concluded that programme delivery has a significant impact on employee performance in their job tasks. Grensing-Pophal (2018) argues that programme delivery is an important facet of training which not only boosts employee efficiency, but also motivates employees to be more productive. Imran and Tanveer (2015) analyzed training & Development and employees performance in the context of banks in Pakistan. They concluded that effective programme delivery by way of training and development had a positive impact on employees' job knowledge, motivation, functional skills and hence, work quantity and quality. Similarly, Tahir *et al*. (2014) used the case of United Bank Limited in Pakistan to show that training and development was a significant determinant of employee performance in the bank.

From the Jordanian Context, Mohammed Raja Abulraheem Salah (2016) analyzed the effect of programme delivery on employee performance and productivity, and

concluded that effective programme delivery by way of training and development was indeed a positive predictor of employee productivity and performance. Similar findings were reported by Abdullahi, Gwadabe and Mu‟awiyya, (2018)) in a study focusing on training and development, and employee productivity and performance in the Nigerian context.

2.3 The Concept of Experiential Learning

Experiential learning is described in the extant literature as an active and interactive form of learning that pursues hands on learning and continuous reflection (Larmer & Mergendoller, 2010). It is argued that through experiential learning, students gain opportunities to bridge skills acquired in class with professional skills transferable to the workplace (Lu & Lambright 2010; Schwartz, 2015). Experiential learning is founded upon the interdisciplinary and constructivist pedagogy (Wurdinger, 2005). Lewis and Williams (1994 as cited Schwartz, 2012) define experiential learning simply as learning by doing or learning through experience which is essentially constructivist in nature. In this form of learning, learners acquire new ways of thinking, new attitudes, and new skills by reflecting on their experiences.

According to Moon (2004), experiential learning presents students a chance to manage the way they learn, as opposed to being directed on what to do. Moon adds that in this approach, the context of learning does not necessarily have to be the classroom and that the instructor acts as a facilitator. Students pursue skills they need to acquire and keep on reflecting on their learning. Experiential learning reportedly has its origins from Dewey's educational movement building on the premise that learning is a product of experience and reflection (as cited in Allodola, 2014). Keeton et al., (1976 as cited in Allodola, 2014), contend that life is a learning process in

which experience is gained through the process of living, work exposure, and relating to real world applications. According to Kiltey (1983 as cited in Allodola, 2014), humanistic psychology requires subjective experience where upon, individuals are able to make personal interpretations and understand how to handle emotions. Freire (1972 as cited in Allodola, 2014) argues that experiential learning puts the locus of control of the subject matter on the individual learners. This empowers them to challenge social norms and become change agents.

Experiential learning has also been viewed from a hybrid perspective. Kolb and Fry (1975 as cited in Allodola, 2014), for instance build on the work of Jean Piaget, Kurt Lewin and John Dewey to define experiential learning as a process through which meaning is made from direct experiences. In essence therefore, experiential learning can be viewed as a synonym to service learning, cooperative learning, adventure learning, action learning, and reflective practice. McGill and Warner (1989 as cited in Allodola, 2014) view experiential learning as a process that allows for direct encounter among individuals who are then able to give own meanings, reflect upon and transform, validate, and integrate diversity in knowledge. In summary, Burnard (1991 as cited in Allodola) defines experiential learning as a reflective and active process of learning by doing.

Whichever way one looks at it, it is prudent to agree with the views by Valkanos and Fragoulis (2007), that experiential learning as a process invites learners to conscientiously share and understand own feelings, actions, reflections and reactions to arising situations, through active participation. Lewis and Williams (1994, as cited in Schwartz, 2012) delineates two major categories of experiential learning namely; classroom based and field based.

2.3.1 Experiential Learning in the Hospitality Industry

Experiential learning in the hospitality industry provides a paradigm shift from traditional instruction to active learning which, in the hotel industry comes in the form of internships, practicum's, field work, and volunteer projects (Askren, 2017). According to the Northern Illinois University (2015), several activities are associated with experiential learning in the hotel industry and often include 'a learn-by-doing' aspect in order to hone up trainee skills. Among some of the activities mentioned are: apprenticeships, cooperative learning, internships and, service learning experiences, practicum, fieldwork, volunteer projects and student teaching.

Ultimately, the hospitality program aims at developing skills that can enable hospitality graduates to handle challenges experienced in the industry. Consequently, experiential learning approaches are recognized as the panacea to knowledge gaps that exist in hotel management (Askren, 2017). The ability to enhance skills in critical thinking and application of theories which are learned (Coker, 2010; Eyler, 2009) motivates the use of experiential learning techniques in hospitality programs. Evidence shows that experiential learning approaches have the capability to impart necessary skills that can allow hospitality graduates to navigate their way in hotel practices such as real restaurant setting and, menu preparation and service (DiMicelli as cited in Askren, 2017); event management (Moscardo & Norris, 2004); hotel management technology (Ruhanen, 2005); and increased perception of learning (Lee, 2007).

The internship programme remains a common mode of experiential learning in the hospitality industry. Austin and Rust (2015) observe that the programme helps bridge the gap between what students learn in their courses and what the industry expects.

Maertz, Stoeberl and Marks (2014), in concurring with the observations by Austin and Rush note that internship programmes help in exploring students' suitability for specific career paths.

The demand for expertise among hospitality management graduates has seen a number of universities the world over introduce hospitality degree programmes (Ruhanen, 2005). The inherently practical orientation of the industry and its dynamism however requires that such institutions adopt an experiential learning component that takes cognizance of the existing gap in bridging cognitive knowledge with practical ability (Ruhanen, 2005). Doubtlessly, hospitality management students stand to benefit immensely in terms of specific occupations, different industries and different jobs when exposed to experiential learning programmes.

It is documented that experiential learning in the hospitality industry is particularly useful in the sense that it enables hospitality students to determine fitting career paths that can engage them for a long time (Lee, 2008). Alhelalat (2015), for instance points out that there is a paradigm shift in the hospitality industry that requires due consideration of future industry leaders when designing hospitality education programs. Gursoy *et al.* (2018) maintain that hospitality education programmes should not just concentrate on employability of the graduates but should also look to carve out their career paths.

2.4 School-based Experiential Learning

School based experiential learning is mainly manifested in form of laboratory or practical work. Ernstzen, Bitzer and Grimmer–Somers (2009) observe that the hands-on nature of such experiential learning enables students to acquire personal skills and techniques that are discipline specific. It is argued that the steady rise in demand for

trained professionals and skilled graduates in the hospitality industry has put strain on training programs to incorporate a curriculum that takes cognizance of both theory and practice in order to deliver an integrated learning approach (Moscardo & Norris, 2003). The hospitality industry is particularly quite dynamic and is sensitive to social, cultural, and economic globalization. This in essence implies that curricula designed for programs to prepare professionals in the sector ought to have a practical orientation.

Several approaches are used in the school–based learning to give a practical orientation to learners. Laboratory workshop or studio work are seen to be critical in creative training, and are perceived as having to serve functions such as development of motor skills giving students hands-on experience; expose students to merits and demerits of lab experiments among others (Davies, 2008). It is argued that laboratory classes offer students an opportunity to move to abstract concepts from concrete phenomena, and the understanding that ideas must be subjected to vigorous testing in order to be considered to be true (Davies, 2008).

Group work is touted as a pedagogical approach that promotes interactive face to face learning which is associated with the development of critical thinking, decision making, and communication skills among students (Freeman, *et al.* 2014). Small and large groups are also credited with involvement of students in active learning (Davidson, Major & Michaelsen, 2014). Sandi–Urena, Cooper and Stevens (2012) aver that group work encourages students to solve problems, apply concepts and interrogate course content cognitively under the tutelage of peers. Moreover, well designed groups enable students to acquire and develop metacognitive skills.

Metacognition is noted to be a central factor in student learning owing to its inherent ability to focus individual learning (Kimberly, 2012). Noting that metacognition is akin to critical thinking, Martinez (2006) argues that the ability for students to think metacognitively is quite vital for group work. The point made here is that groups bring together students with divergent views, backgrounds and expectations and are therefore an embodiment of challenges that often arise from social interaction and personality conflicts among humans. Andrews *et al*. (2011) for instance, argue that individual's processing and retrieval of knowledge could be disrupted when they find themselves in situations of multiple contribution of ideas. Inability to match others contributions, as well as fear to make contributions in front of others, tends to suppress students contributions, which in essence is a negative attribute of group work. The pros of group work such as intra-group processing of concepts, solving of problems and answering of questions however outweigh the cons (Brown, Roediger & McDaniel, 2014). Group work is therefore no doubt, an experiential approach to learning that can enhance learner industrial capabilities.

Nokes–Malach *et al.* (2015), theorize that, collaborative groups have the cognitive ability to complement knowledge, cue prior knowledge, enhance memory, and promote knowledge recall. Brown *et al.* (2014) posit that group process enhances learning elements such as idea retrieval, self-explanation, and access to prior knowledge. Barkley, Major and Cross (2014) aver that collaborative learning is an informal way of using groups to encourage sharing of opinions among students, which in essence allows them to refine their modes of thinking.

Project based learning (PBL) is the other popular pedagogical approach that enhances experiential learning. According to Lockwood (1994 as cited in Brown, Karakok, Roh

& Oehrtman, 2013), project-based learning encompasses a constructivist philosophy that typifies inquiry approach, hands-on learning, cooperative learning, problem solving, and authentic learning. Behizadeh (2014) contends that PBL is hinged on projects which when used enables students to collaborate with peers in constructing own knowledge from the experience gained through interactions. It is argued that under the PBL approach, projects take a centre stage in the curriculum as opposed to being peripheral (Thomas, 2000). Besides, under project-based learning, the focus is fully on problems, which are the drivers of concept formation. Thomas (2000) further avers that projects provide a learner centered approach to constructive investigation. The teacher is therefore relegated to a peripheral role of facilitator-stimulating students' self-direction (Dolman's *et al,* 2016).

Field trips also feature prominently in the realm of classroom based experiential learning approaches. According to Farmer, Knapp and Benton (2007), student learning is a function of field trips that have the potential to challenge students to apply acquired knowledge by presenting authentic real life environment. Farmer and colleagues posit that the impact of field trips is long lasting and lingers longer in students' minds. Evidence in the extant literature illuminates on the importance attached to field trips (DeWitt & Storksdieck, 2008; Ateºkan & Lane, 2016; Fino, 2008; Goh, 2011).

There is no doubt from the above discourse that experiential learning experience whether gained from the classroom or from the field, plays a significant role in fresh graduates competence development. An examination of available opportunities of exposure to experiential learning in the hospitality industry is therefore essential.

2.4.1 School–based Learning and Perceived Competency

Not much empirical evidence exists relating school based learning to competency development. However some studies were identified that showed the impact of traditional approach to learning on trainees' skills development.

Basara (2016) examined experiential learning as practiced in tourism education in Cyprus. Basaran was motivated by the knowledge that tourism as an industry is critical to the economy of Northern Cyprus. The focus of the study was to examine how students, faculty and other professionals perceive the content of the four–year programme offered at the Eastern Mediterranean University School of Tourism and Hospitality Management (EMU-STHM), and its ability to inculcate the required hospitality industry competencies among trainees. Basaran triangulated data collection among students, faculty and managers from the industry. He relied on the qualitative research design and interviews to conclude that leadership skills, interpersonal skills, experiential learning and industrial training were critical components of the EMU-STHM programme. Among recommendations made were that the largely theory oriented content ought to get support from experiential learning activities that focus on a practical orientation that is student centered. Moreover, he recommended continuous cooperation and interaction between the school and industry players. Notably however, the study was conducted in a context totally different from the Kenyan one.

Stansbie, Nash and Chang (2016) used the hospitality and tourism management students to establish the link between classroom learning and internships. The gist of the study was to examine whether internships complemented and enhanced knowledge gained via traditional classroom settings. Stansbie and colleagues

collected both quantitative and qualitative data using questionnaires and focus group discussions. They used cross tabulations and Fishers exact test to establish that; students were of the view that classroom knowledge had prepared them well for newer experiences; concepts and theories gained in classroom manifested in practical experiences; and that classroom education complemented competencies gained during internship. The study was however silent on the context in which it was conducted.

Opondo (2018) examined the role played by hospitality training in harnessing the performance of executive chefs who work in classified hotels in Mombasa Kenya. Opondo's study was motivated by the integral role chefs are playing in meal experience among guests. He used a cross sectional design that required a combination of questionnaires and interview schedules for data collection. Using one way ANOVA to test hypotheses, Opondo found out among others that, formal training related significantly with competency; training was critical in imparting knowledge, honing skills and improving abilities. Having concentrated on only one cadre of hospitality professionals, a replication of the study with hospitality graduates was quite in order.

Brennen (2017) analyzed experiential learning from the hospitality management perspective. Buoyed by the fact that traditional classes remain critical to curriculum delivery in hospitality management, Brennen sought to examine perceptions among hospitality management students regarding use of learning laboratories in the academic curriculum framework. Brennen relied on the qualitative research approach embedded in the constructivist–interpretivist paradigm and therefore used the Interpretative Phenomenological Analysis (IPA) strategy of inquiry to identify key themes that emerged. Among the major findings made by Brennen were: Students

perceived program design as being critical to student engagement when using learning laboratories; use of learning laboratories improved interaction between students and faculty yielding a well rounded training experience, and that learning laboratories provided the much needed practical application of knowledge. Reliance on the constructivist and interpretive philosophical thoughts rendered the findings by Brennen to be rather subjective in nature.

Gerli, Bonesso and Pizzi (2015) assessed the interplay that exists between traditional and experiential learning when it concerns competency development. Using a sample of 240 students drawn from a public university in Northern Italy, and with a questionnaire return rate of 45%, Bonesso and colleagues used the chi-square contingency test, the t-test and the Kolmogorov–Smirnov test to restrict the original sample of 108 to a sample of 95 students. Among key findings were; that traditional learning (TL) when implemented alongside individual experiential learning (IEL), significantly impacts emotional competencies; that social experiential learning (SEL) also requires the presence of TL to have a significant effect on social competencies. Italy being notably a developed nation, it was necessary to explore the viability of experiential learning in the local context.

2.4.2 School-based Learning and Delivery Evaluation

Empirical evidence shows that school based learning in hospitality practice impacts positively on acquisition of delivered theories. Stansbie, Nash and Chang (2016) for instance, linked internship and classroom learning among hospitality and tourism management students. Using a mixed methodology, that involved use of student questionnaires and focus group discussions with groups of students, the study revealed that students were positive to classroom learning, which prepared them well

for their experiences. Moreover, results of statistical significance indicated that classroom learning had identified theories, which were important for learning. The study by Stanbie *et al.* (2016) did not however focus directly on the impact of school-based experiential learning on evaluation of delivery.

Hsu, Ting and Wu (2013) explored suitable hospitality and tourism practice teaching strategies for enhancing students' presentation and participation skill development. They used a qualitative study that incorporated interviews with students, which were analyzed using typology and logic. Among the main findings was that classroom based learning that is activity oriented was more effective in delivery evaluation of hospitality and tourism practice in Taiwan. Use of typology and logic approach to analysis was however not a sure way to ascertain validity and reliability of the findings. Besides, the tourism context in Taiwan is completely different from the Kenyan tourism context.

Oshins and Brown (2018) examined the blending of theory and practice through experiential learning in hospitality curriculum. They argue that despite the class atmosphere being a good learning environment, the hands on nature of the hospitality industry is such that hospitality curricular is expected to embrace experiential learning theory to complement it for effective delivery. Once again, Oshins and Brown failed to clearly bring out how the classroom atmosphere influences directly on delivery evaluation.

Brennen (2017) looked at school based learning and delivery evaluation by examining experiential learning laboratories and their effect on hospitality practice. Brennen employed a qualitative approach to research that sought to focus more on participants real life experiences. Moreover interpretative phenomenological analysis (IPA) was

employed as the strategy of inquiry Data collection was done using face-to-face interviews. The study results indicated that students' perceived school based learning laboratories positively impacted on the training in hospitality practice in terms of delivery evaluation, which allows active involvement of students. Relying only on learning laboratories failed to recognize the role of other school-based approaches such as fieldwork, group work, and project work.

Moreover, despite findings by Brennen having the potential to strengthen use of school based learning laboratories in teaching concepts in hospitality practice, use of IPA meant that analysis focused on respondent's views interpreted by the researcher, and this was a possible avenue for inaccuracies in the results. Moreover, the time consuming nature of IPA as well as the many themes that can emerge means that important data could have been overlooked.

2.4.3 Critique of School- based Learning and Perceived Competency

In concluding that leadership skills, interpersonal skills, experiential learning and industrial training were important components of tourism education, Basaran (2016) makes a significant contribution to content expected of a course in hospitality training. Besides, by triangulating data collection among students, faculty and managers, Basaran takes cognition of the key stakeholders in hospitality training. Relying on a qualitative research design was however limiting in Basaran's findings since such findings cannot be generalized among wider populations with the same degree of certainty as would findings from a quantitative analysis (Ochieng, 2009). In recognition of this weakness of over reliance on qualitative approaches done by Basaran, this study triangulated approaches and employed both qualitative and

quantitative methods. In this way, quantitative findings were supported by qualitative findings making the findings to be reliable.

Stansbie *et al.* (2016), in their findings lent credence to school based learning by establishing that classroom knowledge prepares students well for newer experiences and in complementing competencies gained in internship. Moreover, their study illuminates on the possibilities of cross-tabulation and Fisher's exact test as critical analysis approaches. Nevertheless, while cross tabulations can be very easy to interpret, multiple responses are a source of very large number of tables. Moreover, not all cross tabs may be meaningful. Fisher's test on the contrary is found to be suitable for small samples, and is viewed as being conservative and often misleading (Ludbrook, 2008). This study therefore used structural equation modeling (SEM) which has previously been used in similar studies (Jyorti & Sharma, 2015; Kim *et al.*, 2015; Yang *et al.,* 2019). Moreover, SEM makes use of variables with several indicators per construct simultaneously and provides for exploratory suggestions of potential model improvement (Werner & Schermelleh – Engel, 2009). In combining the measurement and structural models, SEM is able to confirm projected indicators or observed variables, and test for postulated hypotheses.

Findings by Brennen (2017) that students perceive the design of a program as being critical to student engagement particularly when exposed to laboratory learning, confirms that school based learning that infuses laboratory exposure was useful in improved interaction among students and allows for practical application of knowledge. This notwithstanding however, the interpretive phenomenological analysis used can introduce researcher induced bias which may influence the study findings. Interpretive phenomenological analysis has also been labeled as being

mostly descriptive and not sufficiently interpretive (Hefferon & Gil-Rodriguez, 2011). To overcome this problem, this study used a confirmatory approach to reliability and validity that would broaden interpretation. The essence of the study was to generalize the findings to hospitality graduates across the entire country and therefore required a more exhaustive approach.

Bonesso *et al.* (2015) make significant contributions to existing literature in pointing out that traditional learning when implemented together with individual experiential learning has a significant influence on the development of emotional competencies and social competencies as well. Use of chi-square contingency test, the t-test and the Kolmogorov–Smirnoff test may however not have been appropriate. Chi-square contingency test is for instance a test for association, which was not the case in the study by Bonesso *et al.* (2015). Similarly, the t-test is appropriate for comparative studies or small samples. Yet again, this was not the case with the study undertaken by Bonesso and colleagues. On the other hand, the Kolmogorov-Smirnoff test examines normality of data distributions as opposed to testing for causality. In recognition of these potential weaknesses, this study applied SEM, which as a second-generation regression analysis played two roles. First, it allowed the measurement model to be conducted confirming suitability of identified indicators, and secondly, it enabled the structural model to confirm postulated causal relationships.

2.4.4 Critique of School- based Learning and Delivery Evaluation

Stansbie *et al.* (2016) in using a mixed methods approach to confirm that hospitality and tourism management students perceived classroom learning as being critical to their experiential learning, added to existing discourse on the importance of a diversity of approaches to experiential learning. Moreover, the scholars used the

mixed methods approach, which introduced the aspect of triangulating data collection essentially improving validity of the findings made. The context of their study was however different from that of Kenya. In addition, their study did not focus on delivery evaluation alone but looked at the entire concept of programme delivery. The current study sought to address these gaps by replicating the study in the local Kenyan context, and by manipulating experiential learning components directly on delivery evaluation.

Hsu *et al.* (2013) contributed significant information pertaining to activity based learning within the classroom and, delivery evaluation in the Taiwanese context. From their findings showing that classroom based learning that is activity-oriented was more effective in delivery evaluation of hospitality and tourism practice, hospitality industry stakeholders can maximize on classroom learning loaded with practical activities. Nonetheless, being purely qualitative in nature, the study by Hsu *et al.* (2013) could have omitted contextual sensitivities and focused more on student experiences. Besides, the study was conducted in Taiwan whose context is different from the Kenyan one. The current study adopted the mixed methods approach that incorporated both the qualitative and quantitative approaches to maximize participation, and focused on the Kenyan context.

Findings by Brennen (2017), showing that school based learning laboratories were perceived positively among students in terms of delivery evaluation, was an important contribution to the discourse on experiential learning and hospitality learning. Indeed, these findings by Brennen (2017) have the potential to enhance utilization of school based learning laboratories in hospitality training in institutions offering hospitality management courses. Use of the interpretive phenomenological analysis approach to

analysis was however one avenue for inaccuracies. Interpretive phenomenological analysis is known to be time consuming, and often brings out multiple themes that could obscure important data. The current study employed the structural equation modeling approach to analysis in order to validate the indicators measuring the various constructs, and to confirm path coefficients arising from the cause-effect relationships involving the postulated relationships.

2.5 Industry–based Experiential Learning

Field–based or industry oriented experiential learning is touted as more established having been incorporated in higher education as early as the 1930s (Scott, 2006). Industry based learning is manifested through service learning, internships, cooperative education and practicum. Internship remains a common industry-based experiential learning approach through which learners are empowered to connect theory with practice (Austin & Rust, 2015). It is argued that internships are critical to student's exploration of suitability of career choices, and professional benefits that may accrue from such choices (Robinson, Ruhanen & Noreen, 2015). Internships are noted to be periods that offer a practical orientation to training aimed at giving job experience required for a particular career progression or specific field (Zopiatis & Theocharous, 2013). Chang and Chu (2009), aver that as a practical pedagogical approach, internship gives the requisite practical experience and opportunities for individual learners to horn up their skills by actualizing learned theories into practice.

Internship has been used widely by industries desiring to meet demands for skilled workers and managers (Yiu & Law, 2012). In this sense, individual students are assigned learning targets that have to be achieved by being fully engaged. Students are then able to have a feeling of reality not likely to be experienced in a classroom

setting. Besides, it is argued that having internship requirements in the curriculum makes a higher education programme to have unique advantages in solution seeking. The argument posited is that through internship, students are able to acquire the required professional experience, while the institutions enhance positive image (Yiu & Law, 2012). Internship experiences no doubt empower students to enhance interpersonal, tolerance and communication skills relevant for entry-level management positions.

Internship is particularly useful considering that it is viewed that, graduates without prior industry experience often get challenges in understanding how to integrate operational elements in the workplace (Fournier & Ineson, 2010). It is therefore postulated that internship exposes students to curriculum components that advance experiential learning (Cook, Stokes & Parker, 2015). Moreover, internship is regarded as a process that bridges theory and practice (Gault, Leach & Duey, 2010), and has been documented as a sure way for employers to access a pool of suitable employees (Holyoak, 2010); an avenue that strengthens the link between education providers and the industry (Kiser, 2011); and an approach that develops competence among students (Burnsed, 2010).

Another pedagogy which features prominently in literature in relation to the facilitation of industry based experiential learning is practicum. According to Jones (2016), practicum is a structured and supervised pedagogical approach designed to bring work experience. Such experience may be voluntary or paid for, and is often conducted in an approved employment setting of the students' choice. In the hospitality industry for instance, Jones (2016) observes that practicum provides students with the necessary professional preparation under the coordination of faculty

supervisors and directed by site supervisors who are qualified. In this way, students get industry specific back up that boosts organization, administration and participation.

Jones (2016) further posits that through practicum, students get opportunities to show case their grasp of content by applying acquired knowledge in real life settings. Students therefore get to hone up and sharpen their skills, which, boosts their marketability for job market needs. A key benefit derived from practicum is that faculty together with site supervisors support students to address challenges that they may face as young professionals. Besides, they are able to evaluate their weakness and strengths and improve whenever necessary.

According to apprenticeship frameworks online 2013, apprenticeships constitute the other pedagogy aimed at experiential learning. Defining apprenticeship as a broader mix of learning undertaken in the workplace, together with the formal training acquired off the job, laced with opportunities for practicing and embedding new skills, apprenticeship frameworks contend that students undertaking apprenticeship acquire technical knowledge, in addition to personal and functional skills, and practical experience necessary for job requirements. Apprenticeship in Kenya is coordinated through the Directorate of industrial training (DIT). Creation of this directorate was buoyed by a concern among employers on the inability of fresh graduates to meet industry requirements. Consequently, there was a need to pool equipment together and provide up-to-date training from a common perspective. Employers view apprenticeships as critical in the development of industry specific skills. Graduates progress along trajectories suited for specific pathways that lead to requisite skills.

Voluntary service is another form of experiential learning that is often employed. According to Cappellari and Turati (2004), volunteering enables graduates to develop specific skills that boost their employability. Consequently, volunteering remains an integral part of life within organizations. Indeed, it is documented that voluntary work in Scotland accounted for up to 170 million hours in 2006, and was valued at $2.1 billion (Reilley, 2008). Graham (2010) contends that besides contributing towards economic gains, voluntary service hones knowledge and skills commensurate with career progression.

Volunteering as a concept has been popularized by the emerging harsh economic climate, which has made employers to be keener on industry specific skills among fresh graduates (Curtis & Lipsett, 2009). Holmes and Smith (2009), observe that volunteering is often devoid of monetary incentives. In fact, Wilson (2000) views volunteerism as an activity in which one gives his or her time and services freely for the benefit of others. In spite of the many definitions advanced for volunteerism, four basic tenets always crop up. According to the European Volunteer Centre (CEV, 2012), intended beneficiaries, absence of remuneration, choice and motivation, and free will are four dimensions that are often implied in definitions of volunteerism. Volunteering is in essence seen as the dedication of energy and time often through a third party for purposes of benefiting individuals, organizations, the environment, communities, and the society at large. Besides, it is an endeavour chosen freely and not motivated by financial gain (Scottish Executives Volunteering Strategy, 2004).

2.5.1 Industry–based Learning and Perceived Competency

A number of past studies have shown the interrelationship between industry–based learning and competency development. Datta and Babita (2015) for instance, analyzed

students' perceptions on consequences of industrial training on career development among hotel management students. Motivated by the thinking that classroom training may be inadequate to develop desired industry competencies, they used convenience sampling to select 60 students from hotel schools in Jaipur. Using the independent samples t-test, they found out that industrial training had a negative effect on students' perceptions of the industry where they expect to further their career. Findings by Datta and Babita were rather contradictory to most documented findings. Use of convenience sampling which does not give equal chances to selected participants could have been the reason behind these contradictions.

In another study, Seyitoglu and Yirik (2014) assessed internship satisfaction among students and its effect on professional development. The study targeted students drawn from Akdeniz University training in tourism. Using a sample of 305 students and stepwise regression analysis, Seyitoglu and Yirik were able to show that students were satisfied with internship and this had a positive effect on their professional development. Anderson-Noto (2013) explored the abilities, skills and knowledge that internship in hospitality management develops in trainees. The study was motivated by an understanding that internship has been introduced as a tool designed to meet the challenge of development of competencies consistent with industry expectations. The study used a target population of interns drawn from the state University of Southeast Missouri. A sample of 6 undergraduate students on their internship in hospitality management was purposively sampled. Consistent with qualitative data approaches data were analyzed using horizonalization and thematic identification through clusters of meaning. Among the findings were: internship was critical in the development of interpersonal, communication, and teamwork competencies; in certain occasions

interns lacked opportunities required to develop technical and marketing skills. Use of a sample size of 6 was a probable avenue for external validity issues.

Walo (2000) examined contributions internship makes towards the development of industry specific management competencies among graduates of tourism and hospitality management. The study focused on the internship component offered Tourism programme of Southern Cross University in Australia. Walo tested the premise that internship improves management competencies among students. Using the Self-Assessment of Managerial Skills (S.A.M.S) and a combination of descriptive and paired samples t-test, Walo concluded that internship as a component of the tourism and hospitality undergraduate's education has a direct influence on students' future management roles. Questions however linger on this finding considering that a lot has changed in hospitality management since the year 2000 when Walo conducted her study.

A few empirical studies on industrial training have been conducted locally. Gitaka (2013) for instance assessed the role of industrial training on skills for building trade in Kenya. Focusing on the building industry in Nairobi, Gitaka was interested in finding out how industrial training upgrades skills and knowledge desired in the building industry. The study used systematic and convenience sampling embedded in a descriptive design to show that experiential learning through working under qualified operatives was a critical contributor to the skills acquired by most novices. Could these results be their replicated in the hospitality industry?

Gachoka (2015) analyzed the influence of organizational learning on operational performance from a hospitality industry perspective. Gachoka adopted the descriptive research design and used the systematic sampling approach to sample 40 hotels,

which was 10% of the targeted hotels. Using descriptive statistics and correlation to test hypotheses, Gachoka determined that organizational learning was a significant predictor of operational performance. Ondieki, Kimani and Tanui (2018) examined the effect of industry–based learning on skills development, and training of engineering programmes. They adopted a case study design, snowball sampling and purposive sampling to select 265 students and 30 employees. Using self-administered questionnaires and relying purely on respondents' self-ratings, the study revealed that industry–based learning was rated unsatisfactory among students ostensibly because they did not receive adequate support in securing attachment. Employers on the contrary reckoned that industry – based learning was critical in development of industry specific skills. Relying on respondents self-rating did not guarantee objectivity.

2.5.2 Industry-based Learning and Delivery Evaluation

Saner, Menemenci and Eyupoglu (2016) examined the importance of practical training in tourism education. They were motivated by the knowledge that tourism education is a pillar for practical and professional skills needed in the tourism industry. The study adopted the qualitative approach, and triangulated data collection approaches by using structured interviews, self-reports, and observation. Data were analyzed thematically. From a sample of 20 senior students drawn from the school of tourism and hotel management of Near East University, the study revealed that practical training gained in the real work place is a precursor to effective delivery of skills in the tourism industry. The study being qualitative means that findings reported were personal opinions of the small number of senior students, which leads to validity issues. Perhaps an approach that would incorporate a number of designs could have been suitable.

In a study conducted among hospitality graduates in Kenya, Onyuna (2019) examined the influence of Industry based learning on competency development. Using an explanatory design and self-administered questionnaire targeting students, and multiple regression analysis, Onyuna demonstrated that industry based learning that encompasses practicum, internships and apprenticeship was critical for effective delivery evaluation and competency development. Onyuna's study was however limited to industry based learning. There was need therefore to enhance the scope by looking at other experiential learning approaches.

Khalaf *et al.* (2016) analyzed the impact that effective training has on the performance of employees in the hotel establishment's context. They focused on five star hotels in Cairo and used the questionnaire as the main tool for data collection. Khalaf and colleagues used one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) to test hypotheses and concluded that effective industry specific training was critical for delivery of the practical component of hospitality practice. The study by Khalaf and colleagues focused only on the training of employees already working in the industry. Perhaps an examination of performance of students undertaking courses in hospitality practice would have yielded different results.

Nicolaides (2015) analyzed work integrated learning from a hospitality industry context featuring the culturally diverse South African industry Vis a Vis that of Germany. The study was motivated by the fact that students in hospitality and tourism management in South Africa undertake work integrated learning that is mandatory. The study relied on a comparative review of literature on the South African and Germany cases and argued that student / trainees' requires exposure to opportunities to learn from the industry and get effective empowerment from such delivery

evaluation. Nicolaides study failed to link work integrated learning to delivery evaluation.

2.5.3 Critique of Industry–based Learning and Perceived Competency

The finding by Datta and Babita (2015) that industrial training had a negative effect on students perceptions of the industry they expected to further their career in, was rather surprising considering that other existing findings have reported positive gains from industrial training (Austin, & Rust, 2015; Chang & Chu, 2009; Purchie *et al.,* 2011). Datta and Babita's contradictory findings can however be explained by choice of the t-test as the inferential statistic to analyze students' perceptions. The independent samples t-test is mainly employed to examine mean differences between two independent groups and may not have been the appropriate inferential statistic to use in the case of the study by Datta and Babita (2015). The other possible reason for the contradictory findings by the two scholars is the reliance on hotel schools drawn from one locality, which did not cater for the entire cross section of hospitality management students. To overcome these weaknesses identified in the study by Datta and Babita, the current study took cognizance of the 'cause-effect nature of the variables under study, and chose to use a more fitting inferential approach. Besides, a number of Universities offering hospitality courses were considered which ensured that a wide spectrum of hospitality practice students was selected for purposes of increasing external validity.

Anderson–Noto (2013) vindicated the case for industrial training by pointing out through his study that, internship is critical to the development of interpersonal and teamwork competencies and that, interns were limited in opportunities to develop technical and marketing skills thereby requiring more industrial exposure. Despite

such useful contributions, it is noted that Anderson–Noto (2013) primarily relied on convenience sampling, and designed the research to be conducted in only one institution. In such a scenario, the study potentially reflected values and behaviours conducive to interns of the institution in question, but not necessarily all hospitality practice interns. In order to widen the geographic scope of study findings, which would allow the ability to generalize results over a wider area, this study examined industrial based experiential learning among students drawn from ten universities across the country.

Gitaka (2013) in showing that experiential learning through working under qualified operatives was a critical contributor to the skills acquired by most novices, makes significant contributions of the critical contribution of experiential learning towards acquisition of skills among novices in the Kenyan context. This notwithstanding however, use of convenience sampling limited ability to generalize the findings. Moreover, Gitaka's study was conducted in the building industry, which may have not been similar to the hospitality context. To overcome these limitations in Gitaka's study, the current study triangulated sampling techniques to infuse probability sampling which allows for allocation of equal chances of consideration to all potential respondents. More importantly, the study focused on replicating findings by Gitaka in the context of the hospitality industry.

In revealing that that industry–based learning was rated unsatisfactory among students but viewed among employers as being critical in development of industry specific skills, Ondiek *et al* (2018) reported contradictory findings between students and employers with regards to the ability of industry based learning to inculcate industry specific skills among students. Whereas students found industrial training

unsatisfactory, employers found it critical in the development of industry specific skills. This contradiction could however have been caused by use of snowball sampling and purposive sampling approaches which Ondiek *et al.* (2018) adopted. Use of snowball sampling to select students meant that selected students had more or less the same views considering that the approach is not representative of the population under study (Sharma, 2017). Besides, a convenience sample also may not guarantee representativeness. To counter this, simple and stratified random sampling techniques were employed in the current study to sample students from the various universities. In so doing, the researcher ensured that the population under study was accurately reflected, and that all members of the targeted students had equal chances of being sampled.

2.5.4 Critique of Industry-based Learning and Delivery Evaluation

By revealing that practical training gained in the real work place is a precursor to effective delivery of skills in the tourism industry; Saner *et al.* (2016) affirmed the significant role that industrial based experiential learning conducted within real work places, plays in delivery of skills in hospitality training. Such information provides vital data to hospitality stakeholders on the appropriate direction to take in order to enhance competency development among hospitality practice students. Over reliance on qualitative data was however limiting since it has been pointed out that policy makers often give low credibility to findings, which arise from qualitative studies (Sallee & Flood, 2012). The current study sought to increase credibility of the findings by triangulating qualitative and quantitative approaches in the form of questionnaires, focused group discussions and interviews.

In concluding that effective training in the industry was critical for delivery of practical hospitality practice, Khalef *et al*. (2016) made important contributions to existing literature on experiential learning in hospitality management. However, use of one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) to test causal hypotheses may not have been suitable. ANOVA is best used in comparative studies, which involve only one independent variable that is categorical, requires more than two levels for the independent variable, and only one dependent variable that is numerical. To address this gap, the current study employed structural equation modeling which, as has been mentioned severally is best suited for causal studies.

By arguing that students / trainees require exposure to opportunities to learn from the industry and get effective empowerment from such delivery evaluation, Nicolaide's (2015) study conducted in South African and Germany contexts, illuminates the role exposure of hospitality trainees to industry learning plays in having them empowered, and in essence, advocates for industry based training if better delivery evaluation has to be achieved. Nevertheless, South Africa and Germany are more developed nations compared to Kenya. The current study sought to replicate the findings by Nicolaide (2015) from a developing nation such as Kenya.

2.6 Model–based Experiential Learning

Modeling as an instructional strategy has been used as a way of involving learners and in turn stimulating them to broaden their repertoire of approaches. According to Holland and Kobasigawa (as cited in Salisu & Ransom, 2014), modeling is a process through which the trainee acquires skills, information and behaviour through making observations. In such a scenario, the trainer or teacher demonstrates a concept while the trainees or learners observe. Models are recognized as critical to the transmission

of basic but important beliefs and customs, as well as culture across generations (Salisu & Ransom, 2014).

Ukoh (2013) define modeling as an instructional strategy that seeks to engage learners' observation skills when the teacher demonstrates. Haston (2007) avers that modeling involves some form of teacher demonstration of concepts to students. Modeling has particularly been popularized through Albert Bandura's theory of learning. In his assertions, Bandura first argues that reliance on effects of own actions would make learning to either be quite laborious or hazardous to people (Bandura, 1977). In his later works, Bandura points out that modeling enables shaping of human behaviour, that it can be used across disciplines and at any ability level; and their many senses such as auditory, visual, tactile and kinesthetic are used in the learning (Banduara, 1986).

Model–based learning no doubt focuses more on Kolb's reflective observation phase. According to Kolb (1984), a reflection process of what one observed, the feelings during the observation, and challenges faced are critical to the understanding of experiences. It is argued that in the context of higher education, such as the case with hospitality management at the University level, students get opportunities through experiential learning to link what they learn in class with worldly realities, and achieve personal development through reflection (Kolb, 2014).

According to Humphrey (2009), reflection relates to the activity which succeeds observation and which occurs in the mind to process the raw experiences gained under observation. Consequently, reflective observation allows individual students to interpret what they observe in their own ways. Indeed reflective observation has been touted as the ideal experiential learning approach that can be used to better explain

and draw meaning out of traditional hospitality theories (Qualters as cited in Askren, 2017).

Austin and Rust (2015) aver that use of models encourages students to assert some control over learning through interaction with those models. Through modeling, experiential learning provokes thoughtful reflection among students on concrete experiences gained through observation. Consequently, individual learners are able to connect what they observe in the real world with theories acquired in class (Beard and Wilson as cited in Askren 2017). Previous studies have shown that observational models when used during instruction can substantially improve students' outcome. Groenendijk *et al.* (2011) for instance examined the effect of observational learning on the performance of motivation and processes among students. They found out that observation elicited positive effects on students' creativity in terms of products and processes as well as on their motivation.

Kniep and Janssen (2014) analyzed effects of observational learning on the attitudes students have towards reading and learning. Using a pre-post experimental approach, they established that observational learning had a positive impact on learner attitude. According to Myers (2015), model based learning is a form of vicarious learning where individuals learn through others experience. Myers contends that such a learning approach exposes the learner or trainee to interpersonal dynamics gained when observations and imitations are made. Bresman (2013) posits that through experiential learning approaches such as use of models and vicarious learning, individual's knowledge and continued growth at work are facilitated. Moreover, such an approach enhances job performance among individuals and is responsible for team success.

Model learning that involves observations has been identified in the extant literature as being critical to knowledge transfer (Posen & Chen, 2013). An individual or the seeking of knowledge by others can therefore view vicarious learning as the sharing of knowledge. Myers (2015) points out that experiential learning should look to expose trainees to visible knowledge in organizations; encourage personnel rotation that promotes knowledge transfer; and build the requisite infrastructure that can encourage knowledge sharing.

Model based learning is a learning that is modeled on mentorship. Clutterbuck (as cited in Norhasni & Aminuddin, 2012) for instance argues that mentoring acts as an off line help which is given by one person to another in order to transit in knowledge, thinking and work. Kirkham (1993 as cited in Norhasni & Aminuddin, 2012) defines mentoring as a relationship that is ongoing between a novice and a caring expert. Mentoring has been recognized as one of the most effective ways through which skills and knowledge are transferred quickly and which inspires loyalty among new employees (Norhasni & Aminuddin, 2012).

Anderson and Shannon (1988 as cited in Norhasni & Aminuddin, 2012) consider mentoring as a model based learning in which a more experienced or skilled person nurtures a less experienced or skilled person by acting as a role model, sponsor, teacher, friend or counselor. In this way, the less skilled person achieves personal and professional development. Jeanne and Karie (2010) identify three distinct mentoring approaches through which trainee students in hospitality practice can learn. They identify reverse mentoring as an approach, which shifts organizational mentoring to line employees. In this way, students are matched with experienced mentors to coach them on how to connect with customers. The second approach identified by Jeanne

and Karie (2010) is group mentoring, which can be led by a senior manager, or can be based on a peer–to–peer mechanism. The two scholars argue that group mentoring is less resource intensive and remains effective as a model based learning approach. Anonymous mentoring which matches mentees with trained mentors is based on psychological testing and a background review. Jeanne and Karie (2010) point out that in this approach, the mentee and mentor remain anonymous and only exchange entirely online.

Abigael (2018) contends that mentoring in the hospitality industry is widespread considering the nature of faultless service to customers and employers the industry aims at. Abigael argues that novice hospitality practitioners require as much help and support as possible. She avers that experienced hospitality figures provide a pool of past experiences, failures and successes to learn from. According to Reid *et al.* (2008), model based learning in the form of mentoring is two faceted in function and either seeks to develop career or offer psychosocial support. On the contrary, Weinberg and Lankau (2011) posit that mentoring has three functions, which they identify as career development, psychosocial support, and role modeling. It is documented that mentoring has been critical in career advancement among female hotel staff by facilitating information sharing (Patwardhan & Venkatachalam, 2012).

2.6.1 Model–Based Learning and Perceived Competency

Model based learning and particularly mentoring features prominently in empirical literature with regards to competency development. Kim, Im and Hwang (2015) for instance examined the effects that mentoring has on stress, job attitude, and intent to quit among employees in the hotel industry. The study was conducted in super deluxe hotels located in South Korea and targeted employees with experience on mentoring

programs. Statistical significance of paths was explored using structural equation model (SEM). Kim *et al*. (2015) established that psychosocial support function of mentoring had a positive effect on organizational commitment and job satisfaction; role-modeling function was also found to have a positive and significant impact on organizational commitment. Conducting a study in deluxe hotels did not necessarily bring out the impact of experiential learning necessitating a desire to focus on institutions, which offer training in hospitality practice.

Jyorti and Sharma (2015) analyzed the impact of mentoring functions on career development and whether mentoring culture and structure moderate the relationship between mentoring functions and career development. The study targeted call center employees drawn from telecommunication firms in India. They collected data using a questionnaire, which had only 23.7 percent return rate. Confirmatory factor analysis was used to examine reliability and validity of the study constructs. Hypotheses were tested using structural equation modeling (SEM). The study by Jyorti and Sharma (2015) revealed that career development was indeed a function of mentoring functions and that the culture and structure of the mentoring were moderators of the relationship between mentoring functions and career development. A return rate of 23.7 percent was however worrying considering that SEM requires a large sample size.

Neupane (2015) assessed the effects that coaching and mentoring have on the performance of employees in the UK hotel industry. The study used a cross sectional method that was both deductive and quantitative in approach. The study targeted managers and supervisors with an experience in coaching or mentoring in their respective hotels. A sample of 172 individuals was consequently constituted from whom data was collected using a structured questionnaire. Data were analyzed using

means, correlations and regression. Among the main findings advanced by Neupane (2015) was that both coaching and mentoring had significant effects on employee performance and that, they also influenced positively and significantly on overall performance of hotels. Once again, the UK hotel industry context being advanced warranted a similar study in the Kenyan context.

Ndung'u (2016) examined how mentoring affects employee career success in the context of star rated hotels in Nairobi. Buoyed by the important role mentorship plays in honing employees' knowledge and skills, Ndung'u adopted the descriptive survey design to explore the views of employees drawn from hotels in Nairobi. The study targeted human resource managers, and used structured questionnaires to collect data from 156 respondents. Data were analyzed using frequencies, percentages and regression analysis. Interestingly, the regression analysis results yielded a very small coefficient of determination (0.028) showing that mentoring functions only explained 2.8% of the variance in career success among employees. Moreover, the regression weight of 0.345 was not significantly different from zero ($p=0.241$), an indication that mentoring function had no significant effect on career success. The contradictory findings hinting that mentoring does not affect career success required that more studies targeting mentoring be conducted in order to have a clearer picture.

Yang *et al.* (2019) analyzed how mentoring affects hotel staff turnover under the mediation of occupational and organizational embeddedness. The study by Yang and colleagues targeted employees drawn from hotels in Chinese provinces, and used a sample of 354 employees in four hotels. The model was tested using structural equation model (SEM). The study revealed that the relationship between mentoring functions such as career development and psychosocial support and turn over

intention was mediated by both occupational and organizational embeddedness. Successful mentoring therefore makes employees to be reluctant to leave.

2.6.2 Model- based Learning and Delivery Evaluation

The power of model based learning approaches such as mentoring and coaching in imparting practical skills is manifested through a number of documented studies. Dolot (2017) for example, examined the influence of the coaching process, which is a model based learning approach on employees' competencies from a hospitality sector context. Using a case study approach, Dolot established that coaching was rarely used in the hospitality industry. However, in situations where it is used, it possesses the important element of making training to be practical oriented, and hinges on thought provoking tasks. Among the key competencies found to be associated with coaching were teamwork, employee interaction, and team management. A major weakness noted in Dolot's study was that only 15% of the hotels surveyed enjoyed coaching as a model based approach to learning. The findings were therefore constrained in terms of external validity.

In yet another study, Collins (2018) focused on mentorship as a model-based learning approach. Key among the findings was that strong mentorship programmes enhance delivery evaluation by providing hands-on experience. Noting that the hospitality industry requires actual skills for advancement, Collins (2018) argues that hotels need to adopt mentorship approaches in order to tap the plethora of talent existing in the work force. Despite documenting the importance of mentorship, Collins does not indicate how delivery evaluation is impacted upon.

Liselott (2007) examined the relevance of coaching as a model based approach, for receptionists operating the front office in the hotel industry. The study was motivated by the understanding that annual appraisals used in evaluating employees may not be sufficient considering, that personnel development ought to be a continuous process. Empirically, Liselott (2007) established that although perception of coaching differed between employees and management, there was consensus that it was a good way of engaging and evaluating practical skills acquisition among frontline receptionists. Liselott brings out very important evidence in relation to coaching and appraisal. However, focusing on frontline receptionists per se does not guarantee generalizable findings.

2.6.3 Critique of Model-based Learning and Perceived Competency

In finding that career development was a function of mentoring functions and that the relationship between mentoring and career development was moderated by the culture and structure of the mentoring, Jyorti and Sharmer (2015) provided enough evidence of the importance of mentoring in career development, and a basis upon which mentoring programs could be designed bearing in mind their structure and the required work culture. This is no doubt a major contribution by the two scholars to the existing discourse on model based learning and career development. A few issues of concern were however discerned from Jyorti and Sharma's (2015) study. First, their study focused only on the telecommunication industry raising questions as to whether findings could be replicated to other industries and sectors. Secondly, data were only collected from employees without due regard to employers and instructors who plaid the role of mentors. To address these issues, the current study focused on the hospitality industry context, and collected data from multiple respondents who, included students, lecturers and employers, and faculty.

Neupane's (2015) findings that coaching and mentoring as model based learning approaches positively and significantly influenced employee performance and, the overall performance of hotels, provides the avenue required hotels to nurture their employees. Indeed, employees are an important part of the hotel industry and require being coached and mentored on the critical practices in the industry. Having said this, collecting data from just 22 hotels located in London rendered findings by Neupane (2015) unrepresentative of the real vision of the hotel industry in the United Kingdom. Moreover, Neupane's research was based on the cross-sectional approach that could not sustain cause effect relationship over time. Furthermore, the convenience sampling approach employed by Neupane was non-probability in nature, and may not have represented the entire population's characteristics. The present study as already mentioned triangulated sampling techniques to allow for more representation. Besides, the researcher considered a wider sample by sampling in universities across the entire country.

Ndung'u (2016) contributed to existing knowledge on mentoring and career success from a Kenyan context by suggesting that mentoring positively and significantly influenced career success. The results presented by Ndung'u do not however show whether such a finding was drawn from the study. The p-value for the regression weight of the mentoring function was 0.241, which implies that mentoring function was not a significant predictor of career success. Moreover, the coefficient of determination being 0.028 suggested that mentoring function plays a minimal role in career success, contributing a paltry 2.8 percent in the variation of career success. It was therefore necessary to conduct a study and use appropriate techniques that would give an accurate position of model based learning and perceived competency development in the hospitality industry in Kenya. The current study therefore used the

confirmatory-based approach that not only allowed for causal relationships, but also enable indicator confirmation.

Yang et al (2019) in their study did reveal the critical role that mediation plays in embedding employees' in occupation and the organization after their mentoring and coaching. In doing so however, Yang *et al.* (2019) used data that lacked geographical representation having been collected from three provinces only. The need for representativeness was therefore put at the forefront of the current study by widening the geographical scope of universities to include the entire country.

2.6.4 Critique of Model-based Learning and Delivery Evaluation

Dolot (2017) established that coaching was rarely used in the hospitality industry. However, in situations where it was used, it possessed the important element of making training to be practical oriented, and hinged on thought provoking tasks. In so doing, Dolot (2017) confirmed the importance of model-based learning, and particularly in nurturing teamwork and interaction among employees. However, the sample of hotels reported to have been using coaching was rather too small (15%) to give valid results. In order to address such a limitation, the current study employed a sample of 261 participants, which was large enough to support structural equation modeling. Moreover, in reporting that coaching was a good way of engaging and evaluating practical skill development, irrespective of the divergence in perceptions of the coaching concept, Liselott (2007) contributed vital knowledge to the discourse on model-based learning. However, having been conducted in 2007, findings by Liselott may not be binding in the present context having, possibly been overtaken by contextual dynamics. The current study aimed therefore at examining model based learning in the present day context.

2.7 Knowledge Gaps

From the critique of existing empirical studies relating experiential learning with perceived competency of Hospitality Management students on the one side, and experiential learning with delivery evaluation on the other, a number of knowledge gaps were identified and summarized in Table 2.1. The review revealed that most previous scholars have adopted qualitative methods that minimize external validation with certainty. Thus the need to use a mixed methods approach that entailed qualitative methods was necessary for confirmation of quantitative findings. Moreover choice of analytic statistics was in some situations not suited to studies raising doubts of the findings.

Constrained samples was also another gap where scholars used only one category of respondents as opposed to triangulating data sources. In some cases, non-probability samples were used leading to issues of generalizability of the findings. This study therefore tried to address such issues by triangulating methods.

Table 2.1: Knowledge Gaps

Author	**Study focus**	**Design & Methodology**	**Findings**	**Knowledge gaps**	**Action**
Basaran (2016)	Experiential learning in tourism education in Cyprus	-qualitative design -triangulated data collection	Leadership skills, interpersonal skills, experiential learning and industrial training were important components of tourism education	Reliance on qualitative research design findings may not be generalized among wider populations with the same degree of certainty as would findings from a quantitative analysis	Used mixed methods design a study that triangulated approaches
Stansbie *et al*. (2016)	Classroom learning and readiness for the work environment in the industry	- Mixed methods - Cross tabulations - Fisher's exact test	-Classroom knowledge prepares students for newer experiences, concepts and theories. -Classroom education complemented competencies gained during internship.	Not all cross tabulations may be meaningful. Fisher's test is suitable for small samples, and is viewed as being conservative and often misleading	Used structural equation modeling which has previously been used in similar studies
Opondo (2018)	Hospitality training and performance of executive	-Cross sectional design -Questionnaire & interview schedules for data collection.	-Formal training related significantly with competency	-Reliance on only one category hospitality industry	-Focused on entire hospitality management -Employed

	chefs who work in classified hotels in Mombasa	-ANOVA to test hypotheses	. -Training was critical in imparting knowledge, honing skills and improving abilities.	personnel -ANOVA not the ideal analysis approach	SEM
Brennen (2017)	Students perceptions regarding use of learning laboratories	-Qualitative research approach -Interpretative Phenomenological Analysis (IPA)	-Students perceived program design as critical to their engagement when using learning laboratories; -Learning laboratories improved interaction between students and faculty.	-IPA introduces researcher -induced bias. -IPA has also been labeled as being mostly descriptive and not sufficiently interpretive	Used a confirmatory approach to reliability and validity that would broaden interpretation.

Bonesso *et al.* (2015)	Interplay between traditional and experiential learning in competency development	-Chi-square contingency test. -t-test -Kolmogorov–Smirnov test	Traditional learning when implemented together with individual experiential learning has a significant influence on emotional and social competencies	-Chi-square contingency test is a test for association, which was not the case in this study. -The t-test is appropriate for comparative studies or small samples -The Kolmogorov-Smirnoff test examines	Applied SEM which is a second generation regression analysis suitable for effect analysis

				normality	
Datta and Babita (2015)	Consequences of industrial training on career development	-Convenience sampling independent samples t-test	Industrial training had a negative effect on students perceptions of the industry	-t-test not suitable inferential statistics - reliance on hotel schools in one locality	-Used a more fitting inferential approach -used a number of Universities
Anderson-Noto (2013)	Abilities, skills and knowledge that internship in hospitality management develops in trainees	-Purposive sampling - Horizonalization and thematic analysis	-Internship is critical in the development of interpersonal and teamwork competencies	- Convenience sampling an avenue for bias -Reliance on one institution only limited external validity	-Used random sampling techniques -widened the geographic scope to allow for the ability to generalize findings
Gitaka (2013)	Role of industrial training on skills for building trade in Kenya	-Descriptive design –Systematic and convenience sampling	- Experiential learning through working under qualified operatives was a critical contributor to skills acquisition among novices	- Convenience sampling limits ability to generalize the findings -Study conducted in a building industry	- triangulated sampling techniques to infuse probability techniques - replicated the study in the hospitality context.

Ondiek *et al*. (2018)	Effect of industry–based learning on skills development, and training of engineering programmes	-Case study design -Snowball sampling - Purposive sampling	-Industry–based learning was rated unsatisfactory among students. -Employers reckoned that industry–based learning was critical in development of industry specific skills.	snowball and purposive sampling approaches are not representative	-Used simple and stratified random sampling techniques to sample hospitality students from the various universities
Jyorti and Sharma (2015)	Mentoring functions and career development	-Confirmatory factor analysis -Hypotheses were tested using SEM	-Career development was a function of mentoring functions. -Culture and structure of the mentoring were moderators of the relationship between mentoring functions and career development.	-study focused only on telecommunication industry raising questions as to whether findings could be replicated to other sectors -Data was only collected from employees without due regard to employers and instructors who are mentors.	Focused on the hospitality industry, and collected data from multiple respondents that included students, lecturers and HoDs
Neupane (2015)	coaching and mentoring and, the performance of employees in the UK	-Cross-sectional design -Means, correlations and regression.	Both coaching and mentoring had significant effects on employee	-Collecting data from just 22 hotels located in London renders findings unrepresentati	Triangulated sampling techniques to allow for more representation.

	hotel industry		performance	ve - cross-sectional approach could not sustain cause effect relationship over time	
Ndung'u (2016)	mentoring and employee career success in the context of star rated hotels	Descriptive survey design. -structured questionnaires - frequencies, percentages and regression analysis	-Mentoring functions only explained 2.8% of the variance in career success -Mentoring function had no significant effect on career success.	Results presented by Ndung'u do not seem to be from the study.	Used appropriate techniques that would give an accurate position of model based learning and competency development
Yang *et al.* (2019)	Mentoring and hotel staff turnover under the mediation of occupational and organizational embeddedness.	Structural equation model (SEM	both occupational and organizational embeddedness mediate the relationship between mentoring and career development	Lack of geographical representativeness in data collected from three provinces only.	widened the geographical scope of universities
Stansbie *et al.* (2016)	Internship and classroom learning among hospitality and tourism management students	-Mixed methods design. - Questionnaires and focus group discussions	Students were positive to classroom learning which prepared them well for their real life	-Contextual differences -Study did not focus on delivery evaluation *parse.*	Replicating the study in the local context, and by manipulating experiential learning component

			experiences		s directly on delivery evaluation.
Hsu *et al.* (2013)	Suitable hospitality and tourism practice teaching strategies	- Qualitative study that involved interviews with students. -Analyzed using typology and logic	Activity-oriented classroom based learning was more effective in delivery evaluation of hospitality and tourism practice in Taiwan	Being purely qualitative in nature, the study could have omitted contextual sensitivities and focused more on student experiences. Was conducted in Taiwan whose context is different from Kenya.	The current study adopted the mixed methods approach, and focused on the Kenyan context
Khalef *et al.* (2016)	Effective training and performance of employees in the hotel establishment's context	- Questionnaire -One way analysis of variance (ANOVA) to test hypotheses	Effective industry specific training was critical for delivery of the practical component of hospitality practice.	Use of one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) to test causal hypotheses may not have been suitable. ANOVA is best used in comparative studies	Employed SEM, which is best, suited for causal studies.
Dolot (2017)	coaching process as a model based learning approach and employees' competencies from a hospitality sector context	-Case study approach -Coaching was rarely used in the hospitality industry. -When used, it makes training to be practical oriented, and hinges on thought provoking tasks	Only 15% of the hotels surveyed enjoyed coaching as a model based approach to learning.	Findings were therefore constrained in terms of external validity.	Used a sample of 261 participants, which was large enough

Liselott (2007)	Relevance of coaching as a model based approach, for receptionists manning the front office in the hotel industry.	Qualitative using interviews	Coaching differed between employees and management. it was a good way of engaging and evaluating practical skills acquisition	Having been conducted in 2007, findings by Liselott may not be binding in the present context	Examining model based learning in the present day context.

2.8 Theoretical Framework

The study was anchored in models and theories that best describe experiential learning as a process through which competencies and skills are developed. They included Silva's management competency model, Kolbs theory of learning, social learning theory, and Kirkpatrick evaluation model.

2.8.1 The Silva's Management Competency Model

The essence of experiential learning in the hospitality industry is to impact trainees with skills and competencies that can make them useful to the job market. According to Hayat *et al.* (2010), delivery of superior performance is not only a function of intelligence and aptitude, but also requires an individual's underlying characteristics that include self-image, the environment, social roles, motivations, traits and habits. Experiential learning ought therefore to focus on skills, knowledge and competencies that the hospitality graduate requires for the job he/she has been trained for. This informed the choice of Silva's management competency model. Silvas' Management Competency model is shown in figure 2.1.

A critical element of experiential learning is to identify skills and competencies that need to be emphasized during industrial or classroom training. Silva *et al* (2014) therefore define a competency model as a framework upon which skills and knowledge required for a given job are defined. Silva's management competency model is therefore a logical template that identifies a plethora of interdependent competencies regarded as core to management and which experiential learning in the hospitality industry should aim for.

In the model, Silva identifies eight core interdependent competencies. Personal values and self-image is identified as the first competency, and which should be exemplified by trustworthiness, self-confidence, commitment, emotional awareness, behavioral awareness, behavioral adaptability, responsibility and optimism (Silva *et al.*, 2014). Ability, knowledge and expertise reflect the second set of competencies identified. According to Silva and colleagues, these competencies expose an individual to ability to make realistic self-assessment, awareness of current trends and job requirements, gain knowledge and experience.

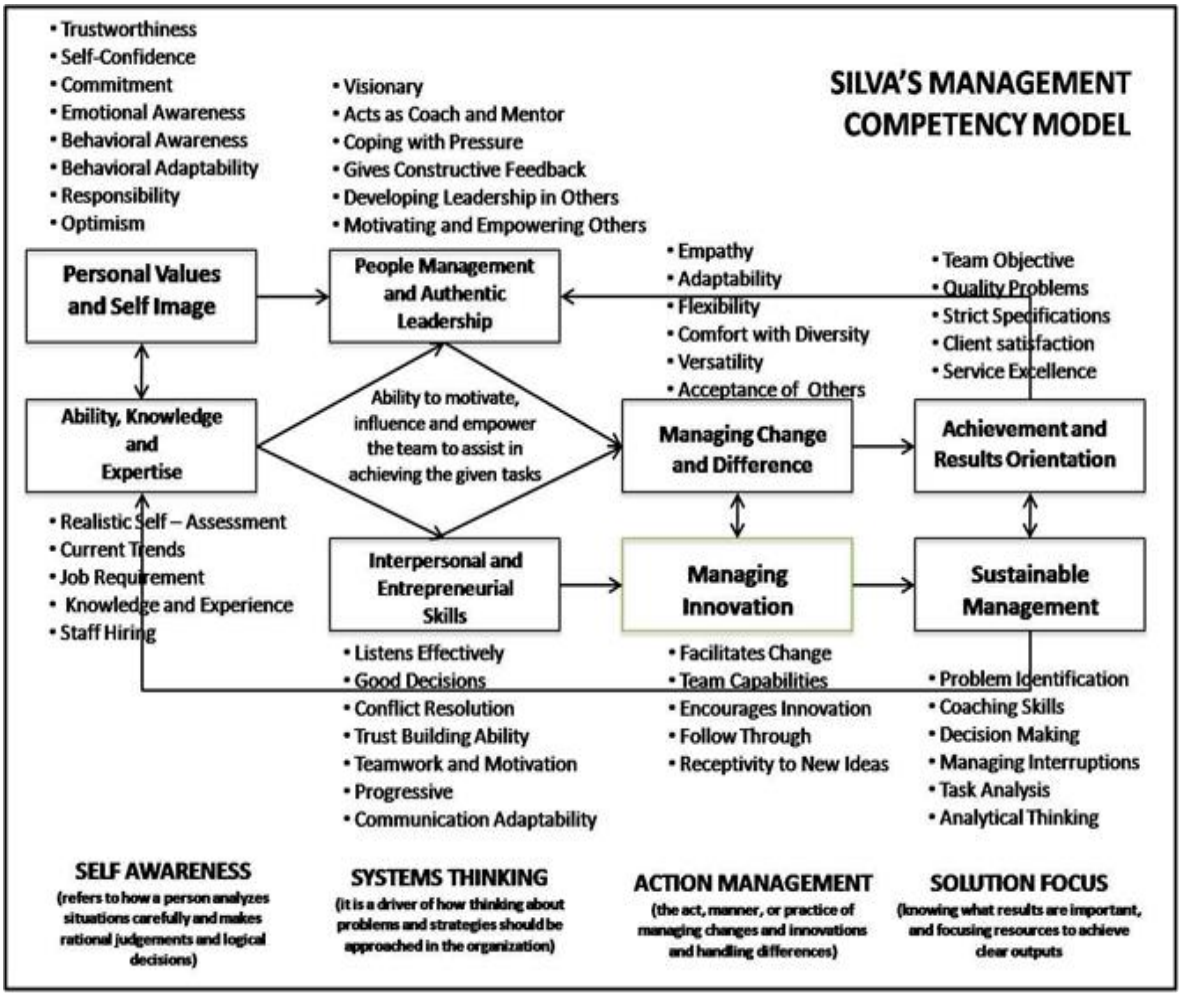


Figure 2.1: The Silva's Management Competency Model -Silva et al (2014)

Silva identifies interpersonal and entrepreneurial skills as the third tier of competencies required in hospitality practice, and which should subsume effective listening, making good decisions, resolving conflicts, ability to build trust, being motivated and working as a team, being progressive, and ability to adapt to communication (Silva *et al.*, 2014). Managing innovation is another competency identified as core to hospitality management. Hospitality management graduates should be seen to facilitate change, should exhibit team capabilities, encourage innovation, and accept new ideas. Silva and colleagues also identifies sustainable

management as the fifth competency in the model. This competency is portrayed through honing problem identification skills, skills in coaching, making decisions, ability to manage interruptions, analyzing tasks, and thinking analytically.

The model also discusses managing change and difference as the sixth core competency for management. This competency requires that individuals are flexible, versatile, accept others, are adaptable, are comfortable with diversity, and show empathy. The seventh core competency was identified as achievement and results orientation. Under this competency, individuals need to pursue team objectives, focus on quality, work with strict specifications, satisfy clients, and provide excellent services. The eighth and final core competency identified by Silva relates to people management and authentic leadership. According to Silva *et al.* (2014), this competency requires individuals to be visionary, motivate and empower others, cope with pressure, coach and mentor others, and provide constructive feedback. Hospitality management course no doubt needs to take cognizance of the competencies such as identified by the Silva's management competency model when designing their courses.

Silva's management competency model was used in this study to identify critical soft skills suitable for anchoring competency in hospitality practice. The eight skills that Silva identified informs developers of experiencing learning curriculum about the key skills to leverage. Therefore, in essence the eight skills including emotional awareness, self-confidence, behavioural awareness, responsibility, trustworthiness, optimism, and behavioural adaptability were necessary in developing the perceived competency scale.

2.8.2 Kolb's Experiential Learning Style Theory

David Kolb published the theory in 1984 basing on the premise that learning involves the creation of knowledge by transforming experience (Kolb, 1984). Consequently, Kolb's theory emphasizes exploitation of experiences to develop new concepts. The model proposed by Kolb delineates a four stage learning cycle for effective learning to be seen to be taking place (McLeod, 2010).

The first stage proposed by Kolb is the concrete experience stage. According to Kolb, trainees encounter a novel experience of a situation, which requires concretization, or, the learner or trainee needs to reinterpret a previous and existing experience through a concrete perspective. This stage advocates for learning through accommodation where the learner is encouraged to discover independently, and participate fully in the learning. The second stage as proposed by Kolb is reflective observation. In this stage, the learner or trainee recedes back to reflect on experiences gained earlier. The learner describes what was observed, the feelings experienced, and challenges faced. The reflection process then leads to an understanding of the experiences (Kolb, 1984 as cited in McLeod, 2010).

The third stage of experiential learning as proposed by Kolb is abstract conceptualization, which is an outcome of reflection and which, leads to assimilation of attribution of meanings and interpretations onto the experience. Through individual meanings attributed to experiences, individual learners or trainees can then conceptualize about their experiences. Active experimentation, which Kolb also referred to as plan, constitutes the fourth and final stage of experiential learning. It is argued that this is a stage where the learner plans and tries out acquired knowledge (McLeod, 2010).

Choice of Kolb's experiential learning model for this study was informed by the practical nature that training in hospitality management requires. Moreover, previous studies have acknowledged that application of knowledge gained theoretically in a practical setting increases chances of success (Lee, Olds, Lee, 2012). Kolbs model is well suited to provide a framework upon which application of theoretical concepts to practical situations in the hospitality industry can be anchored.

Kolb's experiential learning cycle in which the learner "touches all the bases, is in Figure 2.2 below:

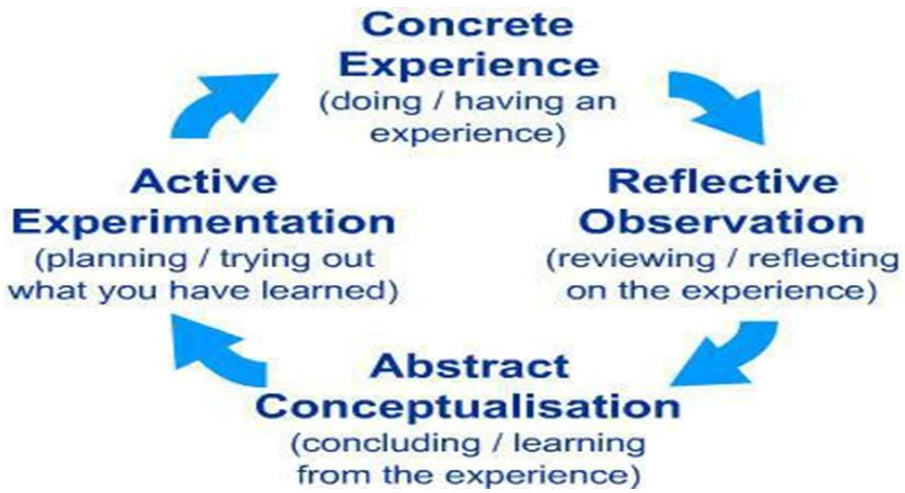


Figure 2.2: The Experiential Learning Cycle, David Kolb, 1984 (McLeod, 2013)

2.8.3 Social Learning Theory

The third theory that underpinned the study is the social learning theory proposed by Albert Bandura in 1977 (as cited in McLeod, 2016). Seen as the bridge between cognitive and behaviorist learning theories, social learning theory argues that individuals learn by observing, imitating and modeling one another. Social learning theory is an improvement from the theories of classical and operant conditioning, which recognizes that other than stimuli and responses, learning also requires

mediating processes. Moreover, observational learning is a process that facilitates learning from the environment.

The social learning theory was found ideal for the study on experiential learning in hospitality studies. Industrial attachment often involves learning through observing, imitating and modeling what is seen on the ground, and in social settings. Consequently, students are able to link cognitive knowledge acquired in theory classes with behaviour acquired through observation. The study however took note of the four mediational processes proposed by Bandura (as cited in McLeod, 2016). In other words, it was assumed that besides making observations and imitations, hospitality management students on industrial attachment pay attention to the desired behavour, and are adequately able to retain and remember the behaviour well enough to be able to reproduce it and reap desired benefits.

2.8.4 Kirkpatricks' Four – Level Training Evaluation Model

The fourth model used to underpin the study was the model published by Donald Kirkpatrick in 1959, and best known as 'Evaluating Training Programmes'. Choice of this model was based on a desire to design a delivery evaluation scale that pursues good evaluation practices.

According to Kirkpatrick and Kirkpatrick (2016), delivery evaluation ought to focus on four levels of training notably; reaction, which focuses on establishing levels of contributions, engagements and reactions to training, elicited by employees and in the case of this study, trainees. Kirkpatrick and Kirkpatrick contend that a survey focusing on trainees' experiences would be ideal. They also posit that evaluation of training should be made through the examination of acquisition of knowledge, skills and attitude from the learning. The third level of training that should be evaluated is

behaviour change among trainees and how they apply their training. The final aspect that requires evaluation relates to the results of training.

Kirkpatrick's model was employed to underpin delivery evaluation. It is argued that practical learning in the context of the hospitality sector takes on a diversity of forms including project-based form, work-based form, practicum, internship, work placement and lab-based (Ren & McKercher, 2021). In such a diversity, the Kirkpatrick's model offers a comprehensive avenue for evaluating learning.

2.9 Conceptual Framework

An extensive review of literature identifies competency of Hospitality Management students to be a function of experiential learning (Nursyazana *et al.,* 2017). Experiential learning on the other hand, is conducted in diverse ways owing to the hybrid perspective advanced by Kolb and Fry (Allodola, 2014) which, views it as a process that draws meaning from direct experiences. Industry-based experiential learning which takes the forms of industrial attachment, practicum, apprenticeship and volunteerism (Austin & Rust, 2015); school-based experiential learning that encompasses group work, lab work, project & research and field trips (Ernstzen *et al.,* 2009); and model-based experiential learning which manifests in the form of mentor modeling, peer modeling, visual modeling and symbolic modeling (Salisu & Ransom, 2014); are delineated as the three commonly used approaches to experiential learning.

Delivery evaluation which incorporates learning, behaviour change, reaction and results is recognized as a vital cog that connects experiential learning and perceived competency in terms of personal values and self-image, ability, knowledge and expertise; leadership orientation, innovativeness and achievement of results. It is

argued that delivery evaluation is an avenue to ensure that trainees have the acumen to implement acquired skills (Nagar, 2009). Under delivery evaluation, La Duke (2017) perceives reaction as a measure of learner's sense of whether training is favourable, engaging, and relevant to their undertakings. Meanwhile, La Duke points to the learning stage as a stage that gauges learners' acquisition of knowledge, attitude, skills, commitment, and confidence. Behaviour is viewed as a very crucial step that evaluates behaviour change in terms of applying what is learned (Moreau (2017). Moreau adds that the results stage of evaluation pits learning outcome to performance indicators earlier established.

Perceived competency of Hospitality Management students was measured through values, leadership, innovation, and achievement. According to Saito (2021), personal values impact positively on service delivery in the hospitality industry. Meanwhile, leadership skills are critical in negotiation, conflict resolution, participation in teams, and effective delivery of services (Oloo & Mishra, 2018). Emerging business models and innovation are associated with revolutionary hospitality, with innovations such as mobile booking, lobby media panels, mobile self-check-in, and electronic luggage tags gaining in prominence (Bilgihan & Nejad, 2015). Another key facet of competency of Hospitality Management students is achievement. The argument made is that hospitality stakeholders should seek to set goals that they are able to achieve (Ali, Rasoolimanesh & Cobanoglu, 2020).

Innovative technologies and business models have revolutionized the hospitality and tourism industries. Examples of such innovations are phone-as-key-cards, mobile self-check-in, mobile booking, self-service check-in kiosks, lobby media panels, electronic luggage tags, bring your own device, bring your own content platforms,

smartphone boarding passes, hotel service optimization systems, guest device connectivity tools, voice over internet protocol phones that are interconnected with the hotel's ecosystem

On the basis of the foregoing discussion, the researcher conceptualized that experiential learning measured via school-based learning, industry-based learning, and model-based learning had direct impacts on both; delivery evaluation measured through learning, behaviour, reaction and results; and perceived competency of Hospitality Management students measured through personal values and self-image, ability, knowledge and expertise; leadership, innovation and achievement of results. Experiential learning was therefore conceptualized as the exogenous construct, delivery evaluation as both exogenous and endogenous construct and perceived competency was conceptualized as the endogenous construct, (Fig 2.3).

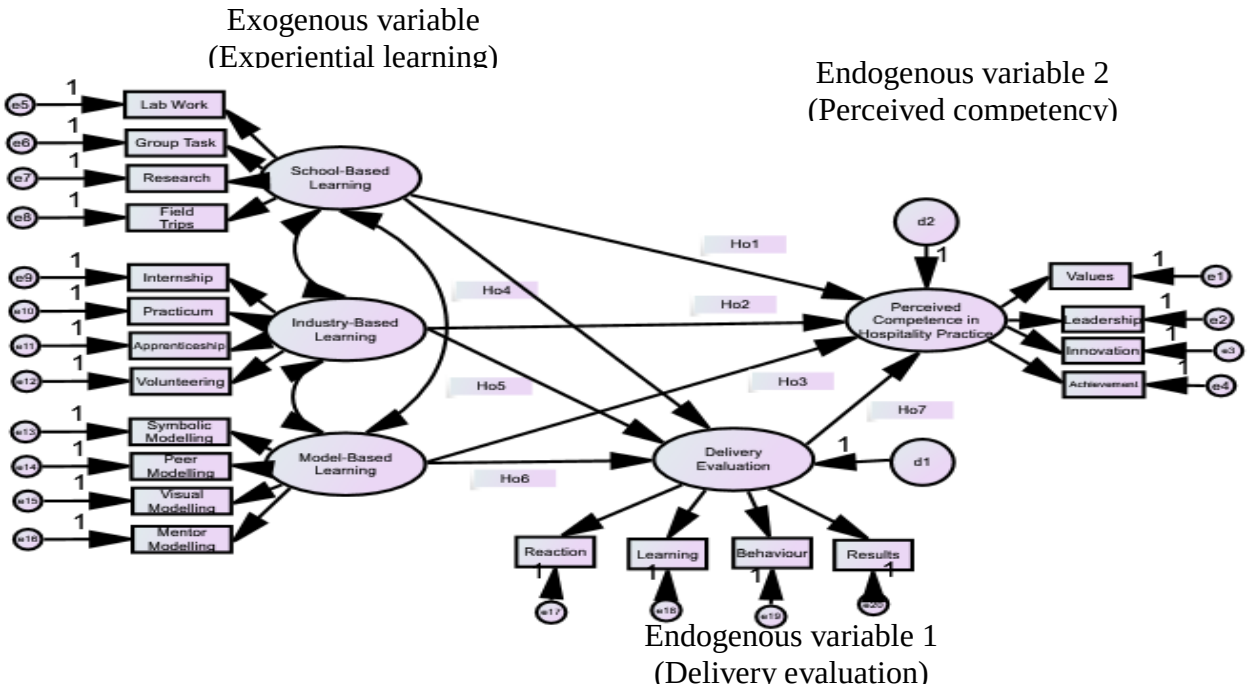


Figure 2.3 Proposed Conceptual framework

Source: Adopted and Modified from Nursyazana et al, (2017); Kolb and Fry, (Allodola, 2014); Austin & Rust, (2015); Salisu & Ransom, (2014)

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.0 Overview

This chapter presents a description of the design and methodology employed in the study. It looks at the preferred research paradigm, the research design, study location, target population and sampling procedures and data collection instruments. Moreover, it presents the validity and reliability justification for the data collection instruments, measurements of the study variables, data processing procedures, and measurement model specification and validation, structural model specification and validation, data screening and cleaning. The chapter also presents the strategy and techniques used in testing the formulated hypotheses as well as highlighting ethical considerations taken care of in the study.

3.1 The Study Area

The study was conducted in selected public and private universities in Kenya offering courses aligned with hospitality management. The criteria of selection of a university was anchored on whether or not the university had designed and customized its hospitality courses and given a distinct name. A reconnaissance study of Universities in Kenya indicated that eight public universities and two private universities had met this criteria including Kenyatta University, Maseno University, University of Eldoret (UoE), Masai Mara University, university of Eastern Africa-Baraton, the United States International University (USIU), Moi University, Kabianga University, Technical University of Kenya (TUK) and Technical University of Mombasa (TUM). The ten universities were assumed to be at the same level and therefore comparison between public and private universities was not envisaged.

3.1.1 Kenyatta University

Kenyatta University is a public university situated in Nairobi County. Having started as a constituent college of Nairobi university, Kenyatta University attained its university status in 1985 as the third university in Kenya. Choice of Kenyatta University was based on the understanding that it offers a bachelor's degree in Hospitality Management that specializes in food production; food and beverage service; accommodation operations, hotel information systems, and field attachment. Besides, the university owns the North coast hotel in Mombasa and was therefore ideal for a study on experiential learning and competence in hospitality practice. Moreover, Kenyatta University has for a long time been producing quality teachers in home science, and was therefore premised as an ideal study area in the context of hospitality practice.

Other hospitality practice courses offered under the hospitality management degree programme of the University include: Food Production Lab I, Food and Beverage Service Lab I, Food Production Lab II, Food and Beverage Service Lab II, Accommodation Operations (Theory and Practical), Hotel Information Systems (Theory & Practical), Field Attachment, Food and Beverage Production Management III (Theory and Practical), Food and Beverage Service Management III (Theory and Practical) and Field attachment II (Outside Semester), among others.

3.1.2 Maseno University

Maseno University is a public university founded by an Act of parliament in 1991, and elevated to full university status in 2000. Maseno university commenced its journey through the merging of the then Siriba Teachers' Training college with the then Maseno Government Training Institute (GTI) in 1990 to form Maseno

University College under the auspices of Moi University. The university resides at Maseno Township, 25 km from Kisumu city along the Kisumu-Busia road, and is famed as the only University worldwide that lies along the Equator. Alongside offering academic programmes, the University also manages Kisumu Hotel.

Choice of Maseno University for a study on University experiential learning in hospitality practice was informed by the fact that the University is among Universities in Kenya offering courses in hospitality management, and more importantly, its mission is to develop and disseminate programmes, which are knowledge economy oriented, and which respond to industry specific needs.

3.1.3 University of Eldoret (UOE)

The University of Eldoret (UOE), one of the public universities in Kenya is located in Uasin Gishu County, nine (9) Kilometers from Eldoret town off the Eldoret-Ziwa road. White settlers founded the University in 1946 as a center for training farmers keen on large-scale farming. It transformed into a diploma college for training teachers specializing in science-oriented disciplines. In 1990, the double university intake crisis that faced public universities occasioned its takeover by Moi University as the Chepkoilel campus to offer programmes in basic, applied and natural sciences. The Chepkoilel campus was subsequently upgraded to Chepkoilel University College through Legal Notice No. 125 of 2010, and affiliated to Moi University. The college was however awarded a charter in 2013 and became a fully-fledged university operating under the banner University of Eldoret.

Choice of the University of Eldoret for research on experiential learning and perceived competence in hospitality practice was based on the understanding that, in addition to offering an elaborate bachelor's degree in hotel and hospitality

management, the university is close to a number of world class hotels such as Poa Place Resort, Sirikwa Hotel, The Noble Hotel, Hotel Comfy, Hotel Winster, Asis Hotel, Kaptagat Farm Stay, Kenmosa Resort, and Naiberi River Campsite & Resort among many others all of which, are ideal for the university to exploit for experiential learning in hospitality practice.

3.1.4 Masaai Mara University (MMU)

Maasai Mara University ranks as the most recent public University to be elevated to full university status in Kenya. Having started as a primary teacher training college going by the name of Narok Teachers Training College, the college was awarded a university college status in 2008 and started serving as a constituent college of Moi University. It was granted a university charter in 2013, and became the only public university in Narok County. The University is located approximately 1 kilometre off the Narok- Bomet Highway and atleast 2 kilometres away from Narok town.

Choice of Maasai Mara University for a study of this magnitude, which explores experiential learning and competency in hospitality practice, was based on its strategic location of being surrounded by an echo-system rich in biodiversity and hospitality attractions. Maasai Mara University is surrounded by the Maasai Mara National Game Reserve, which is perceived as the world's seventh wonder. The university is therefore well poised to shape the future of the hospitality industry by building bridges between industry stakeholders, disciplines, institutions and communities.

Moreover, the university hosts the vibrant School of Tourism, Hospitality and Leisure (STHLS) which strives to empower hospitality and leisure professionals through the pursuit of excellence in teaching and learning, outreach programmes, and

in research and development. The university offers Bachelor of Hotels and Hospitality Management. This degree programme emphasizes a student centered learning approach in which the main training characteristics include combinations of problem based learning, project oriented/work-based and cooperate learning. The Module approach is used in delivering the program. Training in the Department of Hotel and Hospitality emphasizes practical work, in-house training and industrial attachments. The duration of degree course is 4 academic years. Practical courses include; Food and beverage service practical 1,Food and Beverage Production practical II, Housekeeping practical, Food and Beverage Service practical II, Industrial placement, Pastry cake making and decorations. Maasai Mara is therefore an ideal environment that such expectations for training in hospitality practice can be actualized.

3.1.5 University of Eastern Africa, Baraton

The University of Eastern Africa, Baraton pioneered as the Baraton Animal Husbandry Research Station located in the then Nandi District. Currently, it is situated in Chemundu location in Nandi District of the expansive Nandi County. The university is a fully accredited institution of higher learning, which received its operational charter on 28th march 1991 (Okongo, 2014). The university is founded on the Seventh-day Adventist Worldview, which holds that God is the Creator and Sustainer of the Universe and life, and is the source of true Knowledge. Consequently, the University of Eastern Africa, Baraton is owned and operated by the Seventh-day Adventist Church, under the Chancellorship of the president of the East-Central Africa Division of the General Conference of the Seventh-day Adventist church.

Choice of the University of Eastern Africa, Baraton for inclusion in this study was not only based on the need to diversify the scope but, by the university's perception of the nature of knowledge as having a source in God but availed to man through a variety of channels. The researcher was therefore of the view that such channels were inclusive of experiential learning. In its beliefs about the nature of knowledge, the university postulates that knowledge ought to enable human beings to appreciate life and its challenges. This was indeed the thinking behind experiential learning in hospitality practice. Besides, Baraton offers a Bachelor of Science degree programme in Hotel Management. Students enrolled in this programme stand to benefit from the array of hotels operating from around the Kapsabet locale.

3.1.6 United States International University (USIU)

The other University, which was employed in the current study, is the United States International University – Africa popularly referred to as ISIU-Africa. This private university has been in existence in Kenya since 1978 having received accreditation from the Western Association of Schools and Colleges (WASC). USIU-Africa got its registration in September 1969 as an institution under the companies Act (Cap 486), and entered into a memorandum of understanding with the Government of the day to specialize in Business programs and other degree programs, which were not offered, by local public universities. USIU was given its operational charter by the then commission for University Education (CHE) in 1999.

The University, which operates from Kasarani area of Nairobi, off Thika highway, operates independently and is a non-profit making institution. It enjoys dual accreditation for which the courses it offers are accredited both by the United States

of America on the one side, and Kenya on the other. It has a population of close to 7000 students drawn from diverse nationalities.

Choice of USIU-Africa for the current study was two faceted. First, the University offers a Hotel and Restaurant Management course, which brings together culinary appreciation and business management. The programme seeks to expose students to concepts and approaches required in among other hospitality practices; food preparation, hotel and restaurant operations, back and front office operations, financial management, accounting and international marketing. Besides, students are given a thorough orientation in local and international markets, software applicable in standard routines in the industry, exemplary customer service, cultural diversity, leadership and management skills, and skills required in general operations. Moreover, the programme in hotel and restaurant management offered by USIU-Africa aims to impart soft skills such as problem–solving skills, attitude and planning and development geared towards real life experiences in research, simulations, internships and case studies. Information technology is also a key focus by the programme, which desires students to have the acumen to apply technology in formulation and implementation of hospitality operations procedures, application research, and in creation of novel products and services in hospitality practice.

Secondly, being an international university that attracts students worldwide, the researcher perceived USIU-Africa as an ideal context for examining student perception on competency in hospitality practice from a wider spectrum.

3.1.7 Moi University

Moi University is a product of the Mackay Commission of 1981, which was also known as the Presidential Working Party on the Establishment of the Second University. The report among others recommended establishment of a second university in Kenya (Lelei & Weidman, 2012). Consequently, an Act of Parliament in 1984 established Moi University as the second university in Kenya after Nairobi University. The University was not only established to decentralize higher education in Kenya away from the Capital city Nairobi, but to also cater for Science, technology and development oriented disciplines.

Moi University is located in Kesses location of Kesses constituency, Uasin Gishu County, 35km South East of Eldoret town, and 14km off the Eldoret–Nakuru highway. The reasons for choosing Moi University for the current study were also two faceted. First, the University runs a vibrant school of Tourism, Hospitality and Events management, which was hived from the school of Business and Economics in 2012. The school prides itself as one of the most comprehensive schools of tourism and hospitality management not only in Kenya but also in the East Africa region (Kieti, 2018). Nevertheless, of special interest to experiential learning is the schools' desire to offer insights to real world issues and problems facing the hospitality industry as a whole, and which point towards experiential learning.

Secondly, Moi University is located in Uasin Gishu, which is fast becoming a hub for hospitality fueled by Athletic tourism. A number of modern hotels are springing up in Eldoret town and its environs thereby widening opportunities for industry based experiential learning.

3.1.8 Technical University of Kenya

Technical University of Kenya popularized as TUK ranks as the first technical university in Kenya. According to the Technical University of Kenya fact file (2020), TUK is a product of the Kenya Polytechnic which itself was founded in 1961 ostensibly as a technical institute in Nairobi. The University is located in Nairobi's Central Business District, off Haile Selassie Avenue. While operating under the banner of the Kenya Polytechnic, the college earned accolades for high quality graduates in technical and vocational fields. The college gained the university status in 2007 operating as a constituent college of the University of Nairobi.

It therefore started operating as the Kenya Polytechnic University College and targeted students with prior qualification in technical and vocational fields. In January, 2013, the college was awarded a charter by the then President Hon. Mwai Kibaki making it to become a fully-fledged University known as Technical University of Kenya (The University Act, 2012). The technical University of Kenya hosts the school of Hospitality and Tourism Studies with four distinct academic units in hospitality practice namely; tourism and travel, leisure and event management; hospitality management; and catering and accommodation management. TUK was deemed suitable for this study owing to its desire to create and transfer knowledge through partnerships, outreach and extension, which subscribes to the notion of experiential learning.

3.1.9 Technical University of Mombasa

Like TUK, the Technical University of Mombasa (TUM) was elevated from Mombasa Polytechnic to a fully-fledged University status in 2013 having been awarded its charter by Hon. Mwai Kibaki, the then President of Kenya (Mukhongo,

2020). It is located in the coastal city of Mombasa, in Tudor along Tom Mboya Avenue. According to TUM historical background, the university pioneered in Kenya in 1948, as Mombasa institute of Muslim Education (MIOME) following consultations involving the Sultan of Zanzibar, the Aga Khan III, Sir Phillip Mitchel, and Sir Bernard Reilly, the then secretary of state for the colonies ostensibly to offer technical education to Muslim students in East Africa (Wanzala, 2014).

Based on the same background, MIOME transitioned to Mombasa Technical Institute (MTI) in 1966 and opened its doors to students from any religion. It attained the polytechnic status in 1976 and was subsequently renamed as Mombasa Polytechnic. However, through a Legal notice, the polytechnic was elevated to a university college in 2007 and was then called Mombasa Polytechnic University College (MPUC) (Wanzala, 2014). Choice of TUM for the current study was informed not only because of offering a Bachelor of Science degree in Tourism Management, but also because its location was critical in widening the geographic scope of the study.

3.1.10 Kabianga University

The Government School, Kabianga, was started in 1925. Kabianga Teachers' Training College existed between 1929 and 1963, when the College was moved to the present Kericho Teachers Training College. After the relocation, Kabianga Farmers Training Centre was established in 1959 at the premises. Its objective was to serve as an Agricultural Training facility for farmers from the South Rift and beyond. Kabianga Farmers Training Centre became Kabianga Campus of Moi University in May 2007. In May 2009, the university campus was elevated to a university college. On 1 March 2013, it was awarded charter by H.E, Hon. Mwai Kibaki and

became a fully-fledged university. The University is situated in the famous and lush tea-growing highlands of Kericho in the Southwestern end of the Rift Valley Province of Kenya and within the proximity of the famous multinational tea growing companies, Unilever, James Finlay, and George Williamson. It is located approximately 26 km from Kericho Town.

Choice of Kabianga University was informed by the fact that The School of Business and Management at the university provide tertiary level skills in Tourism Management, Travel and Tour Operations, Hotel and Hospitality Management.

The bachelor of Hotel and Hospitality Management (BHM) program aims at producing highly trained professionals in all aspects of hospitality. The programme emphasizes the student centered learning approach in which the main training characteristics include combinations of problem based learning, project oriented/work-based and cooperate learning. On completion of the training the BHM graduates is to be equipped with competencies (Knowledge, skills and attitudes) in planning, development and management of hotels and other hospitality establishments. Training in the Department of Hotel and Hospitality emphasizes practical work, in-house training and industrial attachments in keeping with the mission of University of Kabianga of producing practical, development-conscious and extension-oriented graduates.

3.2 Research Paradigm- Pragmatism

The study adopted the pragmatic research paradigm that advocates for a mixed methods approach to research. A paradigm is viewed as shared understanding of reality (Rossman & Rallis, 2012). Creswell and Creswell (2017), identify three explicit philosophical paradigms that differ in their assumptions of knowledge and

research approaches. The three paradigms are: positivism which assumes existence of objective truth; interpretivism which assumes that knowledge is socially constructed; and pragmatism which posits that actions and consequences inform knowledge. Pragmatists according to Creswell (2013) argue that knowledge arises out of actions and their consequences. In essence therefore, the focus of research should be the problem at hand and any suitable or combination of methods that can lead to the understanding of its nature.

Choice of the pragmatic research paradigm for the current study, was anchored on the premise that an understanding of university experiential learning and perceived student competency in hospitality practice is best informed by actions and the consequences that may arise out of these actions. Consequently, an exhaustive understanding of the actions to be undertaken would require that whichever methods would help in understanding such actions be undertaken.

3.3 Research Design

Based on the lineage towards the pragmatist worldview, the current study used the concurrent triangulation mixed methods design. Under this design, quantitative and qualitative data were collected concurrently in the data collection phase. Data was then analyzed separately and combined for interpretation (Creswell & Plano-Clark, 2011). The concurrent triangulation approach was seen ideal since perceptions about competency ideally required cross validation or corroboration of findings for which this method was deemed suitable. Creswell (2021). argue that the mixed methods approach overcomes weaknesses that may arise due to reliance on one method of research.

Teddlie and Tashakkori further point out that triangulating questionnaires and interviews in a study brings depth and breadth in understanding the phenomena in question. Chih-Pei & Chang (2017), note that the use of both qualitative and quantitative methods provides a clearer picture of the nature of the problem and enhances chances of external validity of the findings.

3.4 Target Population

The study targeted final year undergraduate students, lecturers and heads of department in public and private universities taking, and handling the hospitality management course. Choice of final year undergraduate students was because having gone through the entire programme from first to fourth year; they had opportunities to participate in the various categories of university experiential learning, and were well positioned to identify competencies and opportunities for experiential learning that they may have been exposed to. Choice of hospitality management lecturers handling practical courses and heads of department was based on the desire to triangulate sources of data for corroboration purposes aimed at boosting external validation. Based on information solicited from university records (June 2018), it was revealed that there were 652 final year students taking hospitality management in the selected universities. The target population was therefore 652 individuals distributed as shown in Table 3.1.

Table 3.1: Distribution of the Target Population

No	University	Category	Students	Faculty
1	Kenyatta University	Public with hotel	100	4
2	Maseno University	Public with hotel	62	4
3	University of Eldoret	Public	92	4
4	Maasai Mara University	Public	65	4
5	University of Eastern Africa, Baraton	Private	28	4
6	United States International University	Private	82	4
7	Technical University of Kenya	Public	65	4
8	Technical University of Mombasa	Public	35	4
9	Kabianga	Public	53	4
10	Moi University	Public	70	4
	TOTAL		**652**	**40**

Source: University Records, (2018).

3.5 Sampling Design

Sampling is a process of identifying a representative portion of a population since it may not be practical to collect data from the entire population (Sekeran, 2010). According to Taherdoost (2016), researchers are constrained in terms of time and resources to examine the entire population. Consequently, they apply sampling technique to limit the number of cases. Prior to engaging sampling techniques, the appropriate sample size was first computed from the given study population.

3.5.1 Sample Size

The sample size was settled upon after taking consideration of students, lecturers and heads of department of the ten selected universities. In recognition of the fact that the

study used structural equation modeling which works well with samples having cases ranging from 30 up to 450 cases (Wolf, Harrington, Clark & Miller, 2013), the following formula suggested by Zikmund *et al.* (2013) was used to find the sample size of the students for an accessible population less than 10,000. Thus:

$$n = \frac{n_0}{1 + \frac{n_0}{N}}$$

Where;

n_0 = Sample size (when the population is more than 10,000).

n =the actual sample size (Target population is less than 10,000).

$$n = \frac{384}{1 + \frac{384}{652}}$$

$$= 241.7$$

$$\cong 241$$

The sample size of the final year hospitality students was therefore set at 241. In addition, 20 faculty members comprising 10 lecturers handling practical courses and 10 heads of departments were selected from the ten universities.

3.5.2 Sampling Design and Techniques

The study utilized multiple sampling techniques at different stages of sample(s) selection from the targeted population. Stratified, purposive, census and simple random sampling techniques were employed in this study. The stratified sampling technique divides a given population into distinct strata from which samples are drawn proportionately (Ozturk, 2019). Simple random sampling on the other hand gives each member of the population equal chances of being considered (Sekeran, 2010). Stratified sampling was used to group the universities in strata of public with hotel, public without hotel and private to ensure equal chances of inclusion.

Purposive sampling was used to choose the private universities and to select the lecturers teaching practical courses and the heads of Hospitality department as key informants. Simple random sampling was used to select public universities without hotels and census was used to select universities with hotels.

Ten lecturers and ten Heads of Department were used as key informants for the study. According to Kombo and Tromp (2006), social science commonly uses questionnaires, interview schedules, observation schedule as research instruments. Lecturers and heads of department were purposively selected on the criterion that they handle hospitality practical courses.

A combination of stratified and simple random sampling techniques was used to obtain the ideal sample of hospitality management students. The students were stratified along the respective universities (Table 3.2). The sample of students to be drawn from each university was proportional to the target population in the respective university. Simple random sampling technique was next used to select the required students from each university. Each student in the university was assigned a number, which was fed into a computer to generate random numbers that aided selection of the students who participated in the study. The procedure was repeated until the required number for the respective university was reached.

Table 3.2: Stratification of Student Population

No	University	No. of population	No in sample
1	Kenyatta University	100	100/652 x 241=37
2	Maseno University	62	62/652 x 241 =23
3	University of Eldoret	92	92/652 x 241 =34
4	Maasai Mara University	65	65/652 x 241 =24
5	University of Eastern Africa, Baraton	28	28/652 x 241 =10
6	United States International University	82	82/652 x 241 =30
7	Technical University of Kenya	65	65/652 x 241 =24
8	Technical University of Mombasa	35	35/652 x 241 =13
9	Kabianga	53	53/652 x 241 =19
10	Moi University	70	70/652 x 241 =27
	TOTAL	**652**	**241**

Sample size and sampling procedure for faculty members was generated and is displayed in Table 3.3.

Table 3.3: Sample Size and Sampling Procedures

Target Group	Target Population	Sample Size	Sampling Techniques
Universities	10	10	Stratified, purposive, simple random, census
Faculty	40	20	Purposive
Students	652	241	Simple random, stratified

Source: Researcher (2018)

3.6 Data Collection

This subsection discusses the data types and sources used in the study, the data collection instruments and validity of the instruments.

3.6.1 Data types and sources

Both primary and secondary data were used in the study. Primary data was collected from the field using questionnaires, interview schedules and focus group discussions. This data was collected from students, lecturers and heads of department. On the other hand, secondary data focused on what other researchers and writers have written concerning experiential learning, delivery evaluation and competency in hospitality practice, benefits and challenges. The data was collected from both published and unpublished materials such as books, journals, research papers, internet and published theses.

3.6.2 Data Collection Instruments

Four instruments were used to collect the required data for facilitation of the study. They included structured questionnaire for hospitality management students, interview schedule for lecturers and heads of department, focus group discussions with selected groups of students and an observation schedule which was supported by photographs taken during observations..

3.6.2.1 Questionnaire

A questionnaire is a data collection technique in which each person responds to the same set of questions in a predetermined order and mostly used for descriptive or explanatory research to examine and explain relationships between variables, particularly cause-and-effect relationships (Mugenda & Mugenda, 2013; Saunders *et al*., 2016). Thus, a questionnaire survey provides an opportunity to carry out an inquiry on specific issues on a large sample, thereby, making the study findings more reliable and dependable (Kothari & Gaurav, 2014).

The hospitality management students' questionnaire (Appendix I) was the main instrument used to collect data. Use of the questionnaire was based on its ability to reach out to a large number of students within a short time. Besides, the questionnaire was viewed as a tool that assured confidentiality to students under study, and it was an objective method that was expected to minimize potential interviewer bias (Owens, 2002). The questionnaire comprised of five sections that were consistent with the variables or constructs under study. The first section focused on the examination of students' personal information, which included age, gender and career expectations. This information was viewed critical when reporting the postulated relationships of the study since, personal characteristics have the capacity to influence the hypothesized relationships.

The second section focused on examining available mechanisms in universities for facilitating school–based experiential learning approaches such as lab work, group work, research and project work, and fieldwork. The third section-explored mechanism put in place to cater for industry-based experiential learning, and was keen on aspects such as industrial attachment, practicum, apprenticeship, and

volunteering. The fourth section-explored students' views concerning mechanisms universities have put in place to promote model-based learning as an experiential learning approach, and in particular, their thoughts on aspects put in place to target symbolic, peer, mentor and visual modeling. The fifth section assessed instruction delivery and evaluation as practiced in the universities, as a precursor to hospitality management programme delivery. The sixth and final section examined students' perceptions on competency in hospitality management.

Questionnaire items were measured on a 5-point likert–type scale (5-strongly agree; 4-agree; 3-moderately agree; 2-disagree; and 1-strongly disagree). The mode of administration of the questionnaire was self-completion, which was deemed suitable since it was found to be cheap and was highly confidential in the sense that it did not require respondents to disclose information to anyone. Besides, self-administered questionnaires have widely been successfully used in previous studies (Bird, 2009; Braekman *et al.* (2018).

The research instruments are designed to meet all the intended objectives of the research. The data collection tools were piloted in Rongo University to 30 Hotel and Hospitality Management final year students as recommended by Saunders *et al.* (2016). The pilot testing was done to establish informed amendments, such as wording, clarity and flow, for inclusion in the final survey instrument (Wilkins, 2010). Additionally, the research supervisors reviewed the research instruments. Based on the supervisors' inputs, comments and outcomes of the pilot test, the research instruments were accordingly revised to reflect the adjustments and face validity.

3.6.2.2 Interview Schedule

An interview is a purposeful discourse between two or more people to help gather valid and reliable data that are relevant to research questions and objectives (Saunders *et al*., 2016). It allows the researcher to note facial expressions, gestures, hesitation, and other forms of expressions when engaging a respondent (Kothari, 2007; Oltmann, 2016). Oltmann further argues that during interviews the researcher has an opportunity to authenticate the responses, explore issues raised, and discuss attitudes, feelings and beliefs more easily with respondents.

A HODs and Lecturers interview schedule (Appendix II) was designed specifically to obtain their incisive views on existing frameworks for experiential learning in terms of school-based, industry-based, and model-based learning in universities in Kenya. The interview schedule also sought to find out from course lecturers and HODs their opinions regarding practical delivery evaluation and competencies developed for hospitality industry. Questions in the interview schedule were open-ended allowing respondents a wider latitude of responding to them. Semi-structured interviews offer researchers flexibility to add or remove questions from the schedule based on the results of each interview (Jwan & Ong'ondo, 2011). The interview guides had at least 19 questions, lasting roughly between 15 and 35 minutes as suggested by Serem *et al*. (2013). The schedules featured questions probing on among others; number of students attending any practical session; challenges experienced when presenting practical sessions; mechanisms employed to ensure full participation of students during these sessions; mechanisms used to improve delivery of practical sessions; how industrial attachments are organized, and whether they benefit students as expected; how other experiential learning approaches are organized and their usefulness in competency development among students; and

competencies that students are exposed to during practical sessions and during industrial attachments among others.

3.6.2.3 Focus Group Discussions

Ten (10) focus group discussions (FGD), were conducted with groups of 6 students each. Groups of six students were chosen following recommendations of their suitability for a mini FGD (Leedy & Ormrod, 2015). Choice of focus group discussions with students was informed by the fact that being the principal respondents, there was need to accord them more latitude to express their perceptions with regards to the hospitality management experiential learning and their perceptions of competency in hospitality practice. The argument made here was that in such discussions, students were bound to reveal more information due to the informal nature of the interactions. With the assistance of the class representatives, the researcher was able to identify outspoken students from both government and privately sponsored groups. This was meant to produce a well-grounded discussion.

The focus group guide (Appendix III) consisted of seven probing questions focusing on delivery of practical sessions during training, and skills acquired in the four year program; industrial attachment mechanisms put in place by the various universities and skills and knowledge acquired; work related experiences they are exposed to; field trips exposure; relevance of learning activities employed during practical sessions; delivery of practical sessions; and possible avenues for improvement.

3.6.2.4 Observation Schedule

Non-participant observations were conducted in all the 10 universities to allow the researcher to see and understand what goes on without playing any part in the practical sessions. These provided the researcher the opportunity to compare what the students reported in the questionnaires and thereafter make judgement pertaining to experiential learning. An observation schedule was used to guide the researcher (Appendix IV). In addition, the researcher took some photographs of hospitality teaching facilities to help understand experiential learning mechanisms in the universities.

3.7 Data Collection Procedure

Both quantitative and qualitative data were collected using questionnaires for quantitative data and interview schedule, focus group discussions and pictures for qualitative.

3.7.1 Quantitative data

The research instruments were devised to meet all the objectives of the study. To achieve this, literature was reviewed in areas related to the study and consultations made with experts. The researcher distributed research instruments to research assistants, one for each university. Before commencement of the data collection process, the research assistants were trained on data collection techniques, specifically on issues such as research ethics, researcher-respondent relationship among others. The researcher personally took the research assistants through the entire questionnaire to ensure that they understood it well enough before commencement of the exercise. The research assistants were all graduates hence had the ability to clarify any unclear issues. The research used both self-administered and

researcher-assisted questionnaires, whereby the respondents assumed the responsibility for reading and responding to the questions (Zikmund and Babin, 2007).

Under this approach, the researcher visited the universities and met with the heads of department to inform them of the intention to carry out the research in their departments. The HoDs then introduced the researcher to class representatives for a discussion about the research. With the help of the class representatives, the researcher met the other students and formally briefed them on the needs of the research. Random numbers were used to identify potential respondents who were then briefed on administration of the questionnaire, research ethics and their roles in this process among others. The researcher then hired two research assistants to help with delivering and collecting filled questionnaires. The assistants were briefed on how to interact with student respondents and, on the need to observe ethical rules governing the current study. The filled questionnaires were collected by the class representatives and left at the HoDs offices from where the research assistants collected them.

3.7.2 Qualitative data

Qualitative data was collected using interview schedules, focus group discussions, observations and photographs. The researcher, who guided the flow of the interviews and ensured that they remain well within the context of the research objectives, conducted all interviews. For reporting purposes, the research participants were labeled as follows:

i. University 1 – INTL-1 / INTC-1
ii. University 2 – INTL-2 / INTC-2
iii. University 3 – INTL-3 / INTC-3
iv. University 4 – INTL-4 / INTC-4
v. University 5– INTL-5 / INTC-5
vi. University 6 – INTL-6 / INTC-6
vii. University 7– INTL-7 / INTC-7
viii. University 8– INTL-8 / INTC-8
ix. University 9– INTL-9 / INTC-9
x. University 10– INTL-10 / INTC-10

The researcher moderated all the focus group discussions for uniformity purposes. For reporting purposes, the research focus group participants were labeled as follows;

i. University 1, were labeled as FG1-1, FG1-2, FG1-3, FG1-4, FG1-5, FG1-6
ii. University 2, were labeled as FG2-1, FG2-2, FG2-3, FG2-4, FG2-5, FG2-6
iii. University 3, were labeled as FG3-1, FG3-2, FG3-3, FG3-4, FG3-5, FG3-6
iv. University 4, were labeled as FG4-1, FG4-2, FG4-3, FG4-4, FG4-5, FG4-6
v. University 5, were labeled as FG5-1, FG5-2, FG5-3, FG5-4, FG5-5, FG5-6
vi. University 6, were labeled as FG6-1, FG6-2, FG6-3, FG6-4, FG6-5, FG6-6
vii. University 7, were labeled as FG7-1, FG7-2, FG7-3, FG7-4, FG7-5, FG7-6
viii. University 8, were labeled as FG8-1, FG8-2, FG8-3, FG8-4, FG8-5, FG8-6
ix. University 9, were labeled as FG9-1, FG9-2, FG9-3, FG9-4, FG9-5, FG9-6
x. University 10, were labeled as FG10-1, FG10-2, FG10-3, FG10-4, FG10-5, FG10-6

3.8 Measurement of Variables

Measurement scales consisted of five latent variables and corresponding observed variables (Indicators). It is argued that latent variables are not observable, but are defined in relation to behaviour associated with them (Hair *et al.*, 2007). In the current study school-based learning, industry-based learning, and model-based learning were the exogenous latent variables; while delivery evaluation was both exogenous endogenous variable while perceived competency was the endogenous latent variable. Each of the five latent variables was measured using four observable (manifest) variables.

3.8.1 Exogenous (Latent) Variables

Three variables namely school-based learning, industry-based learning and model-based learning were conceptualized as the exogenous variables. Exogenous variables are noted to be synonymous with independent variables or explanatory variables, and often cause fluctuations in values of other latent variables in a model (Guney, 2009).

3.8.1.1 School-based Learning Construct

School-based learning is reflected in Kolb's Experiential Learning Style Theory (1984) as an experiential learning approach suitable for the hospitality management. Laboratory workshop, group work, research and project, and field trips feature prominently as key pedagogical approaches in school-based experiential learning. In this regard school-based learning was conceptualized as an exogenous latent variable measured using the four approaches as shown in the indicator structure of the school based learning measurement model (Figure 3.1).

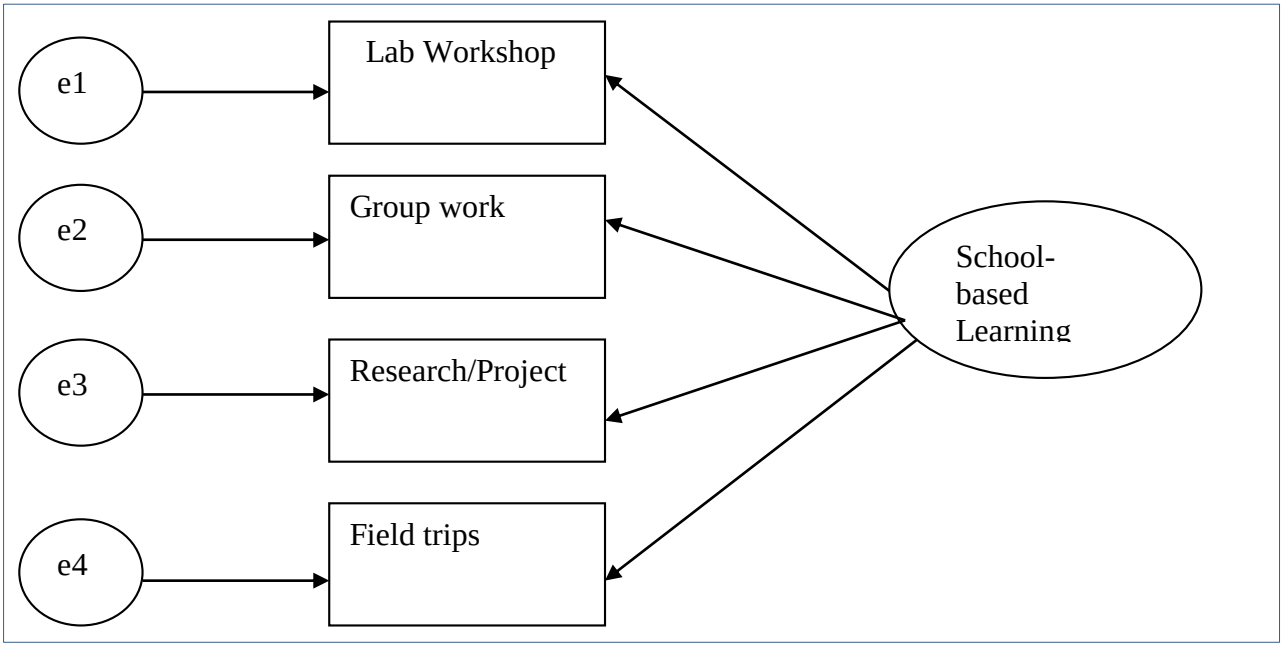


Figure 3.1 Indicator Structure for School based Learning

3.8.1.2 Industry-based Learning Construct

Industry based learning as an experiential learning pedagogy also features strongly in Kolb's theory. Emerging from this theory is the fact that exposing hospitality management graduates to the industry expectations through training, prepares them for the real life expectations of the hospitality industry. Industry-based learning was therefore conceptualized as the second exogenous variable in the present study. This variable was measured using an indicator structure that consisted of four indicators namely: internships, practicum, apprenticeships and volunteering (see figure 3.2).

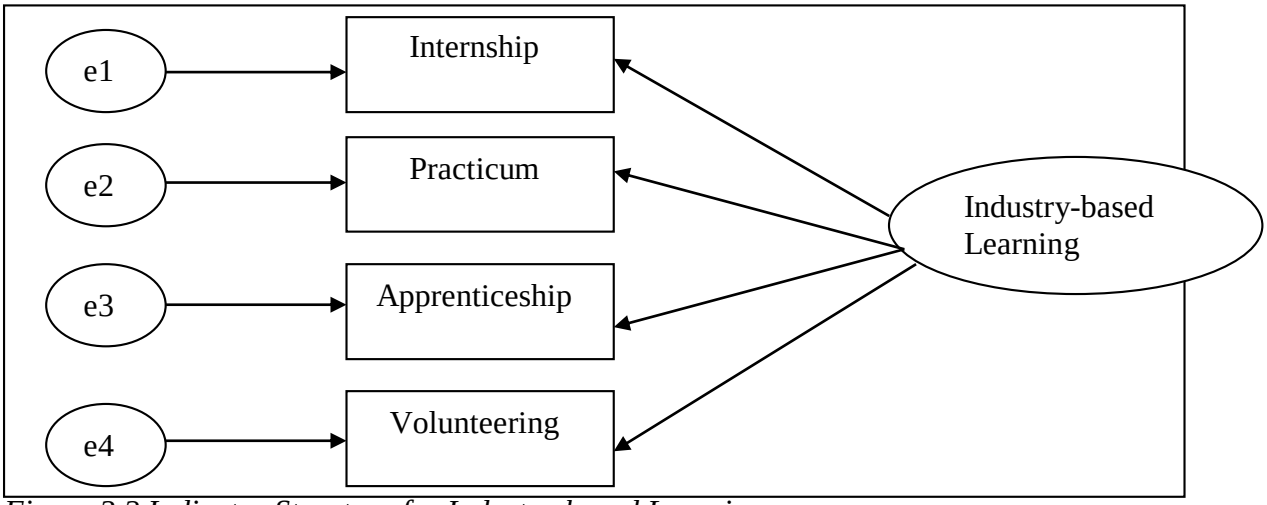


Figure 3.2 Indicator Structure for Industry-based Learning

3.8.1.3 Model-based Learning Construct

Modeling has been identified in social learning theory as an approach that improves learner motivation, retention, attention and reproduction (Bandura, 1986). The present study therefore conceptualized model-based learning as the third exogenous variable that measures experiential learning. The indicator structure of model-based learning featured four indicators, which were proposed to measure model-based learning in line with recommendations of Kolb's theory and Bandura's Social

learning Theory. The four indicators, which are shown in figure 3.3, included; symbolic modeling, peer modeling, visual modeling, and mentor modeling.

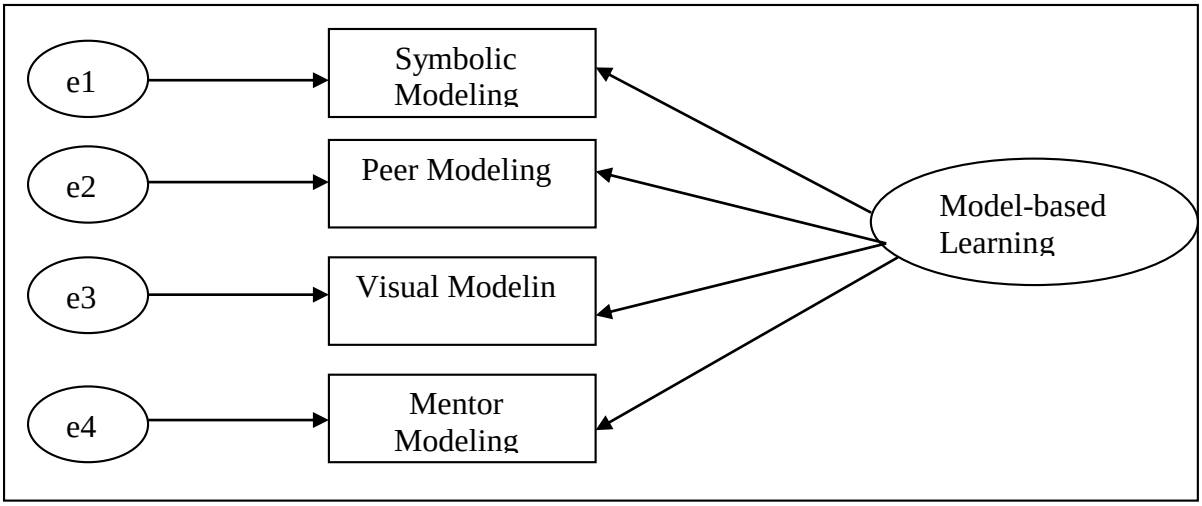


Figure 3.3 Indicator Structure for Model-based Learning

3.8.2 Endogenous (Latent) Variables

Two variables were identified as endogenous variables, and were conceptualized as dependent variables being impacted upon by university experiential learning. The two variables were delivery evaluation, and perceived competency of hospitality management students.

3.8.2.1 Delivery Evaluation

Delivery evaluation was embedded in Kirk Patrick's four-level training evaluation model (1994). The researcher conceptualized that delivery evaluation was a measure of practical delivery, and was a function of the four levels identified by Kirk Patrick and which included; reaction, learning, behaviour and results. The indicator structure of the delivery evaluation variable therefore featured four indicators reflecting these levels (Figure 3.4).

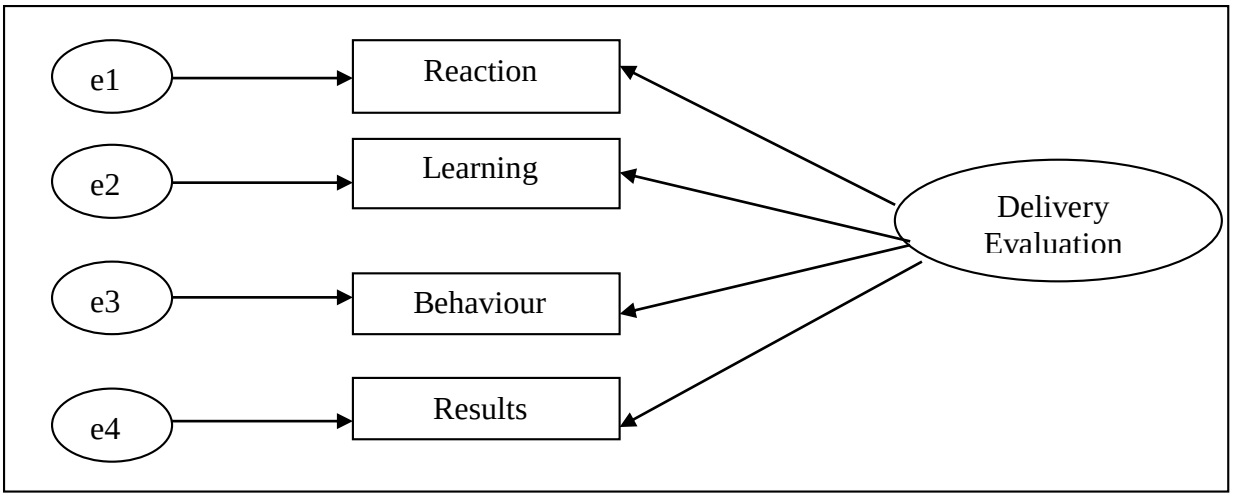


Figure 3.4 Indicator Structure for Delivery Evaluation

3.8.2.2 Perceived Competency of Hospitality Management students

Perceived competency of hospitality management was proposed as the second endogenous latent variable for the study. It was anchored on Silva's Competency Model. The indicator structure featured four observed variables namely: values, knowledge and expertise; leadership, innovation, achievement, and results (figure 3.5).

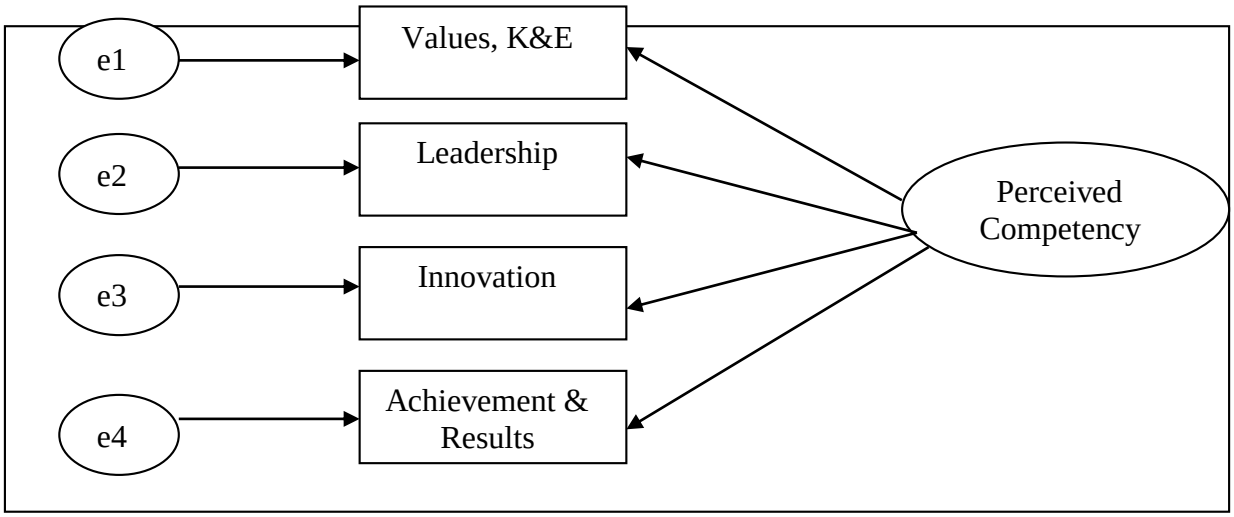


Figure 3.5 Indicator Structure for Perceived Competency

Table 3.3 gives a summary of the measurement of variables showing latent and observed variables, together with the relevant models on which they were premised.

Table 3.4: Measurement of variables

Variable	Unobserved variables	Observed variables	Adopted from and Modified
Endogenous	Perceived competency	Values, K & E Leadership Innovation Achievement & Results	Silva's Competency Model, *(Silva et al., 2014).*
Exogenous 1 (Latent)	School-based Learning	Lab work Group work Research and project Field trips	Kolb's Theory of Learning, *Ernstzen et al., (2009),*
Exogenous 2 (Latent)	Industry-based Learning	Internship Practicum Apprenticeship Volunteering	Kolb's Theory of Learning, *Austin & Rust, (2015);*
Exogenous 3 (Latent)	Model-based Learning	Symbolic modeling Peer modeling Visual modeling Mentor modeling	Kolb's Theory of Learning Social learning theory, *Salisu & Ransom, (2014);*
Endogenous and Exogenous variable	Delivery Evaluation	Reaction Learning Behaviour Results	Kirkpatrick's Model, *Kirkpatrick and Kirkpatrick (2016),*

3.9 Validity and Reliability of Research Instruments

Analysis of moment structures (AMOS) version 21 was used to examine moment structures in the latent variables (Liuzhan, 2014). The validity of the measurement model requires acceptable levels of goodness of fit, and finding specific evidence of construct validity (Mohajan, 2017). To satisfy the validity requirements, the following validity and reliability checks were performed; convergent validity, discriminant validity; and composite reliability.

3.9.1. Convergent Validity

Carlson and Herdman (2012) posit that convergent validity is a validation check, which gives the extent to which any two measures capture a common variable. In other words, indicators of a given construct converge or share a high proportion of variance. The t-statistic for each factor loading was used to verify convergent validity. Consequently, t-values of 0.70 and above were considered ideal, although Barclay et al. also deemed values of 0.60 acceptable based on recommendations (as cited in Carlson & Herdman, 2012). Convergent validity was evaluated for the five constructs by ensuring that factor loadings were significant at the 5 percent level, and exceeded the 0.70 limit; that construct reliabilities exceeded 0.80 and Average Variance Extracted (AVE) exceeded 0.50 as recommended by Fornell and Larcker (cited in Hair, Anderson, Tathman and Black, 2007)

3.9.2 Discriminant Validity

Discriminant validity refers to the extent to which a construct is truly different from other constructs. It means that a latent variable should explain better the variance of its own indicators than the variance of indicators of other latent variables. In other words, the loading of an indicator on its assigned latent variable should be higher than its loadings on all other latent variables (Hair *et al.,* 2007). Hair *et al.* (2007) observe that discriminant validity check should be done by comparing the Average Variance Extracted (AVE) with the squared correlation for each of the constructs. In this case, it is expected that the AVE of a latent variable should be higher than the squared correlations between the latent variable and all other latent variables. The rule of thumb for assessing discriminant validity in essence requires that the square root of AVE be larger than the squared correlations between constructs (Hair *et al.,* 2007).

In the current study, discriminant validity was therefore examined using the following criteria, which were suggested by Chin (as cited in Ahmed et al., 2016). Correlations of item measurements with latent variable score were examined for appropriate pattern of loading; the square root of every AVE for each construct was examined to see if it was much larger than any correlation among any pair of latent construct. As a rule of thumb, the square root of each construct was expected to be much larger than the correlation of the specific construct with any of the other constructs in the model and be at least 0.50. Consequently, discriminant validity in the study was assessed by comparing the shared variances between factors with the Average Variance Extracted (AVE) of the individual factors in line with recommendations by Fornell and Larcker (cited in Hair *et al.*, 2007).

3.9.3 Composite Reliability

Construct validity has been noted to require acceptable levels of score reliability. Reliability is often defined as the degree to which measurements are free from error and, therefore yield consistent results (Carlson & Herdman, 2012). Hair, *et al.* (2007) defines reliability as the extent to which a measure, procedure, or instrument yields the same result on repeated trials. Consequently, reliability can be used to assess the degree of consistency among multiple measurements of variables such as those proposed in the current study.

From an operational point of view, reliability is viewed as the internal consistency of a scale, which assesses the degree to which the indicator items are homogeneous in measuring the particular construct. It is argued that for reflective measures, all items are viewed as parallel measures capturing the same construct of interest (Hair *et al.*, 2007). Composite reliability therefore provides a standard approach for evaluation,

where all path loadings from construct to measures are expected to be strong (i.e. ≥ 0.70). According to Hair *et al.* (2007), values of composite reliability range between zero and one, with values greater than 0.70 reflecting good reliability and those between 0.60–0.70 being also acceptable. This criterion was therefore applied to establish composite reliability in the study.

3.10 Data Analysis and Presentation

Due procedures for data analysis were strictly followed. Consequently, collected data was first screened and cleaned for errors, missing values and outliers. Exploratory and confirmatory factor analysis were subsequently run on each variable to confirm the factor structure of the respective variables. This was followed by descriptive exploration of study variables to see how they were manifested in the study context. The third aspect was data analysis using Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) to examine the postulated relationships.

Qualitative data was collected using focus group discussions, interview and observation schedules and analyzed using content analysis. In the case of focus group discussion (FGD) one group each consisting of 6 students was constituted from each university to be referenced as the focused group. The researcher moderated the discussions. Data collected were analyzed for recurrent themes. In the case of interviews, the researcher conducted ten face to face interviews consistent with the ten universities under study. The interview sessions involved the researcher, head of department and hospitality lecturers handling practical sessions.

3.10.1 Data Screening and Cleaning

Data was screened and cleaned for missing values and outliers which according to Baraldi and Enders (2010), missing data occur because of several factors including omission in answering some questions hence data was analyzed for missing data patterns (Baraldi & Enders, 2010). The researcher assumed that the missing data in cases with fewer than 5 percent of data missing, were missing at random (MAR) in which case, missing data was ignored and replaced by series means, except in the cases where missing data exceeded 5% (Alison, as cited in Hair *et al,* 2010). List wise deletion was used to delete from further statistical analysis, all cases having missing values above 5%. Meyers (2005), avers that list wise deletion can be used in a variety of multivariate techniques such as multiple regression without requiring additional commands or computation. SEM being a regression analysis approach, supported list wise deletion.

Masconi *et al.* (2015), defines outliers as scores that markedly differ from others, and identifies outliers as either univariate in nature, for which case extreme scores are found on single variables, or multivariate in nature, in which case scores deviate from the centroid of all cases involving predictor variables. Univariate outliers were examined using standardized scores. In this approach, all the data was standardized using SPSS, and the scores which were found to be outside the interval [-3.0, 3.0] were deemed as univariate outliers (Liuzhan, 2014). Cases with scores outside the stated interval were subsequently deleted from further analysis.3

Mahalanobis distance (D^2) which indicates the distance a particular case deviates from the centroid of all cases for the predictor variables (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013) assessed the existence of multivariate outliers. First mahalanobis values were

computed, the probabilities associated with the computed mahalanobis values calculated and arranged in ascending order. All values with probabilities below 0.001 were considered multivariate outliers and cases with mahalanobis D^2 values were deleted from further analysis.

The principal component analysis (PCA) technique was used to derive a small number of independent linear combinations (principal components) from the larger set of sub-variables while retaining as much of the information in the original variable as possible. The PCA technique was used to establish the factor structure of SBL, IBL, MBL, delivery evaluation, and perceived competency in hospitality management students. with a view to reducing the large number of items, and identify strong patterns within the dataset (Hair *et al.,* 2010). The Kaiser-Mayer-Olkin (KMO) criterion was used to set apart and retain factors whose Eigenvalues were greater than 1.

3.10.2 Descriptive Analysis

Descriptive analysis focused on exploring how the latent variables through their indicators are manifested in the respective universities under study. In particular, means were computed and used to capture typical response scores among students. Standard deviations on the contrary, were used to indicate the variability among student responses and therefore acted as measures of consistency. Response scores on the questionnaire items were elicited on a 5-point likert scale having the following options: 1-strongly disagree; 2-disagree; 3-moderately agree; 4-agree; and 5-strongly agree. Analysis of the mean response scores was conducted on a continuous scale with the following threshold: $M<1.5$–strongly disagree; $1.5\leq M<2.5$–disagree; $2.5\leq M<3.5$-moderately agree; $3.5\leq M<4.5$–agree; $M\geq 4.5$-strongly agree. This was

necessary since the questionnaire was ordinal in nature yet, means and standard deviation are best measured using a ratio scale.

3.10.3 Inferential Analysis

The main approach to inferential analysis was Structural Equation Modeling (SEM). The analysis focused on the direct effect of experiential learning on delivery evaluation and perceived competency of hospitality management students; and the direct effect of delivery evaluation on perceived competency. Prior to examining the direct effects, assumptions of SEM were examined.

3.10.3.1 Assumptions of SEM

Five assumptions of regression analysis were tested for SEM considering that SEM is a second-degree form of regression analysis. The assumptions included; assumptions of normality, linearity, homogeneity of variances, autocorrelation and multicollinearity in line with suggestions by Ernst and Albers (2017). The assumption of normality was examined using the probability (P-P) plots, which are reported to be more effective than statistical tests. According to Loy, Follen and Hofman (2014), although formal goodness of fit tests such as Shapiro–Wilk and Kolmogorov–Smirnoff are more powerful in testing normality, they are not able to point out features of distributions that are non-normal as would the P-P plots. P-P plots were therefore produced for each of the two endogenous variables. Data points close to the diagonal line either side signified non-violation of normality assumption (Tabachnick, & Fidell, 2013).

The assumption of linearity was tested using scatter plot of studentized residuals (SRE_1) against (unstandardized) predicted values (PRE_1). The resulting scatter plot was examined to see if residuals formed a horizontal band in which case

linearity would be implied (Hair *et al.,* 2014). Homoscedasticity, which is the assumption that the variance is equal for all values of the predicted dependent variable (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013), was examined by plotting the studentized residuals against the unstandardized predicted values. Under this approach, the spread of the residuals was examined to see if it increased or decreased across the predicted values. Failure to increase or decrease would then imply non-violation of homoscendasticity.

Multicollinearity is defined as correlations among predictor variables that have potential to affect regression estimates adversely (Field, 2009; Hair *et al,* 2014) and was tested using Variance Inflation Factors (VIF). Tabachnick & Fidell (2013) posit that VIFs assess the increase in the variance of estimated regression coefficients when there are correlations among predictors. The threshold for existence of multicollinearity was set at a minimum of '5' with VIF values beyond 5 signifying presence of multicollinearity (Ringle *et al.,* 2015).

Autocorrelation, which is a measure of independence of regression residuals, (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013), was tested using Durbin-Watson (DW) statistic regarded as the ideal measure of independence of errors. DW takes cognizance of the order in which cases are selected. Regression residuals were considered independent if the DW statistic was in the interval $1.5<d<2.5$.

3.10.3.2 The Measurement Model

The measurement model was developed as a precursor to the structural model. While the structural model gives the effects of exogenous variables on endogenous variables, the measurement model tests the suitability of the observed variables to measure the respective latent constructs (Stadler, Niepel & Greiff, 2019). Five (5)

latent variables were proposed in the measurement model (Fig 3.6); each variable was measured using four indicators whose reliability took note of existence of possible random errors resulting from variable measurement, and depicted by the associated error terms. Observed variables (indicators) were each regressed into their respective latent variable.

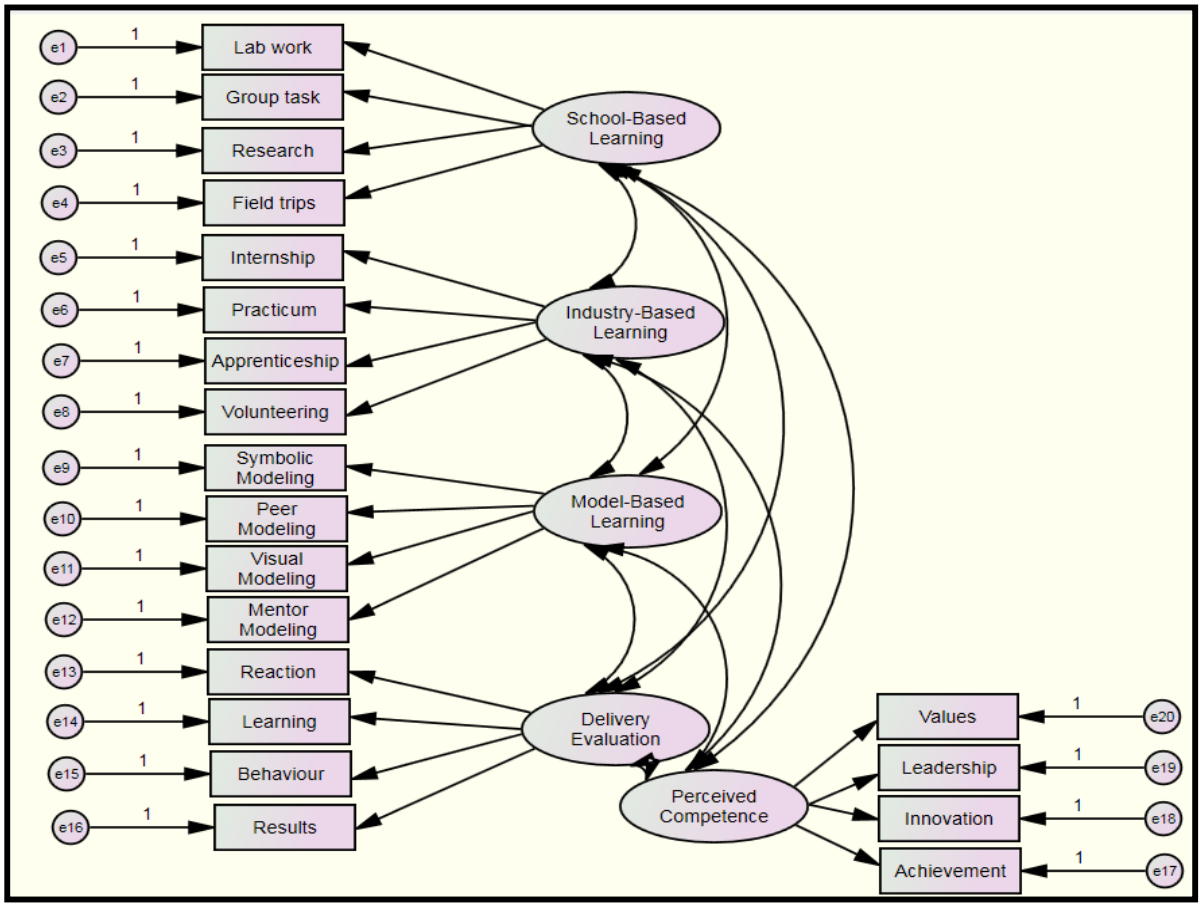


Figure 3.6 Measurement Model

The measurement model was validated using AMOS version 21, which was found suitable for covariance-based structural equation models (Hair *et al.*, 2017). The criterion for model evaluation was the 'goodness of fit'. The essence was to find out how the hypothesized measurement model fitted the sample data. Consequently, three categories of fit indexes namely; absolute, incremental, and parsimony tested

the model fit, which was achieved by comparing the default fit indices with recommended fit indices shown in Table 3.5 (Cheung & Rensvold, 2002).

Table 3.5: Recommended Goodness of fit Indices

$\chi^2 sig.$	$\frac{\chi^2}{df}$	*GFI*	*AGFI*	*NFI*	*RFI*	*CFI*	*RMSEA*
p≤ 0.05	< 5.0	≥0.90	≥0.90	≥0.90	≥0.90	> 0.90	< 0.05

3.10.3.3 The Hypothesized Structural Model

After validation of the measurement model, SEM was conducted on the structural model to test the SEM path model conceptualized to show the effect of experiential learning on delivery evaluation and perceived competency (Fig 3.7).

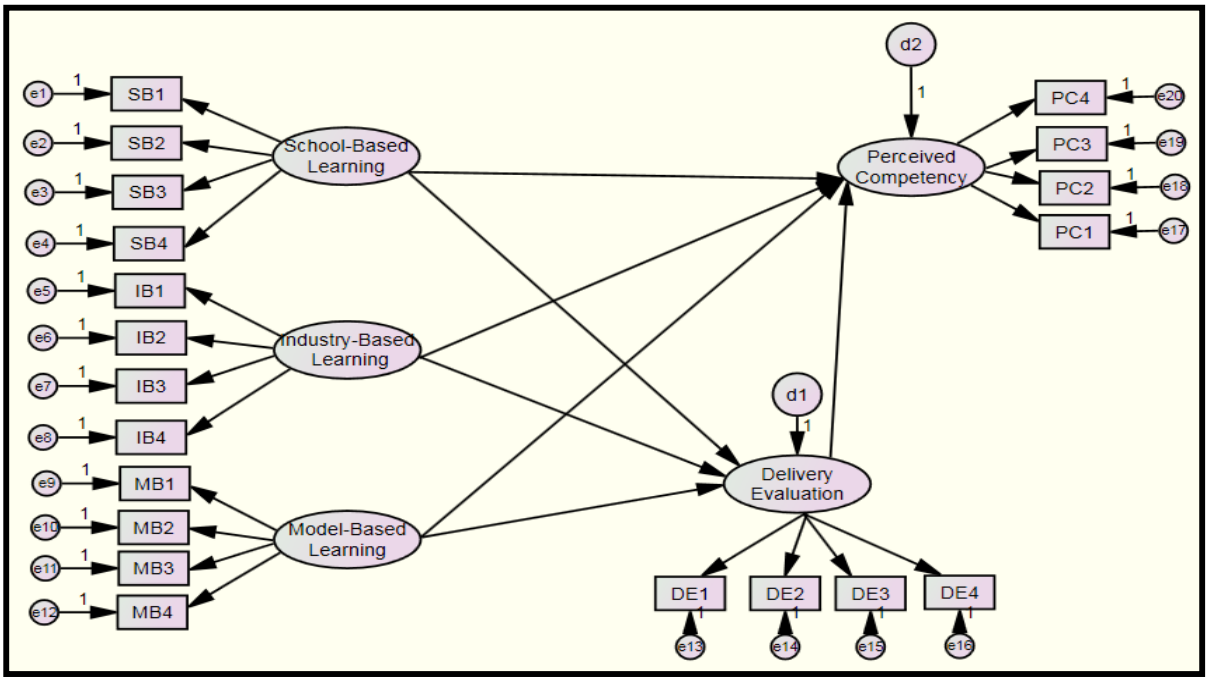


Figure 3.7 Structural Model

Validation of the structural model followed guidelines similar to the ones used to validate the measurement model. The model fit indices were obtained and compared with the recommended values. The model was then modified as suggested by the modification indices if needed. The path estimates (standardized regression weights)

in the structural model and variance explained (R^2 value) in the endogenous variable were examined for causation and power

3.11 Ethical Considerations

The study was undertaken in consideration of ethical issues that arise in social science inquiry. The process of collecting, analyzing, and interpreting data was done in a way that respects the rights of participants. Specifically, prior to data collection, permission to conduct research was first sought from the School of Tourism, Hospitality and Events Management, Moi University and National Commission for Science Technology and Innovation (NACOSTI) (see appendix). The permit (see appendix) was used to secure permission from the universities involved in the study. The researcher visited the selected universities beforehand in a reconnaissance study for familiarization and acquaintance with targeted respondents. During the visit, the researcher informed the targeted respondents about the purpose of the study and booked appointments for data collection. After familiarization, data was collected from the respondents using the instruments identified earlier.

The researcher prepared an introductory note for seeking informed consent from respondents to participate in the study. Details revealing the purpose of the study and guarantee of anonymity and confidentiality were included in the letter. All research assistants were required to show the letter to potential respondents when soliciting participation in the research. The right of anonymity and confidentiality was guaranteed. This included the assurance that the study was only for academic purposes and not for circulation to other parties. Anonymity was assured by concealing respondents' identities and also ensuring that the information collected was not linked to them. Consequently, the respondent's name was not mandatory.

The researcher taking responsibility to protect all data gathered within the scope of the study assured confidentiality.

Furthermore, the researcher ensured that the respondents' right to privacy was guaranteed. This is the freedom of an individual to determine the time, extent and circumstances under which the private information should be shared with or withheld from others. The respondents were interviewed at their own convenient time.

CHAPTER FOUR

DATA ANALYSIS, PRESENTATION AND INTERPRETATION

4.0 Overview

The study analyzed experiential learning and delivery evaluation as antecedents of perceived competency of hospitality management students from selected universities in Kenya. This chapter presents results of the analysis that includes preliminary results of data cleaning, results of the demographic characteristics of the respondents; a descriptive analysis of the endogenous and exogenous variables that incorporated results of the analysis of focus group discussions, and interview schedules. Results of the validation of the measurement and structural models are reported as well as results of hypotheses tests.

4.1 Data Screening and Cleaning

Data were first screened and cleaned for response rate, missing data, outliers and variable reduction.

4.1.1 Response Rate

A total of 241 questionnaires were prepared and distributed to the final year hospitality management students, consistent with the final sample size. Out of this number, 235 questionnaires were returned with the required fields properly and completely checked. The response rate among the students therefore stood at 97.5% and was suitable enough for the study according to previous recommendations (Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill, 2009). The researcher was able to reach and interview all the identified lecturers and heads of department in their respective universities.

4.1.2 Missing Data

Interest in assessing missing data in the current study was informed by previous findings, which, points at the pattern of missing values as being critical to data analysis (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). Three patterns in which data could be missing have been delineated and used in existing studies. Graham, Cumsille and Elek-Fisk (2003) for instance, posit that missing data may occur completely at random (MCAR), may be missing at random but ignorable (MAR), or missing at random but not ignorable (MNAR). Under the MCAR technique, which the current study pursued, missing values in the excess of 5% were seen to be serious and were therefore deleted (Baraldi & Enders, 2010).

The SPSS missing value analysis command was used to examine cases with missing values for each of the five constructs under investigation. Five cases (5,69,129,113 & 167) had missing values above 5% in the case of the school based learning construct; two cases (173 and 188) had missing values above 5% in the case of industry based learning construct; three cases (89,93 & 192) had missing values in the excess of 5% on the model based learning construct; Two cases (93 & 192) had missing values in the excess of 5% on the delivery evaluation construct; and six cases (18, 19, 49, 54, 83 & 192) had more than 5% of values missing on the perceived competency in hospitality practice construct. Table 4.1 provides a summary of cases with missing values in excess of 5%. These cases were subsequently deleted from further analysis. Missing values below 5% were replaced using mean substitution methodology advanced by (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). A total of 220 cases were retained for further analysis after cleaning data for missing values.

Table 4.1 Cases with Missing Values in Excess of 5%

Construct	Cases with missing values	Percentage of missing values
School based learning	5	6.1
	69	6.1
	113	8.2
	129	6.1
	167	30.6
Industry based learning	173	6.3
	188	6.3
Model based learning	89	100
	93	100
	192	100
Delivery evaluation	93	100
	192	100
Perceived competency of Hospitality Management students	18	7.0
	19	7.0
	49	20.9
	54	7.0
	83	7.0
	192	100

4.1.3 Univariate and Multivariate Outliers

Outliers have been identified as extreme values which arise during data collection, and whose influence to the findings may be negative (Aguinis, Gottfredson & Joo, 2013). Tabachnick and Fidell (2013) delineates two types of outliers namely: univariate outliers, which are cases with outlandish values on a single variable; and multivariate outliers which relate to cases with an unusual combination of scores on two or more variables. Box plots were employed in examining univariate outliers in each of the five latent variables under study. Box plots were preferred because they have been found useful in boxing observations that lie around the median while pushing outliers to extreme ends of the whiskers (Krzywinski & Altman, 2014).

4.1.3.1 Univariate Outliers

School based learning was conceptualized as the first exogenous latent variable with potential to have an impact on delivery evaluation and by consequence, perceived competency of hospitality management students. School based learning was therefore measured using four observed variables namely; lab work, group task, research & project and field trips. The box plot associated with school-based learning (Fig. 4.1) revealed that there was no evidence of univariate outliers in the data collected.

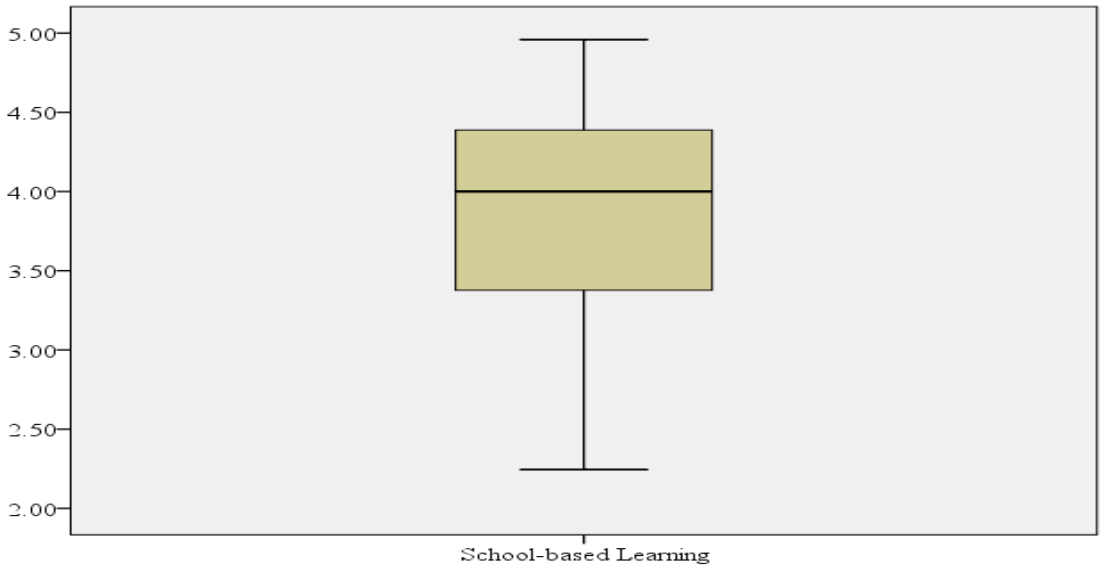


Figure 4.1: Outlier check for school- based learning

Second exogenous variable, industry based learning, measured in terms of internship, practicum, apprenticeship and volunteerism as its main indicators, was conceptualized in the current study as the second exogenous latent variable that could have a direct influence on both delivery evaluation, and perceived competency of hospitality management students. The associated box plot (Fig. 4.2) identified cases 176, 178 and 180 as univariate outliers. The three cases were subsequently deleted from further analysis.

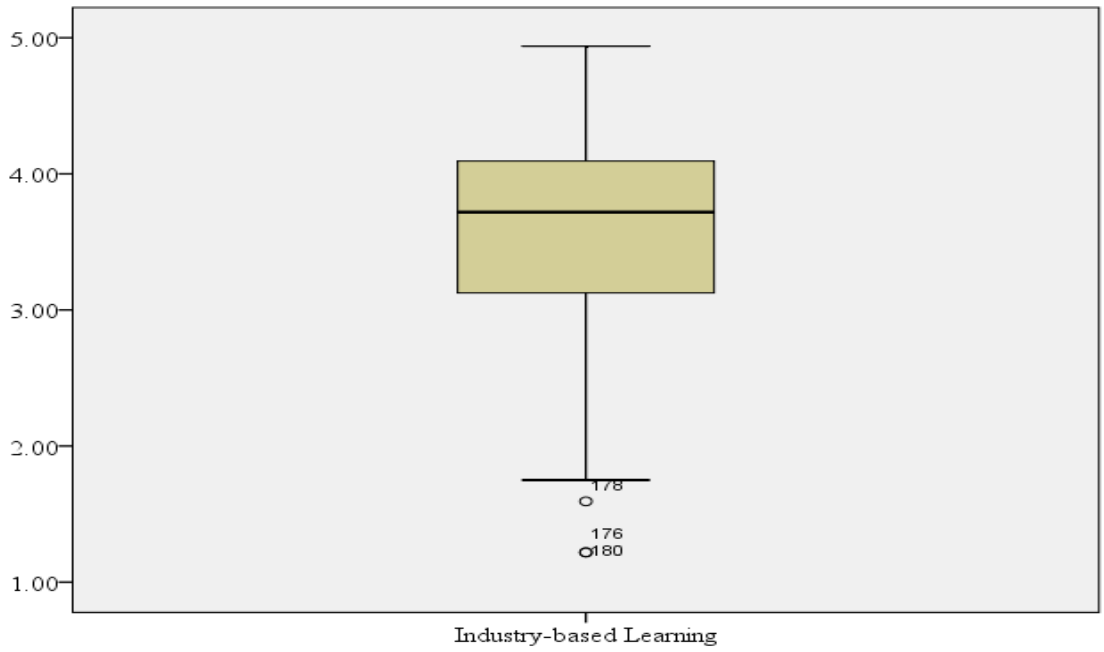


Figure 4.2: Outlier check for industry based learning

Third exogenous latent variable, model based learning was conceptualized with the capability of influencing delivery evaluation and perceived competency of hospitality management students directly. Four indicators namely; symbolic modeling, peer modeling, visual modeling and mentor modeling were delineated as measures of model based learning, and were subsequently employed in the measurement model depicting model based learning. Examination of presence of outliers in the collected data revealed that cases 48 and 112 were potential outliers in the case of the model based learning construct (Fig. 4.3). The two cases were therefore excluded from further analysis.

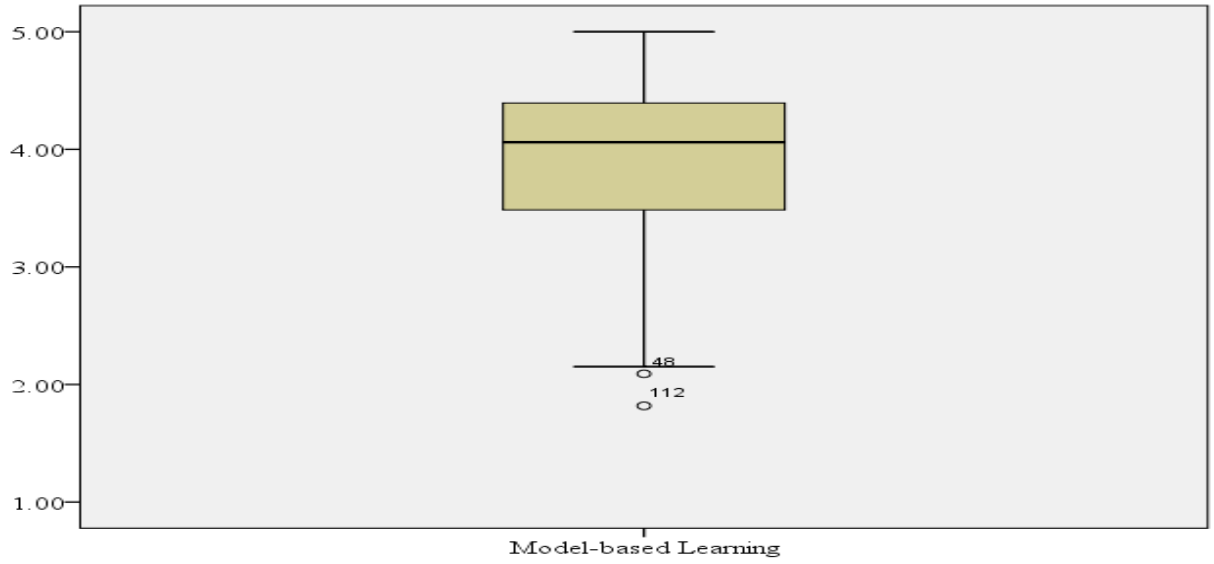
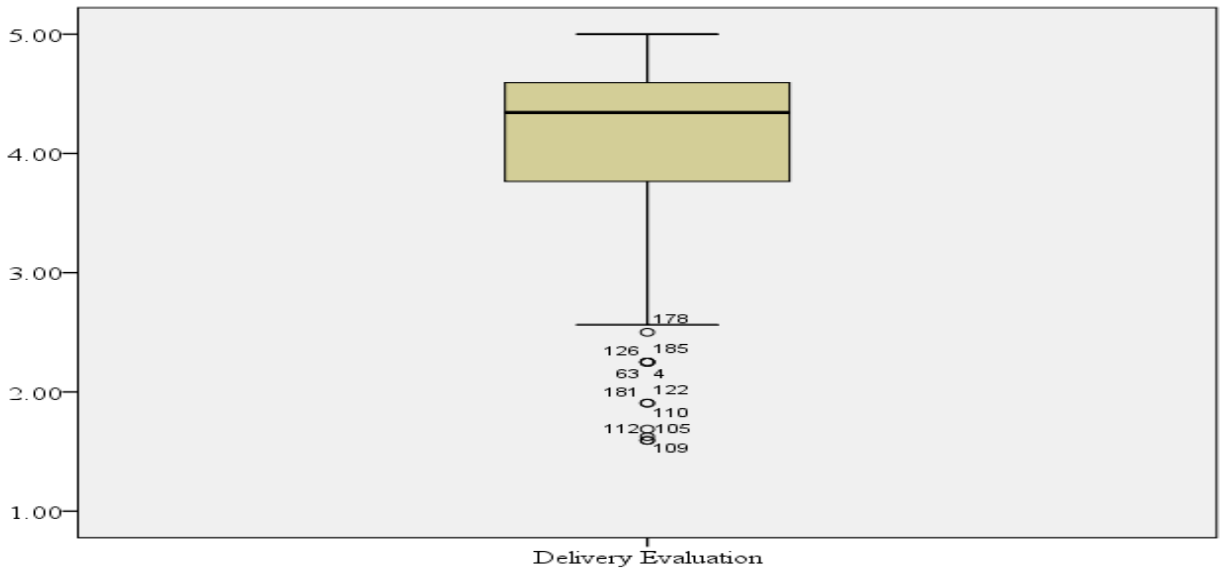


Figure 4.3: Outlier check for model based learning

Delivery evaluation was conceptualized as a function of experiential learning accorded through school, industry and by use of models. Consequently, delivery evaluation, which was measured through learners' reaction, learning, behaviour and results, was the first endogenous latent variable in the current study.



The associated box plot (Fig. 4.4) revealed that eleven cases (4, 63, 105, 109, 110, 112, 122, 126, 178, 181 & 185) were univariate outliers and were excluded from further analysis.

Endogenous variable, which was the dependent variable, perceived competency of hospitality management students, was conceptualized as capable of being impacted upon by the three exogenous variables as well as by delivery evaluation. Perceived competency was measured using four manifest variables namely: values, knowledge and expertise; leadership, innovation, and achievement and results. The box plot associated with this construct (Fig. 4.5) revealed that six cases identified as cases 30, 109, 110, 112, 114 and 181 were univariate outliers.

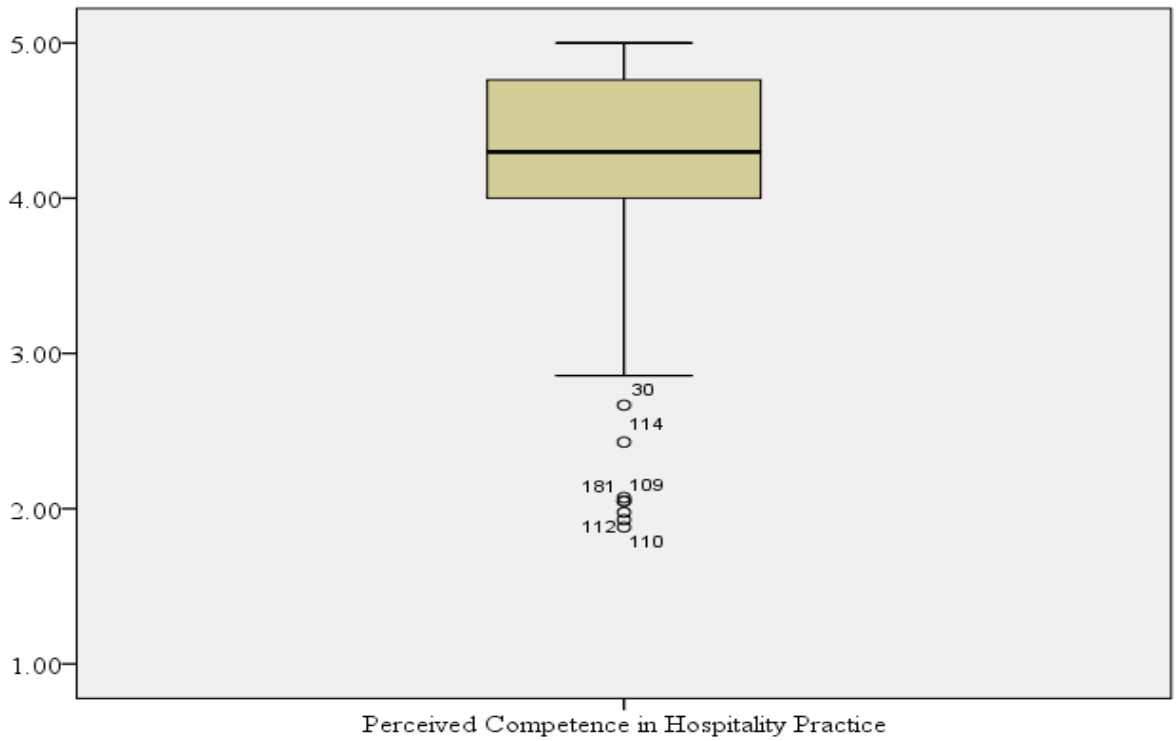


Figure 4.5: Outlier check for perceived competency in Hospitality practice

The univariate outlier analysis for all the five variables revealed sixteen distinct cases that had univariate outliers (i.e. cases 4, 30, 48, 63, 105, 109, 110, 112, 114, 122,

126, 176, 178, 180, 181 & 185). The sixteen cases were deleted leaving 204 cases that were used in subsequent analysis.

4.1.3.2 Multivariate Outliers

Multivariate outliers were examined using Mahalanobis (D^2) distance. This is the square distance of a case from the centroid of a data set (Garson, 2012). Garson points out that in the event that a case has a Mahalanobis distance whose probability falls below 0.001, then it is considered to be a multivariate outlier. Examination of the output involving the first ten cases sorted in ascending order (Table 4.2) revealed that none of the distances was below 0.001; and hence data were devoid of multivariate outliers.

Table 4.2: Multivariate outlier check

Case	Mah_1	p_Mah_1
1	.17465	.0036
2	.25800	.0076
3	.31240	.0110
4	.31240	.0110
5	.31240	.0110
6	.34586	.0133
7	.38036	.0159
8	.39484	.0171
9	.44169	.0211
10	.44169	.0211

4.2 Variable Reduction

The five latent variables under study were characterized with very large sets of data items. Principal Components Analysis (PCA) was therefore employed to reduce the items by eliminating those that were deemed redundant. It is noted that PCA has

similar characteristics with exploratory factor analysis and is used to reduce larger sets of variables (Laerd Statistics, 2015). Due to the inability of PCA to distinguish independent and dependent variables, all the latent variables were subjected to PCA.

4.2.1 Variable Reduction for the School-based Learning Construct

Four indicators namely; lab work, group work, research and project work, and field trips were used to measure school based learning. School based learning was therefore assessed for item redundancy, with factor loadings expected to be above 0.6 for strong item loadings (Truong & McColl, 2011). School based learning was initially measured using forty-nine items. Sampling adequacy and Bartlett's test of sphericity, the two assumptions needed for PCA (Laerd Statistics, 2015), were tested using the Kaiser–Meyer-Olkin (KMO) statistics. The KMO is a measure, which confirms that a linear relationship required to run PCA on data exists (Laerd Statistics, 2015). To interpret the KMO output, the Kaiser's 1974 classification shown was employed (Table 4.3).

Table 4.3: KMO Classification

KMO measure	Interpretation
KMO$\geq$ 0.9	Marvelous
0.8$\leq$ KMO<0.9	Meritorious
0.7$\leq$ KMO<0.8	Middling
0.6$\leq$ KMO<0.7	Mediocre
0.5$\leq$ KMO<0.6	Miserable
KMO<0.5	Unacceptable

Source: Kaiser (1974)

Data measuring school based learning achieved a KMO statistic score of 0.837, which, on the Kaiser scale was in the classification of meritorious, and indicated adequacy in sampling (Table 4.4). The Bartlett's test of sphericity was statistically

significant, χ^2 (990) = 7959.837, p<0.005. This shows that data collected to measure school based learning was factorizable.

Table 4.4: KMO and Bartlett's Test Results for the School Based Learning Construct

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.837
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	7959.837
	Df	990
	Sig.	.000

Factor extraction approach was next used to extract components, and the number of factors extracted were retained (Laerd Statistics, 2015). In this approach four components namely, group work, food and beverage learning, field trip and housekeeping learning were retained consistent with the four indicators of school–based learning. The components retained explained 54.6% of the total variance in school based learning (Table 4.5).

Table 4.5: Total Variance Explained in School Based Learning

	Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
Component	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1 Group work (GW)	16.004	35.564	35.564
2 F&B Learning (FB)	3.368	7.484	43.049
3 Field Trip (FT)	2.862	6.360	49.408
4 HK Learning (HK)	2.364	5.254	54.662

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

The Varimax orthogonal rotation revealed a simple structure in which each item had only one component loading on it, and each component loaded strongly on at least three items (Table 4.6). Only seventeen of the initial forty-nine items were subsequently extracted.

Table 4.6: Rotated Component Matrix[a] for the School Based Learning Construct

	Component			
	GW	FB	FT	HK
I can collaborate with classmates as a group	.823			
I am able to take instructions from my peers with no offence	.808			
I have undertaken and participated in group assignment	.798			
I have participated as a group leader and taken group responsibility	.765			
I have been a member and participated in group discussions	.699			
I am able to handle a tray professionally		.743		
I can undertake mise en place independently without supervision		.674		
I am able to make pastries and bake well		.671		
I learnt to conduct successful meetings in a professional manner		.633		
I can mix different cocktails and mock tails		.631		
Field trip activities support classroom lessons taught			.805	
My attitude towards courses was changed by field trips			.801	
I apply knowledge learned in field trips			.778	
I do not forget aspects learnt during field trips			.752	
I learnt how to make beds from the practical classes				.826
I practically learnt to clean guest toilets and bathrooms				.781
I know how to clean different types of floor				.666

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.
Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.
a. Rotation converged in 8 iterations.

4.2.2 Variable Reduction for Industry-based Learning Construct

Industry based learning was conceptualized as the second exogenous latent variable in this study. A Principal Component Analysis (PCA) with forced extraction approach was run on the thirty-two items initially proposed to measure industry–based learning. The KMO index of 0.817 was in the meritorious classification and Bartlett's test of sphericity was statistically significant, χ^2 (496) = 5070.764, $p<0.005$. Use of PCA was therefore suitable for the reduction of industry based learning items

Table 4.7: KMO and Bartlett's Test for Industry Based Learning

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.817
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	5070.764
	df	496
	Sig.	.000

Four components were retained in line with the four indicators of industry-based learning. The four components explained 57.9% of the variance in the industry based learning construct (Table 4.8).

Table 4.8: Total Variance Explained in the Industry Based Learning Construct

	Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
Component	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1 Industrial Attachment (IA)	10.677	33.366	33.366
2 Apprenticeship (AP)	3.652	11.414	44.780
3 Practicum (PR)	2.218	6.931	51.711
4 Volunteering (VL)	1.987	6.211	57.922

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

The Varimax orthogonal rotation yielded a simple structure (Table 4.9) with components being consistent with the four industry-based learning approaches namely: industrial attachment; apprenticeship, practicum, and volunteering. Twenty items were retained.

Table 4.9: Rotated Component Matrix[a] for the Industry Based Learning Construct

	Component			
	IA	AP	PR	VL
I engaged in marketing and sales activities	.822			
I participated in planning seminars & meetings while in attachment	.777			
I had an opportunity to work in management	.776			
I participated in meetings	.766			
I had experience in accounting functions during my attachment	.742			
I was exposed to all departments during attachment	.706			
I managed to act as a chef in the hot kitchen during attachment	.688			
I received, ordered and managed store operations	.665			
I experienced leadership responsibilities while in attachment	.661			
I experienced back of the house activities and services		.830		
I undertook work tasks assigned with good guidance		.759		
I was exposed to front of the house services		.750		
I was able to apply my education to work assignments during attachment		.694		
I got front office experience while in attachment		.634		
I received professional preparation coordinated by university			.807	
I gained experience in participating in student functions and activities			.791	
Trainees were approachable			.741	
I was able to connect what I learn in class to what I experienced			.665	
I have been working as a volunteer in hospitality establishments				.852
I offer myself to assist in university functions				.793

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.
Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.
a. Rotation converged in 6 iterations.

4.2.3 Variable Reduction for Model-based Learning

Model based learning was conceptualized as the third exogenous latent variable that had the potential to impact positively on perceived competency of hospitality students. Thirty-three items were initially proposed to measure model based learning. PCA was run on the thirty-three items. The overall KMO index value of 0.845 was within the meritorious classification and indicated suitability of PCA (Table 4.10). Bartlett's test of sphericity was statistically significant, χ^2 (528) = 5888.778, $p<0.005$. Data measuring model based learning was therefore factorizable.

Table 4.10 KMO and Bartlett's Test for Model Based Learning

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.845
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	5888.778
	df	528
	Sig.	.000

PCA extracted three components, which explained 56.2% of the variance in model based learning (Table 4.11).

Table 4.11: Total Variance Explained in the Model Based Learning construct

	Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
Component	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1 Visual Mentor (VM)	13.228	40.086	40.086
2 Role Model (RM)	3.500	10.606	50.692
3 External Mentor (EM)	1.830	5.547	56.238

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Varimax orthogonal rotation yielded a simple structure (Table 4.12) with components being consistent with the three model-based approaches namely; visual mentor, role model and External mentor. Out of the initial thirty-three items, only eighteen were retained for subsequent analysis involving model based learning.

Table 4.12: Rotated Component Matrix[a] for the Model Based Learning Approach

	Component		
	VM	RM	EM
I learn a lot by watching people	.833		
I have learnt new skills through observation	.805		
I learn from verbal instructional cues made	.803		
I have learnt through paying attention to demonstrations	.764		
I have developed routines using observation	.743		
I can verbally express most demonstrations made by instructions	.728		
I was able to follow detailed procedures and processes demonstrated	.724		
Videos played enhance learning and are easy to remember	.715		
I learn from non-verbal instructions	.703		
Pictures used and those I come across help me conceptualize	.652		
I learn better from good models		.718	
I practice what I observe around the University		.706	
Use of experts as models help learning		.690	
Observing skilled models lead to improved performance		.657	
I pay attention to actions and behavior of role models		.643	
I learnt from a guest lecture presented by a University visitor			.706
I have had an opportunity to shadow a manager which i learnt from			.696
I am motivated to reproduce behaviour taht I observe			.677

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.
Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.
a. Rotation converged in 9 iterations.

4.2.4 Variable Reduction for Delivery Evaluation

Delivery evaluation was conceptualized as an endogenous latent variable upon which university experiential learning could have an influence. Thirty-two items were initially proposed to measure delivery evaluation. Sampling was found to be adequate, KMO = 0.911, $\chi 2$ (496) = 7325.7, $p<0.005$). Out of the thirty-two items, twenty were extracted and loaded highly on three components that explained 68.6% of the total variance in delivery evaluation (Table 4.13).

Table 4.13: Total Variance Explained in the Delivery Evaluation Construct

	Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
Component	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1 Learning (LN)	16.824	52.575	52.575
2 Reaction (RT)	2.830	8.845	61.419
3 Behavior (BH)	2.297	7.179	68.598

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

The three-component solution had a simple structure as verified by Varimax Orthogonal rotation outcome (Table 4.14). The three components were consistent with the three delivery evaluation facets of learning, reaction and behavior.

Table 4.14: Rotated Component Matrix[a] for the Delivery Evaluation Construct

	Component		
	LN	RT	BH
Instructors were knowledgeable about the subject areas	.826		
Instructors demonstrated skills required	.823		
Lecturers showed genuine concern for the students	.810		
Instructors were enthusiastic and showed interest in practical	.796		
Instructors were organized and well prepared for the courses	.792		
Instructors encouraged discussion and input	.776		
The instructors were accessible outside the lab	.775		
Instructors demonstrated in-depth skills in the subject area	.763		
Instructors stimulated my interest in practical's	.753		
The instructors ensured that all students participated	.747		
Practical's were supported by adequate resources		.801	
Delivery of the practical elements was well done		.793	
The practical's were worthwhile		.792	
The place where practical's were held was good and conducive		.780	
Conducting of practical's was successful		.764	
The practical's were worth the time taken		.729	
I am able to teach others what I learnt			.780
The training changed my behavior			.730
I am able to produce more			.711
I am able to use what I learnt			.703

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.
Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.
a. Rotation converged in 7 iterations.

4.2.5 Perceived Competency of Hospitality Management Students

Perceived competency of hospitality management students was conceptualized as the second and main endogenous latent variable in the current study. A PCA was run on

the 42 items used to measure desired characteristics of competency of Hospitality management students. The overall KMO index of 0.879 was in the meritorious classification and indicated suitability of PCA. Bartlett's test of sphericity was statistically significant, χ^2 (903) = 5264.1, p<0.005. Data measuring perceived competency of hospitality management students was therefore factorizable. Four components were extracted and explained 71.2% of the total variance in perceived competency in hospitality practice (Table 4.15).

Table 4.15: Total Variance Explained in the Perceived Competency Construct

	Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
Component	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1Adaptability (AD)	25.636	59.618	59.618
2 Ability (AB)	2.132	4.959	64.576
3 Knowledge (KN)	1.630	3.790	68.366
4 Leadership (LE)	1.221	2.840	71.207

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

The four-component solution exhibited a simple structure as demonstrated by the Varimax Orthogonal rotation output (Table 4.16). The four components were consistent with the four indicators of perceived competency of hospitality management students namely; adaptability, ability, knowledge and leadership. Out of the forty-two items initially proposed, eighteen items were retained.

Table 4.16: Rotated Component Matrix[a] for the Perceived Competency Construct

	Component			
	AD	AB	KN	LE
I respect diversity	.809			
I am able to make decisions and take a stand on issues	.755			
I have a positive attitude towards change	.741			
I can manage resources effectively	.703			
I have the ability to take the perspective of others	.694			
I am flexible and adaptable	.642			
I can be able to demonstrate skills for the service department		.810		
I have skills that can be used in the kitchen		.799		
I can critically think about a situation and make suggestions		.677		
I am able to do whatever is required in the housekeeping department		.659		
I believe I can provide quality work		.653		
I am able to design and deliver processes			.744	
I am able to use internet - based services			.742	
I can use technology, tools, instruments, equipment and information			.639	
I can set goals and priorities			.606	
I am able to give direction, guidance and training				.657
I speak with clarity and confidence				.616
I understand and can use technology for the hospitality industry				.605

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.
Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.
a. Rotation converged in 14 iterations.

4.3 Demographic Profile of Respondents

Students' demographic information was examined in terms of age, gender, marital status, admission criteria and influence towards the selection of the hospitality management course. It has previously been shown that factors such as age (Malubay, Mercado & Macasaet, 2015), Gender (Malubay *et al.*, 2015; Tamtekin & Bayir, 2016); and parental income level (Tamketin & Bayir 2016) are critical to students performance and concentration levels which are crucial in acquisition of competencies. It was therefore necessary to understand the distribution of these factors among the students under study.

Results in Table 4.17 revealed that a majority of the students (86.8%) were aged between 21 and 25 years inclusive, and were mostly female (62.3%); marital wise, they were predominantly single (84.2%). Most of them (60.3%) were government sponsored and were self-driven (57.8%) in deciding to join the hospitality programme. Some of the students (12.3%) landed into the programme as a result of government placement.

Table 4.17: Students' Demographic Profile

		n	%
Age	18- 20yrs	5	2.5%
	21-25yrs	177	86.8%
	26-30yrs	17	8.3%
	Above 30yrs	5	2.5%
Your gender	Male	77	37.7%
	Female	127	62.3%
Marital status	Married	26	12.8%
	Single	171	84.2%
	Widowed	1	0.5%
	Divorced	2	1.0%
	Separated	3	1.5%
Which admission criteria are you?	Government sponsored	123	60.3%
	Parallel	47	23.0%
	Private	34	16.7%
Who influenced your decision to choose the program?	Self	118	57.8%
	Parents	22	10.8%
	Guardians	6	2.9%
	High school	11	5.4%
	Family	8	3.9%
	Grades scored	8	3.9%
	Friend	6	2.9%
	Government placement	25	12.3%

From the above distribution of students' demographic profile, it is apparent that students' demographics were important in understanding their background and composition. For instance, it appeared that most of the students enrolled in the hospitality management course were female, and were mostly government sponsored

and largely self-motivated. The study findings ought to take cognizance of these demographics, which could somehow influence competency.

4.4 Descriptive Analysis of Study Variables

Study variables were examined to establish how they were being put into practice in universities in Kenya. Descriptive statistics such as maximum, minimum, means, standard deviation and skewness were used to probe the level to which experiential learning and delivery evaluation are practiced, and to examine how students perceive their own competency in hospitality management. Maximum and minimum statistics were used to show the range of response across variables; the mean scores indicated typical responses among respondents, while standard deviations were used as an indicator of consistency among students response scores (Sekaran, 2010). Skewness were computed for purposes of ascertaining whether data collected for the respective constructs were normally distributed (Gravetter & Wallnau., 2014).

Moreover, content analysis was used to conduct a descriptive analysis of the qualitative data collected using focus group discussion with groups of students, and interviews with lecturers and heads of department regarding application of experiential learning and its impacts on competency among hospitality management students in universities in Kenya.

4.4.1 School-based Learning

University school based learning and the activities that are used was explored using first descriptive statistics (Min, Max, Mean, Standard deviation, and skewness) and second by carrying out content analysis (examining themes discerned) from focus group discussions and interviews. Descriptive statistics in Table 4.18 show that data measuring school based learning exhibited a normal distribution with mean 3.87 and

standard deviation 1.102 as determined by skewness values in the range [-3 to 3]. Response scores ranged between strong disagreements and strong agreements. The overall mean response score and associated standard deviation indicated consistent agreement among respondents on their ability to perform the various school based activities employed. Specifically, results showed that through school based learning, students had acquired skills in production, housekeeping, service and banqueting and group work.

Table 4.18: Descriptive Statistics for School-based Learning

	Min	Max	Mean	Std. Dev	Skewness
I have undertaken and participated in group assignment	1	5	4.47	.893	-2.007
I have been a member and participated in group discussions	1	5	4.38	.899	-1.519
I can collaborate with classmates as a group	1	5	4.25	1.052	-1.064
I am able to take instructions from my peers with no offence	2	5	4.22	.918	-1.070
I can undertake mise en place independently without supervision	1	5	4.11	1.003	-.938
Field trip activities support classroom lessons taught	1	5	4.09	1.106	-1.036
I do not forget aspects learnt during field trips	1	5	3.92	1.120	-.800
I learnt how to make beds from the practical classes	1	5	3.90	1.294	-.945
My attitude towards courses was changed by field trips	1	5	3.86	1.196	-.728
I apply knowledge learned in field trips	1	5	3.85	1.152	-.840
I practically learnt to clean guest toilets and bathrooms	1	5	3.82	1.207	-.828
I am able to handle a tray professionally	1	5	3.80	1.129	-.903
I learnt to conduct successful meetings in a professional manner	1	5	3.63	1.078	-.597
I know how to clean different types of floor	1	5	3.59	1.143	-.332
I am able to make pastries and bake well	1	5	3.50	1.160	-.335
I can clear and carry about eight plates at one go	1	5	3.29	1.212	-.280
I can mix different cocktails and mock tails	1	5	3.29	1.290	-.262
Overall Response Score	**1**	**5**	**3.87**	**1.102**	**-.738**

The implication of these results is that school based learning prepares students in various activities required in order to attain competency. Students are exposed to working in groups, which is critical for the hospitality industry. Moreover, students are given an orientation on key hospitality practices such as housekeeping, food and beverage production and marketing. These results corroborated with those that emerged from focus group discussions with groups of selected students. From the focus group conducted with groups of six final year students from each university, and moderated by the researcher, it became apparent that right from the first year through to the fourth and final year, students were exposed to activities which focus on housekeeping and food and beverage production, such as bed making, cleaning, food and beverage service, sauce production, baking, and culinary skills among others. Participants were however concerned with inadequate exposure to practical learning sessions in food and beverage production and service that require practical orientation.

Focus group discussions elicited responses with regard to skills and knowledge that students were exposed to while in school. From the responses, it was evident that some elements of practical were not covered, practical sessions were limited and there is need to prepare menu items thoroughly and expose students to more practical sessions. Below are extracts from some students:

> *'Throughout the course, we have covered many units in F&B and Housekeeping e.g. in year 1 we covered baking of pastry products for 2 weeks; F&B service which took 6 months; housekeeping skills in cleaning and bed spreading' (FG1-2)*

> *'We learned F&B production units such as making sauces which took 3 weeks; and pastry & bakery in the second semester. In second year we also*

covered mixology, baking skills, culinary skills, soups preparation all of which took 1 month' (FG10-4)

'*Year two was mainly on units in F&B service, food production and housekeeping such as: seasoning, marinade, garnishing, menus/recipes, bed making, hygiene while handling detergents, handling linen, cooking and production skills, and service' (FG3-1)*

'In year three and four training concentrated on F&B production and service, as well as housekeeping. We were exposed to skills in baking, proteins, hot and cold kitchens; guest relations, laundry, event planning & marketing, preparing food from diverse cultures, and different types of glasses and wines' (FG6-5)

The challenge of inadequate exposure of learners to practical orientation was also reflected in narratives from interviews with lecturers and heads of department from sampled universities. When asked about challenges faced in teaching practical courses, an interview participant indicated that;

...the main challenge faced is buying materials in large quantities. Some of which often requires Kshs. 300,000 to Kshs. 400,000. Moreover, time allocated for practical lessons is short. The advantage the department has is adequate equipment that caters for individual students (INTC-10)

That equipment is adequate in University 10 was corroborated by observation by the researcher. The lab is fully equipped with modern top of the range equipment. During practical sessions each student has a work station complete with a work top, a tray, a salamander, a deep fryer, a cooking range, an oven, a butchers block, a hot cupboard, storage and a sink.

Plate 4.1: Sample student workstation at University 10

Apart from the work station, there is a host of other shared equipment, including refrigerators, food mixers, blenders, meat slicers, food factory machines, juicers, coffee making machines, cooking ranges, ovens, dish washing machines, glass ware, assorted crockery and cutlery, baking tins, among others (plate 4.2). Students are therefore able to effectively carry out food and beverage practical sessions when ingredients are available.

Plate 4.2: Sample of assorted equipment in University 10)

On challenges faced in practical learning, a participant from University 5 remarked that:

> '*..lack of equipment, space and financing of the practical materials are the main challenges experienced' (INTL-5)*

Another participant from University 3 indicated that:-

> *...most students do not learn due to large numbers in classes, majority cannot have positions in the lab. Another challenge is that training materials are expensive and this limits what is bought. Moreover, even though they initially had adequate equipment, wear and tear of facilities is not commensurate with replacement (INTL-3)*

An observation of the lab in University 3 showed that indeed students were many in practical sessions and duties had to be shared among the many students. Most equipment was worn out and some needed replacement.

Plate 4.3: Sample lab and practical sessions at University 3

A participant from University 8 pointed out that:

> *'..the main challenge faced was that of large sizes of classes with limited equipment and staff' (INTL-8)*

Similar challenges were highlighted by a participant from University 6, who indicated that:

> *'..demonstration equipment, working surfaces and stations were not enough for students in practical sessions (INTL-6).* This is shown on plate 4.4

Plate 4.4: Sample practical session at University 6

Similarly, a participant from University 7 indicated that;

> *'untimely delivery of teaching materials was being experienced, and even when they are bought on time, sometimes they are not what was required, forcing lecturers to try and innovate the appropriate ones. Moreover, we lack enough modern teaching tools and equipment that a hospitality management practical session should have' (University 7– INTC-7)*

Concerning field trips, an interview participant from university 2 indicated that:

> *'...we send students on two field trips. The first in year one second semester and the second in year three first semester. They go to four and five star hotels including those in national reserves. They get a lot of exposure during such trips.' (INTL-2)*

Another participant from university 6, stated that:

> *'Students go for field trips three times, in year one, year two and year three. In year one, they are sent to Maasai Mara Game Reserve where they see hotels in that set up and go for game drives. In year two, they go to the Coastal region of Kenya where they see Beach Hotels, Marine Parks and Coastal Culture. In year three they go to Western and Central parts of the Country to see hotels and other diverse tourism attractions. The itinerary for*

the trips is prepared way in advance and the places to be visited booked in good time.' (INTL-6)

From the interviews, it was revealed that most of the universities organize their field trips in more or less the same manner.

Plate 4.5: Sample lab and practical sessions at University 2

It was apparent from the interview sessions as well as observations that despite university school based learning being critical in preparing hospitality management students to acquire required skills; most universities were ill equipped to handle the large numbers of students per class. The available resources were not adequate for the necessary practical exposure needed in hospitality industry. It is necessary that universities endeavor to provide enough practical training in hospitality management experiential learning if students have to acquire the required competencies. Previous studies have highlighted the importance of practical training in providing hands on skills required for the discipline (Erneszen *et al.* 2009; Moscardo & Norris, 2003).

Davies (2008), points out that laboratory workshop or studio work helps to develop motor skills required for a hands on experience in addition to exposing students to merits and demerits of experiments conducted in the lab. The need for practical orientation was also informed by its ability to foster group work through which students could acquire communication, critical thinking and decision-making skills, which are vital for the hospitality industry (Freeman *et al.,* 2014). Moreover, practical experience such as gained through projects encourages hands on learning, collaboration and problem solving which are critical facets of the hospitality industry (Behizadeh, 2014).

4.4.2 Industry-based Learning

Industry based learning as an experiential learning approach was also explored from three perspectives. First, descriptive statistics were used to examine students' perception on exposure to industrial attachment, practicum, apprenticeship and voluntary work. Secondly, groups of students were taken through focus group discussions moderated by the researcher to give incisive views on industry based learning mechanisms available in respective universities, and geared towards honing up skills for hospitality industry. Finally, the researcher interviewed lecturers and heads of department on organization and effectiveness of industrial attachment.

Descriptive statistics (Table 4.19) revealed that skewness statistics were within the interval [-3, 3], an indication that data was normally distributed. Overall, respondents elicited moderate agreement with activities employed during industrial attachment (M=3.60, SD=1.27). Specifically, respondents agreed that they had been exposed to the front of the house services (M=4.18, SD=1.11); had experienced back of the

house activities and services (M=4.04, SD=1.04); had gained experience in front office (M=4.00, SD=1.00); and that they received good guidance during industrial attachment (M=3.96, SD=1.07) among others.

Table 4.19: Descriptive Statistics for Industry-based Learning

	Min	Max	Mean	Std. Dev	Skewness
I was exposed to front of the house services	1	5	4.18	1.105	-1.441
I experienced back of the house activities and services	1	5	4.04	1.042	-1.222
I got front office experience while in attachment	1	5	4.00	1.002	-1.007
I undertook work tasks assigned with good guidance	1	5	3.96	1.073	-1.033
I was able to apply my education to work assignments during attachment	1	5	3.91	1.152	-1.145
I was able to connect what I learn in class to what I experienced	1	5	3.78	1.269	-.891
I gained experience in participating in student functions and activities	1	5	3.74	1.437	-.812
I received professional preparation coordinated by university	1	5	3.73	1.329	-.908
I offer myself to assist in university functions	1	5	3.71	1.224	-.783
I experienced leadership responsibilities while in attachment	1	5	3.61	1.303	-.655
I was exposed to all departments during attachment	1	5	3.52	1.257	-.544
Trainees were approachable	1	5	3.51	1.450	-.578
I had an opportunity to work in management	1	5	3.51	1.326	-.821
I had experience in accounting functions during my attachment	1	5	3.49	1.409	-.589
I participated in meetings	1	5	3.41	1.173	-.590
I participated in planning seminars & meetings while in attachment	1	5	3.31	1.294	-.395
I managed to act as a chef in the hot kitchen during attachment	1	5	3.28	1.464	-.333
I engaged in marketing and sales activities	1	5	3.27	1.351	-.414
I have been working as a volunteer in hospitality establishments	1	5	3.25	1.429	-.345
I received, ordered and managed store operations	1	5	3.07	1.400	-.186
Overall Response Score	**1**	**5**	**3.60**	**1.266**	**-.657**

These results imply that during industrial attachment, students are exposed to several experiences that provide the required experiential learning. They are able to apply

theory to practice, and are introduced to several activities undertaken in the real life situation. Moreover, students are given an orientation to the diverse functions undertaken in the industry. This is consistent with previous studies, which have shown that industry based training in the form of internship; practicum and apprenticeship provide the opportunities that students require to apply acquired knowledge in real life situations (Austin & Rust, 2015; Chang & Chu, 2009; Jones, 2016).

Through focus group discussions regarding other experiences gained during industrial attachment and challenges faced, it became apparent that students had gained among other skills; the capability to interact with people from diverse communities; ability to handle clients' diverse needs; teamwork; and skills in interpersonal relationships. Generally, the FGDs on industrial attachment revealed that it was a good and informing experience, though quite challenging from the responses. It was good and eventful, full of fun and rich experiences. Responses elicited from the FGD indicated that:

> *'...through industrial attachment, I gained skills in collaboration and networking, as well as communicating with guests and sharing their experiences' (FG1-1)*

> *'...I have gained experience in active participation in preparation of breakfast and lunch. Besides, I supervised a buffet and enjoyed the experience. Moreover, I gained some experience in ordering and accounting for anything used in the hotel right from food to drinks consumed by guests or staff members' (FG2-3)*

> *"The industrial attachment experience developed my interpersonal relations among workmates and the need to work as a team. I also learnt to adapt to the work environment and to embrace the work culture' (FG3-3)*

Several challenges were also captured from students with respect to industrial attachment. One student indicated that:-

> *'...I was not prepared well for industrial attachment since what we did in school practical sessions at the university were absolutely opposite of what I found during industrial attachment. The executive chef even remarked that I was very green in the required skills (FG4-5)*

Another student pointed out that:-

> *'...I experienced discrimination from other students on the basis of institution of learning one came from whereby students from Utalii College viewed themselves as more superior' (FG5-1)*

Language barrier was also identified as a critical challenge to students out on industrial attachment. One student observed that;

> *'...language barrier was a key challenge in that most customers were Italians and I could not communicate in the language' (FG6-1)*

Through further focus group discussions with groups of students, it emerged that most students undertake their industry based learning in star rated hotels and clubs where they are exposed to real life experiences in food and beverage production and service, as well as in housekeeping. The discussions clearly indicated that industry based learning acts as an eye opener on the realities of the hospitality industry, and provides good experience. However, some students indicated that they received a cold reception from employees who felt threatened by their participation.

> *'I was attached in a 3-star resort in the food and beverage department for one month where I gained experience on how to serve various foods & drinks*

and acquired skills on how to handle guest during meal sessions. Some employees, however, felt threatened by our presence and were cold towards us. ' (FG7-1)

Another student mentioned that*:*

'I was attached to a 3-star hotel in 3rd year in the F&B department for two months. During that time, I learnt how to approach guests, serve guests, set and clear tables. In 4th year, most students were attached in 4 and 5 star hotels either in the Front office or housekeeping departments for 3 months. We learnt how to receive guests, handle bookings and reservations and make beds' (FG8-6)

I was attached to a 3-star hotel in the production department for 1month where I gained experience on food preparation and preservation skills. Other students went to 4& 5 star hotels for 3months and learnt how to welcome guests and prepare mayonnaise sauce' (FG9-6)

In reference to members of their class, two students in the FGD indicated that:

'We were attached to 4 & 5 star hotels at 3rd year and went through F&B production and service, housekeeping for 2 weeks in each section. We participated mainly in preparation of beverages, garnishing, presentation of food and setting of tables for various meals '(FG10-6)

'Some of us were attached to Prideinn paradise resort and exposed to management of F&B, Housekeeping, accounts controls, stores, food production, service and banqueting for three months hence acquired management skills' (FG10-5)

Interviews with lecturers and heads of department from the selected universities corroborated the focus group discussion results, which highlighted the utility of industry-based learning in the development of industry specific skills. A participant from University 5 indicated that;

> *'...we normally liaise with hotels and other establishment to allow us to attach our fourth year students with them for a period of 3 months. This has proved beneficial to students despite a few cases of mistreatment by some employees.' (INTC-5)*

A participant from University 8 remarked that;

> *'...we offer our fourth year degree students a 3month long attachment. This industry-based training has proven useful in students' acquisition and honing up of skills. Concerns have been raised by a few students regarding the negative attitude some employees have shown to them', (INTL-8)*

From University 2, a similar narrative was repeated. A participant noted that:

> *'...students go for industrial attachment twice, during their second and third years of training. During attachment, they are expected to learn from all major departments of a hotel for a period of three months. Experience has shown that this type of training enhances skills acquisition by moving from theory to practice. The industry has been positive and sometimes absorbs some of the students' (INTL-2)*

Interview response from University 6 mirrored sentiments shared by other participants. The interviewee indicated that:

> *'...students proceed for attachment twice, in second year and third year, for a period of three months each in which they are rotated through the hotels departments. Students are exposed to real life application of skills in food and beverage (both service and production) and in housekeeping' (INTL-6)*

Collated results from students' questionnaire responses, focus group discussions and interview with lecturers and heads of department showing that industry – based learning was exposing hospitality students to discipline specific skills resonates with several previous findings (Austin & Rust, 2015; Chang & Chu, 2009; Jones, 2016). According to Austin and Rust (2015), industry based experiential learning such as

internship empowers students to connect theory with practice. Chang and Chu (2009) argue that industry based learning is a form of practical pedagogy that encourages individual students to sharpen their skills.

Zopiatis and Theocharous (2013) point out that industry based learning exposes trainees to industry specific job experiences. According to Jones (2016), industry based learning such as practicum provides students with opportunities to put to practice their acquired knowledge in real life scenarios. In essence, therefore, results showing that universities send hospitality students out for industrial based learning in star rated hotels and clubs is testimony that the institutions are keen to hone the students skills both theoretically and practically.

4.4.3 Model-based Learning

Descriptive exploration of model based learning as practiced in hospitality management in universities in Kenya (Table 4.20) depicted a normally distributed data suitable for linear models as determined by skewness statistics in the interval [-3,3]. The overall mean response score of 3.99 with associated standard deviation of 1.03 indicated consistent agreement among respondents on acquisition of various skills through model based learning. Specific results showed that respondents were in agreement with the fact that; they pay attention to actions and behaviours of role models (M=4.28, SD=0.94); they learn through paying attention to demonstrations (M=4.15; SD=1.00); that videos enhance learning (M=4.13, SD=1.06); that they are able to verbalize demonstrations made by instructors (M=4.10, SD=0.93); and that observing skilled models leads to improved performance (M=4.09, SD=0.96) among many others.

Table 4.20: Descriptive Statistics for Model-based Learning

	Min	Max	Mean	Std. Dev	Skewness
I pay attention to actions and behavior of role models	1	5	4.28	.935	-1.254
I have learnt through paying attention to demonstrations	1	5	4.15	.998	-1.030
Videos played enhance learning and are easy to remember	1	5	4.13	1.063	-1.211
I can verbally express most demonstrations made by instructors	1	5	4.10	.933	-.868
Observing skilled models lead to improved performance	1	5	4.09	.958	-.958
Pictures used and those I come across help me conceptualize	1	5	4.09	1.115	-1.144
I learn a lot by watching people	1	5	4.08	.992	-1.026
I have learnt new skills through observation	1	5	4.08	.979	-1.080
I am motivated to reproduce behavior that I observe	1	5	4.06	1.053	-.910
I learn from verbal instructional cues made	1	5	4.04	.936	-.807
I learn from non-verbal instructions	1	5	3.97	.954	-.825
I learn better from good models	1	5	3.96	1.137	-1.110
I was able to follow detailed procedures and processes demonstrated	1	5	3.95	.994	-.987
Use of experts as models help learning	1	5	3.94	.971	-.665
I have developed routines using observation	2	5	3.92	1.021	-.561
I practice what I observe around the University	1	5	3.88	1.222	-.967
I learnt from a guest lecture presented by a University visitor	1	5	3.71	1.200	-.624
I have had an opportunity to shadow a manager which I learnt from	1	5	3.52	1.230	-.459
Overall Response Score	**1**	**5**	**3.99**	**1.034**	**-.886**

The significance of these results is that use of model-based learning in university instruction has a positive impact on student's competence in hospitality management. Students are particularly able to nurture skills through observation of demonstrations and behaviour and actions of role models. They are able to conceptualize and

verbalize abstract concepts by observing instructional cues. These results portends well for universities in Kenya in their desire for competency in hospitality industry since model based learning has previously been associated with learner involvement and stimulation (Austin & Rust, 2015; Haston, 2007; Humphrey, 2009; Kolb, 2014).

The findings from students' questionnaire responses were supported by focus group discussions with groups of students. Prodded to state benefits derived from model-based learning, students clearly highlighted ability to complement explicit knowledge gained in theory sessions with tacit knowledge gained through observation of experts. Moreover, students noted that they were able to hone up their soft skills required for hospitality industry and to embrace cultural diversity.

FGDs showed that people exhibits diverse and informative behavior and that some skills can only be learned by observing experts. From the discussions, students mentioned how they have benefited from MBL with the following statements:

> *'By observing how employees and other stakeholders in the hospitality industry perform their tasks, I have been able to complement knowledge acquired through theory with practical requirements on the ground' (FG1-5)*
>
> *'Through model based learning, I have acquired soft skills such as customer service, networking and communication which are tacit' (FG6-4)*
>
> *'I learnt how to be flexible and to multitask. I have also become more conscious of cultural diversity' (FG7-2)*

Results from interviews with lecturers and heads of departments confirmed that students are occasionally given opportunities to observe and participate in activities organized by hotels in the universities vicinity. For instance, when asked about activities which are used to engage students in hospitality industry, a participant from University 8, indicated that:

> *'...sometimes, they are invited by hotels to assist when these hotels have huge functions and also to participate in competitions organized by the hotels'* (INTC-8)

From University 2, an interview session with a participant revealed the following narrative

> *"Students participate in the university organized cultural week whereby they come up with Menus, and prepare dishes of diverse cultures as a way of modeling what they have learnt" (INTC-2)*

In University 1, the interview results indicated that students are given the experience of model based learning through practical lessons conducted in real establishments. Similar sentiments were shared from University 6, where a participant stated that:

> *'we allow them to plan menus of each type of food or drink for each day during practical, prepare the food and sell/market the food and drink items which is listed on the menu'. (INTL-6)*

The descriptive findings from students, lecturers and heads of departments in respect to model based learning confirmed that universities are giving model based learning due consideration as an experiential learning approach capable of developing students' competencies in hospitality industry. This is a positive move, which resonates well with existing findings pertaining to model based learning.

4.4.4 Delivery Evaluation

Delivery evaluation of practical learning in hospitality management in universities in Kenya was explored using twenty items extracted through PCA. The skewness statistics confirmed that data collected to measure the scale was normally distributed (Table 4.21). The overall mean response score of (M=4.11) and associated standard deviation of (SD=1.08) showed that respondents consistently agreed with the manner in which practical was delivered. In particular, results showed that delivery of

practical sessions enables students to put to practice what they learn (M=4.39, SD=0.81); instructors demonstrate required skills (M=4.32, SD=1.04); the delivery is such that all students are involved (M=4.25, SD=1.08); instructors are organized and prepare well for sessions (M=4.21, SD= 1.03); and instructors avail themselves at all times (M=4.16, SD=1.09) among others.

The message portrayed by these results is that practical learning in hospitality management within universities is delivered well, and elicits desired reaction among students who go on to acquire and apply required skills and behavior. Instructors do what is expected of them, and have the acumen to deliver practical sessions as expected. Students are empowered to apply whatever they learn, are able to share skills, be more productive, and often find practical sessions more relevant to their training needs.

Table 4.21: Descriptive Statistics for Delivery Evaluation

	Min	Max	Mean	Std. Dev	Skewness
I am able to use what I learnt	1	5	4.39	.808	-1.329
Instructors demonstrated skills required	1	5	4.32	1.038	-1.616
I am able to teach others what I learnt	1	5	4.32	.937	-1.439
The instructors ensured that all students participated	1	5	4.25	1.078	-1.456
Instructors were organized and well prepared for courses	1	5	4.21	1.025	-1.226
I am able to produce more	1	5	4.18	1.016	-1.299
Instructors demonstrated in-depth skills in subject areas	1	5	4.17	1.071	-1.173
The instructors were accessible outside the lab	1	5	4.16	1.094	-1.433
Instructors were knowledgeable about the subject areas	1	5	4.15	1.148	-1.297
Instructors encouraged discussion and input	1	5	4.13	1.167	-1.358
Instructors stimulated my interest in practical's	1	5	4.12	1.195	-1.271
The training changed my behavior	1	5	4.06	1.037	-.825
The practical's were worth the time taken	1	5	4.01	1.147	-1.078
Instructors are enthusiastic & showed interest in practical	1	5	4.01	1.248	-1.095
Conducting of practical's was successful	1	5	4.00	1.147	-1.019
Practical place was good and conducive	1	5	3.99	1.107	-.960
The practical's were worthwhile	1	5	3.98	1.089	-.898
Lecturers showed genuine concern for the students	1	5	3.96	1.176	-.906
Delivery of the practical elements was well done	1	5	3.95	1.111	-.895
Practical's were supported by adequate resources	1	5	3.82	1.027	-.648
Overall Response Score	**1**	**5**	**4.11**	**1.079**	**-1.133**

Delivery evaluation of practical learning was also examined through interviews conducted with discipline specific lecturers and heads of hospitality department across the sampled universities. Participants were asked how they ensure that students participate in practical, and how they evaluate and assess practical learning. Various narratives were given. A participant from University 5 stated that:

> *'…to ensure participation by all students, they are divided into groups of 10 where each individual student is assigned a specific task. Evaluation and assessment of the assigned tasks is based on students' capability to produce required outcomes which are graded' (INTL-5)*

A participant from University 6 indicated that:

> *"To ascertain participation by all, each student signs an attendance register. The Chef of the day drawn from amongst the students allocates duties to the others, and the lecturer supervises" (*INTL-*6)*

Evaluation and assessment of practical learning in University 3, appeared to be very thorough. The interviewee noted that:

> *'...students are given marks after each session and an average is computed. At the end of the semester, students have specific duties such as being made a Chef with other students below him. Duties and roles are rotational, students report at 7 am and leave at 3 pm. If a student misses 2 sessions, he/she is advised to call off the entire course. There is a form used to capture different skills and the marking scheme is very elaborate' (INTL-3)*

Delivery of practical learning in University 7 is equally treated with the seriousness it deserves. According to a participant from the university;

> *'...student participation in practical learning is assured through formation of groups that manage their assignments; ensuring that attendance is monitored through a class register and disqualifying students who fail to meet 75% of class attendance. Evaluation and assessment of practical learning is done through a guide on practical which students use to score and critique their products' (*INTL-7)

4.4.5 Perceived Competency of Hospitality Students

Perceived competency of hospitality management students was conceptualized as the main endogenous variable and was measured using eighteen items extracted through PCA. Data collected to measure perceived competency of hospitality management students had a normal distribution as determined by skewness statistics in the interval (-3,3). The overall mean response score of 4.22 and standard deviation of 0.974 was an indication that respondents consistently agreed that they perceived themselves as competent.

Among the practices they felt competent in included; use of requisite technology, tools, instruments, equipment and information (M=4.39, SD= 0.867); respect of diversity (M=4.35, SD=0.968); use of internet-based services (M=4.29, SD=0.871); positive attitude towards change (M=4.28, SD=1.02); clarity and confidence in speaking (M=4.28, SD=1.02); and setting goals and priorities among many more as depicted in Table 4.22.

Table 4.22: Descriptive Statistics for perceived competency of hospitality management students

	Min	Max	Mean	Std. Dev	Skewness
I can use technology, tools, instruments and equipment	2	5	4.39	.867	-1.357
I respect diversity	1	5	4.35	.968	-1.701
I am able to use internet - based services	2	5	4.29	.871	-1.051
I have a positive attitude towards change	1	5	4.28	1.021	-1.296
I speak with clarity and confidence	1	5	4.28	1.015	-1.498
I can set goals and priorities	1	5	4.27	.905	-1.084
I am flexible and adaptable	2	5	4.25	.979	-1.166
I have the ability to take the perspective of others	1	5	4.25	.967	-1.269
I can manage resources effectively	1	5	4.22	1.085	-1.173
I am able to make decisions and take a stand on issues	1	5	4.22	1.053	-1.373
I understand and use technology for the hospitality	1	5	4.19	.847	-.917
I believe I can provide quality work	2	5	4.19	.954	-.828
I am able to design and deliver processes	1	5	4.17	.934	-1.046
I am able to give direction, guidance and training	1	5	4.12	1.117	-1.178
I can do whatever is required in housekeeping department	1	5	4.11	.953	-.917
I critically think about a situation and make suggestions	1	5	4.11	1.065	-1.264
I can demonstrate skills for the service department	1	5	4.11	.987	-.871
I have skills that can be used in the kitchen	1	5	4.10	.990	-1.040
Overall Response Score	**1**	**5**	**4.22**	**.974**	**-1.148**

These descriptive results showing that respondents perceived themselves as competent were corroborated by FGD. The responses as indicated in the narratives below confirmed that the training had imparted the required skills and confidence among the students. One female student stated that:

> *'...am a hardworking and well-spoken lady. I feel ready because I have gained knowledge and experience for the industry which I have nurtured through class lectures and hands on attachment.' (FG1-1)*

Another student responded as follows:

> *'I am passionate and believe in the skills that I have acquired and I know that I am a fast learner so I will be able to easily adapt to the style of operation'.(FG2-1)*

Yet another student added that:

> *'...I am competent because I have been exposed to the theoretical aspect of the course in class and also had a practical experience through the industrial attachment'. (FG3-1)*

Similar sentiments were shared by a student who remarked that:

> *'...the training I have had has made me acquire knowledge both from theory class learning and practical orientation. Moreover, I am motivated to work diligently to contribute to sustainable tourism in Mombasa and Kenya at large' (FG8-1)*

Competency of hospitality management students was also explored through interviews with lecturers and heads of department. Participants were first asked to highlight the feedback received from the industry concerning students' industrial attachment. Next, they were asked to enumerate competencies, which students have acquired in their view. On the question of feedback received from the industry, most

narratives indicated that feedback was mostly positive. A participant from University 8 for instance, had this to say

> *'…feedback is mostly positive; many have praised our students for discipline and enthusiasm to learn. Some managers do even promise to employ our students as soon as they finish their studies'* (INTL-8)

Response from University 2 indicated that while the industry remains positive on students' ability in hospitality practice, a lot more need to be put into their practical sessions. A participant noted that:

> *'We receive very positive feedback most of the time. However, the industry says that we need to do more on practical and that the attachment period is short and recommends six months instead of three months.'* (INTL-2)

From University 6 perspective, feedback from the industry lauds the eagerness and urge to learn among students. A participant from the University stated that:

> *'most of our industry partners have pointed out that most of the students are willing to learn and have passion in what they do, especially those who want to major in food and beverage (both service and production)'* (INTL-6)

Participants from University 10 and University 7 echoed similar feedback of positivity among students:

> *'There is very good feedback and most of them are employed by the hotels on completion of their studies.' (*INTC-10)

> *'Feedback is mostly positive'. On the question of competencies that students could have acquired, lecturers and heads of department identify a number of competencies which includes; culinary, marketing, supervisory, housekeeping, service, self-confidence, hygiene, food preparation, food presentation and communication skills*' *(INTL-7)*

Table 4.23: Summary of Qualitative Analysis

Activities	– Food and Beverage production – Food and Beverage service – Housekeeping services – Front office work – Accounting and controls – Field trips	– Invited by hotels to assist when these hotels have huge functions – participate in competitions organized by the hotels – Participate in the university organized cultural week whereby they come up with Menus, and prepare dishes of diverse cultures as a way of modeling what they have learnt
Areas	– Housekeeping – Front office – Kitchen	– Restaurants/banqueting – Accounts &controls, – Stores, ,
Gains from Experiential Learning	– Skills in collaboration, – Communicating with guests and sharing their experiences – Active participation in preparation of breakfast and lunch. – Supervision of buffet – Experience in ordering and accounting for items – Development of interpersonal relations among workmates – Teamwork – Adaptation to work environment – Embracing the work culture – Flexibility – Multitasking – Service of various foods & drinks	– Acquired skills on how to handle guest during meal sessions – Setting and clearing tables – Receiving guests, – Handling bookings and reservations – Bed making – Experience in food preparation and preservation – Preparation of sauces e.g mayonnaise – Preparation of beverages, – Garnishing of food – Food presentation – Management skills – Customer service, – Networking
Challenges Faced during Experiential	– Inadequate financing – Lack/Inadequate Equipment – Inadequate space – Inadequate practical time – Large class numbers – Expensive training materials – Wear and tear of equipment not commensurate with replacement – Language barrier	– Limited time – Limited staff – Limited work surfaces – Untimely delivery of materials – Attachment environment different from university environment – Discrimination from other students

		– Attachment period is short – Mistreatment by hotel employees
Competencies Acquired	– Culinary, – Marketing, – Supervisory, – Housekeeping, service,	– Self-confidence, – Hygiene, – Food preparation, presentation and communication skills'

Source: Content analysis, (2021)

4.5 Inferential Analysis

Inferential analysis involved validation of study constructs and models as well as testing the postulated relationships.

4.5.1 Assumptions of SEM

Prior to conducting SEM, data were first tested for assumptions that underlie regression analyses. Among the tests run were test for normality of data distribution; test for the linearity assumption; test for homoscedasticity; test for independence of residuals; and test for multicollinearity. According to Hair et al. (2014), checking to ensure that data can be analyzed using the chosen test is a critical element of multiple regression approaches such as SEM. They contend that testing for the assumptions enables among others; provision of accurate information on prediction, and tests how well the proposed model actually fits the data.

4.5.1.1 Testing the Assumption of Normality

It has been observed that multivariate statistical techniques work well under certain assumptions. For instance, regression analysis requires that the errors in prediction commonly known, as residuals should be normally distributed (Howitt& Cramer, 2011).Assumption of Normality was confirmed using Normal P-P plots of regression standardized residual. Two plots were created each for the two endogenous variables

in question. According to Chen (2016), the Normal P-P plot has emerged as one of the best graphical methods for assessing normality. In this plot, alignment of residual points along the diagonal line implies normality (Laerd statistics 2015). The visual inspection of the normal probability plots (Fig 4.6a and Fig 4.6b) confirm that residuals were normally distributed across the two endogenous variables under study.

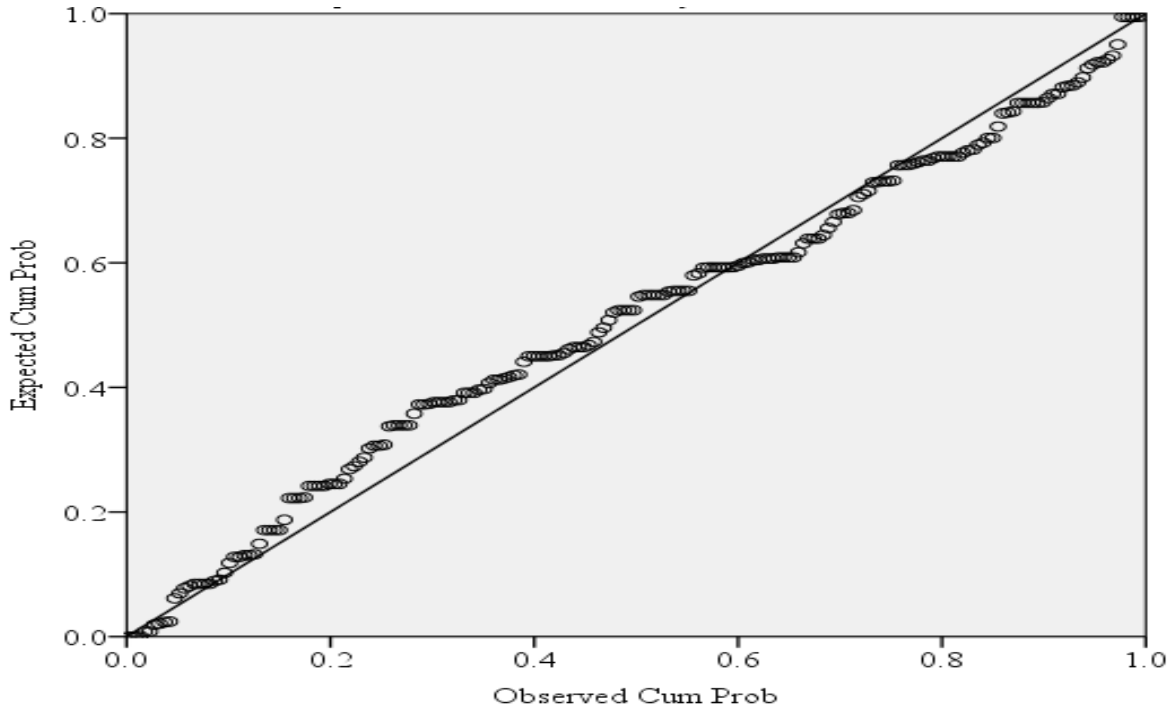


Figure 4.6a: Normal P-P Plot of Regression Standardized Residual (Delivery Evaluation)

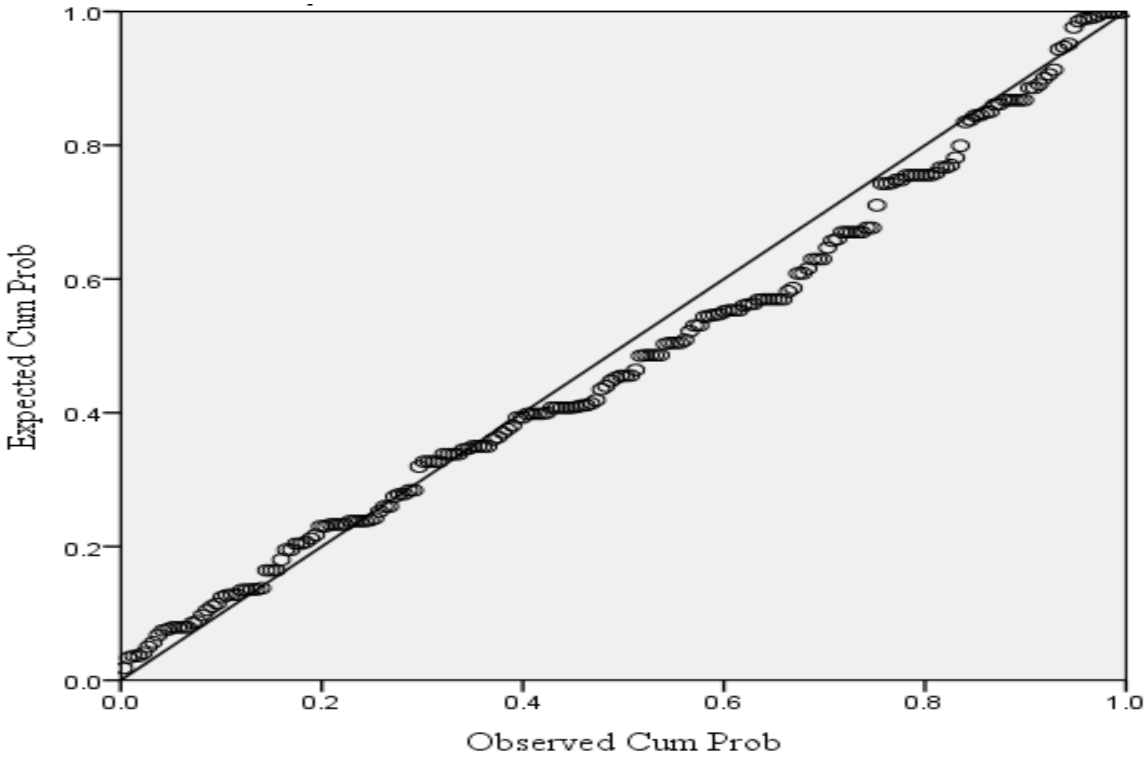


Figure 4.6b: Normal P-P Plot of Regression Standardized Residual (Delivery Evaluation)

4.5.1.2 Test of the Linearity Assumption

One of the assumptions of regression analysis is that variables in the analysis are related to each other in a linear manner. The scatter plot of studentized residuals (SRE_1) against the (unstandardized) predicted values (PRE_1) was used to test the linearity assumption. Under this approach, the saved stundentized residuals were plotted against the saved unstandardized predicted values Chen (2016). The resulting scatter plot was examined to see if residuals formed a horizontal band in which linearity would be implied. The scatter plot (Figure 4.7) confirmed that the residuals formed a horizontal band, an indication of the likelihood of linear relationship between the exogenous variables and the endogenous variables.

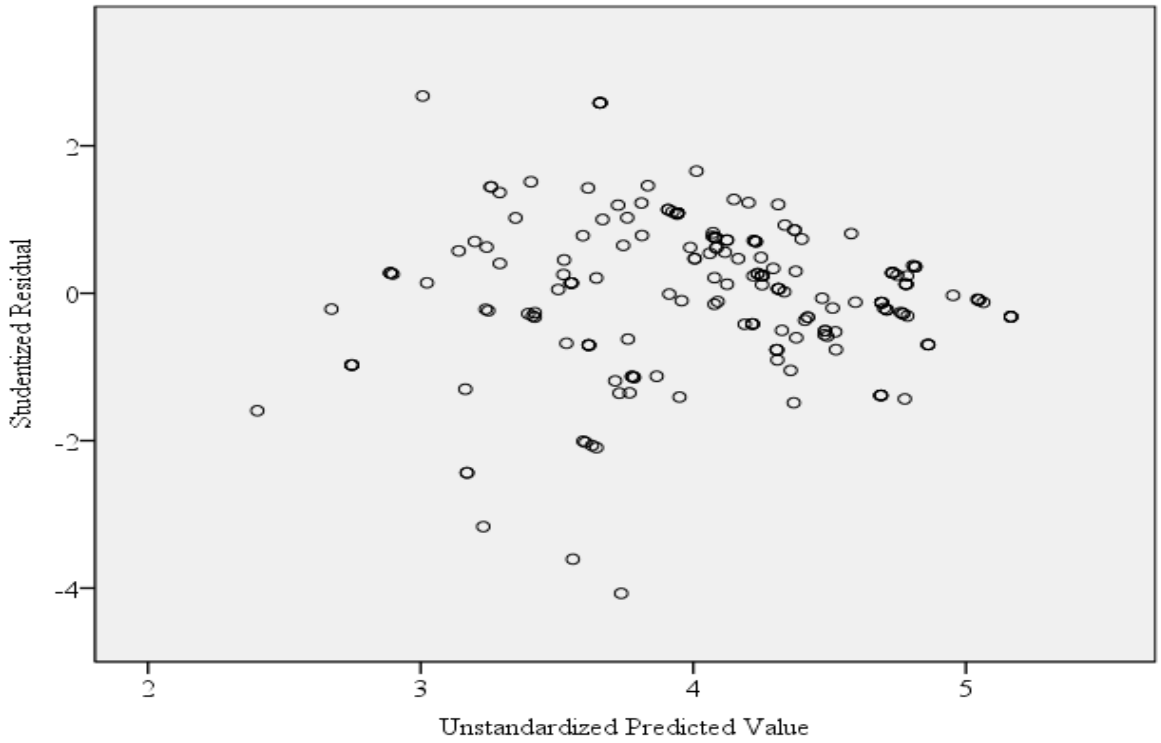


Figure 4.7: Linearity check

4.5.1.3 Testing for Homoscedasticity Assumption

Homoscedasticity is the assumption that the variance is equal for all values of the predicted dependent variable (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). Homoscedasticity was therefore examined by plotting the studentized residuals against the unstandardized predicted values. The visual inspection of the plot of studentized residuals versus unstandardized predicted values indicated existence of homoscedasticity (Figure 4.7). The spread of the residuals did not increase or decrease across the predicted values and exhibited no pattern, an indication that the assumption of homoscedasticity was upheld.

4.5.1.4 Testing for the Multicollinearity Assumption

Existence of Multicollinearity, for which independent variables are noted to correlate strongly with each other, often adversely affects the precision of regression estimates (Hair et al, 2014). In such cases, it becomes difficult to reconcile and understand

which of the variables best contribute to the variance explained in the dependent variable, and technical issues in calculating a multiple regression model. Among adverse effects often associated with multicollinearity are inflated standard regression coefficients and inflated standard errors. Multicollinearity assumption was therefore tested using variance inflation factors (VIF) and Tolerance analysis, which according to Hair et al. (2014) are more robust. Based on assertions by Kock and Lynn (2012), VIF values exceeding 10 were considered problematic and reflected existence of multicollinearity. Table 4.24 shows that all VIF values were below 3, an indication that variables were devoid of Multicollinearity and hence use of SEM was justified.

Table 4.24: Multicollinearity Test Results

Model		Collinearity Statistics	
		Tolerance	VIF
1	School based	.466	2.145
	Industry based	.629	1.590
	Model based	.403	2.481
	Deliver evaluation	.441	2.269

a. Dependent Variable: Perceived Competency

4.5.1.5 Testing for Independence of Observations

Hair et al. (2014) define independence of observations as an assurance that study subjects do respond to study items independent of each other. The independence error test therefore confirms the contributions of independent variables to changes in the dependent variable. Assumption of independence of observations was tested using the Durbin-Watson test. The Durbin-Watson test is identified as a test for a particular type of (lack of) independence; namely, 1st-order autocorrelation**,** which

means that adjacent observations (specifically, their errors) are correlated (i.e., not independent) (Hair *et al.*, 2014). According to Chen (2016), the Durbin-Watson test is a good test to detect possible autocorrelation deemed problematic when running linear regression. Laerd Statistics (2015) observes that the Durbin-Watson statistic can range from 0 to 4 and recommends a value of approximately 2 as being an indication of independence among errors. For this study, there was independence of residuals as assessed by a Durbin–Watson statistic of 1.243 displayed in Table 4.25.

Table 4.25: Results for Test of Independence of Observations

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Durbin-Watson
1	.789[a]	.622	.615	.44822	1.243

a. Predictors: (Constant), Delivery evaluation, Industry based learning, School based learning, Model based learning

Dependent Variable: Perceived competency

4.5.2 Validation of Study Constructs

Cronbach's alpha reliability test was conducted to check construct reliability for the five constructs under study. A questionnaire was used to measure the different underlying constructs. One construct, school based learning, consisted of seventeen items and had high level of internal consistency as determined by a Cronbach's alpha of 0.862. Similarly, industry based learning consisting twenty items; model based learning with eighteen items, delivery evaluation having twenty items; and perceived competency of hospitality management students consisting of eighteen items, had high levels of internal consistency as determined by Cronbach's alpha values of 0.909, 0.913, 0.958 and 0.951 respectively (Table 4.26).

Table 4.26: Construct Reliability

Constructs	Items	Cronbach's
1. School based learning	17	.862
2. Industry based learning	20	.909
3. Model based learning	18	.913
4. Delivery evaluation	20	.958
5. Perceived Competency of hospitality management students	18	.951

4.5.3 Validation of the Measurement Model

The measurement model consisted of five latent constructs namely; school based learning, industry based learning, model based learning, delivery evaluation and perceived competency of hospitality students. Validation of this model focused on; confirmatory unidimensionality which is normally confirmed if factor loadings are positive and in the excess of 0.5 (Awang, 2012); this was therefore the case for the current study where factor loadings were examined to test for unidimensionality. Next, convergent validity was justified by existence of an average variance extracted (AVE) above 0.5 and standard loadings greater than 0.6 (as cited in Abdullah, 2015); discriminant validity on the other hand was affirmed by square roots of construct AVE in excess of correlation coefficients between any two constructs (Abdullah, 2015), the model fit was confirmed by comparing default indices with recommended fit indices shown on table 4.27.

Table 4.27: Recommended Fit Indices

χ^2 d/f	GFI	AGFI	NFI	RFI	IFI	TLI	CFI	RMSEA
<5.0	>0.90	>0.90	>0.90	>0.90	>0.90	>0.90	>0.90	<0.05

***Source**: Cheung and Rensvold (2002)*

4.5.3.2Validation of the School-based Learning Construct

Four observed variables, 'group work' (GW); 'food and beverage lab' (FB); 'field trips' (FT) and 'housekeeping lab' (HK); and were employed as the indicators of school based learning. From the results displayed in Figure 4.8, all factor loadings (see arrow parameters) were positive and in the excess of 0.5, an indication that the indicators were unidimensional.

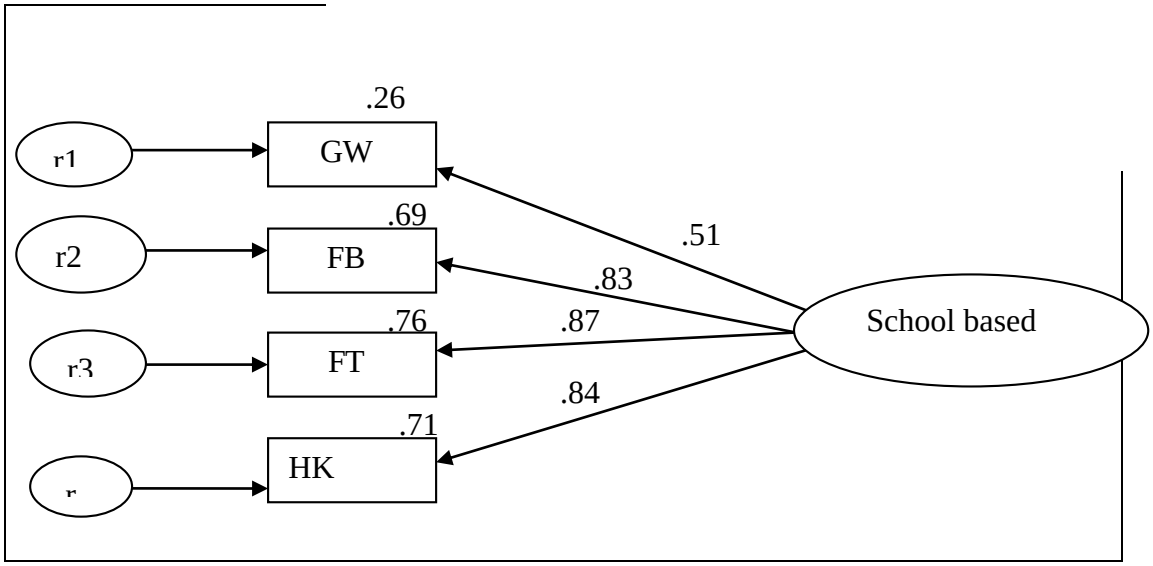


Figure 4.8: Validation of School based learning

The average variance extracted (AVE), calculated by obtaining the ratio of sum of squared factor loadings to sum of squared factor loadings added with sum of error variance, yielded a value of 0.605 which was above the recommended level of 0.5 (Hair, Sarstedt & Ringle, 2011). Moreover, all the standard factor loadings were higher than 0.5 (Table 4.28). Convergent validity was therefore confirmed.

Table 4.28: Composite Reliability and AVE for School-based Learning

Construct	Items	Factor loadings	AVE	CR
School based learning	Housekeeping	.843	$\frac{.26 + .69 + .76 + .71}{2.42 + .74 + .31 + .24 + .29}$ =.605	0.855
	Group work	.509		
	Food & Beverage	.832		
	Field trips	.870		

4.5.3.2 Validation of the Industry-based Learning Construct

Four observed variables, 'industrial attachment' (IA); 'practicum' (PR); 'apprenticeship' (AP); and 'volunteering' (VO) were conceptualized as indicators of industry based learning. An examination of unidimensionality confirmed that all the four indicators were to be retained as determined by factor loadings above 0.6 (Fig. 4.9).

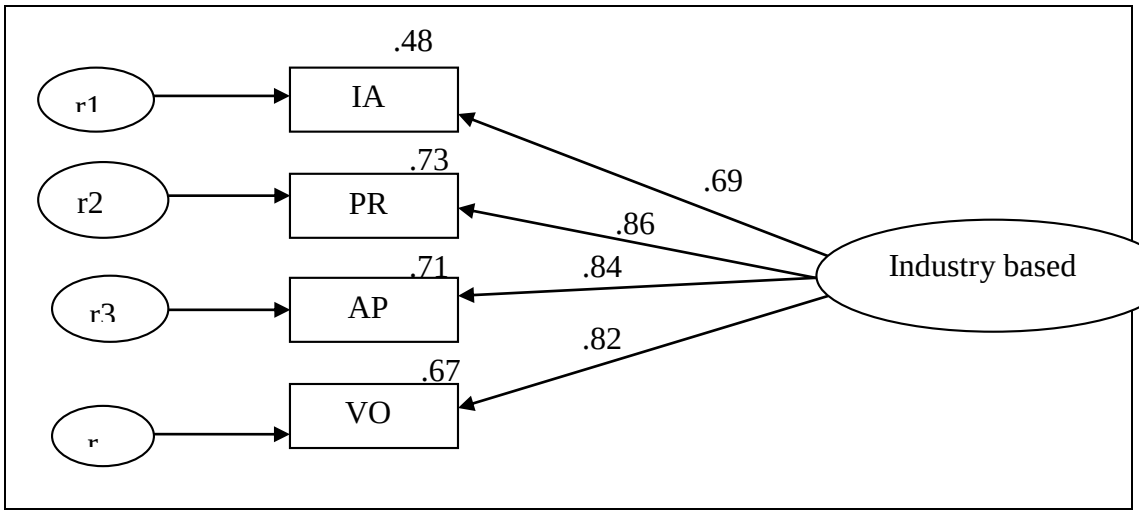


Figure 4.9: Validation of industry based learning

Construct validity was confirmed by a composite reliability of 0.880, while convergent validity was justified by an AVE value of 0.649 which was above 0.5 (Table 4.29).

Table 4.29: Composite Reliability and AVE for Industry Based Learning

Construct	Items	Factor loadings	AVE	CR
Industry based learning	Industrial attachment	.695	$\frac{2.594}{2.594 + 1.406}$ =.649	0.880
	Practicum	.856		
	Apprenticeship	.842		
	Volunteering	.818		

4.5.3.3 Validation of the Model-based Learning Construct

Three indicators, 'Visual modeling' (VM); 'Role modeling' (RM); and 'External modeling' (EM) were extracted to measure model based learning. All the three indicators were unidimensional as determined by large factor loadings (Fig. 4.10).

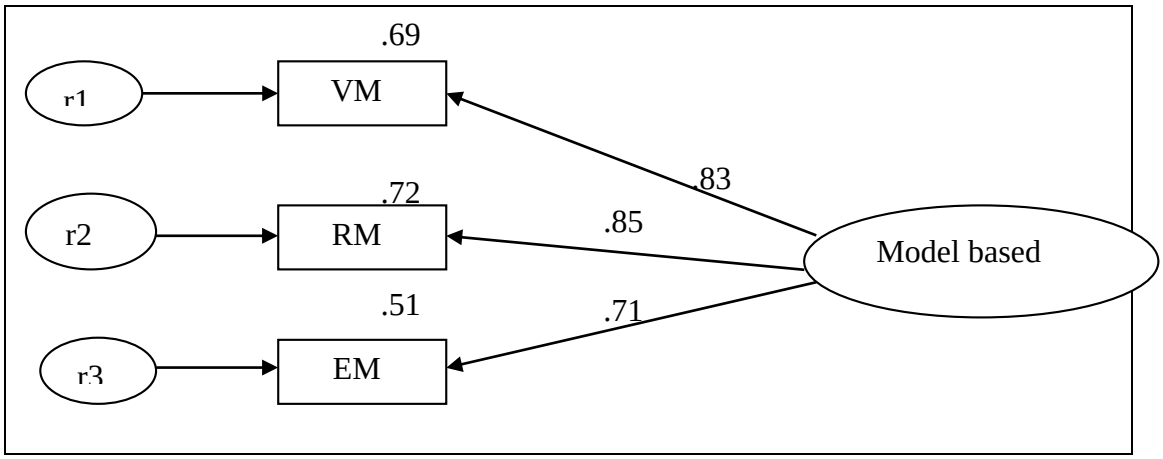


Fig 4.10 Validation of model based learning

A composite reliability value of 0.841 and an AVE of 0.640 respectively confirmed construct and convergent validity (Table 4.30).

Table 4.30: Composite Reliability and AVE for Model Based Learning

	Items	Factor loadings	AVE	CR
Model based	Visual modeling	.828		
	Role modeling	.851	$\frac{1.92}{1.92 + 1.08}$=.640	0.841
	External modeling	.714		

4.5.3.4: Validation of the Delivery Evaluation Construct.

Three observed variables, 'reaction' (RT); 'behaviour' (BH) and 'learning' (LN) were extracted as indicators of delivery evaluation. Factor loadings were all in the excess of 0.6 (Fig. 4.11) indicating that the indicators were unidimensional.

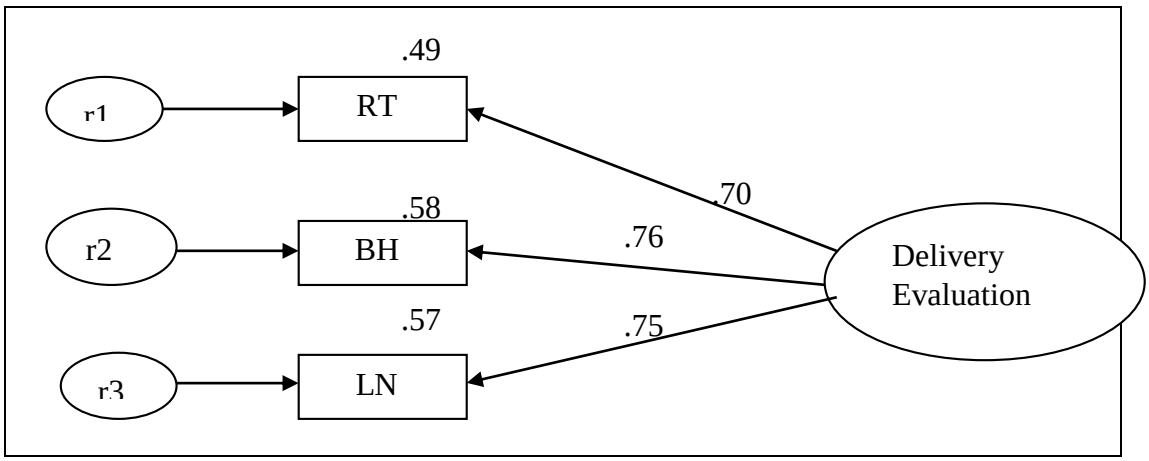


Figure 4.11: Validation of Delivery Evaluation

Construct validity was satisfied given the composite reliability of 0.784 (Table 4.31). Convergent validity was also justified since the AVE of 0.548 was larger than the recommended 0.5.

Table 4.31: Composite Reliability and AVE for Delivery Evaluation

Construct	Items	Factor loadings	AVE	CR
Delivery Evaluation	Reaction	.700	$\frac{1.643}{1.643 + 1.357}$ =.548	0.784
	Behaviour	.764		
	Learning	.754		

4.5.3.5 Validation of the Perceived Competency Construct

Four observed variables 'Leadership' (LE) 'Knowledge (KN); 'Ability' (AB); and 'adaptability' (AD) were extracted as indicators of perceived competency of hospitality management students. The four indicators were all unidimensional as determined by factor loadings in the excess of 0.7 (Fig. 4.12).

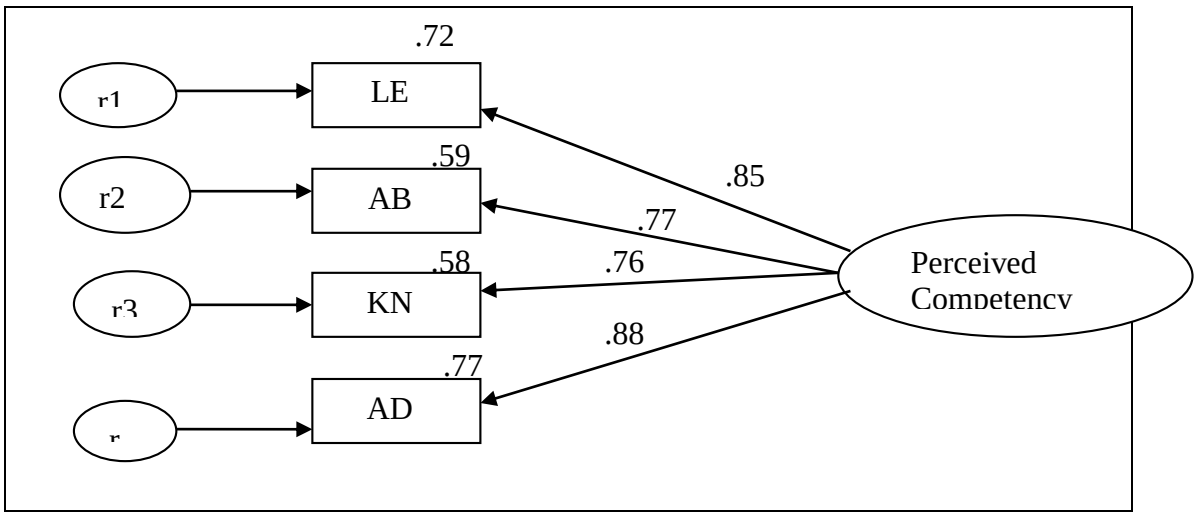


Figure 4.12: Validation of Perceived Competency

The average variance extracted (AVE) was 0.667, and was way above the recommended value of 0.5 (Table 4.32). In addition, all standard factor loadings were positive and above 0.6. Convergent validity was satisfied. The composite reliability value of 0.889 confirmed validity of the construct.

Table 4.32: Composite Reliability and AVE for the Perceived Competency Construct

	Items	Factor loadings	AVE	CR
Perceived competency	Adaptability Leadership Knowledge Ability	.876 .851 .763 .771	$\frac{2.667}{2.667 + 1.333}$ =.667	0.889

4.5.4 Measurement Model

This sub-section presents the proposed model and the final modified measurement model.

4.5.4.1 Proposed Measurement Model

The proposed measurement model was a five factor correlated model. Four indicators loaded highly on school based learning, another four on industry based learning, three on model based learning, another three on delivery evaluation, and four on perceived competency (Fig. 4.13).

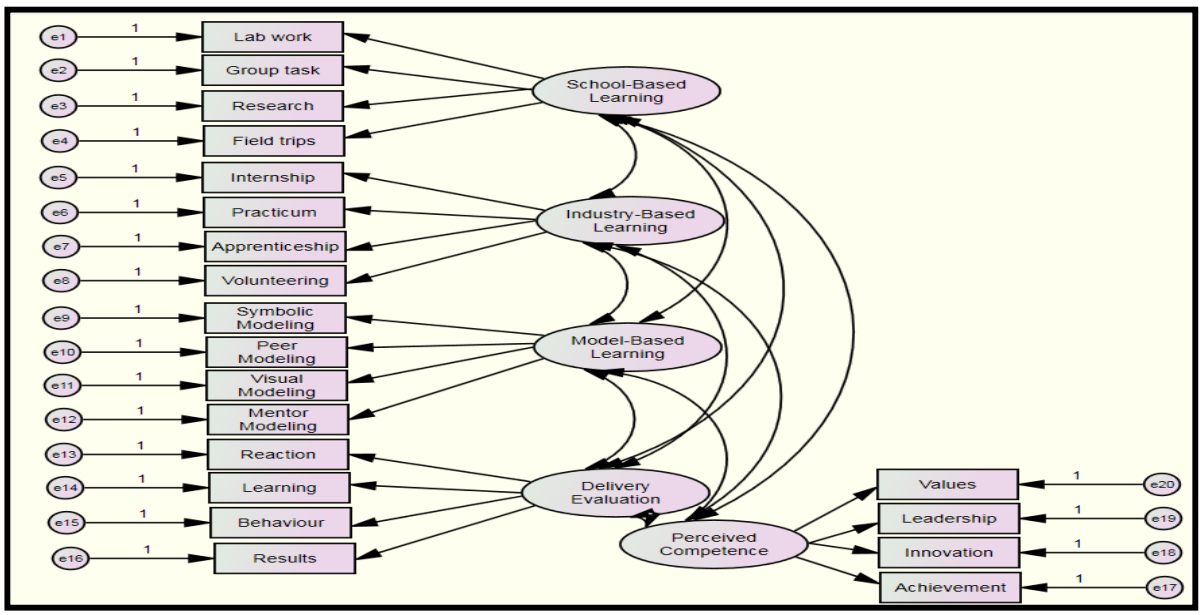


Figure 4.13: Proposed Measurement model

Computation of correlations between constructs and associated AVE square roots confirmed that the measurement model satisfied discriminant validity requirements. The square root of the AVE for each construct was greater than the correlation coefficients (Table 4.33).

Table 4.33 Correlations

	School based	Industry based	Model based	Delivery evaluation	Perceived competency
School based	**.778**				
Industry based	.540**	**.806**			
Model based	.682**	.483**	**.800**		
Delivery evaluation	.604**	.550**	.701**	**.740**	
Perceived competency	.652**	.440**	.632**	.744**	**.817**

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

4.5.4.2 Initial Measurement Model

The initial measurement model (Fig. 4.13) was subjected to fit indices. This model was not a good fit as determined by fit indices (<0.05) that did not match those recommended by Cheung and Rensvold (2009). The resulting fit indices were; χ^2/df = 2.618; GFI = 0.849; AGFI = 0.793; NFI = 0.850; RFI = 0.817; IFI = 0.902; TLI = 0.878; CFI = 0.900, and RMSEA = 0.089. Since RMSEA, GFI, AGFI, NFI, RFI, TLI did not meet the required threshold, the model was modified to give the final model.

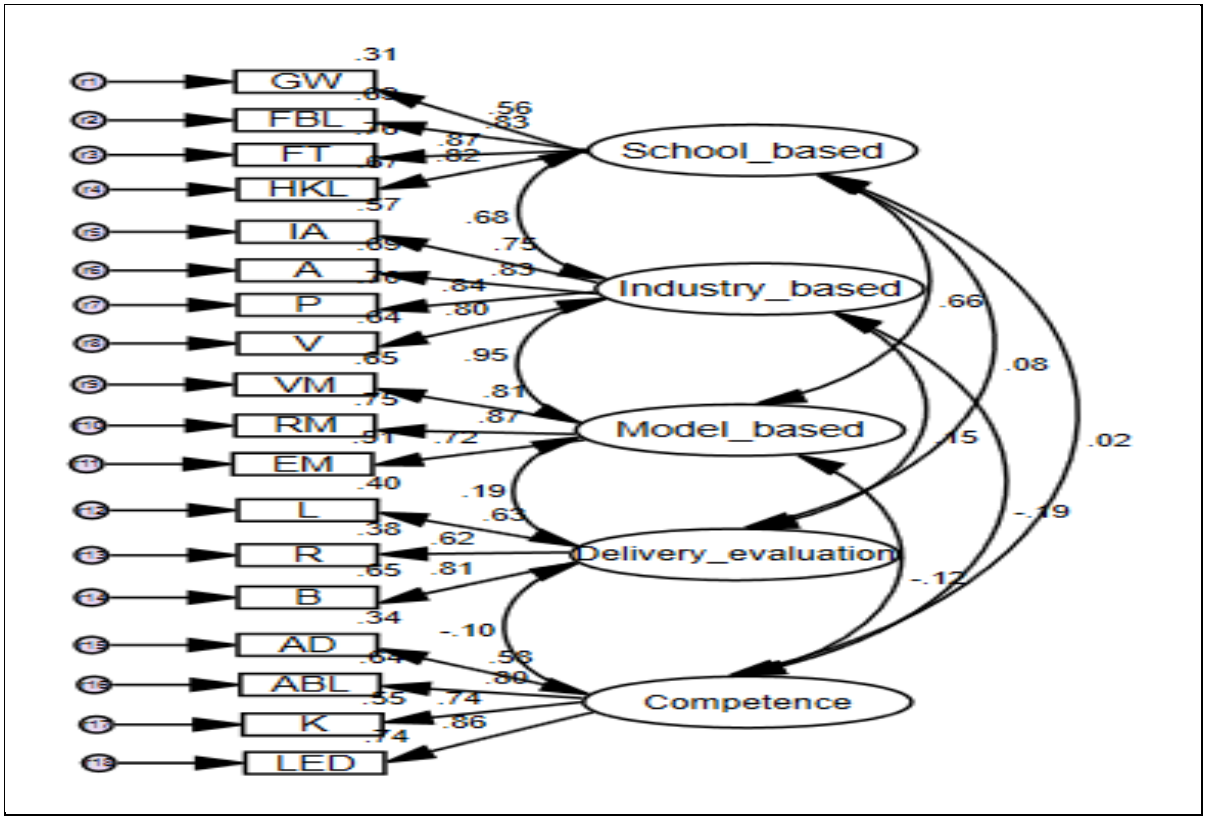


Figure 4.14: Initial Measurement Model

4.5.4.3 Final Measurement Model

The final model was constructed by modifying the initial by correlating the following error terms; r1↔r7;r3↔r8; r3↔r10; r3↔r5; r2↔r9; r2↔r5; r5↔r7; r5↔r11; r5↔r14; r11↔r18; r7↔r18; r6↔r11; r12↔r15; r13↔r17; r6↔r9; r6↔r7; r14↔r15; and r1↔r4 (Fig 4.14). The resulting fit indices were; χ^2/df = 1.302; GFI = 0.931; AGFI = 0.901; NFI = 0.936; RFI = 0.909; IFI = 0.984; TLI = 0.977; CFI = 0.984, and RMSEA = 0.039.

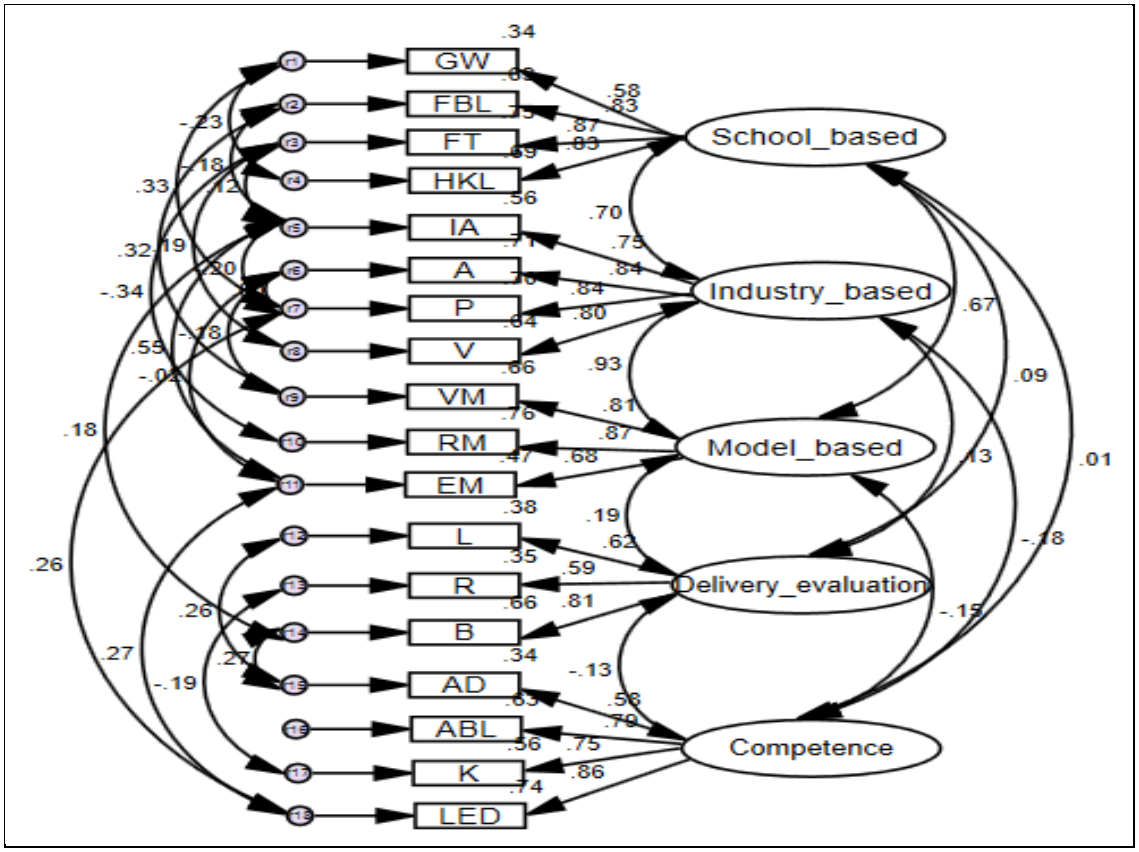


Figure 4.15: Final Measurement model

4.5.5 Structural Model

The proposed structural model examined the relationships between three exogenous variables and two endogenous variables. First, it was postulated that experiential learning through its constructs namely; school based learning, industry based learning and model based learning had direct effects on both delivery evaluation and perceived competence of hospitality management students. Secondly, the researcher postulated that delivery evaluation related directly with perceived competency of hospitality management students. The initial structural model, modified structural model and final structural model are presented in figure 4.13, 4.14 and 4.15 respectively.

4.5.5.1 Initial Structural Model

The initial structural model (Fig. 4.15) violated the recommended fit indices for a good fit. The default fit indices for the initial model were; χ^2/df = 2.042; GFI = 0.880; AGFI = 0.836; NFI = 0.801; RFI = 0.757; IFI = 0.888; TLI = 0.814; CFI = 0.885; RMSEA = 0.072.

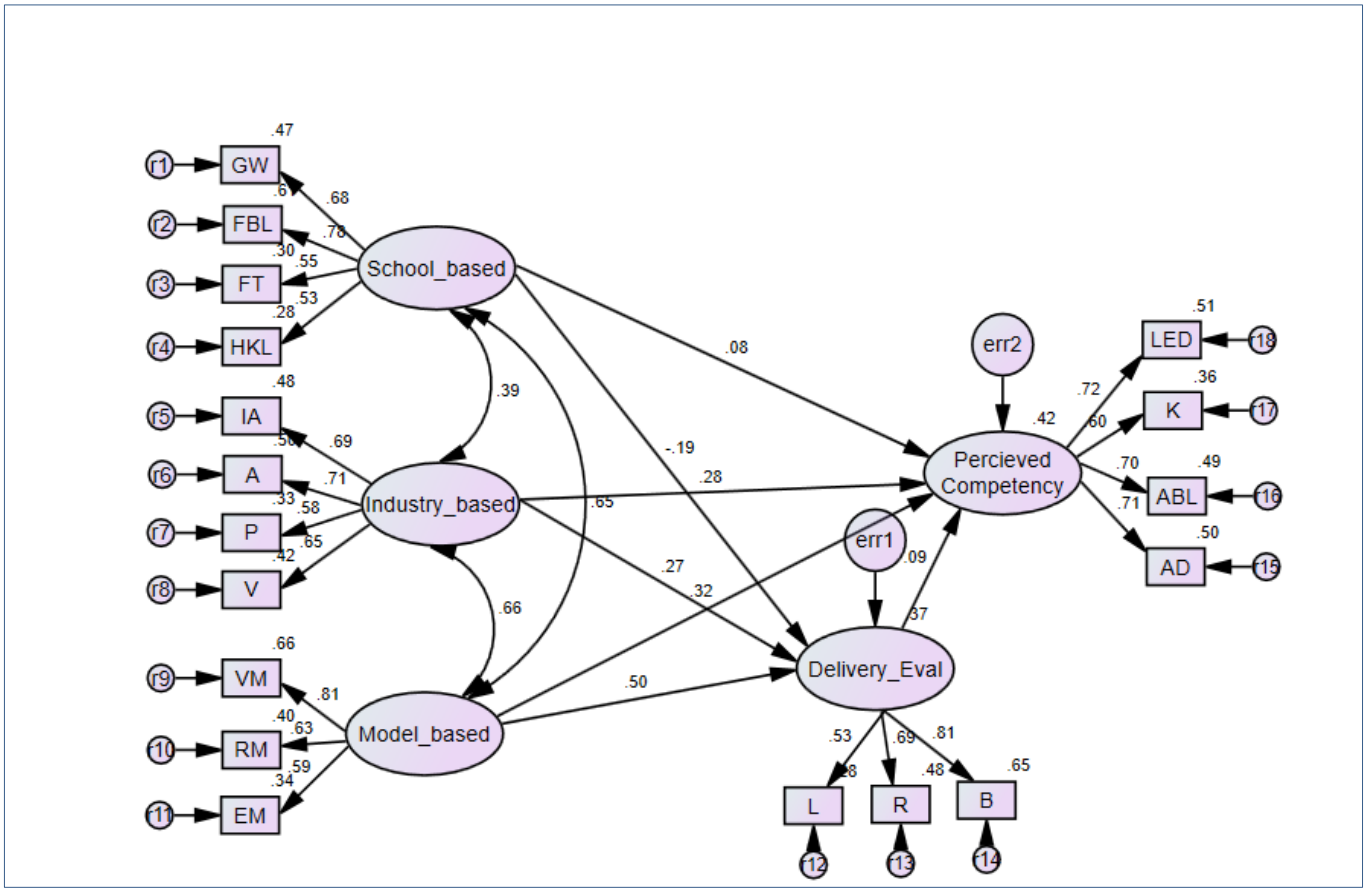


Figure 4.16: Initial structural model

4.5.5.2 Modified Structural Model

For a better fit, the model was modified using suggested post-hoc modification indices. The following correlations were consequently made: r16↔r17; r18↔r17; r14↔r17; r10↔r11; r7↔r13; r4↔r11; r5↔r9; r2↔16; r1↔r16; r1↔r11; r1↔r7; and r1↔r5. The resulting structural model (Fig. 4.16) improved in model fit for

most fit indices (χ^2/df = 1.373; GFI = 0.928; AGFI = 0.891; NFI = 0.879; RFI = 0.837; IFI = 0.964; TLI = 0.950; CFI = 0.963; RMSEA = 0.043).

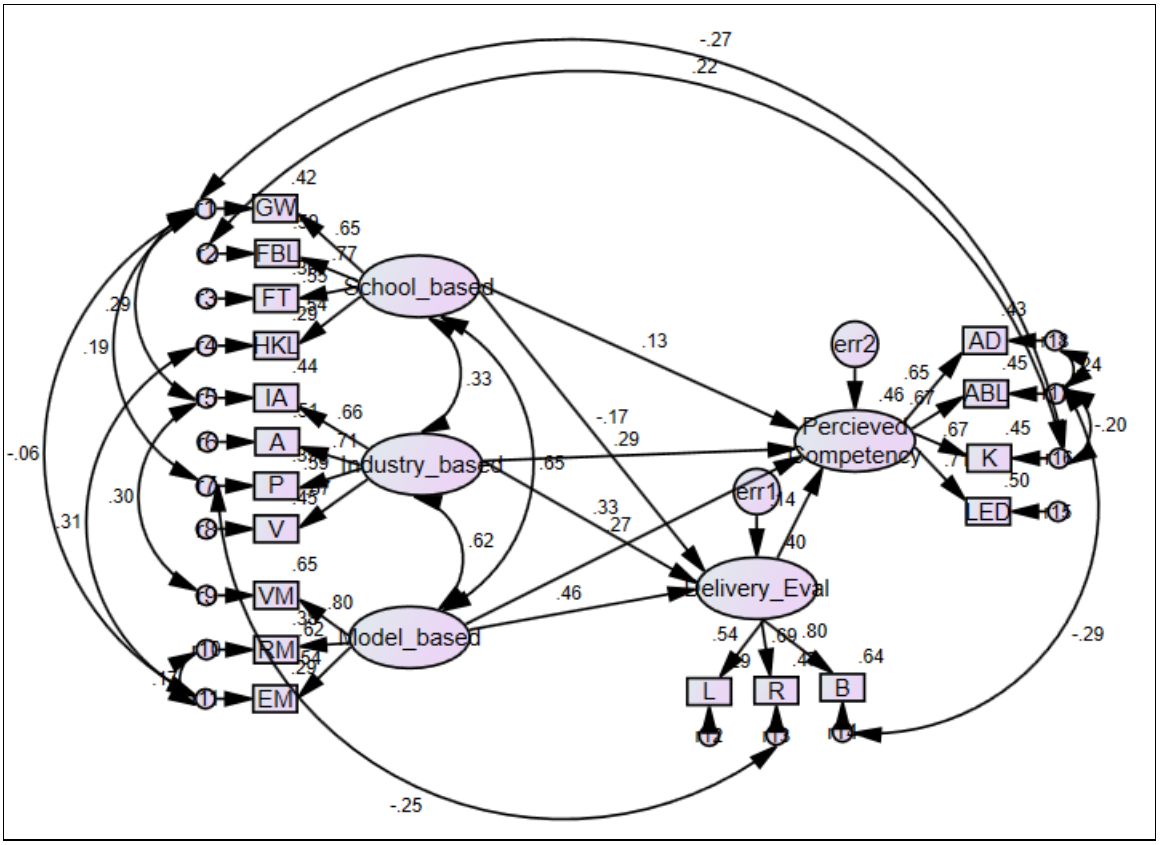


Figure 4.17 Modified Structural Model

4.5.5.3 Final Structural Model

Although most of the fit indices complied with recommended indices, AGFI, NFI and RFI were below the recommended values. A second modification was conducted by correlating the following terms; r14↔r15; r7↔r8; r6↔r16; r5↔r13; r3↔r7; r2↔r5; r1↔18; r1↔13; and r13 ↔r17. All the fit indices of the resulting second modified structural model (Fig. 4.17) were within the recommended limits (χ^2/df = 0.897; GFI = 0.954; AGFI = 0.924; NFI = 0.927; IFI = 1.009; TLI = 1.014; CFI = 1.000 and RMSEA = 0.000. This was therefore designated as the final structural model (Fig 4.15) which explained 38% of variance in delivery evaluation

(R^2 = 0.38) and 52% of variance in perceived competence of hospitality management students (R^2 = 0.52).

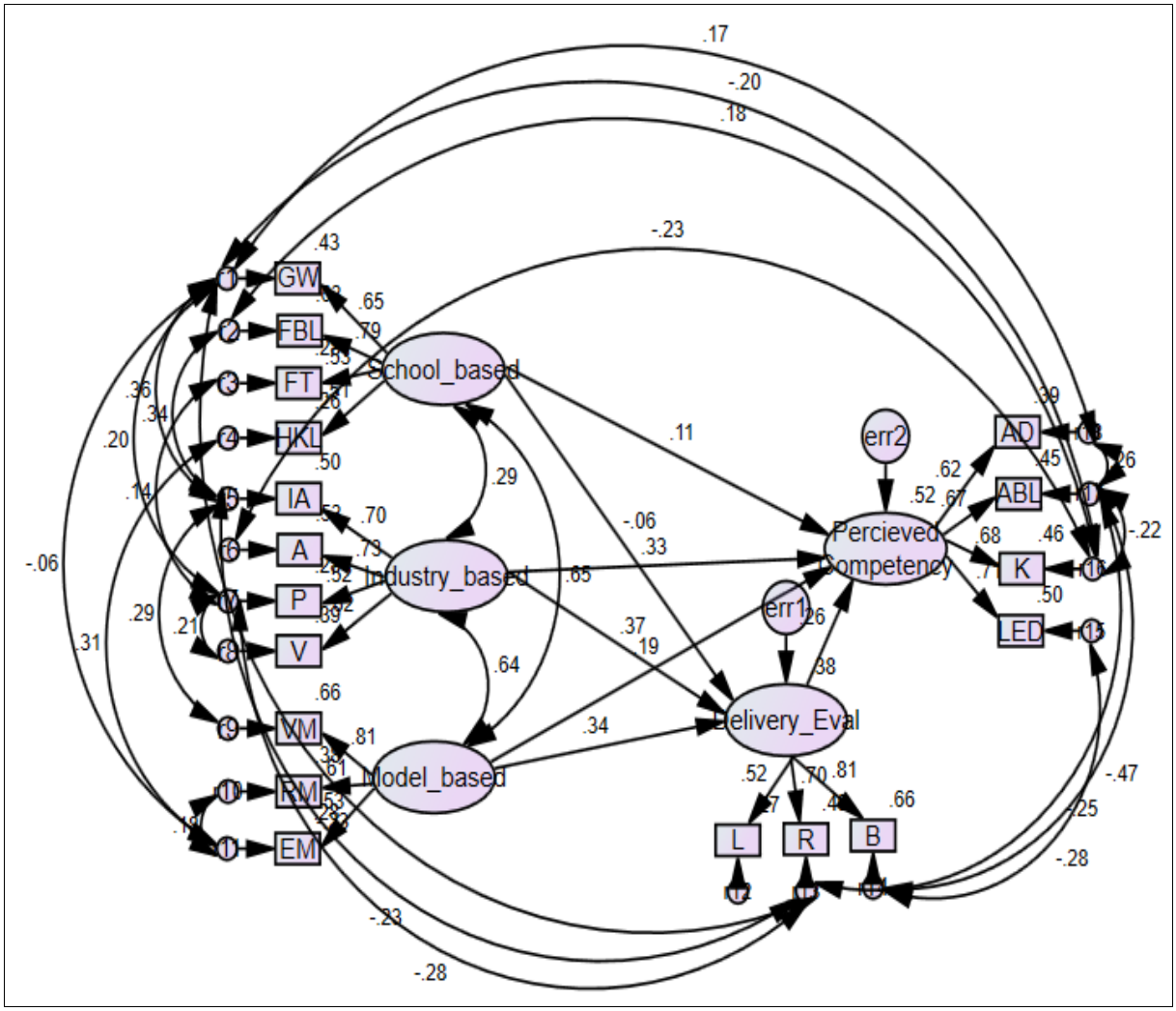


Figure 4.18 Final Structural Model

4.5.6 Results of Hypotheses Tests

Seven hypotheses were formulated and tested in the study. The results of the hypotheses tests summarized in Table 4.34 indicates that four of the seven hypotheses were not supported by the data. Specific results for each hypothesis have been discussed:

Hypothesis $H_0$1 presupposed that school based learning has no significant influence on perceived competency of hospitality management students in Kenya. The estimate value of 0.097 (Table 4.34) implies that when school based learning goes up by 1 unit, perceived competency of hospitality management students goes up by 0.097 units. This estimate of 0.097 had a standard error of about 0.117, was 0.831 standard errors above zero and that the regression weight of school based learning (0.097) in the prediction of perceived competency of hospitality management students was not significantly different from zero (p=.406) at the 0.05 level (two-tailed). The hypothesis was therefore supported.

Hypotheses $H_0$2 posited that industry based learning has no significant effect on perceived competency of hospitality management students. The estimate value of 0.239 (Table 4.34) was an indicator that when industry based learning goes up by 1 unit, perceived competency of hospitality management students goes up by 0.239 units. This regression weight had a standard error of about 0.103, was 2.333 standard errors above zero, and was significantly different from zero (p=.020) at the 0.05 level (two-tailed). The hypothesis that industry based learning has no significant effect on perceived competency of hospitality management students, was not supported.

Hypothesis $H_0$3 presumed that model based learning has no significant influence on perceived competency of hospitality management students in Kenya. Results (Table 4.34) show that when model based learning goes up by 1 unit, perceived competency of hospitality management students goes up by 0.186 units. This regression weight had a standard error of about 0.136, was 1.368 standard errors above zero, and was significantly different from zero (p=.044) at the 0.05 level (two-tailed). The claim

that model based learning has no significant influence on perceived competency of hospitality management students, was likewise not supported.

Hypothesis $H_0$4 postulated that school based learning has no effect on delivery evaluation. The hypothesis was supported by the test results. School based learning going up by 1 unit resulted in delivery evaluation going down by 0.042 units. The regression weight of -0.042 had a standard error of about 0.096, was 0.442 standard errors below zero, and was not significantly different from zero at the 0.05 level (two-tailed).

Hypothesis $H_0$5 claimed that industry based learning has no significant influence on delivery evaluation. The test results revealed that a unit increase in industry-based training resulted in delivery evaluation going up by 0.222 units. That this estimate of 0.222 had a standard error of approximately 0.085, was 2.609 standard errors above zero and that the regression weight for industry based learning in the prediction of delivery evaluation was significantly different from zero at the 0.01 level (two-tailed). The claim was therefore not supported.

Hypothesis $H_0$6 presupposed that model based learning had no significant effect on delivery evaluation. Results show that when model based learning goes up by 1 unit, delivery evaluation goes up by 0.201 units (β= 0.201). This regression weight had a standard error of about 0.116, was 1.73 standard errors above zero, and was however not significantly different from zero ($p = 0.084$) at the 0.05 level (two-tailed). The hypothesis was supported by the data.

Hypothesis $H_0$7 hypothesized that delivery evaluation had no significant influence on perceived competency of hospitality management students in Kenya. The

hypothesis test results confirmed that an increase of 1 unit in delivery evaluation, results in competency of hospitality management students going up by 0.316 units. The regression weight of 0.316 had a standard error of about 0.152, it was 2.08 standard errors above zero, and was significantly different from zero (p=0.038) at the 0.05 level (two-tailed) in the prediction of competency of hospitality management students. The hypothesis was not supported.

Table 4.34: Regression Weights (Default Model)

	Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	p	Result
Perceived competency⇠ SI	.097	.117	.831	.406	Supported
Perceived competency⇠ IB	.237	.103	2.333	.020	**Not supported**
Perceived competency⇠ M	.186	.136	1.368	.044	**Not supported**
Delivery evaluation⇠ SBL	.-.042	.096	-.442	.659	Supported
Delivery evaluation⇠ IBL	.222	.085	2.609	.009	**Not Supported**
Delivery evaluation⇠ MBL	.201	.116	1.730	.084	Supported
Perceived competency⇠ DI	.316	.152	2.080	.038	**Not Supported**

The implication of the results of hypotheses tests is that industry based learning and model based learning appeared to be more effective experiential learning approaches in competency development among hospitality undergraduates. Industry based learning has a direct influence on both practical evaluation of delivery and on perceived competency of hospitality management students. Similarly, model based learning directly influences perceived competency of hospitality management students and has some influence on delivery evaluation, although estimated

regression weight may not be entirely different from zero. Delivery evaluation positively and significantly influences perceived competency of hospitality management students in selected universities in Kenya. The results also confirm that the rigors of the hospitality related courses are such that school based learning may not suitably influence development of competencies among learners.

CHAPTER FIVE

DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.0 Overview

This chapter presents summary of research findings presented in the preceding chapter, discusses the key findings of the study by elucidating how they are related to the previous studies.

5.1 Summary of Findings

The purpose of the current study was to investigate experiential learning and delivery evaluation as antecedents of perceived competency of hospitality management students in selected universities in Kenya. The study was conducted in public and private universities offering Hospitality Management courses. To this end, the study analyzed the influence of the experiential learning dimensions on perceived competency of hospitality management students; the influence of the experiential learning dimensions on delivery evaluation; the influence of delivery evaluation on perceived competency of hospitality management students; and also, highlighted key challenges and opportunities presented by the university experiential learning process.

The basic aim was to explore the capacity of experiential learning and delivery evaluation's impact on competency among student trainees, whereby hospitality practitioners and public universities can have avenues through which to address the improvement of the hospitality management curriculum in the universities. This chapter provides the discussion of the findings in line with the study objectives, draws conclusions, examines implications to theory and practice, and gives recommendations for potential replication and improvement of the study.

5.2 Discussion of Findings

The study was able to show that experiential learning was a crucial cog in delivery evaluation accounting for up to 38% of the variance in delivery evaluation and linking up with delivery evaluation to determine perceived competency explaining up to 52% of the variance in perceived competency of hospitality management students The implication of such a finding is that in hospitality management training, experiential learning involving the three experiential approaches contributes minimally to student's perceptions of competence. Although delivery evaluation adds some substantial impact, it never the less remains minimal. The implicit message in this finding was that delivery evaluation could potentially mediate between experiential learning and perceived competency of hospitality management students. It is however important to treat these findings carefully since students' demographic statistics were not controlled for in the present study. Specific findings objective wise were as follows:

The significance of the collated results on perceived competency among hospitality management students is that universities are doing a good job of exposing students to essential competencies required for the hospitality industry. The industry on its part is providing necessary feedback required to sharpen students' skills even further. These results are consistent with documented findings. Kay and Russette (as cited in Johnson et al., 2010) for instance point out that hospitality industry leaders have been instrumental in offering guidance to hospitality educators with the aim of honing up required competencies.

The finding showing that culinary, marketing, communication and professionalism are among the skills in hospitality management that students acquire is consistent

with findings by Buergermeister (1983 as cited in Liaman, 2014). Buergermeister identifies work ethics, professionalism, interaction and professionalism as critical skills expected of employees in the hospitality industry. Indeed, communication competencies have been recognized as top on the list of competencies that a hospitality graduate should possess (as cited in Nilson, 2018). It is therefore apparent that by developing communication skills among hospitality graduates, universities in Kenya are desirous of empowering their students to succeed in the hospitality industry.

5.2.1 School-based Learning and Perceived Competency of Hospitality Students

The first objective of the study sought to establish whether school based learning as an approach to experiential learning was a significant predictor of perceived competency in hospitality practice. From a triangulated approach to analysis, which included descriptive, content and inferential techniques, the study revealed that school based learning in hospitality management was undertaken in four modes namely; group work, food and beverage lab, field trips and housekeeping lab. In this way, students could be exposed to both theory and practical sessions.

In regards to group work, analysis of students questionnaire responses together with results from focus group discussions with selected groups of final year hospitality management students revealed the following findings: university school based learning exposes students to working in groups which is critical to the hospitality industry; school based learning exposes students to required activities in housekeeping, food and beverage production and marketing throughout the four year course. Such findings are once again very significant in the sense that universities recognize the power inherent in groups as a learning strategy. Group work is touted

as a pedagogical approach that promotes interactive face-to-face learning, which is associated with the development of critical thinking, decision-making, and communication skills among students (Freeman, et al. 2014).

Use of group work as a training strategy is particularly critical in the hospitality industry, which relies on soft skills such as those that are derived from group work. It has been noted that group work is effective in motivating trainees, encouraging active training, and more importantly, in developing job specific skills such as decision-making skills, communication, and critical-thinking skills (Taylor, 2011). Moreover, group work has been identified as an effective approach of enhancing skills that enable students to work effectively with others as is expected in the hospitality industry (Jackson, Sibson & Riebe, 2014).

The dynamic nature of the hospitality industry is such that group work cannot be wished away. Ambrose et al. (2010) posit that group work facilitates interactions and discussions among students, a dialogue that allows them to construct new knowledge, and situate it within a conceptual framework of existing knowledge. In this way, students are able to adapt to the industry's dynamism. The descriptive analysis findings showing that students have often participated in group assignment, group discussions, and have worked collaboratively with others are therefore an indicator of the emphasis universities put on group work as an element of school based experiential learning. Besides, in finding out that school based learning nurtures teamwork, the current study lends support to Brennen (2017) who concluded that use of learning laboratories within the school based approach, improves the training experience by raising levels of interaction between students and faculty.

On food and beverage and housekeeping lab work, results from focus group discussions corroborated the descriptive analysis results in showing that right from first year to fourth year, students were exposed to activities such as bed making, cleaning, service, sauce production, baking and culinary skills all of which were oriented towards food and beverage production and housekeeping. It was encouraging to note that universities take cognition of the important role lab work plays in the development of real life skills. Evidence has indeed shown that students who engage in well-designed laboratory experiences are bound to develop critical thinking and problem-solving skills (Bernhard, 2018). Bernhard argues that lab work amounts to sustained investment in hands-on experiences, which help to inspire and foster employability skills. Suffice to say then that the finding showing that lab-work is a common feature in school based learning in university hospitality training, point towards a direction where students are given a hands-on experience in housekeeping, service and banqueting, production, front office among others. The finding showing that school based learning which invests in lab work exposes students to concepts in housekeeping and food and beverage production agrees with findings by Stansbie *et al* (2016). In their study, Stansbie and colleagues found out that students perceived school based learning in the lab positively particularly in terms of being exposed to newer experiences, concepts and theories.

Planning activities such as cultural week, which are held outside of the classroom, and having students collaborate with local hotels on real-life hospitality practice is indeed the direction university experiential learning should be going. This avenue no doubt introduces the element of innovativeness among students, which is required in the hospitality industry today. Nevertheless, college supervisors need to take a proactive role in assessing the feasibility of such projects. Gruman *et al.* (2013) argue

that instructors ought to approve student projects in order to guarantee that they are feasible, encourage a high degree of interaction and that, objectives of the projects focus on an achievable level.

Field trips also emerged as an approach the universities use in school based experiential learning. From the descriptive analysis, students agreed among others, that activities experienced during field trips support their theory knowledge; that they hardly forget what they learn in field trips; that field trips have tended to shape their attitude towards the courses being studied; and that they are able to put knowledge acquired during field trips into practical use. Hospitality and particularly the tourism sector, is about travelling. The use of field trips as an approach to university school based experiential learning therefore, strongly gives a strong foundation to students expected work orientation.

The finding showing students agreement to the fact that they are not likely to forget knowledge learnt during field trip is indeed consistent with the array of studies, which have demonstrated the potential for field trips to boost learning retention (Behrendt & Franklin, 2014; Bauerle, 2012). Field trips constitute very rich learning environments in the hospitality industry. It has been pointed out that field trips expose students to unique locations, where each student is able to create personal meaning to experiences gained in observing natural settings (Lei, 2010a). Farmer, Knapp and Benton (2007a) posit that the impact of field trips is long lasting and lingers longer in students' minds owing to the personal meaning attached to real life observations. Needless to say, in using field trips as an experiential learning approach, universities in Kenya are seeking to build hospitality graduates well-grounded in exploiting meaning out of experiences gained from natural real life

contexts. The extant literature is undated with evidence of the importance attached to field trips (DeWitt & Storksdieck, 2008; Ateşkan & Lane, 2016; Fino, 2008; Goh, 2011).

The finding showing that universities use various school based learning approaches to explore relevant theories and concepts in hospitality practice indicates that, universities offering hospitality management are keen to exploit the knowledge base that students need to acquire before exposing them to the practical aspect. This is indeed consistent with the findings by Opondo (2018) who argued that formal training is a precursor to competency among students given that, it imparts knowledge and hones skills. A similar view was also held by Bonesso *et al.*, (2015), who observed that traditional learning which is basically school based, impacts emotional competencies more effectively when implemented alongside individual experiential learning.

However, SEM analysis results indicated that school based learning though having some positive effects on perceived competency of hospitality management students, was not a significant predictor of the same with its influence not being significantly different from zero. Moreover school based learning did not also predict delivery evaluation of practical sessions. The finding showing that school based learning was not a significant predictor of perceived competency of hospitality management students, although reflecting findings by Basaram (2016), which indicated that school based learning was largely theory oriented and required support from experiential learning activities to have a telling impact on student competency; contradict the rather elaborate findings showing the utility of individual school based learning approaches to university experiential learning.

This contradiction points to non-exhaustive utilization of some of the school-based experiential learning approaches, possibly due to the limited amount of time. Regardless of the type and duration of school based experiential learning approach however, it is pertinent to note that they all potentially add value to the learning and, in shaping skills needed in the workplace. This is in line with the thinking of Dressler and Keeling (2004) that there are many benefits beyond the arena of the classroom for students who participate in such forward-thinking education programs, including personal, academic, work, and career related outcomes.

The bottom line then is that whereas school based learning serves the purpose of exposing students to essential knowledge and skills, the hospitality industry is a more practical oriented sector that requires a hybrid approach that brings together the traditional approach and other practical approaches. School based learning approach alone may not suit the practical rigors and real life nature of hospitality practice. Suffice it to say however, that school based learning is a complementary approach that highlights the relevant theoretical foundations.

5.2.2 Industry-based Learning and Perceived Competency of Hospitality Students

The second objective of the current study sought to determine the influence of industry based learning on perceived competency of hospitality management students. The study revealed that industry based learning in public universities in Kenya took the forms of industrial attachment, apprenticeship, practicum, and volunteering.

The study specifically revealed that industrial attachment was an enriching exercise that exposed students to real life experiences in activities such as front and back of the house services and front office among others. Results from a survey of students' perceptions on exposure to industrial attachment revealed that students perceived it positively with regards to applying theory to practice and being given orientation to the diverse functions that the hospitality industry undertakes. They specifically singled out ability to interact with people from all walks of life, teamwork, and interpersonal relationships as some of the skills gained during industrial attachment. Most of the students indicated that being attached in star rated hotels had exposed them to real life experiences in the hospitality sector.

These findings particularly coming from students lend credence to universities approach to industry based learning using student attachment. Evidence has shown that besides being an essential learning requirement (Bansal, Grover & Ashok, 2010), industrial attachment offers a platform of assimilating theory into practice and, comes across as a critical element of training required by employers (Matamande *et al.,* 2013).

Findings from student's narratives indicated that students were of the view that through industrial attachment for instance, they had gained skills in collaboration, networking and communication. Besides, they also developed participatory acumen in food preparation and service; not forgetting interpersonal relations with workmates. Students perceptions of industrial attachment were corroborated by results of the interviews held with lecturers and heads of department, which highlighted acquisition of industry specific hands on experiences as a key contribution of industrial attachment. These findings support the notion that

industrial attachment offers students a feeling of reality not like that experienced in the classroom setting, and with it comes desirable working skills (Yiu & Law, 2012).

The study further confirmed that besides industrial attachment, apprenticeship was also extensively employed under the industrial-based experiential learning approach. Some students noted that they had opportunities to act as chef under the tutelage of experienced chefs; get exposure to all departments; getting opportunities to work in management; and several other departments. This is in line with the definition advanced for apprenticeship in terms of a broader mix of learning undertaken in the workplace (apprenticeship frameworks online, 2013).

Another industry-based approach commonly employed to actualize university industry based experiential learning is practicum. Descriptive analysis results revealed that through practicum sessions, students were among others, able to apply their theory knowledge to work assignment; and were able to connect what they learned in class with their experiences. The finding that students' perceived practicum positively, adds to the growing theory which points at hands on training as the prelude to innovativeness in service industry. Indeed, previous studies have shown that industry based learning that takes the forms of practicum, exploits student's innovativeness and knowledge to handle real life issues (Austin & Rust, 2015; Jones, 2016). Austin and Rust (2015) posit that through industry based experiential learning; students are able to connect theory with practice. Chang and Chu (2009) argue that being a practical form of pedagogy, industry based learning is critical to acquisition of industry specific skills among students.

Volunteering was also noted to have been employed though minimally. Some students noted that they had been offering volunteer services in hospitality establishments. This is indeed a pointer to the desire to develop skills among hospitality graduates. Graham (2010) has for instance demonstrated that in addition to contributing towards economic gains, voluntary service helps to develop knowledge and skills that correspond to career progression.

Overall, the study confirmed that industry-based learning irrespective of the approach given is broadly used in universities to expose students to practical experiences. Results of interviews with lecturers and heads of department, which indicated that hands on experiences constitute the main contributions of industry based experiential learning, are in line with assertions by Zopiatis and Theocharous (2013) which associate industry based learning with acquisition of industry specific job experiences. Moreover they support views by Jones (2016) that, industry based training and particularly practicum, provides students with opportunities to showcase their skills in real life situations.

Results of the hypotheses tests confirmed that industry based learning positively and significantly influences perceived competency of hospitality management students. The implication of these findings is that experiential learning that takes the form of industry-based learning is an effective approach towards exposing learners to the requirements of the hospitality industry. Previous studies have highlighted the contributions that industry based learning plays in hospitality education (Austin & Rust, 2015; Chang & Chu, 2009; Jones, 2016).

The findings from the SEM analysis showing that industry based experiential learning positively and significantly influences perceived competency of hospitality management students, adds more knowledge to existing theory albeit, from a developing nations perspective. Seyitoglu and Yirik (2014) for instance pointed out that internship as an industry based learning approach develops competences such as communication, interpersonal skills and teamwork. The utility of industry-based learning continues to feature in several other documented studies. Gitaka (2013) argues that industry based training is a vital cog in acquisition of skills among novices. Gachoka (2015) also draws on the Kenyan experience to state that operational performance is a function of learning in a specific organization.

The moderate agreements, elicited by students to activities employed during industrial attachment, coupled with challenges of discrimination during industrial training reflect poorly on the implementation of the industrial attachment process. Various concerns have previously been raised with regards to the assessment of student trainees and techniques employed by both workplace and university supervisors resulting in assessment that is not competency based (Chinyemba & Brekerwa, 2012). Kamunzyu (2010) notes that, the hospitality industrial attachment programme is particularly under threat of compromised quality owing to the challenge of inadequate guidance and lack of support to student trainees from both the immediate on the job supervisors and their college supervisors. Such findings no doubt bring into question the practice of industrial training, and its capability to serve the purposes, which it is intended for. The current study therefore contributes further to this existing challenge and raises awareness to hospitality industry practitioners and educators on this particular challenge.

The descriptive analysis results confirmed that industry based learning exposed students to experiences such as application of theory to practice, and were given an orientation to the diverse hospitality practices undertaken in the industry. Besides, students were exposed to other soft skills such as collaboration, networking, and interpersonal skills.

The descriptive results were affirmed by results from content analysis of interviews held with lecturers and heads of department. It was established that universities often liaise with hotels and other establishment to provide training to their students. Through this arrangement, students were able to acquire and hone up industry-required skills. Moreover, when on industrial attachment, students were expected to learn from all major departments of the hotel in order to diversify skills in among others, housekeeping and food and beverage targeting both service and production. The SEM results indicated that industry-based learning was a significant predictor of perceived competency in hospitality practice positing a significant regression weight of 0.239 ($p = 0.020$).

5.2.3 Model-based Learning and Perceived Competency of Hospitality Students

The third objective of the current study examined the influence of model-based learning on perceived competency of hospitality management students. A descriptive analysis of students' responses revealed that they agreed that through model-based learning they acquired a diversity of job related skills. Among the skills acquired and identified via the focus group discussion were complementing theory based explicit knowledge with industry specific tacit knowledge and, honing up of industry specific soft skills. Interview results confirmed that most universities offering hospitality related courses were exposing learners to various skills by applying model based

learning approaches such as mentorship and coaching. SEM results confirmed that model based learning was a significant predictor of perceived competency of hospitality management students.

The finding showing that universities offering hospitality-oriented courses make use of the model based approach to learning, confirms that they recognize the importance of experiential learning in skills training which are realized through being assigned to mentors. Indeed attachment to mentors is credited with transition of knowledge, thinking and work skills (Norhasni & Aminuddin, 2012). In using mentorship, universities are indeed desirous of producing hospitality graduates who are well grounded in whatever tasks assigned, and who remain loyal to the employer. As a matter of fact, mentoring has been recognized as one of the most effective ways through which skills and knowledge are transferred quickly and which inspires loyalty among new employees (Norhasni & Aminuddin, 2012).

The nature of the work in the hospitality industry is such that development of hands-on industry specific skills is the sure way to ward off competition. This then implies that in using mentorship and role models, universities are aware that experts in the field have the resources to develop novice trainee graduates. This is consistent with the thinking of Anderson and Shannon (as cited in Norhasni & Aminuddin, 2012), who contend that mentoring involves a more experienced or skilled person nurturing a less experienced or skilled person. In this way, the less skilled person achieves personal and professional development.

It is necessary to also note that students pursuing hospitality-oriented courses are desirous of developing a career in it and look to maximize their potential. The finding showing that model based approaches like coaching and mentorship are

applied in training them is therefore a positive move for the theory and practice of hospitality management. Mentoring functions have clearly been associated with career development (Jyorti & Sharma, 2015). Moreover, both coaching and mentoring have been associated with improved performance of hotels (Austin & Rust, 2015).

Students have shown that career outcomes coming out of such healthy mentorship have often resulted in increased job satisfaction, organizational commitment, increased productivity and increased remunerations (Nick *et al.,* 2012). The argument then is that the finding showing that students were satisfied with opportunities provided during model based learning augers well with their training and future on job performance and longevity. Besides, they put the specific universities in the limelight with regards to nurturing hospitality practice skills. This is of particular importance owing to emerging concerns about the skills set in students graduating from public universities.

From factor analysis results, the study confirmed that visual modeling, role modeling and external mentorship approaches were the preferred model based learning approaches in public universities in Kenya. Through the descriptive analysis results, the study revealed that through model based learning; students were able to nurture hospitality skills by observing demonstrations and behaviour of their mentors. Moreover, they were able to conceptualize and verbalize abstract concepts. These descriptive results were supported by results drawn from focus group discussions, which clearly indicated that students were able to complement explicit knowledge gained in theory sessions with tacit knowledge gained through observations.

Moreover, in revealing that visual modeling was a common phenomenon in model-based experiential learning in the universities, the study confirms that the training of hospitality management is anchored in the ability to visualize and then put into practice. This is particularly so in the case of implicit soft skills which, are exhibited in a practical situation. In essence, therefore through visual modeling, model-based experiential learning can be credited with development of soft skills required for specific disciplines in hospitality practice.

Indeed, the finding that model based learning hones up soft skills reflects an emerging paradigm of whole youth development (WYD) which seeks to nurture life skills and socio-emotional skills alongside other core and academic skills among trainees (Ngware *et al.,* 2019). It is argued that acquisition of WYD skills is the route that can transition young people to the world of work and to enable them improve their socio-economic political wellbeing, and an infusion of values and healthy behaviour (Republic of Kenya, 2018). Consequently, model based real life activities such as reproduction of actions and behaviour of mentors; emulation of mentors and cross-academic interactions which, hospitality learners are exposed to under model-based learning, are therefore critical elements in their endeavor for whole youth development, and by extension their capacity to meet expected job requirements.

Evidence shows that use of role modeling is one way through which to actively involve trainees and to maintain their interest (Austin & Rust, 2015; Kolb, 2014). In this way, students learn from more knowledgeable other, and in so doing, improve soft skills required for the industry. Therefore the factor analysis showing that role modeling is among common approaches in model-based learning is an indication that students often model behaviour alongside peers and other external mentors and

reflects findings by Kim *et al.* (2015) which suggest that mentoring as a model based learning approach imparts psychosocial support which impacts positively on commitment towards the organizations.

Content analysis also revealed that model based learning that takes the form of external mentorship was viewed by the students as being critical to their acquisition of hands on skills. They stated that they were able to learn from guest lectures presented by the university and also shadow hotel managers from whom they learned. This is supported by Gillan *et al.* (2015) who agree that through model based learning, individuals are able to copy the way others perform their tasks. Moreover, Austin and Rust (2015) acknowledge that through model-based learning, students are encouraged to take control of the learning exercise by following others.

Results from interviews with lecturers and heads of department from the various universities revealed that as a way of using model-based approach to learning, students were often invited by hotels to assist with huge functions, and were asked to participate in cultural fares organized within the universities. They subsequently prepared menus and dishes from diverse cultures. The SEM results confirmed that model-based learning had a significant effect on perceived competency development with a significant regression weight of 0.186 ($p=0.044$).

5.2.4 Experiential Learning and Delivery Evaluation

The fourth, fifth and sixth objectives of the current study examined the influence of the three experiential learning dimensions, namely; school-based, industry-based and model-based learning, on delivery evaluation. The study therefore measured delivery evaluation through experiential learning. The study confirmed that delivery evaluation was mainly influenced by industry based training for which a unit

increase in industry based training accounts for 0.222 units in delivery evaluation (delivery evaluation (β= 0.222, p=0.009). The combined approaches accounted for 38% of the variance in delivery evaluation. School based learning and model based learning were however not significant predictors of delivery evaluation. The findings imply that in hospitality management training programme, industry based learning is the more effective experiential learning approach to influence instruction.

This finding is consistent with findings by Saner *et al.* (2016) which indicated that practical training gained in the real workplace is an antecedent to effective delivery of skills in the hospitality industry. Onyuna (2019) had similar findings, which revealed that industry based learning that encompasses practicum, internship and apprenticeship was a critical cog in the effective delivery of the hospitality programme. The finding also supports findings achieved from a study in five star hotels, which corroborated other studies by affirming that effective industry specific training was critical in the delivery of the practical component of the hospitality management programme (Khalaf *et al.,* 2016).

While we argue that industry based training was the main influencer of hospitality delivery evaluation, we cannot ignore the contributions of school based and model based experiential learning approaches. The study confirmed that the two had some degree of effect on delivery evaluation, even though, these effects were not statistically significant. Indeed, other scholars have documented the importance of these modes of experiential learning particularly under specific conditionality. Hsu *et al.* (2013) for instance, reported that school based learning which is oriented to programme delivery in hospitality and tourism practice albeit, in the Taiwanese context was a positive and significant determinant of delivery of the programme.

Brennen (2017) also weighed in the discourse on school based learning and delivery evaluation by noting that, students were of the opinion that school based learning laboratories were critical in delivery evaluation of hospitality practice.

Similar views have been shared concerning model based learning. Dolot (2017) for instance, observes that despite not being popular, coaching possesses the element of giving hospitality management training a practical orientation. Collins (2018) avers that mentorship inherent in model based learning provides, opportunities to sample a plethora of talent which exists in the work force. Liselott (2007) shares similar thoughts in pointing out that in spite of the perception of coaching drawing differences among management and employees; it provides an ideal framework for a practical oriented programme delivery.

5.2.5 Delivery Evaluation and Perceived Competency of Hospitality Students

The seventh objective of the current study sought to establish the influence of delivery evaluation on perceived competency of hospitality students. In the study, delivery evaluation of experiential learning approaches in selected universities in Kenya manifested in the form of learning, reaction and behavior. At the same time, competency of hospitality students was measured through ability, leadership, knowledge and adaptability. The descriptive analysis results confirmed that delivery of practical learning was done well and elicited desired outcomes in terms of skills and behaviour acquisition. This was reflected in perceptions of competency among students, which were corroborated by interview results, showing that the training had imparted required skills and students exuded confidence.

The study revealed that delivery evaluation had a positive and significant influence on perceived competency of hospitality students and explained up to 52% of the variance in perceived competency. This finding does confirm that, the manner in which the hospitality management experiential learning programme is delivered is critical to competency development among learners. The finding portends well for the hospitality programme in universities in Kenya going by the descriptive results of students.

The descriptive results indicated that students perceived themselves competent in among other skills; using the required equipment, technology, tools and information; respecting diversity; using internet based services, being positive towards change; and being clear and confident in speaking. These findings seem to suggest that delivery evaluation in hospitality management in public universities in Kenya is done in an effective way, and has the capacity to develop competency among students taking the hospitality course. The argument posited here is that training and development in the hospitality management follows the trajectory consistent with development of competencies that prepares students for expectations of the job market.

The finding that delivery evaluation in public universities in Kenya follows a trajectory that prepares students well for their job expectations is indeed a positive attribute. This clearly reflects institutions that value tenets of the hospitality industry job market and reflects previous researches. Valle et al. (as cited in Ackah & Agboyi, 2014) posit that quality of program delivery leads to acquisition of competencies required for the job market. Through delivery of quality, the learner is able to build his/her capabilities and become more skillful. Sadaf *et al.* (2014) add that, a well-

designed programme sets the direction of delivery, which is often aligned with skills management and improved performance.

The SEM results confirmed that experiential learning through delivery evaluation had a positive and significant effect on perceived competency in hospitality practice ($\beta = 0.316$, $p = 0.038$). The results, which indicated that delivery evaluation has a positive and significant influence on perceived competency of hospitality students, are consistent with a host of other studies. Nassazi (2013) for instance, demonstrated that delivery evaluation significantly affected employee performance. Similarly, Grensing-Pophal (2018) pointed out that delivery evaluation impacted significantly on employee performance by boosting their training and motivating them to be more productive. On the same note, Imran and Tanveer (2015) concluded that effective delivery of a programme had a direct effect on employee performance measured in terms of knowledge, motivation and functional skills. Other scholars have reported similar findings (Abulraheem-Salah, 2016; Owotunse, 2018).

Interview results particularly pointed out that delivery evaluation of experiential learning was assured by assigning individual tasks to students, and awarding marks after every session. This seemed to impact positively on their competency as determined by interview results on perceived competency. Most interview participants echoed the positive feedback received from the industries about students' competency.

5.2.6 Challenges and Opportunities of University Experiential Learning

The eighth and last objective of the current study sought to explore challenges and opportunities presented by experiential learning in public universities in Kenya. Through interviews conducted with lecturers and heads of department, a number of

challenges were identified in relation to the various approaches of experiential learning.

5.2.6.1 Challenges of School- based Learning

In the case of university school based learning, the study revealed that the main challenge was the capacity and colossal amounts required to buy materials in large numbers. Respondents observed that some of these materials required as much as Ksh400, 000. Another challenge cited is the sizes of the classes. Respondents noted with concerns that the large number of students was inhibitive since some students were denied an opportunity to handle materials and to be exposed to requisite 'hands-on' practice while in the lab. The untimely delivery of materials was also found to be an inhibiting factor experienced in university school based learning. The study revealed that bureaucratic procurement processes leads to untimely delivery of materials and this constrains proper delivery. Wear and tear of materials was also noted to be non-commensurate with replacement hence leading to a lack of modern teaching tools and equipment. Finally, insufficient time allocated for practical sessions was also highlighted among the challenges posed by university school based experiential learning. The university programme was found to be quite tight meaning that time allocated for practical learning was inadequate. These challenges reflect similar challenges identified by other studies, and which pointed towards insufficient time and facilities as major institutional based challenges to hospitality management training (Kifworo, 2016; Lugosi & Jameson, 2017).

5.2.6.2 Industry-based Learning Opportunities and Challenges

In the case of industry-based learning, the study highlighted several opportunities that were presented to students. They included; skills in collaboration and

networking; communicating with guests, active participation in the preparation and serving of various meals; developing interpersonal relations, adopting to diverse work environments; sharing experiences; and ability to move from theory to practice.

However, several challenges were highlighted by the study. It was revealed that the curriculum was not suited for the job market since most students had difficulties with expectations at the job place. Besides, elements of discrimination were noticed where students from institutions best known for hospitality training viewed themselves superior to those coming from public universities. It also emerged that some employers elicited a negative attitude towards some of the students on industrial training.

The findings which show that students were able to be exposed to a diversity of opportunities reflect other studies which have shown that through industrial training, students acquire valuable professional experience, are able to move from theory to practice and, are able to be more creative and innovative (Mhizha & Mandebvu, 2012; Shamim, 2013). Similarly, challenges showing elements of discrimination and negative attitude shown towards student trainees have featured in other studies. Mhizha and Mandebvu (2012) for instance, reported that students were occasionally subjected to sexual harassment and abuse during attachment. Nombeko (2017) delineates lack of enough assessment, attitude elicited by some co-workers and supervisors, and insufficient support from the academic institution among major challenges encountered during industry based learning.

5.2.6.3 Model-based Learning Opportunities

The study established a number of opportunities, which were presented to students through model, based experiential learning. Students were given opportunities to nurture skills, were able to verbalize abstract concepts, were able to assist and participate in functions organized by hotels in their localities, and were able to hold practical sessions in real establishments. These findings are consistent with others which have previously shown that model based learning is stimulating and involving (Austin & Rust, 2015; Kolb, 2014); gives students opportunities to move from theory to practice (Kolb, 2014); allows students to take control of the learning (Austin & Rust, 2015); and gives students opportunities to xerox what their role models do (Groenenduk *et al.*, 2015).

5.3 Conclusions

Based on the findings discussed in the preceding sections, the following conclusions were arrived at in line with the specific objectives.

University school based experiential learning plays a critical role in exposing hospitality management students to important theories under pinning the practice. Through this approach, students learn the concepts of housekeeping, and food and beverage production, which they carry out practically during lab sessions. The approach encourages students to work in groups in preparation of expectations in real establishment. Despite the important role played by this approach to experiential learning, the cost of materials, large class sizes and inadequate time limit affect delivery of practical sessions using the approach.

Industry based learning is the experiential learning approach that impacts greatly on perceived competency among students in universities in Kenya. The approach allows students to transcend from theory to practice in a real job setting; and allows them to develop soft skills such as teamwork, communication and interpersonal skills. Students elicited positive attitude towards industrial based learning noting that it made them have on the job experience they required. In spite of the effectiveness of the industry based experiential learning approach in imparting industry-specific skills, discriminatory tendencies and abuse of students on industrial attachment are highlighted.

Model based experiential learning also impacted positively on perceived competency in among students. This approach to experiential learning allowed students to verbalize abstract concepts and, in so doing complemented explicit knowledge acquired through theory sessions with tacit knowledge, that is industry specific. Use of mentorship and coaching strategies were particularly important in leading individual students in an otherwise crowded classroom scenario.

Experiential learning techniques had a cumulative impact on delivery evaluation that accounted for 38% of the variance in delivery evaluation measured via delivery evaluation. Despite this cumulative impact, in the context of hospitality management learning in universities, industrial based learning was the only one that had a significant effect on delivery evaluation. School based and model based experiential learning approaches had effects that were not significantly different from zero.

Delivery evaluation as depicted through delivery evaluation significantly affected perceived competency in hospitality practice. The nature of delivery evaluation was such that students perceived themselves competent in skills such as respect for

diversity, positivity towards change, use of technology, equipment, tools and information. Moreover, delivery evaluation evoked clarity and confidence among students undertaking the hospitality management training. In essence, therefore, training in hospitality management in universities in Kenya follows a trajectory that develops student competencies while preparing them for the job market.

University experiential learning provides a diversity of opportunities to students in terms of teamwork, networking and collaborative working, participation in real job training and moving from theory to practice. However, this kind of learning comes with several challenges particularly in terms of cost of requisite materials, untimely procurement of relevant materials, obsolete equipment, insufficient allocation of time for practical training and discrimination and abuse during industrial training.

5.4 Implications of the Study

The study postulated a conceptual model that proposed direct link between experiential learning and perceived competency of hospitality students, and an indirect link between the two constructs via delivery evaluation. Findings of the study were therefore bound to have various implications for theory and practice.

5.4.1 Theoretical Implications

The study was premised on various theories including Silva's management competency model, which is a logical template that builds management through a number of interdependent competencies. By finding that university experiential learning develops competencies such as self-confidence, group work, interpersonal skills, and communication skills, the study unequivocally complements Silva's model, which identifies trustworthiness, self-confidence, emotional awareness and behavioural awareness as a set of competencies, which define personal value and

self-image required at the work place. The current study therefore confirms that experiential learning is a vital tool for development of personal values and self-image in hospitality practice from a local university perspective.

Through industry based experiential learning, the study affirms that students are able to acquire competencies of teamwork, practical orientation, interpersonal relationships, collaboration and networking. These competencies clearly fit in the second category of Silva's model and reflect capacity to make realistic self-assessment, awareness of current job trends, and job experience. The implication here is that universities in Kenya have taken cognizance of the changing trends in the job market and as a response; they have endeavored to expose students to skills that build knowledge, ability and expertise as reflected in Silva's model. Discourse on Silva's model should integrate networking and teamwork that are fast emerging trends in hospitality practice.

In finding that university experiential learning impacts positively on perceived competency of hospitality students, the study contributes to Kolb's (1984) theory albeit, from a university perspective. Consistent with Kolb's second stage, the model based experiential learning provided a framework upon which students were able to reflect what was observed, feelings experienced and challenges faced. Focus group discussions with groups of students clearly underscored the importance of model-based learning which allowed them to observe how employees and other hospitality industry stakeholders went about performing their tasks and hoping to learn from them. In this way, students were able to verbalize abstract concepts in line with the third stage of experiential learning as proposed by Kolb. The implication of such findings is that Kolb's theory provides the springboard upon which model based

experiential learning in universities can be underpinned as was the case in the current study.

The study findings support the tenets of the social learning theory in confirming that university experiential learning is a complementary approach for learning particularly in development of soft skills. In this way, the study contributes to the discourse on whole youth development (WYD) which has gained increasing attention in the last two decades as observed by Sun & Shek (2010). Seen as a holistic youth development approach, WYD has been recognized as having the capacity to complement academic and technical skills with emotional and non-cognitive social skills that enable students to succeed in diverse settings (Dawon, 2004). Consequently, by pointing out that university experiential learning, especially through the model based approach, exposes students to opportunities to observe, imitate and model from experts, the study enriches the social learning theory and brings on board the need for WYD in hospitality training.

Moreover, the finding showing that delivery evaluation which had an overall acceptance mean of 4.11 impacted positively on competency development lend credence to the Kirch Patricks four level evaluation model. According to this model, delivery of programs is evaluated in terms of the reaction, acquired knowledge, behaviour change and training outcomes. From the study findings it was apparent that students pursuing hospitality management reacted well towards the universities experiential learning programme; acquired the desired competencies; were able to model their behaviour alongside their role models, and had expertise in their on the job outputs. Theory-wise, it can be argued that through the findings of the study, KirkPatricks model is vindicated and also strengthened.

5.4.2 Implications for Practice

The study provides Hospitality Management an opportunity to identify the power of experiential learning in competency development in practical oriented courses such as hospitality management. On the basis of the study findings, universities in Kenya may find it prudent to strengthen the use of industry based and model based experiential learning in hospitality management training. This however requires the complementary role played by school based experiential learning. It must be recognized that this complementary use of approaches integrates explicit and tacit knowledge competencies. Universities therefore need to establish mechanisms through which they can entrench these approaches.

The study also reinforces the fact that experiential learning is an important factor in delivery evaluation. Various practices employed in the three experiential learning approaches were delineated. Following such findings, university educators and stakeholders should identify and enhance use of other mechanisms through which delivery evaluation can be enhanced. Moreover, the 38% of variance accounted for in delivery evaluation by the three university experiential learning approaches implies that practices that could be in the approaches have not been exhausted. In showing that experiential learning has both direct and indirect influence on perceived competency, the study offers university stakeholders alternative avenues through which to target competency development among students.

A major contribution that the study makes, and which represents the researchers thesis is that delivery evaluation mediates the relationships between experiential learning and perceived competency in hospitality practice. This should be taken seriously by universities. Indeed, it can be argued that the delivery of practical

lessons is a critical cog in the desire to develop competencies. The study therefore affirms that it is not only how much students are exposed to experiential learning that leads to competency development but also how the practical class is delivered. It is therefore necessary that universities exploit experiential learning for improved delivery evaluation which may in turn translate into higher perceptions of competency development.

5.5 Recommendations of the Study

In view of the conclusions drawn, the following recommendations for practice and future studies were made.

5.5.1 Recommendations for Practice

Despite exposing students to important competencies in housekeeping and food and beverage production, school based experiential learning did not impact significantly on perceived competency of the students. The researcher recommends that universities should invest in school based experiential learning by procuring the required modern equipment and materials to realize the students' skill needs. Moreover, delivery of required materials should be prompt in order to expedite training. Universities should also look for ways in which to handle manageable class sizes, and balance time set for theory and practical sessions in order to expose students more to practical sessions.

Practices used under the industry-based learning should be enhanced to maximize students' competencies. However, university management and curriculum developers should seek to develop the hospitality management course to tally with industry expectations. In addition, universities ought to hold talks with industry players to

address discrimination and abuse of students out on industrial attachment. This also calls for faculty to monitor and visit students more regularly.

In the event that class sizes are too big to handle, the researcher recommends that the model-based approach to experiential learning should be enhanced. Faculty should come up with mentors and coaches who are assigned to groups of students in order to enhance contact hours.

Rather than relate experiential learning to perceived competency of students directly, universities should seek to impact delivery evaluation through experiential learning, which would then have a more telling impact on perceived competency of the students. Universities should not aim at student competencies at the expense of delivery evaluation.

5.5.1 Study's Contribution to Knowledge

A significant contribution is that delivery evaluation mediates the relationships between university experiential learning and perceived competency of hospitality management students. Therefore, delivery evaluation needs to be taken into consideration by stakeholders of higher learning because it is a critical cog in the desire to develop competencies. The study therefore affirms that it is not only how much students are exposed to experiential learning that leads to competency development but also how well the hospitality management practicals are delivered.

The credibility of experiential learning dimensions which included school-based, industry-based and model-based learning and which were the exogenous variables; delivery evaluation which served as both exogenous and endogenous variable; and perceived competency of hospitality management students which was the

endogenous variable; were empirically tested. The relationships identified make contribution to literature given the scarcity of similar studies that link such concepts and the lack of similar studies in Kenyan universities.

The questionnaire, modified and adapted in this study was unidimensional and reliable hence, development of the experiential learning measurement instrument contributes to knowledge and allows future researchers to adopt and apply the instrument to similar studies.

In addition, the constructs developed in the exploratory factor analysis contribute to knowledge and can be used by future researchers. School-based learning can be measured using four factors namely; group work, food and beverage lab, field trips and housekeeping lab. Industry-based learning can be measured using four factors namely; industrial attachment, apprenticeship, practicum, and volunteering. Model-based learning can be measured using three factors namely; visual modeling, role modeling and external mentorship. Delivery evaluation can be measured by three factors, namely; learning, reaction and behavior. Lastly, perceived competency can be measured using four factors namely; adaptability, ability, knowledge and leadership.

Finally, a structural model in the context of experiential learning was developed from the triangulation of theories applied in the study which showed the interdependence of the variables in achieving hospitality competency. The Silva's Management Competency Model contributed three indicators to competency variable, Kolb's Experiential Learning Style Theory supported school based and industry-based learning dimensions of experiential learning, Bandura's Social Learning Theory

supported model-based learning dimension while Kirkpatricks' Four–Level Training Evaluation Model contributed to delivery evaluation variable with three indicators.

5.5.2 Recommendations for Future Research

Considering that the current study revealed a somehow lukewarm relationship between students and some supervisors during industrial attachment, it is imperative to take cognizance of the role that supervisors play in competency development. Future studies need to consider examining the mediating influence of leader-member exchange in the relationship between experiential learning and competency development.

The study employed the delivery evaluation as an endogenous variable. However, direct effects of experiential learning on delivery evaluation may not account for much in terms of perceived competency of hospitality students. Future studies investigating competencies in the hospitality industry should consider employing delivery evaluation as a moderator of the relationship between experiential learning and perceived competency of the students.

Since the main finding of the study was that experiential learning was a crucial cog in delivery evaluation accounting for up to 38% of the variance in delivery evaluation and linking up with delivery evaluation to determine perceived competency explaining up to 52% of the variance in perceived competency of the students, future studies should look at the factors that constitute the remaining 48%.

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APPENDICES

Appendix I: Questionnaire for Students

Dear Student,

I am a student, currently pursuing a **Doctorate degree in Hospitality Management** at the School of Tourism, Hospitality and Events Management of Moi University, Kenya. I am carrying out a field study on "***Experiential Learning and Delivery Evaluation as Antecedents of Perceived Competency of Hospitality Management Students in selected universities in Kenya".*** Any information you give is purely for academic purposes and will be handled with utmost confidentiality. You will notice that you are not asked to include your name or address anywhere on the questionnaire. Your contribution, participation and cooperation will be highly appreciated.

Thank you for your co-operation.

Yours sincerely,

Alberta Akinyi Onyuna.

Please tick or fill in the blank spaces as appropriate

Section A: Personal Information

1. Age. Below 20 yrs ☐ 21-25 yrs ☐ 26-30 yrs ☐ Above 30 yrs ☐

2. Your Gender: Please tick. Male ☐ Female ☐

3. Marital Status. Married ☐ Single ☐ Widowed ☐ Divorced ☐ Separated ☐

4. Which admission criteria are you? Government sponsored ☐ Parallel ☐

5. Who influenced your decision to choose the program?

Self ☐ Parents ☐ Guardian ☐ High school ☐ Family ☐

Grades scored ☐ Friend ☐ Government placement ☐

Specify any other _____

6. Circle the university you are in:

1. Maasai Mara 2. Kenyatta 3. Technical Mombasa 4. USIU 5. Baraton 6. Maseno

Section B: School Based Learning

7. Please tick the extent to which you agree with the following statements pertaining to school-based leaning as a student on a scale of 5-1 where 5=Strongly agree (SA); 4=Agree (A); 3=Moderately Agree (MA); 2=Disagree (D) and 1=Strongly Disagree (SD)

	STATEMENT	**SA**	**A**	**MA**	**D**	**SD**
	Lab Work – *Housekeeping*					
B1	I learnt how to make beds from the practical classes	5	4	3	2	1
B2	I practically learnt to clean guest toilets and bathrooms	5	4	3	2	1
B3	I know how to clean different types of floor	5	4	3	2	1
B4	I am able to remove stains from different fabric and surfaces	5	4	3	2	1
B5	I can operate a washing machine, dryer and calendar iron	5	4	3	2	1
	Service and Banqueting					
B6	I can set tables for all types of meals	5	4	3	2	1
B7	I am able to fold napkins using different folds and materials	5	4	3	2	1
B8	I can serve hot and cold beverages professionally	5	4	3	2	1
B9	I know how to open and serve different wines	5	4	3	2	1
B10	I can mix different cocktails and mocktails	5	4	3	2	1

B11	I learnt how to design menus	5	4	3	2	1
B12	I can practically match different foods with alcoholic drinks	5	4	3	2	1
B13	I am able to handle a tray professionally	5	4	3	2	1
B14	I can clear and carry about eight plates at one go	5	4	3	2	1
B15	I learnt to conduct successful meetings in a professional manner	5	4	3	2	1
B16	I learnt to manage different events	5	4	3	2	1
	Production					
B17	I learnt how to cut different shapes of food	5	4	3	2	1
B18	I am able to do live cooking when called upon	5	4	3	2	1
B19	I can undertake mise en place independently without supervision	5	4	3	2	1
B20	I am able to make pastries and bake well	5	4	3	2	1
B21	I am able to cook a variety of food in the hot kitchen	5	4	3	2	1
B22	I am able to use different hand tools and production equipment	5	4	3	2	1
	Front Office					
B23	I can comfortably handle different type of guests	5	4	3	2	1
B24	I can undertake reservations, check-in and check-out guests	5	4	3	2	1
	Others					
B25	I learnt computer packages such as word. Excel, powerpoint	5	4	3	2	1
B26	I am able to store and retrieve information	5	4	3	2	1
B27	I have experimented management activities like marketing and sales	5	4	3	2	1
	Group work					
B28	I can collaborate with classmates as a group	5	4	3	2	1

B29	I have participated as a group leader and taken group responsibility	5	4	3	2	1
B30	I am able to take instructions from my peers with no offence	5	4	3	2	1
B31	I have undertaken and participated in group assignment	5	4	3	2	1
B32	I have been a member and participated in group discussions	5	4	3	2	1
B33	I have been involved in successful debates	5	4	3	2	1
B34	I have hands on procurement procedures and store management	5	4	3	2	1
	Research and Project work					
B35	I can analyse data using SPSS or any other analysis tool	5	4	3	2	1
B36	I learnt to inquire and use discovery approach on tasks assigned	5	4	3	2	1
B37	I can review literature on any areas required	5	4	3	2	1
B38	I am able to collect data on specified topics	5	4	3	2	1
B39	I can analyse data collected from research and present results	5	4	3	2	1
B40	I am able to construct investigative activities	5	4	3	2	1
B41	I can use problems to create solutions	5	4	3	2	1
B42	I am able to use case studies	5	4	3	2	1
B43	I learnt how to apply knowledge in real life situations	5	4	3	2	1
B44	I can contextualize problems by creating real life scenerios	5	4	3	2	1
	Field Trips					
B45	Field trip activities support classroom lessons taught	5	4	3	2	1
B46	I apply knowledge learned in field trips	5	4	3	2	1
B47	I do not forget aspects learnt during field trips	5	4	3	2	1
B48	My attitude towards courses was changed by field trips	5	4	3	2	1
B49	I learn from observations made on how employees work in hotels	5	4	3	2	1

Section C: Industry-Based Learning

8. Please tick the extent to which you agree with the following statements pertaining to industry-based learning during industrial attachment, practicum, part-timer or volunteer as a student on a scale of 5-1 where 5=Strongly Agree (SA); 4=Agree (A); 3=Moderately Agree (MA); 2=Disagree (D) and 1=Strongly Disagree (SD)

	STATEMENT	**SA**	**A**	**MA**	**D**	**SD**
C1	I have sufficient on-job training – AP	5	4	3	2	1
C2	I was exposed to front of the house services – IA	5	4	3	2	1
C3	I experienced back of the house activities and services IA	5	4	3	2	1
C4	I experienced leadership responsibilities while in attachment – IA	5	4	3	2	1
C5	I participated in meetings –IA	5	4	3	2	1
C6	I participated in planning seminars & meetings while in attachment – IA	5	4	3	2	1
C7	I engaged in marketing and sales activities – IA	5	4	3	2	1
C8	I undertook work tasks assigned with good guidance – IA	5	4	3	2	1
C9	I applied my education to work assignments during attachment – IA	5	4	3	2	1
C10	Trainers were approachable – PR	5	4	3	2	1
C11	I found industry work very challenging – AP	5	4	3	2	1
C12	I had experience in accounting functions during my attachment – IA	5	4	3	2	1
C13	I was exposed to all departments during attachment – IA	5	4	3	2	1
C14	I used a logbook which helped in daily reflections IA	5	4	3	2	1

C15	I was able to connect what I learn in class to what I experienced – AP	5	4	3	2	1
C16	I had hands-on experience in technological aspects – IA	5	4	3	2	1
C17	I have been working as a volunteer in hospitality establishments – V	5	4	3	2	1
C18	I had an opportunity to work in management – IA	5	4	3	2	1
C19	I offer myself to assist in university functions – V	5	4	3	2	1
C20	I gained experience in participating in student functions & activities – PR	5	4	3	2	1
C21	I have worked as a part-time employee while a student – AP	5	4	3	2	1
C22	I received professional preparation coordinated by university - PR	5	4	3	2	1
C23	I was able to meet learning targets in the internship period – AP	5	4	3	2	1
C24	I got front office experience while in attachment – IA	5	4	3	2	1
C25	I was exposed to housekeeping operations during attachment IA	5	4	3	2	1
C26	I managed to act as a chef in the hot kitchen during attachment – IA	5	4	3	2	1
C27	I experienced the pastry section and baked/made snacks on my own – AP	5	4	3	2	1
C28	I received, ordered and managed store operations – IA	5	4	3	2	1
C29	As a part time employee, I am not confined to one work area - AP					
C30	I served hot, cold and alcoholic beverages and drinks – IA	5	4	3	2	1
C31	I checked in and checked out guests alone – IA	5	4	3	2	1

C32	When I volunteer to work, am exposed to different hospitality aspects-V	5	4	3	2	1

Section D: Model-Based Learning

9. Please tick the extent to which you agree with the following statements pertaining to model-based learning as a student on a scale of 5-1 where 5=Strongly agree (SA); 4=Agree (A); 3=Moderately Agree (MA); 2=Disagree (D) and 1=Strongly Disagree (SD)

	STATEMENT	**SA**	**A**	**MA**	**D**	**SD**
	Mentor Modeling					
D1	I pay attention to actions and behavior of role models	5	4	3	2	1
D2	I retain images on acts that I see of people around me	5	4	3	2	1
D3	I reproduce what I see from role models	5	4	3	2	1
D4	I am motivated to reproduce behavior that I observe	5	4	3	2	1
D5	I learn from focusing on weak models	5	4	3	2	1
D6	I learn better from good models	5	4	3	2	1
D7	I practice what I observe around the university	5	4	3	2	1
D8	I learnt from a guest lecture presented by a university visitor	5	4	3	2	1
D9	Interacting with customers has helped me learn from them	5	4	3	2	1
D10	Observing skilled models lead to improved performance	5	4	3	2	1
D11	I have had an opportunity to shadow a manager which I learnt from	5	4	3	2	1
D12	Use of experts as models help learning	5	4	3	2	1
D13	Lecturers actions serve as a teaching aid	5	4	3	2	1
D14	I emulate lecturers way of doing things whether	5	4	3	2	1

positive or negative

Peer Modeling

D15	Interactions with cross-academic years influence my learning	5	4	3	2	1
D16	I learn from alumni as models by observing what they do	5	4	3	2	1
D17	I learn from my peers when we are grouped together	5	4	3	2	1
D18	Pairing junior and senior students help share expertise	5	4	3	2	1
D19	I learn from activities undertaken by students	5	4	3	2	1

Visual Modeling

D20	I learn from presentations made	5	4	3	2	1
D21	Diagrams help me learn concepts better	5	4	3	2	1
D22	Videos played enhance learning and are easy to remember	5	4	3	2	1
D23	I have learnt through paying attention to demonstrations	5	4	3	2	1
D24	I learn a lot by watching people	5	4	3	2	1
D25	I learn from verbal instructional cues made	5	4	3	2	1
D26	I learn from non-verbal instructions	5	4	3	2	1
D27	I have learnt new skills through observation	5	4	3	2	1
D28	I have developed routines using observation	5	4	3	2	1
D29	I was able to follow detailed procedures and processes demonstrated	5	4	3	2	1
D30	I can verbally express most demonstrations made by instructors	5	4	3	2	1
D31	I use observations to understand how to get psyched up	5	4	3	2	1

	Symbolic Modeling					
D32	I am motivated to reproduce pictures displayed in the lab					
D33	Charts and drawings enhance my learning	5	4	3	2	1
D34	I learn from observing images of what I am expected to do	5	4	3	2	1
D35	Pictures used and those I come across help me conceptualize	5	4	3	2	1
D36	I become creative by looking at images done by professionals	5	4	3	2	1
D37	I retain practical aspects displayed in image form	5	4	3	2	1

Section E: Delivery Evaluation of Practical learning

10. Please tick the extent to which you agree with the following statements pertaining to delivery evaluation of the practical learning as a student on a scale of 5-1 where 5=Strongly agree (SA); 4=Agree (A); 3=Moderately Agree (MA); 2=Disagree (D) and 1=Strongly Disagree (SD)

	STATEMENT	**SA**	**A**	**MA**	**D**	**SD**
	Reaction					
E1	The practicals were worth the time taken	5	4	3	2	1
E2	Conducting of practicals was successful	5	4	3	2	1
E3	The place where practicals were held was good and conducive	5	4	3	2	1
E4	Delivery of the practical elements was well done	5	4	3	2	1
E5	The practicals were worthwhile	5	4	3	2	1
E6	Practicals were supported by adequate resources	5	4	3	2	1
E7	Instructors delivered the courses well	5	4	3	2	1
E8	The number of students was manageable	5	4	3	2	1

E9	Ingredients for food production were of variety and available	5	4	3	2	1
E11	The space for undertaking practicals was adequate	5	4	3	2	1
E12	Equipment were good, adequate and useful	5	4	3	2	1
E13	Facilities available for training were adequate and appropriate	5	4	3	2	1
E14	Time allocated for practicals was adequate and well utilized	5	4	3	2	1
	Behaviour					
E15	I am able to use what I learnt	5	4	3	2	1
E16	I am able to teach others what I learnt	5	4	3	2	1
E17	The training changed my behavior	5	4	3	2	1
E18	I recommend practicals to others	5	4	3	2	1
E19	I contributed constructively during the praticals	5	4	3	2	1
	Results					
E20	I am able to reduce wastage and minimize costs	5	4	3	2	1
E21	I am able to produce more	5	4	3	2	1
E22	I feel that I achieved the learning outcomes	5	4	3	2	1
	Learning					
E23	Instructors were knowledgeable about the subject areas	5	4	3	2	1
E24	Instructors demonstrated skills required	5	4	3	2	1
E25	Instructors stimulated my interest in practicals	5	4	3	2	1
E26	Instructors were organized and well prepared for the courses	5	4	3	2	1
E27	Instructors encouraged discussion and input	5	4	3	2	1

E28	Instructors demonstrated in-depth skills in the subject area	5	4	3	2	1
E29	Instructors were enthusiastic and showed interest in practicals	5	4	3	2	1
E30	Instructors challenged students to do their best	5	4	3	2	1
E31	The instructors were accessible outside the lab	5	4	3	2	1
E32	Instructors ensured that all students participated	5	4	3	2	1
E33	Lecturers showed genuine concern for the students	5	4	3	2	1

Section F: Perceived Competence of Hospitality Management students

11. Please tick the extent to which you agree with the following statements pertaining to perceived competence acquired in hospitality practice from practical learning as a student on a scale of 5-1 where 5=Strongly agree (SA); 4=Agree (A); 3=Moderately Agree (MA); 2=Disagree (D) and 1=Strongly Disagree (SD)

	STATEMENT	**SA**	**A**	**MA**	**D**	**SD**
F1	I speak with clarity and confidence	5	4	3	2	1
F2	I write what I have learnt clearly and concisely	5	4	3	2	1
F3	I can make effective presentations	5	4	3	2	1
F4	I exhibit good questioning skills	5	4	3	2	1
F5	I evaluate situations effectively	5	4	3	2	1
F6	I am able to solve problems	5	4	3	2	1
F7	I am able to identify and suggest new ideas	5	4	3	2	1
F8	I am accountable for my actions	5	4	3	2	1
F9	I possess honesty, integrity and personal ethics	5	4	3	2	1
F10	I take initiative	5	4	3	2	1
F11	I have a positive attitude towards change	5	4	3	2	1

F12	I work effectively with others	5	4	3	2	1
F13	I am flexible and adaptable	5	4	3	2	1
F14	I can function well on multidisciplinary teams	5	4	3	2	1
F15	I am able to give direction, guidance and training	5	4	3	2	1
F16	I can manage conflict effectively	5	4	3	2	1
F17	I respect diversity	5	4	3	2	1
F18	I understand my emotions and emotions of others	5	4	3	2	1
F19	I have the ability to take the perspective of others	5	4	3	2	1
F20	I can manage resources effectively	5	4	3	2	1
F21	I am able to make decisions and take a stand on issues	5	4	3	2	1
F22	I am able to give constructive feedback	5	4	3	2	1
F23	I am able to develop leadership in others	5	4	3	2	1
F24	I am able to lead people	5	4	3	2	1
F25	I am able to assess, store and retrieve information from a computer	5	4	3	2	1
F26	I am able to use internet-based services	5	4	3	2	1
F27	I can set goals and priorities	5	4	3	2	1
F28	I can manage several tasks at once	5	4	3	2	1
F29	I allocate time to meet deadlines	5	4	3	2	1
F30	I can use technology, tools, instruments, equipment and information	5	4	3	2	1
F31	I am able to design and deliver processes	5	4	3	2	1
F32	I can analyse and interpret data efficiently	5	4	3	2	1
F33	I control my emotions and can help bring down peoples' emotions	5	4	3	2	1
F34	I believe I can produce quality work	5	4	3	2	1
F35	I understand and can use technology for the hospitality	5	4	3	2	1

	industry					
F36	I am able to lead others effectively	5	4	3	2	1
F37	I am able to do whatever is required in the housekeeping department	5	4	3	2	1
F38	I can be able to demonstrate skills for the service department	5	4	3	2	1
F39	I have skills that can be used in the kitchen	5	4	3	2	1
F40	I am able to plan and organize departmental activities	5	4	3	2	1
F41	I am able to analyze a market and innovate a product	5	4	3	2	1
F42	I can critically think about a situation and make suggestions	5	4	3	2	1

12. Do you think you are competent for the industry? Yes or No

END OF QUESTIONNAIRE

Thank you for taking your time to fill in the questionnaire

Appendix II: Focus Group Discussion Schedule

1. Describe the areas of practicals undertaken over the four year program, period of the practicals, effectiveness and the skills / knowledge and abilities acquired from the practical sessions
2. Explain the type of establishments for industrial attachment, academic year, departments attached, period in department, experience, skills, knowledge and abilities acquired.
3. Explain work-related experience you have had while a student e.g. part-time, volunteer, within the university, the period, actual work done and the competencies acquired
4. Where did you go for your field trips in each year, the period, its educational value and skills, knowledge and abilities acquired?
5. What activities have you observed as students that have helped you learn and enhance skills, knowledge or abilities?
6. Any comments pertaining to the delivery of practical courses
7. Suggest or recommend ways to improve delivery of practical courses

Appendix III: Interview Schedule for Lecturers and Heads of department

INTRODUCTION

My name is Alberta Akinyi Onyuna, a student pursuing a Doctorate degree in Hospitality Management at Moi University, Kenya. Currently, I am undertaking a research study entitled: *"**Experiential Learning and Delivery Evaluation as Antecedents of Perceived Competency of Hospitality Management Students in selected universities in Kenya",*** in partial fulfillment of the study programme. This study is expected to yield information that will be useful for the improvement of hospitality management curriculum. The study is being conducted for academic purposes. Therefore, the information you provide will solely be used for academic purposes of this study and treated in the strictest confidence. You have been identified as a key informant and are kindly asked to participate freely.

1. What challenges do you face in teaching practical courses?
2. How can practicals be improved so that skills are well developed
3. How do you ensure student participation in the practicals?
4. How do you evaluate and assess practical learning to ensure students have learnt?
5. How are industrial attachment organized?
6. Do you think students learn from industrial attachment?
7. Are students seen as a threat in the industry?
8. What feedback do you get from the industry about your students?
9. How are field trips managed and executed?
10. Do you organize for guest lectures?
11. What competencies do you think your students have gained from practicals?
12. What do you think universities can do to enhance learner competence?
13. Do you think the resources for practicals are adequate?

Appendix IV: Observation Schedule

1. Facilities: State, capacity, space
2. Equipment: availability, state, suitability for training
3. Training sessions: planning and execution; time, inputs, students participation and interest
4. Trainers: role of instructor, preparedness, instructions and delivery

Appendix V: NACOSTI AUTHORIZATION LETTER

NATIONAL COMMISSION FOR SCIENCE, TECHNOLOGY AND INNOVATION

Telephone:+254-20-2213471,
2241349,3310571,2219420
Fax:+254-20-318245,318249
Email: dg@nacosti.go.ke
Website : www.nacosti.go.ke
When replying please quote

NACOSTI, Upper Kabete
Off Waiyaki Way
P.O. Box 30623-00100
NAIROBI-KENYA

Ref: No. **NACOSTI/P/18/71185/26606** Date: **27th November, 2018**

Alberta Akinyi Onyuna
Moi University
P.O Box 3900-30100
ELDORET

RE: RESEARCH AUTHORIZATION

Following your application for authority to carry out research on ***"University experiential learning and delivery evaluation as antecedents for perceived competence in hospitality practice in Kenya"*** I am pleased to inform you that you have been authorized to undertake research in **selected Counties** for the period ending **26th November, 2019.**

You are advised to report to **the County Commissioners and the County Directors of Education of the selected Counties** before embarking on the research project.

Kindly note that, as an applicant who has been licensed under the Science, Technology and Innovation Act, 2013 to conduct research in Kenya, you shall deposit **a copy** of the final research report to the Commission within **one year** of completion. The soft copy of the same should be submitted through the Online Research Information System.

DR. STEPHEN K. KIBIRU, PhD.
FOR: DIRECTOR-GENERAL/CEO

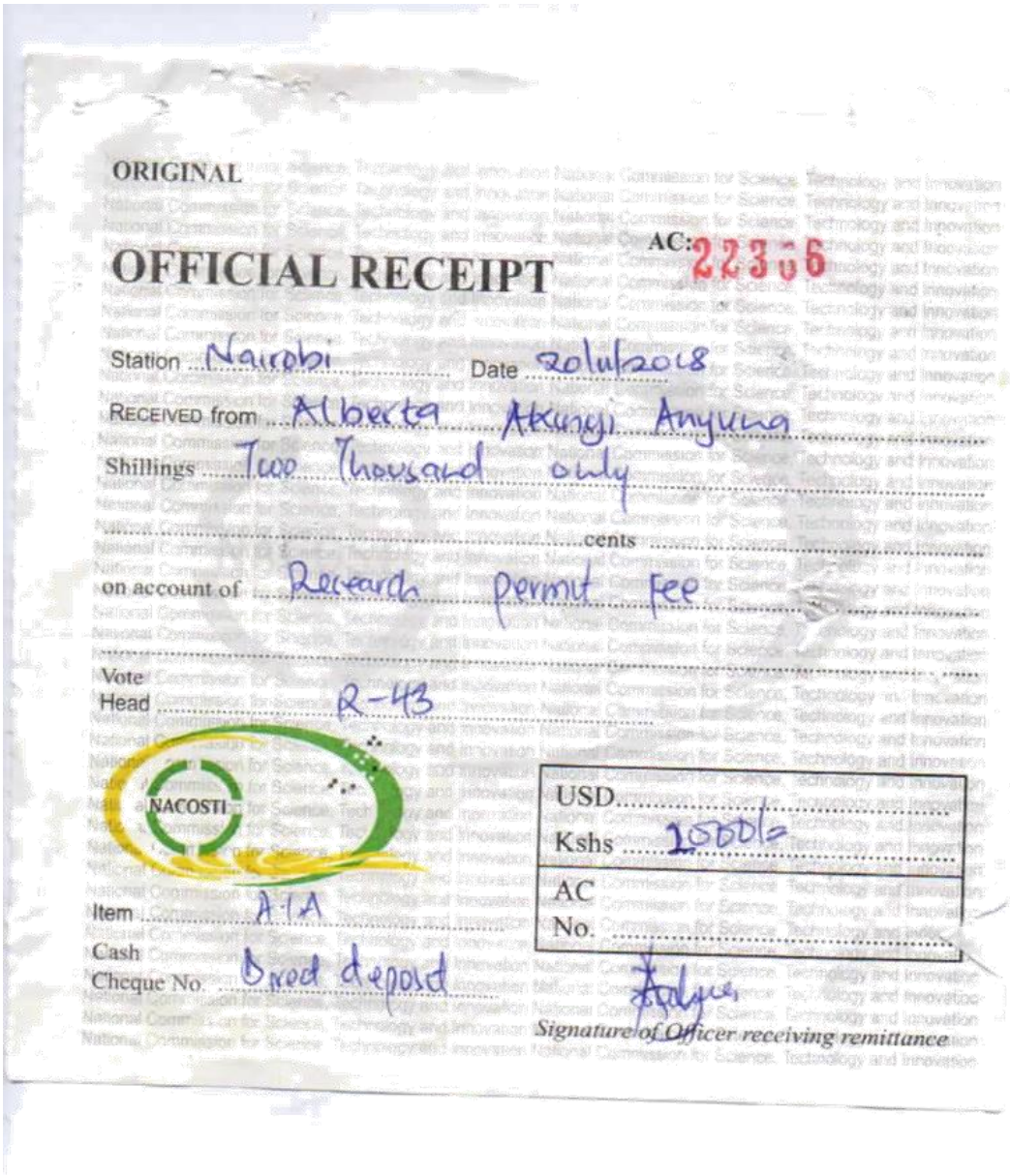
Appendix VII:

Copy to:

The County Commissioners
Selected Counties.

The County Directors of Education
Selected Counties.

Appendix VI: NACOSTI RECEIPT



ORIGINAL

OFFICIAL RECEIPT AC: 22356

Station Nairobi Date 20/6/2018

RECEIVED from Alberta Akungi Anyuna

Shillings Two Thousand only

cents

on account of Research permit fee

Vote Head R-43

NACOSTI

Item A-1A

Cash

Cheque No Direct deposit

USD

Kshs 2000/=

AC No.

Signature of Officer receiving remittance

Appendix V11 : Letter of Recommendation from Moi University

MOI UNIVERSITY

ISO 9001:2008 Certified Institution

SCHOOL OF TOURISM, HOSPITALITY & EVENTS MANAGEMENT

Telephone: 0771-296270/0790850990
Fax: (053) 43047
E-mail: deansthe@mu.ac.ke

Box 3900
ELDORET
Kenya

Ref: MU/STHE/SGS/23

25th October, 2018

TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN

Dear Sir/Madam,

RE: RECOMMENDATION LETTER FOR ALBERTA ONYUNA NDAR – STHE/DPHIL/H/01/17

The above named is a bonafide student of Moi University, School of Tourism, Hospitality and Events Management. She is pursuing a Doctor of Philosophy in Hospitality Management degree in the Department of Hotel and Hospitality Management.

She has successfully completed her course work and has defended her proposal titled **"University experiential learning and delivery evaluation as antecedents for perceived competence in hospitality practice in Kenya".** Ms. Ndar has been allowed to proceed to the field for data collection.

Any assistance accorded to her will be appreciated.

Yours faithfully,

DEAN
SCHOOL OF TOURISM, HOSPITALITY & EVENTS MANAGEMENT
MOI UNIVERSITY

PROF. DAMIANNAH KIETI
DEAN, SCHOOL OF TOURISM, HOSPITALITY & EVENTS MANAGEMENT

Appendix V11I: Plagiarism Report