A STUDY OF THE CAREER PATTERNS OF CHEFS IN MALAYSIA

By

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A thesis submitted in fulfilment of the requirements for the award of the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy

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SUMMARY

This study is concerned with the career paths of culinary workers in Malaysia. It traces the career stages of progression from the position of an apprentice and move up to the management work as an Executive Chef. The purpose of this study was to discover the career pattern of chefs and to identify the main influences on the character of such careers. The study uses demographics, skills, experience, education in its search.

The study has two main objectives which are: to measure the career paths of culinary workers in Malaysia and to analyse how they accumulated their skills. To this end the study used a questionnaire which was constructed from two distinct techniques. These were, work biographies and a skill template devised by experts.

Questionnaires were distributed to chefs across Malaysia. The sample size was 286. A two-sample structure was adopted to examine the effect on careers of those who started with culinary education and those entirely through experience. The proportions are 128 educated and 158 non-educated. The principal findings were that chefs who had built their careers from a foundation in education had an advantage over those who accumulated their skills entirely through experience. However, once the position of Chef de Partie had been achieved the advantage was no longer apparent. The study looks within its samples a small group of subject who did not have ambition.

Perhaps the most interesting finding was that the learning process was fairly random. Although the skill levels suggested by the experts were broadly confirmed, the actual
sequence of skill accumulation showed the kind of randomness associated with labour market behaviour. It is possible to suggest that the learning process is very closely related to the needs of the industry because skills patterns are displays the same variability of consumer markets. Taken overall the data suggests that education and industry are quite close.

The study also found that chefs posses various motivations which are linked to their original vocations choices and to the ambition to advance into management or to become an entrepreneur. A training universal pattern is confirmed. The study takes its lead from the new approaches to the qualitative study of labour markets and makes a modest contribution to this approach. In a sense, the sparse literature on cookery as an occupation gives the study a special relevance because of its contribution to a field of study which is just beginning to develop.
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

This research represents the culmination of a continuous process involving many individuals. First, and most important it is my pleasure to acknowledge my Ph.D supervisor, Dr. Michael Riley, who reviewed my work at every stage of its development and introduced me to the trials and tribulations of academic research. He has demonstrated a "conviction-commitment" and went far beyond the normal professional contribution that was reasonable to expect. Indeed, without his interminable support, invaluable guidance, advice and patience, this project would not have been completed. Thus, to Dr. Michael Riley, I express my deepest gratitude and respect.

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In addition, I would like to compliment my caring mother, Salamah Abdul Rahman and two of my supportive sisters, Zaida and Rabiah Salleh for providing positive encouragements with great confidence that kept me ongoing and it would eventually be completed.

Finally, this dissertation is dedicated in memory of my forgiving father, Haji Salleh Abd. Ghani and in loving memory of my loving sister, Jamiah Salleh. who both motivated me in the entire life of my academic achievements.

.........wishing there was a new way to say "THANK YOU" to all.
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LIST OF ACRONYMS
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ACF
AMERICAN CULINARY FEDERATION

ACFEI
AMERICAN CULINARY FEDERATION EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTE

AOS
ASSOCIATE DEGREE OF OCCUPATIONAL STUDIES

APW
ART PRINTING WORKS

AS
ADVANCED SUPPLEMENTARY

ASEAN
ASSOCIATION OF SOUTH-EAST ASIAN NATIONS

AVCI
ASSOCIATION OF VOCATIONAL COLLEGES INTERNATIONAL

BA
BACHELOR OF ARTS

BEP
BREVET D’ETUDES PROFESSIONNELLES
(DIPLOMA OF OCCUPATIONAL STUDIES

BHA
BRITISH HOSPITALITY ASSOCIATION
BM
BAHASA MALAYSIA

BPSB
BERITA PUBLISHING SENDIRIAN BERHAD

BSC
BACHELOR OF SCIENCE

BT
BUSINESS TIMES

BTEC
BUSINESS AND TECHNOLOGY EDUCATION COUNCIL

C & G
CITY AND GUILDS OF LONDON

CAM
CHEFS ASSOCIATION OF MALAYSIA

CAP
CERTIFICAT D’APTITUDE PROFESSIONELLE
(CERTIFICATE OF VOCATIONAL APTITUDE)

CCA
CAREER COLLEGE ASSOCIATION

CEC
COMMISSION OF THE EUROPEAN COMMUNITIES

CEDEFOP
EUROPEAN CENTRE FOR THE DEVELOPMENT OF VOCATIONAL TRAINING
CEP
CERTIFICAT D’EDUCATION PROFESSIONNELLE
(CERTIFICATE OF VOCATIONAL TRAINING)

CGLI
CITY AND GUILDS OF LONDON INSTITUTE

CHE
CHRONICLE OF HIGHER EDUCATION

CHRIE
COUNCIL ON HOTEL, RESTAURANT AND INSTITUTIONAL EDUCATION

CIA
CULINARY INSTITUTE OF AMERICA

CN
COMMUNICATION NEWS

DACUM
DEVELOPING A CURRICULUM

DBP
DEWAN BAHASA DAN PUSTAKA

DCT
DIPLOMA IN CHEF TRAINING

DEUG
DIPOLME D’ETUDES UNIVERSITAIRES GENERALSE

DFE
DEPARTMENT FOR EDUCATION

EC
EUROPEAN COMMUNITIES
EIU
ECONOMIST INTELLIGENCE UNIT

FEC
FURTHER EDUCATION COLLEGE

FESC
FURTHER EDUCATION STAFF COLLEGE

FEU
FURTHER EDUCATION UNIT

FHM93
FOOD AND HOTEL MALAYSIA 1993

FMES
FEDERAL MINISTER FOR EDUCATION AND SCIENCE

FRG
FEDERAL REPUBLIC OF GERMANY

FTS
FINANCIAL TIMES SURVEY

GCE
GENERAL CERTIFICATE OF EDUCATION

GCSE
GENERAL CERTIFICATE OF SECONDARY EDUCATION

GNVQs
GENERAL NATIONAL VOCATIONAL QUALIFICATIONS

HCEDC
HOTEL AND CATERING ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT COMMITTEE
ITM
INSTITUT TEKNOLOGI MARA

J & W
JOHNSON & WALES UNIVERSITY

KDU
KOLEJ DAMANSARA UTAMA

KPL
KOGAN PAGE LIMITED

LCCI
LONDON CHAMBER OF COMMERCE AND INDUSTRY

LCE
LOWER CERTIFICATE OF EDUCATION

LEA
LOCAL EDUCATION AUTHORITY

LEP
LYCEE D’ENSEIGREMENT PROFESSIONNEL

LTCDP
LENGTH OF TIME TO CHEF DE PARTIE

MAH
MALAYSIAN ASSOCIATION OF HOTEL

MARA
MAJLIS AMANAH RAAYAT

MCAT
MINISTRY OF CULTURE, ARTS AND TOURISM
MCE
MALAYSIAN CERTIFICATE OF EDUCATION

MCVE
MALAYSIAN CERTIFICATE OF VOCATIONAL EDUCATION

MD
MALAYSIAN DIGEST

MEC
MALAYSIAN EXAMINATIONS COUNCIL

MEDEC
MALAYSIAN ENTREPRENEURIAL DEVELOPMENT CENTRE

MEM
MINISTRY OF EDUCATION MALAYSIA

MHR
MINISTRY OF HUMAN RESOURCE

MTPB
MALAYSIAN TOURISM PROMOTION BOARD

MUIS
MAJLIS UGAMA ISLAM SINGAPURA

MVT
MARA VOCATIONAL TRAINING

MVTD
MARA VOCATIONAL TRAINING DIVISION

NATTS
NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF TRADE AND TECHNICAL SCHOOLS
NCVQ
NATIONAL COUNCIL FOR VOCATIONAL QUALIFICATIONS

NIC
NEW INDUSTRIALIZED COUNTRY

NOSS
NATIONAL OCCUPATIONAL SKILL STANDARDS

NPC
NATIONAL PRODUCTIVITY CENTRE

NRN
NATION’S RESTAURANT NEWS

NST
NEW STRAITS TIMES

NTCPS
NATIONAL-TYPE CHINESE PRIMARY SCHOOL

NTTPS
NATIONAL-TYPE TAMIL PRIMARY SCHOOL

NVQ
NATIONAL VOCATIONAL QUALIFICATION

OECD
ORGANIZATION FOR ECONOMIC CO-OPERATION AND DEVELOPMENT

OOQ
OCCUPATIONAL OUTLOOK QUARTERLY

PEI
PITMAN EXAMINATIONS INSTITUTE
PHCA
PENANG HOTELS CHEF’S ASSOCIATION

PICKUP
PROFESSIONAL, INDUSTRIAL & COMMERCIAL UPDATING

R & I
RESTAURANTS AND INSTITUTIONS

RB
RESTAURANT BUSINESS

RH
RESTAURANT HOSPITALITY

RIDA
RURAL AND INDUSTRIAL DEVELOPMENT AUTHORITY

RSA
ROYAL SOCIETY OF ARTS EXAMINING BOARD

SC
STAMFORD COLLEGE

SCOTVEC
SCOTTISH VOCATIONAL EDUCATION COUNCIL

SPG
STERLING PUBLISHING GROUP

SVQ
SCOTTISH VOCATIONAL QUALIFICATION

TA
TRAINING AGENCY

xii
TAR
TENGKU ABDUL RAHMAN COLLEGE

TAVED
TECHNICAL AND VOCATIONAL EDUCATION DIVISION

TDC
TOURIST DEVELOPMENT CORPORATION

TECHNICAL AND VOCATIONAL EDUCATION MALAYSIA

TFR
TOTAL FERTILITY RATE

TL
TECHNICT LUGANO

TVE
TECHNICAL VOCATIONAL EDUCATION

TVU
THAMES VALLEY UNIVERSITY

UK
UNITED KINGDOM

UM
UNIVERSITY OF MALAYA

UNESCO
UNITED NATIONS EDUCATIONAL, SCIENTIFIC AND CULTURAL ORGANIZATION

USA
UNITED STATES OF AMERICA
VET
VOCATIONAL EDUCATION AND TRAINING

WTO
WORLD TOURISM ORGANIZATION
CHAPTER 1
Over the last fifty years the emergence of "knowledge workers" has created far-reaching changes in education in particular it has had to expand. This growth can be seen in the many efforts to expand the access to education to a broader population base. Part of this growth perhaps may be attributed to the growth of career-oriented, vocational programs such as hospitality and tourism education which are based on the needs of specific industries.

In Malaysia, for example, education has had a significant impact on the economy and is seen as being part of economic progress. Completion of a college course has become a common achievement compared with the past. The qualifications of entry-level employees in an establishment in Malaysia are higher than ever before. As the labour force becomes better educated, knowledge and skills becomes better valued by the society and therefore there is an increased demand by workers for more education.
and by employers for better educated workers. As the opportunity for higher education is extended to the larger proportion of the population, the decision for further education becomes more focused on career and economic goals than on objectives relating to cultural or personal development. Thus, hospitality and tourism education have evolved and matured as they provide career opportunities to students and address the labour needs of the industry. It is worthy of note however that career education generally and particularly the hospitality or tourism education is not there simply to provide graduates with the narrow skills. It has a mandate to produce educated and knowledgeable workers capable of growing and maturing in their chosen profession and as individuals.

Career education should provide graduate with a flexible educational background to ensure they can function in the economic mainstream and achieve goals which relate more to self and society at large than to the requirements of specific labour market. With this notions the study looked at a particular career of chefs in Malaysia which played an important role as a component of tourism sector. It is known that tourism is playing an increasingly important role in the world economy. Tourism in Malaysia has become an important economic activity in the overall development of the economy. Increased investments in tourism activities to expand. The tourism base and markets was the development thrust in the Sixth Malaysian Plan 1991 - 1995.

Malaysia is relatively new entrant in international tourism compared with the more established destination in ASEAN (National Printing Malaysia, 1991: 238). Within
this context, Malaysia will need to undertake efforts to improve the quality, attractiveness and uniqueness of its tourism products and services in order to be competitive and to sustain interest in tourism. In order to relate with this discussion it is wise to look at the basic components of tourism. The tourism industry can be basically categorised into the following sectors: accommodation and transport, food and beverage, services and entertainments. The food and beverage sector is discussed here.

In providing rooms for tourists staffs are at hand to supply other services for example, restaurants, bars, and room service. A tourist will often associate accommodation with food as a primary need for holiday makers or business tourists particularly in the hotel sector. Realizing that is a key strategy decision. The food and beverage account is a substantial proportion of tourist expenditure. There are an increased catering services provided for the tourists. In other words, the catering infrastructure is recognised as being important. It follows therefore that the need for trained workers in the catering sectors like cooks and chefs and other services were required in order to provide good foods and services to tourists. In some ways, study on the hotel and catering sector has been the poor relation of tourism research. There is a need to increase basic research on hotels and catering. What research exists however remains almost entirely related to management operations. The need to study the labour force is partially met by this study of the career paths of culinary workers who form the backbone of the tourism industry. This research is about chefs. It is focused on their career paths in Malaysia. The study involves education, vocational
education, skills acquisition, motivation influences and actual career paths. The thesis is in nine chapters which combine the theory, history, and culture of food with theory of education and labour mobility into a coherent justification for the actual research study. The study has two broad objectives which are:

* to describe and analyse the career paths of culinary workers in Malaysia.
* to measure how culinary workers learn their skill.

The focus of the study is on one occupation, the chef and the relevant context is vocational education and the labour market for chefs. As a necessary support for the thesis the study reviews literature in three areas: educational systems, the education-training-labour market relationship and the culinary heritage of Malaysia.

The study starts in chapter 1 with a brief introduction related to the research work. Chapter 2 reviews the national education systems in five countries namely: United Kingdom, United States of America, Federal Republic of Germany, France, and Malaysia. This chapter discusses in great depth on the vocational education system in each country with particular emphasis on the culinary education and training subsystem.

Chapter 3 deals with the issues which surround vocational education and work experience as an alternatives. It addresses the performance of labour market as an intervening mechanism in the educational process and summarised the work of labour
writer who focuses on the role of labour markets as a learning vehicles.

Chapter 4 is an account of the literature related to culinary careers. This is concerned with training, education, deskilling and work flexibility. Since the literature on career paths and background characteristics of chefs is quite sparse, some published studies that bear secondary relationships to this topic was selected for this section. Malaysian cuisine and Social culture are covered in chapter 5. Here the major cuisines of the people in Malaysia are described in terms of historical heritage of the cuisine and some cultural customs and traditions associated with it.

Chapter 6 describes the research methodology of the study. There are two separate methodological approaches described here. They are a biographical questionnaire for career data and an expert template for skills accumulation pattern.

Chapter 7 describes the research findings. The main findings are presented here in a quantitative and qualitative terms which are integrated by the argument which support the interpretation of the findings.

Chapter 8 sets out the summary and conclusions of the findings. Finally, chapter 9 summaries the findings of the research and draws some conclusion and recommendations which are aimed to stimulate further consideration within the culinary arts in the Malaysian hospitality industry for future research work.
REFERENCES


CHAPTER 2
CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW I

A REVIEW OF NATIONAL EDUCATION VOCATIONAL SYSTEMS

2.1 Introduction

It is possible to suggest that differences in the structure of vocational education may represent firstly, differences in priority given to practical work by particular nations and secondly, differences in demand from school leavers for employment in practical occupations. Thirdly, the structure may represent a different relationship between industry and education and fourthly, the structure may imply different relationships between school education and higher and further education. What follows will be a discussion of the vocational education systems of Malaysia, United Kingdom (UK), United States of America (USA), France and the Federal Republic of Germany (FRG).
The form of the discussion will be that for each country the overall education system will be illustrated. This will then be followed by a focus on the vocational system and lastly on the culinary education system.

2.2 Education System

MALAYSIA: AN OVERVIEW

Schooling is free and provided by government-assisted schools for children between the ages of six and 18 years (Europa, 1994: 1850). There are some private schools, which received no government financial aid. Bahasa Malaysia (BM) is the main medium of instruction in all schools. English is taught as a second language. Chinese and Tamil are taught as pupils’ own languages. The formal school system in Malaysia has a 6-3-2-2 pattern (MEM, 1989: 7). This education system in Malaysia comprised five main categories: the primary, lower secondary, upper secondary, form six and higher education as shown in figure 2.1. Primary education begins at six years of age and lasts for six years. Education at this stage is free but not compulsory. Promotion is automatic from Year 1 to Year 6. Continuous internal assessment was conducted from time to time at each level aimed to monitor the progress of pupils and to evaluate the pupils’ proficiency of basic skills in reading, writing and arithmetic. At this stage if a child is confronted with learning or difficulties then appropriate action attended to rectify the problems. There are three languages media at primary education level, namely, Bahasa Malaysia, Tamil or
Figure 2.1 The Education System in Malaysia

THE EDUCATION SYSTEM IN MALAYSIA

Source: STAR, February 4, 1991
Chinese. In the National Schools the medium of instruction is BM while in the National-Type Tamil Primary School (NTTPS) and in the National-Type Primary Chinese School (NTCPS) the medium of instruction is Tamil and Chinese respectively. BM is a compulsory subject and English is a second language in all schools.

Secondary education lasts for five years. It is basically a progressive development of primary education. Secondary education is divided into lower and upper secondary levels and education at this stage is general in nature. At the age of eleven pupils completed primary education from National Schools are automatically promoted to Form I. NTTPS and NTCPS students advanced to the Remove Class for a year. This is to assist pupils to acquire proficiency in BM. The duration of schooling time spend at this stage for students from National Schools is three years (Form I to Form III) while students from NTCPS and NTTPS is four year in total. Finally at the end of the lower secondary school students sit for the Lower Certificate of Education (LCE).

Students then progress to upper secondary stage (Form IV to V) for a duration of two years. **Education at this stage is divided into two streams of study. Pupils are promoted and channelled into the academic or vocational streams.** The academic stream offered three courses of study: Arts, Science and Technical Education. The Arts or Science stream are available in the Normal Academic Secondary school, in a full boarding schools, Science Secondary Schools or MARA Junior Science Colleges. The details of vocational education system will be discussed in the
following section. The main purpose of vocational and technical education is to provide students with basic vocational and technical knowledge and skills. It also provide practical training for individual trade skills.

Finally at the end of the two year course students in the Arts, Science and Technical discipline take the Malaysian Certificate of Education (MCE) which is equal to the British GCE 'O' level.

Education at Form VI (Six) level is to equip students for the Malaysian Higher School Certificate Examination which is managed by the Malaysian Examinations Council (MEC) as well as entrance examinations controlled by some local universities. The sixth form and matriculation courses are offered for a period of two years. The matriculation path provides scholars to meet specific entry requirements of certain universities. The sixth form education is formulated to furnish the entrance criteria of all universities in Malaysia.

Vocational Education: **MALAYSIA**
An All-rounded Approach

In 1964 the Ministry of Education established the Technical Vocational Education Division (TAVED). It is aimed to promote technical and vocational education in Malaysia (TVEM, 1988: 3). **Students may attend vocational and technical**
secondary schools instead of the final two years of academic education in upper secondary level as illustrated in figure 2.2. The main objective of vocational and technical education is to equip students with basic vocational and technical knowledge and skills. Vocational secondary schools also offer practical and training in individual trade skills. Education in the vocational stream is divided into two programmes namely, academic and skills training. Students who have the interest and aptitude for skill training course are channelled into a two year skills training course after Form IV whilst the more academically inclined students proceed to Form V and sit for the Malaysia Certificate (Vocational) Education (MCVE). After MCE or MCVE students can either enter the labour market or continue their education. Apart from pursuing their education in academic streams, students are also admitted into colleges, such as, Teacher Education Colleges, Polytechnics, the MARA Institute of Technology and the Tunku Abdul Rahman College (TAR) where professional courses are offered at both certificate and diploma levels.

As of 1989, there were 57 Vocational and 9 Technical Secondary Schools catering for vocational and technical students respectively (MEM, 1989: 15). There are no courses for the hotel, catering and tourism fields offered in these schools. However, there are some Vocational Home Science Schools which offered two years course specializing in beauty culture, fashion design, and catering courses awarding certificates to students at the end of their practical and theory examinations of the MCVE.
Figure 2.2 The Vocational Education System in Malaysia

Note:
- D - Degree
- X - National Diploma
- O - National Certificate

Source: Technical and Vocational Education in Malaysia (TVEM, 1988)
Students selected for Technical and Vocational education enrolled in Technical and Vocational Secondary Schools respectively. Education for the upper secondary academic and technical streams is general in nature with provision for some form of specialization in the arts, science of technical fields.

The secondary vocational schools offer two-year courses in Engineering Trades, Commerce, Home Science and Agricultural Science. The courses are as follows:

**Engineering Trade**

* Building Construction
* Machinshop Practice
* Welding & Metal Fabrication
* Refrigeration and Air-Conditioning
* Electrical
* Electronics
* Automotive

**Commerce**

* Business Management
* Office Management
Over 50 per cent of the curriculum is devoted to vocational education and the rest to general education (TVEM, 1988: 8).

In early 1987 a new vocational education system was introduced. Students in the first year of secondary vocational school undergoing a particular course follow a common curriculum with the academic subjects are almost similar with the subjects taken by students in secondary academic schools. In the second year of the government secondary vocational school students are given the choice to enter either the vocational discipline or the skills discipline in Form IV. In the vocational course, students are given a strong emphasis on academic subjects to provide them with a better foundation for a possible further education in technical colleges and polytechnic
without significantly affecting vocational skill development at the required level. The academic subjects are similar with subjects in the MCE examination. In the skills course, students are given more time on practical work to provide them with more proficiency in trade skills as required by the industry. It is worth mentioning here that one of the four objectives listed of vocational training is to provide a flexible and broad based curriculum to meet the present and future needs of changes in technology. The vocational system also provides specialised short courses of one year duration. Students secured a Lower Certificate of Education (LCE) who are keen in entering the vocational school but do not have the qualification or interested of basic skill development in one year can apply for admission to the one year course in a basic skill area. This course is practically orientated compared with the two-year course. These are specialised courses of one year duration which are designed for students who have completed the two-year vocational course, particularly those who have done well in the vocational subject and are interested in undergoing a further one-year advanced and specialised training in the vocational school.

Culinary Education
MALAYSIA

In Malaysia, several public and some private educational institutes offer courses in Hotel and Catering Management (NST, 1992 June 8). Catering courses are also offered in selected government vocational schools which are more inclined to home
Chapter 2: Literature Review I - A Review of National Education Systems

economics. Students after completing lower secondary school may attend course of study in catering for a duration of two years with a common curriculum component of the general education system. The catering courses in public and private institutions is basically aimed to prepare those interested in culinary art's which caters for the demand of the job market in the hospitality industry. The major institutions are:

1. Institute Teknologi MARA
2. National Productivity Centre
3. Kolej Damansara Utama
4. Stamford College

Institut Teknologi MARA

It was originally a training centre established in 1956 by the Rural and Industrial Development Authority (RIDA), today known as Majlis Amanah Rakyat (MARA) in short ITM. Institute Teknologi MARA (ITM) is in Shah Alam, Selangor as the main campus and with nine other branch campuses in various states in the country (ITM, 1994: 4).

The institute offers a variety of courses in the fields of technology, commerce, management and administration. At present ITM has 12 schools and five centres, one of which is concerned with Hotel and Tourism Management.
The School of Hotel and Tourism Management was the first hospitality education institute in Malaysia. It offered courses in certificate and diploma levels. It was established in 1967 to accelerate the development of trained manpower for the expanding hospitality in Malaysia. In July 1975, the Diploma in Chef Training (DCT) was formed with the objective of providing training for those who wish to pursue careers in the culinary arts. Emphasis in the curricula is therefore placed on a sound educational program to develop a high degree of professional competence.

The three years course is conducted in conjunction with the country’s leading hotels, restaurants and other institutions. Learning experiences are provided in several basic kitchens, production kitchen, pastry kitchen and service facility of the school. The course work in the school is followed by industrial training in the above mentioned places under the supervision of the chef in-charge. The course is developed on the apprenticeship form of training. The job as a chef demands skills and experience and thus training in this field is highly vigorous and extensive. Since July 1992 the school is proud to have its own hotel with 40 rooms available and is now in operation as a training ground for the students. The hotel facilities constitute a realistic laboratory in operational procedures and managerial responsibilities in a real life situation. Students can proceed abroad for the undergraduate and graduate programs having an advantage of full credits transfer from many institutions.
National Productivity Centre (NPC)

NPC is established in 1974 with the purpose of providing training and developing human resources in the hospitality industry. The institute offers only one diploma and three certificates level courses. The culinary program is certificate in basic cooking. It is to equip students with the basic skills and knowledge of kitchen operation so as to enable them to work in any catering institutions.

Kolej Damansara Utama (KDU)

The School of Hotel & Catering at Kolej Damansara Utama (KDU) started recruited students in June 1987. KDU was established in April 1983. The school was established to provide a realistic education and training known locally and internationally recognised. The college offers diploma in hotel & catering management, certificate in catering and food production (chef training & restaurant service), certificate in hotel & catering studies. As an integral part of the course, each student must complete their industrial training in approved hotels, restaurants or institutions. Diploma level students can transferred credits earned to overseas and universities for pursuing the Bachelor’s Degree. Graduates enter a wide range of organisations in the hospitality industries.
Stamford College (SC)

The School of Culinaire & Service Management at Stamford College (SC) provides courses in culinary arts at diploma and certificate levels. There is a diploma programme for a duration of 2 years, Professional Culinary Arts Techniques: Theory & Practical for a duration of 6 months.

Culinary Training

MALAYSIA

It is a requirement for all students taking culinary courses diploma or certificate levels to undergo practical training in the industry. Under this program arrangements with various firms were initiated between the academic institutions and the industry. Students are attached to related departments of the kitchen in various hotels or restaurants across Malaysia for on-the-job training for a duration between 1 - 18 months depending on the course requirements and structure. The block system schedule of industrial training is widely used and preferred by the industry. Most institutions designed their training programmes and recommended to respective establishments to follow. However it is up to the organisations to comply to the requirements but in most cases the industry will follow with minor adjustments to meet their purpose. It is worth mentioning here that there is no formal contract between trainees and employers nor a standard apprenticeship schemes presently
exist and that a trainee is generally not paid for his practical work by the industry. However there are some firms which provide a small amount of money as a token of appreciation to trainees while going through the industrial training period. There is no system of national standards or certification although the National Industrial and Trade Certification Board of the Ministry of Human Resources is the organisation responsible but has concentrated its efforts on the industrial and manufacturing sectors. The hospitality industry has been largely neglected by the authority (Tourism Review, 1988 May).

2.3 Education System

UNITED KINGDOM: AN OVERVIEW

Education is compulsory for all children from the commencement of the term following a pupil’s fifth birthday until an appropriate school-leaving date related to the pupil’s 16th birthday. Responsibility for education is substantially devolved by: the Secretary of Stated for Education is responsible, in principle for all aspects of education in England (109 local education authorities have substantial autonomy over education system in their area) and for universities throughout Great Britain, while the Secretary of State for Wales is responsible for non-university education in Wales. The Secretaries of State for Scotland and Northern Ireland have full educational responsibilities, except for universities in the case of Scotland.
Generally, secondary education starts at the age of 11. Some areas have 'middle schools' for children aged eight to 12 years or nine to 13 years. In most areas, the state maintained system of comprehensive schools prevails. Students are admitted to these schools without reference to ability. In some localities, there is a system of grammar and secondary modern schools. The admission to this school is determined through a test of ability. The General Certificate of Secondary Education (GCSE) may be taken usually at the age of 16 and as many subjects as a candidate wishes. The GCE Advanced level is generally taken at the age of 18, in a few selected subjects and serves as a qualification for entrance to higher education. An additional examination Advanced Supplementary (AS) level, was introduced and is intended to broaden the studies of pupils pursuing Advanced Level courses. Passes in five GCE subjects, including two at Advanced Level, are normally the minimum requirement for university entrance, the decision to admit students is made by a university according to their own requirements. The first degree normally last three or four years and leads to a Bachelor of Arts or Sciences (BA or BSc) degree. There are 47 universities in Great Britain including the privately-funded University of Buckingham and the Open University which is funded directly by the Department of Education and Science. There were 32 polytechnic in England and Wales in early 1992 of which had adopted the title 'university' by early 1993 and six equivalent institutions in Scotland. Polytechnic provide degree courses as well as courses leading to vocational and professional qualifications. The diagram shows the complete education system as displayed in figure 2.3. It must be noted however, that the system is currently changing and that polytechnics are now designated as universities.
Figure 2.3 The Education System in United Kingdom

Source: CEDEFOP, 1984: 31
Vocational Education: **UNITED KINGDOM**
A New NVQs

Vocational education in UK are maintained by the colleges. This is an arrangement to which the 1944 Education Act placing each Local Education Authority (LEA) responsibility in each area ensuring adequate availability of further education. Colleges received income from many sources, such as from students and employers with funding from the maintaining LEA. There has been a revolution in vocational training and education in the UK since mid-1980. As Collins (1993) describes:

The status of vocational education and training has been awarded a much higher profile through the introduction of National Vocational Qualifications (NVQs), Scottish Vocational Qualifications (SVQs) and General National Vocational Qualifications (GNVQs) which received accreditation through the National Council for Vocational Qualifications (NCVQ) and the Scottish Council for Qualifications (SCOTVEC).

In 1986 the government set up the NCVQ to promote, develop, implement and monitor a comprehensive system of vocational qualifications in England, Wales and Northern Ireland.

The NVQs was established by Industrial Lead Bodies (ILBs) under the sponsorship of the Training Agency (TA). They are base on accepted standards of competence and performance. The NVQs and SVQs consists of a number of units or modules and credits can be awarded for each unit. This unit credits can be accumulated by an individual on their own time. There are five levels of NVQs. The vocational
qualification can be obtained over a period of years with no time limits which suits candidates and their employers. The general SVQs and GNVQ were then introduced which was designed to meet the needs of young people in colleges and training centres. It is targeted for those who wanted to return to work. This vocational qualification offered students the chance to prepare for work or further study. It is an alternative route to employment or higher education for youngster staying in full-time education. GNVQ level 3 is an alternative to A-level. Today students can study GNVQs at two levels. Level 2 is at par to a BTEC First or 4 GCSEs. Level 3 is at par to a BTEC National or A-levels. The subjects offered to GNVQ are:

* art and design
* business
* health and social care
* leisure and tourism
* manufacturing

The introduction of a new vocational training qualifications make it more people to obtained vocational education and training. In early 1992, the National Vocational Qualification (NVQs) and Scottish Vocational Qualification (SVQs) in catering and hospitality and travel services was introduced.

The lead body for the hotel and catering industry and licensed trade is the Hotel and Catering Training Company (HCTC). The HCTC confirmed the occupational
standards and all NVQs in this industry must now be based on these standards (TVU, 1994/1995: 4). City and Guilds (C&G) is a well established awarding body and has developed assessment materials for hotel and catering sector to achieve NVOs. Figure 2.4 describes the hotel and catering vocational routes in Britain.

Culinary Education

**UNITED KINGDOM**

Culinary education and training in the UK was largely shaped by the provision of qualifications by the awarding bodies and by professional bodies. NCVQs and SCOTVEC regulates training standards through qualifications. Then there are lead bodies which determine statements of competence which award qualifications. There were five national bodies: BTEC, C & G, LCCI, PEI, RSA and some 300 awarding bodies of which some 100 had qualifications accredited as NVQs.

On the whole colleges in UK was the provider of basic education and training for the catering and hospitality sector of the industry. With the introduction of NVQs, the government seemed to swing the onus of training responsibility from the college to the employer (HCIMA 1993/1994). NVQs was launched in 1988 with the catering and hospitality industry. In January 1992 a comprehensive framework of NVQs was launched. C & G remains the forefront of vocational education and training in hotel
Figure 2.4 Hotel and Catering Vocational Routes in Britain

Source: HCTC, 1992: 17
and catering hospitality sectors.

The NVQs are based on occupational standards developed by HCTC. The awarding bodies for catering and hospitality sectors are:

* City and Guilds
* HCIMA
* HCTC/BII
* BTEC
* SCOTVEC/HCIMA/HCTC/BII

Culinary certification is also available with C & G schemes which allows flexibility in the colleges. There are also full-time courses at universities, colleges or polytechnic. Students received a C & G certificate or NVQs upon successful completion of his/her course at college. There are series of craft studies created from Craft I to Craft III. C & G has put forward their progressive pattern of awards from general vocational preparation to upper level awards. There are a number of colleges across UK providing culinary education designed for students in the catering study leading towards qualification at NVQ Level 2 and 3 in Food Preparation and cooking up to diploma level.
Culinary Training

UNITED KINGDOM

Formal vocational training in the UK can be traced to the Middle Ages (CEDEFOP, 1984). The Youth Training Scheme (YTS) has replaced apprenticeship system. It is introduced in 1983 which offers a 2 year basic training program and planned work experience for 16 year-old-school-leavers and a 1 year program for 17-year-olds. Training is delivered primarily in the workplace, trainees receive 20 weeks of off-the-job training as well. Government provides partial funding for paying trainees an allowance of £28.50 a week in the first year and £35 a week in the second. The shifts is then to the new NVQ - aims to shift more of these costs to employers as the benefits of training become clearer and yet to be seen. There are some sponsorship scheme in UK for training. The four-year specialised Chefs Course run by Bournemouth and Poole College association with members of the Academie Culinaire de France operates on the block system: six months in college and nine months in industry (Hayter, 1993: 91).

2.4 Education System

UNITED STATES OF AMERICA: AN OVERVIEW

Education in USA is primarily the responsibility of state and local governments. Each state has a Board of Education which determines education policy. The federal government in Washington D.C is concerned with the funding of grants to institutions
and students with legal issues. The government also funds studies or commissions’
which examine and report to Congress on quality of education in the country. Some
federal funds are available to help meet special needs at primary, secondary and
higher education levels. Public education is free in every state from elementary
school through high school. The period of compulsory education varies among states,
but most states require attendance between the ages of seven and 16 years. There
were more than 3,500 two-year and four-year universities and colleges.

The precise duration of compulsory public system of schooling varies from state to
state and although the irreducible minimum is nine years, from age 7 to 16. The way
in which the school system itself is structured also varies somewhat from state to
state, though three patterns are in common use. Perhaps the most usual is the 6-3-3
form, that is six years of elementary or primary school from ages 6 to 12, followed
by three years of Junior High School and three years of Senior High School to age
18. The other two patterns are 8-4, eight years of elementary school and four years
of high school and 6-6, six years of elementary school and six years of high school
and 4-4-4, four years of elementary school, four years of middle school and 4 years
of high school. The school leaving age varies from state to state but most pupils stay
on until they are 18 or older to obtain their High School Diploma (HSD) which is
normally a perquisite for employment (HMSO 1990:3). Whatever the form of school
organisation, vocational education is an integral part of secondary education and
is available only on an optional or elective basis to all students (Cantor, 1989: 70).
Vocational Education: UNITED STATES OF AMERICA
A Unique System

The provision for vocational education and training in USA is a very complex one. It has a long history and the work of many agencies co-operating and competing each other. But it is noteworthy that the traditional vocational education is offered by the public schools and community colleges. They are funded mainly by the states with little federal aid. These institutions contribute most of the training with other various training programmes developed for specific social and economic needs but are different from the public schools and community colleges. Figure 2.5 shows a complete layout of the education system in USA.

Vocational and continuing education is provided by four types of institution. They are as follows:

* community colleges
* technical colleges and vocational schools
* proprietary school/private colleges
* state universities and colleges

In USA, community college is a generic term used to some extent to describe a post-
Figure 2.5 The Education System in United States of America

Source: HMSO. 1990: 6
secondary education which offers education and training up to and includes associate degree level (HMSO, 1990: 7).

In some states, a community college is formally described as institutions or may be called junior colleges. Some may have a title 'community' or 'junior' college. The purpose of this college is to provide education and training needs for the people, industry and business of that state. Colleges offer a wide range of provision such as developmental education, training, adult and continuing education, short courses for industry and commerce, part-time and full-time two years vocational courses leading to a vocational certificate or diploma and associate degree courses. The technical colleges or vocational schools cater for high school students age between 14 - 18 who wish to qualify for Higher School Diploma (HSD) specialising vocational subjects or vocational and continuing education courses for employment.

Craft courses and training in USA are often provided by trade unions having their own schools. On the other hand, trade unions may contract community colleges or vocational or technical school to provide training for their members. HMSO (1990) noted:

Two-thirds of all apprentices in the USA are trained on programmes jointly financed by a trade union and once or more employers. In conjunction with employers, some trade unions operate trust funds for training: for example, some collective agreements specify that for every dollar per hour earned by an employee, the employer contributes 2 cents to the fund for training or re-training.
Generally, it is not common practice to obtain a vocational certificate or diploma, a term which appears to be interchangeable from state to state. Over half of American employers provide their own education and training as some may employ trainers from the colleges to assist on the premises (HMSO, 1990: 16).

Many workers attend vocational education and training in their free time and on their own free will and most colleges offer courses which lead to a college certificate of diploma in a specific area. Students completing community colleges progress directly into employment. For example students interested in culinary arts may enrol in any culinary institution or community colleges awarding Associate Degree of Occupational Studies (AOS) and going through the internship as part of the requirement set by the institutions following a recommended American Culinary Federation (ACF) apprenticeship programs. Full-time students in community colleges have got the opportunities for work experience placement. There are two types:

* known as Practicum: an unpaid work experience equivalent to placement experience on further education in England and Wales.

* known as Co-operative education or Co-op Program: are paid part-time or one day a week or in blocks as an employee of the firm. This work experience has no exact counterpart in the UK.

Students are subjects to tests, regular assessment of assignments and coursework before sitting for a final examination for vocational certificate or diploma and associate degree courses. Weaker students may be placed on probation and required to take additional courses to supplement the deficiency.
Culinary Education

UNITED STATES OF AMERICA

Hospitality education in USA has expanded rapidly. Over the past years, the number of professional culinary arts and hotel and restaurant management (HRM) programs has increased.

The provision of vocational educational and training in USA is very complex. It is the work of many agencies co-operating and competing with each other. The key distinction is between the publicly and privately funded provision. For this purpose the study focused on both the public and private institutions which offer culinary education and training.

Culinary education and training was offered through publicly funded local school districts and community colleges. There are also a variety of private institutions that offer training in the culinary arts. According ACF there are now about 525 post-secondary community colleges and vocational-technical schools (vo-techs) in the USA that offer training in the culinary arts. And according to the Council on Hotel, Restaurant, and Institutional Education (CHRIE) there are about 170 four-year hotel and HRM and more than 700 offering associate’s degrees, certificates or diplomas (RB, 1991, August 10). The United States has about 500 culinary arts programs including those in Community and junior colleges, vocational and trade schools, and non-degree program (NRN, 1988 October).
There are also a small number of institutions having acquired excellent reputation for specific vocational areas such as culinary arts. Most of their graduates move to undertake degree courses in vocational subjects in colleges and universities. The community colleges and technical institutes are the most important publicly-funded educational institutions providing culinary education below degree level. The word technical institute caused some confusion as in the southern states. This term is used as this institute concentrate on vocational programme but elsewhere city colleges, junior colleges or technical colleges or sometime known as two-year colleges. Like one of the premier culinary school known in USA is the Culinary Institute of America (CIA) with a two years full-time study awarding qualifications called Associate Degrees of which distinguished them from universities and colleges offering four-year courses leading to baccalaureate degrees (CIA, 1994/1995). This two-year colleges main functions are to provide transfer one or two years or shorter vocational courses. Students completing these courses many transfer to further two years college for a bachelor’s degree. Indeed, many graduates from two of the better-known and more prestigious culinary programs in USA - the CIA and Johnson & Wales University (J&W) - go on to get management degrees (RB, 1991).

There are also students enrolled in one-year full-time courses or less and linked to apprenticeships awarding certificates in a wide variety of vocational and technical areas. Many of this colleges are "opened-concept" offering courses to anyone who wishes to attend on parttime while working a full-time job outside. There are also commuter colleges equivalent to the British tertiary college. In this case students
staying at home travelled to and from the college daily.

Culinary education and training is available in proprietorial colleges and schools operating for profit. They are in big business offering range of courses or occupational specialist. These institutions are approved by the state and are accredited by national and state wide agencies awarding certificates and diplomas. Example is the French Culinary Institute in New York.

The apprenticeship system in USA is largely a private-sector program with technical assistance and accreditation from Federal Government or a state apprenticeship council form the state government. The apprenticeship programs average over 3 years duration.

Culinary Training

UNITED STATES OF AMERICA

Training is mainly provided and funded by industry involved to the entire educational system in the United States. Many large companies earmark part of their resources for training in their annual budget. Most employer-based training is undertaken at in premise and others many be taken public or private vocational training institutions. Hyatt International, for example is known to have a culinary training for a duration 3 years for their culinary apprentices.
Guidance on careers and apprenticeship programs comes from the American Culinary Federation which has developed a national apprenticeship and training standards for the cooks to be used by its membership in local apprenticeship programs. Prospective apprentices must be at least seventeen years of age with a high school diploma or its equivalent who has signed an apprenticeship agreement for training outlined in the standards and who is registered with the appropriate registration agency (ACFEI, 1991: 1). The American Culinary Federation Educational Institute based in Florida developed the national certification program for chefs and cooks to provide educational opportunities necessary to achieve professional growth. This national ACFEI certification is a mark of professional achievements for successful culinarian starting with an appropriate level of certification and finally lead to the highest level of certified master chef. There are four levels of certification assigned by ACFEI as the chef’s career progresses. The beginning level being working chef and executive chef to the final level marked master chef. This certification is based on points system.

2.5 Education System

FRANCE: AN OVERVIEW

The French education system can be described as a national, unified, centralized system (CEDEFOP, 1994: 35). The state education system is administered by the Ministry of National Education, which exerts more control than elsewhere in Europe.
France is divided into 27 educational districts called Academies. Each is responsible for the administration of education from primary to higher levels in its area. Education is compulsory. It is free for children aged 6 to 16 years. Primary education begins at 6 and lasts for 5 years. There are five successive levels at this stage as shown in figure 2.6.

The curriculum is made up of seven subjects. They are equally important namely, French, mathematics, history and geography, science and technology, civics, artistic subjects and physical education and sport (AFL, 1994: 7). The primary objective of the primary school is to provide the basics skills of reading, writing and mathematics so that every child progress smoothly to secondary school having the language skills which is considered the instrument of knowledge and learning.

At the age of 11 all students enter the first cycle (or college) of the Enseignement secondaire with a 4 years general course. The schooling at this level is divided into two 2-year stages. They are the "observation" stage (cycle d'observation) which pupils follow a common curriculum in the sixth and fifth class and the "orientation" stage (cycle d'orientation) of the fourth and third class. At the end of the fifth class all students either move on to a fourth class or repeat the fifth class. At the orientation stage students have some choice regarding some of the subjects they do and therefore to some extend understand the direction of their studies to pursue with far more clear options in their choice made at the end of third class. Students in fourth and third class follow a common curriculum of twenty-five hours of lessons
### Chapter 2: Literature Review I - A Review of National Education Systems

Figure 2.6 The French School Structure

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Forms in French Schools</th>
<th>General or technological baccalauréat</th>
<th>Vocational baccalauréat</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nursery school</td>
<td>BEP or CAP</td>
<td>CAP</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Middle section</td>
<td>&quot;determination&quot; stage</td>
<td>&quot;orientation&quot; stage</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Preparatory course (CP)</td>
<td>&quot;observation&quot; stage</td>
<td>&quot;consolidation&quot; stage</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Elementary course 1 (CE1)</td>
<td>&quot;basics&quot; stage</td>
<td>&quot;introduction to the basics&quot; stage</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Elementary course 2 (CE2)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Middle course 1 (CM1)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Middle course 2 (CM2)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Upper section</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fifth</td>
<td>college</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sixth</td>
<td>college</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fourth</td>
<td>college</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Third</td>
<td>college</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Second</td>
<td>college</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>First</td>
<td>college</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Terminal</td>
<td>college</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

- **BEP**: brevet d'études professionnelles
- **CAP**: certificat d'aptitude professionnelle
- **CPPN**: Pre-vocational form
- **CPA**: Pre-apprenticeship form

Source: AFL, 1994: 18
per week in the same subject as in the sixth and fifth class. In addition to these core subjects there are compulsory lessons in a subject chosen by the students. In 1984 the "technology fourth and third class" was established with the purpose to offer a different educational approach from the traditional fourth and third class to students attracted to a less abstract type of learning. Noted here is the early streaming of students in a decided discipline.

At the age of 15 they may then proceed to the second cycle (known as lycee). choosing a course for 3 years leading to the baccalaureate examination or a 2 years course leading to the brevet d’études professionnels with commercial, administrative or industrial options. Lycees offer students three routes. The general options which leads to the general baccalaureate termed frequently as the "bac" and the technical streams lead to a higher technical diploma (BT - Brevet de Technicien) for example an agricultural diploma in an agricultural lycee or a technical baccalaureate. The vocational routes with the CAP and BEP which leads wither to a job or a vocational technical baccalaureate. There are two types of lycees namely general and technical lycees and vocational lycees. The vocational lycees will be described in the vocational education system section.

The minimum qualification for entry to university faculties is the baccalaureate. There are three cycles of university education. In general, university studies are organised in three successive cycles, each lasting two years (MEN, 1992: 13). The first level, the Diplome d’études universitaires generalise (DEUG) is reached after two
years of study, and the first degree, the Licence, is obtained after three years. The master’s degree (Maitrise) is obtained after 4 years of study, while the doctorate requires 6 or 7 years’ and the submission of a thesis. Figure 2.7 provides a clear picture on the educational system in France.

Vocational Education: FRANCE
A Sophisticated Scheme

Vocational education is the preparation for the BEP, CAP and baccalaureate professionnels. This education is provided in the lycees professionnels (LP) or vocational lycees. In 1990 there were 1,338 vocational lycees in the public sector, 832 in the private sector and 518 apprentice training centres in France (CEDEFOP, 1994: 38).

The CAP certifies to skills related to the practice of a specialised trade which is a Taylor-type concept of work. The courses in the vocational lycees lead to vocational certificates Brevet d’enseignement professionnel (BEP) and CAP - Baccalaureate professionnels.

The second stage of secondary education is the post-compulsory education. Students interested in full-time education can opt for either short or long-term courses. Pupils can join a vocational lycee for a period of two years short course graduating to a craft
Figure 2.7 The Education System in France

Source: CEDEFOP. 1994: 36
qualification the CAP or BEP. Both qualifications are recognised and required for working in the industry and commerce sectors. The other alternative passage is for young students to pursue on the baccalaureate professional which on completion qualify for direct employment. There are many different discipline from individual to service sector specialisms. The purpose here is a CAP or BEP students to take a short technical programme. This is also open to secondary school students who have successfully completed the first year of the baccalaureate technologique. The long term courses are for a duration of three years leading to the baccalaureate which is an external multi-subject examination. Students with a BEP or a CAP can then proceed to a technology or a vocational baccalaureate known as baccalaureate professional. Figure 2.8 summaries the French vocational education routes.

The baccalaureate is a national diploma indicating the successful completion of secondary school with either general, technical or vocational streams. It indicates the end of 12 years of education. They are offered in lycées and the vocational baccalaureate is introduced in 1985. It was first awarded in 1987 and is rapidly gaining popularity in France (AFL, 1994: 13). The first year is unstreamed with basically a broad start. The second and third years is the specialization options for the preferred baccalaureate. There are eight options in the five general baccalaureate and there are three technical or vocational baccalaureate with eighteen options. A candidate is subject to written and oral examination to pass the baccalaureate. The marking and setting of the final exam papers is the work of the academie but the syllabuses and the table are set by the Ministry of Education. The baccalaureate is
Figure 2.8 The French Vocational Education Routes

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Level/Age</th>
<th>Lycée Technique</th>
<th>Lycée Professionnel</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>22</td>
<td>Specialised Masters degrees**</td>
<td>Chamber of Commerce Professional Associations Training Centre</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21</td>
<td>Masters in Hôtellerie/Restauration</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>Baccalauréat Hôtellerie (BTH)**</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>Baccalauréat Professionnel restauration</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>Baccalauréat Hôtellerie (BTH)**</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>Baccalauréat restauration</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>Baccalauréat restauration</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>Baccalauréat restauration</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>Baccalauréat restauration</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>Baccalauréat restauration</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

- * At a minority of centres entry into BTS is possible from the general baccalaureat.
- ** Although most of the teaching takes place in the lycée concerned, the degree is awarded by the university.
- *** The BTH is being phased out in favour of the baccalauréat technologique hôtellerie.

Source: HCTC, January 1992: 16
the first higher education diploma awarded to students. Some technical students proceed to pursue specialised Brevet de Technicien rather than the option of the baccalaureate. Figure 2.9 summarizes the sophisticated system of vocational qualifications organised in France. It is offered at six different levels. The lowest level is level VI which relates to unskilled jobs and required the lowest level of academic qualification. As shown in the diagram level I qualification is equal to professional postgraduate jobs such as chartered engineer. Most occupations required qualifications in the range of levels V to III corresponding to the United Kingdom equivalent NVQ levels 2 to 4 (DFE, 1993: 1).

Culinary Education

FRANCE

Culinary education is within the state system in France. It is offered in some 200 Lycee d’Enseignement Professionnels provides the Brevet d’Etudes Professionnelles (BEP) equivalent to the higher end of full-time British craft certification. The BEP is a two-year course with a strong general education base. In the first year students sit for a common subjects but in the second year there are three options offered: Food Preparation, Restaurant Service and Accommodation. The technical content of BEP programme and the final examination is quite similar to the Certificat d’Aptitude Professionnelle (CAP). As Rutter (1992) noted:

The general and technical syllabus of the BEP does not limit students
Figure 2.9 The Vocational Qualifications System in France

Source: DFE, 1993: 1
to one particular speciality but gives them a broad-based training in the professional area in which they propose to work. It opens out a wide range of career opportunity including provision for students who have done well in the BEP to move on to the BTH following a year's bridging course required to bring the student to the same academic standard as that of normal entrants to the BTH; alternatively food service students in particular can advance through the baccalaureate professional restauration to supervisory jobs in restaurants.

The entry age level for the BEP is around 15 and a three year full-time craft programme is normally for 13 year olds with the same technical content as the BEP programme but less general education Certificat d'Aptitude Professionnelle (CAP)

The introduction of the baccalaureate professionel restauration which is a specialised form of the general baccalaureate covering much the same ground as the BEP but with a stronger element of work experience designed to equip students, immediately after qualifying for appointment in quasi-supervisory restaurant occupations (Rutter & Teare, 1992: 15).

There are also culinary schools which offer full-time CAP providing similar qualification through part-time apprenticeship. This schools are operated mainly by the state and by Chambers of Commerce or an independent training agencies with state accreditation. They are called Centre de Formation d’Apprentis taking apprentice from age 16 and above.

The CAP is a basic craft qualification which can be achieved through three paths. Students can opted for a three years full-time study at a Lycee d’Enseignement
Professional (LEP) from the age of 13 or a two year apprenticeship from the minimum age of 16 with part-time education at a recognised centre or at any age by acquiring modules at an individual’s own pace. The last path is not open to students following a two year apprenticeship or the three LEP programme. There are three main streams: cookery, restaurant, and accommodation services. It is compulsory for full-time students to spend at least eight weeks working in the industry during their programme. In France, apprenticeship training schemes are governed by law which makes provision for vocational training schemes for young people. There is a contract drawn between an apprentice and an employer ensuring that a minimum wage and at least 400 hours of theoretical education in a recognised centre each year. The amount of off-job training given compares favourably with the one day a week for four years which the British industry-based craft trainee traditionally spent at college. Although the routes taken to CAP by full-time apprentices and full-time students are different, the qualifying examinations are identical and have the backing of law. Those for restaurant and accommodation services follow much the same line. The more talented students from the full-time route are encouraged to embark on the BEP and thence the baccalaureate professional.

Culinary education is offered in the public and private sectors of the hotel and catering schools. Perhaps the most prestigious is the Paris Ecole Superieure de Cuisine Francaise and Centre de Formation Technologique which is jointly owned by the Paris Chamber of Commerce, the National Association of Restaurant (Rutter & Teare, 1992: 49). One of the leading private hotel school offering culinary is Ecole
Ferrandi which has developed a high standards of gastronomy on craft apprenticeship and on business management. Ferrandi focuses on practical work in the industry and having a flexible system combining both theory and practical of the hospitality industry. The Ecole Ferrandi noted that formal academic qualifications are less important in selection criteria than personal qualities, particularly a determination to get on in the profession. Perhaps the advantage of the private school is the ability to offer good pay and be able to invite top chefs or practising businessmen to give weekly master classes to students. The diploma programme offered at Ecole Ferrandi’s is for two years for pupils already possessing a BTH or a baccalaureate professionel. However students with CAP or a BEP are required.

There are other hotel training schools in France. Four of the main French hotel schools are - Thonon-les-Bains, Grenoble, Toulouse and Bordeaux which are operate training hotels - hotel d’application. There is no prestigious Grande Ecole in France for catering and hotelkeeping (HCTC, 1992 January: 18). It is worth to mention that it is possible to begin vocational education in France as early as 13 years of age.

Culinary Training
FRANCE

In France, apprentices enter into a contract with the employers. The apprentice received each week 3 or 4 days of on-the-job training with the employer and 1 or 2 days at a college or a training centre where the apprentice can acquire the theoretical
knowledge to reinforce practical on-the-job training. Most apprenticeship training takes place in non-unionised small companies. Apprenticeship training systems are governed by law in France which makes provision for vocational training for young people usually at the age of 16 and those wishing to stop full-time attendance at school. During apprenticeship, a Maitre d’Apprentissage visited the apprentices at the establishment they are employed.

There are three main options opened to the full-time catering craft. They are food preparation, food service and accommodation. There is no difference between cooking and waiting course in terms of status. However the service sector is better paid with tips and that the entry requirements are similar in both disciplines. It is important to elaborate on the part of Ministry of Education played as controlling the curriculum for every course, setting examination and selecting and appointing teachers in catering in the French vocational education system. Craft teachers teaching craft subjects (BEP and CAP) has to meet qualifications sets by the ministry consists of tripartite consultative bodies: the professional committee, the ministry, and the educationist. Teaching craft subjects a teacher has to have five years experience in the industry and CAP or BEP. For BTS and BTH teachers must hold BTS with three years industrial experience or BTS with 5 years of working experience. All culinary teachers are calibred professional catering teachers as the Ministry set standards for examination to keep teaching profession abreast of development in educational philosophy and teaching techniques in the catering training colleges.
2.6 Education System

THE FEDERAL REPUBLIC OF GERMANY: AN OVERVIEW

Education is the responsibility of the eleven federal states known as Lander. This is under the old West German Constitution. The national Government plans the general principals for higher education, student aid, vocational training and guidance. The federal and state governments with the eleven states worked together on education planning to achieve a better systems and qualifications. Five new Landers were established since German reunification in 1990 which was formerly East Germany.

Compulsory education starts at six years of age and resumes for nine years (in some Lander for 10). A young person may leave school at 15 but is required by Lander law to continue his or her education through some mode of schooling up to the age of 18 (HMSO. 1993: 1). At the age of 18, all young students who do not attend a full-time school must attend a part-time vocational school (Berufsschule). Primary education is free and attendance at the Grundschule (elementary school) is mandatory for all young pupil during the first four years of school days, after which their education continues at one of four types of secondary school. Some attend the Hauptschule (general school) for five or six years, and then enter employment, but at the same time some pursue their education part-time for three years at a vocational school. On the other hand, pupils may have an option to attend the Realschdule (intermediate school) for six years, the Gymnasium (grammar school) for nine years, or the Gesamtschule (comprehensive school, available in some parts of the country).
for six years. The Abitur (grammar school leaving certificate) is an important prerequisite for university education. Figure 2.10 sets out the education system of FRG.

Vocational Education: THE FEDERAL REPUBLIC OF GERMANY
A Commitment to Education and Training

Youngsters not pursuing general education after the age of 15 must go to any of the vocational secondary schools for compulsory vocational education. This is available at least on a part-time basis and for a duration at least three years. The first year can be full-time or the three-year spent in the dual system. This involves a maximum of 12 hours a week of general and specialised vocational knowledge with the addition on-the-job training as apprentices. At the vocational school about 40 per cent is devoted to the continuation of general education such as social studies, economics and sport. The rest of the time is spent on vocational studies specific to student’s chosen discipline. Many students with the Abitur (higher education) and graduates preferred the dual system for vocational training although the privilege for vocational training does not depend on formal qualification. Some apprentices proceed to train as master (meister) - full trained workers with at least two years’ work experience and then further one or two years’ training (Collins, 1993: 85).

The government is responsible for various forms of vocational training outside the
Figure 2.10 The Education System in Federal Republic of Germany

Source: CEDEFOP, 1991: 28
Chapter 2: Literature Review I - A Review of National Education Systems

schools. As (PICKUP, 1991: 5) puts it:

Training is between the firm and the part-time vocational school. Contracts are made between the firm ("instructor") and trainee. The basic conditions of on-the-job training are governed by federal law, while classroom instruction is subject to the laws of individual states. Most learning takes place in factories, businesses and offices, supplemented by inter-plant training centres, rather than in schools.

The supervision on-the-job training is by self-regulatory public corporations with compulsory cooperation with all commercial organisations. These bodies check the suitability of training premises, staff qualification and organised examinations. Students must take a final examination, oral and written tests to qualify for the vocational certificate. The successful completion of vocational training is needed for employment and also is a prerequisite for a meister (master) after a number of years of work experience with successful completion of appropriate examination. Collins (1993) noted that this dual system differentiates Germany from other systems in operation in European Communities (EC). It is worth mentioning here that with this system the level of cooperation and involvement of employers and employee relationships is high as each organisation is represented in the entire system of vocational education and training. The advantage is that organisations are maintaining closer contact with schools and curricula ensuring each trainee is properly supervised. Therefore there is a great input between the industry into vocational education and training. With this system it is assumed that qualified workers were guaranteed and that is almost impossible to find a permanent work without a qualified certificate in
Chapter 2: Literature Review I - A Review of National Education Systems

every recognised occupation.

There are also various ways for advanced qualifications can be achieved. The students attend Berufsaufbauschule (vocational extension school) while or after attending part-time vocational school. Berufsaufbauschule provides advanced general and vocational training than part-time and awards the Fachschulreife. For pupils who are interested in technical schools (Fachschulen) they must have done relevant vocational training and should have already been employed in their discipline. Examples of areas in Fachschulen are agriculture, technology, commerce, industry and health care. There are 375 "recognised occupations" defined by Federal Government in Germany (Rutter, 1992: 21)

The Dual System

There are three training options: Training under the dual system in the workplace combined with a vocational school, studies in a higher vocational school or training in a private hotel school. The vast majority of employees in hospitality sector opts for job-related training under the dual system. No employer or firm is obliged to provide training (HMSO, 1991: 13). Companies provide training voluntarily and regularly at their own expense (FMES, 1992 May: 24). The training of craft workers in the Federal Republic of Germany takes place mainly within the dual system as displayed in figure 2.11. The dual system has a long tradition and the termed was created by the German Commission for Education (1953-1965). It is a training with
Figure 2.11 The Pedagogic Structure of the Dual System

Source: CEDEFOP, 1991: 41
the cooperation of two training bodies: the private firms and the many publicly-run vocational schools worked closely with a certain division of tasks towards a particular group of trainees for a substantial spans of time. The status of the groups are both trainees and vocational school students. Various learning venues was often used by firms such as in-firm instruction and training workshops. Classroom session is the main learning venue in vocational schools but laboratories, workshops are often used for a shorter periods.

The dual system is the most important part of the vocational training of the Federal Republic of Germany. It is a flexible system meeting to the needs of the economy taking into consideration the changing demand for the training places. Training in an establishment is governed by a Federal Law (Vocational Training Act) while in the vocational schools instruction is the responsibility of the Federal Lander (school laws). An individual undergoing vocational training within the dual system is a trainee and as well a vocational school student (a Lehrling and a Berufsschuler). The first status arises from the training contract (Ausbildungsvertrag) which he has completed with his employer. The student attend the Berufsschule on one or two days a week, spending the remaining days in the organisation. There is a 'block system' given to a new variant of alternating learning processes on the job in the Berufsschule.

The block system is an alternating learning processes on the job and in the Berufsschule. In the traditional form of the dual system trainees attend the Berufsschule as an 'accompaniment to training, that is on one or two days a week.
throughout the entire training period. However, in the block system, Berufschule blocks are longer usually several weeks alternate with in-firm blocks. Therefore, a young individual will remained for quite a long period as a Berufsschule pupil or a trainee on the job. Figure 2.12 illustrates the difference between the block system and the classical organizational form of learning at the Berufschule and on the job (CEDEFOP, 1991: 115).

Culinary Education
THE FEDERAL REPUBLIC OF GERMANY

The main provider of catering education and training for hotel and catering in Federal Republic of Germany is vocational schools in Landers responsible for all education and vocational education with Chamber of Commerce given powers by Federal legislation even over the conduct of industrial training. The providers are as follows:

Berufsschule: This is a part-time vocational schools which form an important part of the secondary education system and apprenticeship training known as the dual system. They are funded by the states and the most significant providers for the hospitality industry. Taking the 16 to 19 year old population, over 73 per cent embarked on the dual system in 1989 compared with under 60 per cent in 1984 (HCTC 1992: 16).
Figure 2.12 The Block System

Source: CEDEFOP, 1991: 15
Berufsfachschule: This is a full-time vocational school which caters primarily for the less academically favoured students. There are a number of private and public sector establishments.

Fachoberschule: This institutions are intended for mature students leaving the Realschule equal to British GCSE. They provide a full-time vocationally-oriented higher level programmes at a Fachhochschule which is close to the British polytechnic. The closes equivalent to culinary arts is home economics.

Hotelfachschule: Offered the highest level of industry-specific vocational education for hotel and catering. They are one to two years programmes in the public schools and there are also offered in private institutions. The entry requirement are a minimum of two years practical experience with a successful completion of an apprenticeship.

Universities and Fachochschule: The closest careers to catering and hotelkeeping are general business and administration and economics. The entry requirement is for the Abitur (A level equivalent). There are very few universities and fachochschule which provide tourism in the economics discipline.

In Germany, apprenticeship is the main form of vocational training for young people. Majority of the 16-year-old secondary school graduates go into the apprenticeship system. The minority of youngsters who do not attend into the apprenticeship in
Germany either attend vocational training schools or go to college. Duration of apprenticeship is 2 to 4 years but last normally for three years for the hotel and catering apprenticeship students. Apprentices spend 1 or 2 days a week at a vocational school and remain with the employers with the supervision of the master. The apprentice follow a predetermined training program. The firm is responsible for offering apprenticeship contracts and selecting the apprentice. Apprentices are paid a training allowance based on 20 to 40 per cent of the national average wage.

Culinary Training

THE FEDERAL REPUBLIC OF GERMANY

Training for hotel and catering industry and as for the culinary arts is confined to the dual system as mention earlier. Any young person leaving school and wishing to become qualified for an occupation in hotels and catering including management must take apprenticeship usually for three years in one of four crafts (HCITB, 1979: 6). Apprenticeships for the hospitality industry are offered in the following trades.

1. Cooks
2. Waiters
3. Hotel and Catering Assistant
4. Hotel Administrator

Figure 2.13 describes the apprenticeship schemes for hotel and catering in FRG.
Figure 2.13 The German Hotel and Catering Apprenticeship Scheme

### Work-based training on apprenticeship schemes

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>YEAR</th>
<th>COOK</th>
<th>HOTEL/RESTAURANT SPECIALIST</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Health, safety, hygiene and the environment †</td>
<td>• Menu and wine list planning and presentation †</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Foreign languages and technical terms †</td>
<td>• Dietetic and nutritional principles and practices †</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Organisational structure †</td>
<td>• Restaurant service and cleaning – bills and accounts †</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Accommodation services – use of cleaning equipment</td>
<td>• Room and table decoration</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Stock control and food/beverage storage †</td>
<td>• Office work</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Buffet works †</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>YEAR</th>
<th>HOTEL SPECIALIST</th>
<th>RESTAURANT SPECIALIST</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Further intensified training in year 1 subjects marked †</td>
<td>• As year 1, but in more depth</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Kitchen organisation and control</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Use and maintenance of kitchen equipment</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Calculation of costs and prices</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Practice in preparation of salads, vegetables and farinaceous products; egg dishes; soups and sauces; fish of all kinds; meat, offal, game and poultry; hot and cold starters; cheese dishes; desserts – hot, cold and frozen; convenience foods</td>
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<thead>
<tr>
<th>YEAR</th>
<th>HOTEL SPECIALIST</th>
<th>RESTAURANT SPECIALIST</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Office work</td>
<td>• Restaurant service and clearing away</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Hotel organisation</td>
<td>• Flambé work, carving and filleting at table</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Housekeeping and general management</td>
<td>• Menu and tariff planning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Stores and administration</td>
<td>• Wine appreciation and wine list planning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Reception</td>
<td>• Wine and other drink service</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Marketing, advertising and public relations</td>
<td>• General bar work</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Banqueting and other function catering</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Restaurant organisation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• General organisational structure</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Advertising and publicity</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Rutter, 1992: 24
2.7 Analysis and Comparison: MALAYSIA, EUROPE AND UNITED STATES OF AMERICA

The analysis which follows compare the principal characteristics and differences between the countries on the dimensions of the role of government, the needs of industry and the costs of training.

Role of Government

Possibly the most prominent and striking feature of the systems of vocational education and training of the five countries described in this chapter is that they reflect the characteristics of the societies of which they belong. To some extent the educational systems as a whole are microcosms of the societies of which they share. This is illustrated by the role of the state, that is, the central government, in the provision of vocational education and training in each of the five countries studied. It is clear that there are rapid changes in technology throughout the world which are causing governments to look seriously at the quantity and quality of skills training of the work force in the labour market. Perhaps the most highly centralised state is Malaysia, mainly for historical and traditional reasons, the central government has largely determined the nature and content of publicly-run educational system. It is similar with the public vocational training institutions or centres are run by government ministries. However, the private sector of vocational education and
training is flourishing and encouraged.

In United Kingdom the role of the central government in the context of vocational education and training is relatively small. Many of the courses for training, craftsmen and technicians is the responsible of the local educational authorities through the technical colleges and colleges of further education. Industry depend to a great extent on the maintained colleges to train its skilled personnel until recently with the introduction of the NVQs by NCVQ established in 1986 in UK. As of March 1992 only 25 NVQs/SVQs had been approved in catering and hospitality, the licensed trade and travel services (Hayter, 1993). As of end December 1994 the NVQ Monitor March 1993 issue reported a total of 104 NVQ certificates was awarded. The strongest reason for central control of vocational education is the acknowledgement that in some countries where an inadequate system of vocational and training exists leads to an ill-prepared work force which is a prime cause of industrial and economic decline. While there are many causes of the United Kingdom’s poor record in training for its workers, the case for governments intervention in vocational education and training has only just been recognised. Afiya (1993) noted the mixed feelings of the employers and educationists on the NVQs when it was introduced into the hospitality industry.

Contrast the reluctant interventionist policies of the UK with the Federal Republic of Germany who assume responsibility for the provision of vocational education and training devolved to the eleven state governments. The greatest feature of the German
system is that the structure of vocational education and training relies on shared responsibility, management, and finance among the Federal, Lander and municipal governments, the employers and the trade unions. It is a more unified system. Even the French system, with its emphasis on curriculum design by governments does not share the responsibility between the public and private sectors.

**Needs of Industry**

In Malaysia, what is needed is a new vocationalism introducing a national standard systems for school-leavers, moving of the secondary school curriculum in a vocational direction by such curricular developments. A Malaysian education consultant suggested that Malaysia’s education system must undergo a major transformation before manpower shortages can be resolved (STAR, February 4, 1991). The drive to introduce more vocationalism into secondary schools and tertiary education in Malaysia is needed. However, it is by no means certain that this is the best way of providing more and more highly skilled youngsters, indeed, another in the French model, where youngsters received a sound general education, secondary streaming into craft at an earlier stage, up to the age of 15 with effective system of training, industry-based can be structured. The long established German dual system with its mixture of vocational training and general education is a more practicable model to follow. Which ever direction the Malaysian government chooses to go is unlikely to achieve success. In an increase world of technological innovation, the need for a
successful system of vocational education and training in Malaysia is one that recognises and promotes educational and vocational training by the individual interest and for the economy of the country.

In Malaysia there is no official cooperation between employers and school systems as in Germany but an increase in cooperative and work experience programs. A tripartite systems represented by employers, trade unions, and government work together to decide on the occupations in each sector to be studies and agree on a list of tasks performed in each occupation. This will allow appropriate qualifications for the occupation in the labour force and give job seekers the right to have their qualifications. Craft teachers are qualified personnel as the French vocational education system set standard for craft teachers.

Completion of training certificates need not be recognised by other employers. The German system provides recognition for chosen occupation with any employer. This is not the case in Malaysia. Malaysian policy maker should consider having more specialised vocational high schools as the vocational education is not likely to receive the attention it deserves within the tradition secondary school setting. There is a consensus in Malaysia that traditional approaches to qualifications based upon learning inputs are no longer capable to meet labour market needs. What worked before does not work today. The trend of thinking is towards a more specialised flexible system which provide for people at work to become qualified workers. Two aspects of policy missing from the Malaysian system are:
* Strong cooperation between employers and educationist.

* Tailoring of education and training to occupation.

Malaysia needs to develop vocational education to meet the rapid changing needs of industry. In this regard, corporation has to play an active role in working with education to develop and implement improved vocational curricula. Otherwise the country will not be able to keep pace with Japan and its major European competitions like Germany. As the pace of technological change increases, so will the demand for skilled workers as Malaysia wanted to be full industrialised country by the year 2020. To meet this, Malaysian corporation and public policy makers need to look for successful models, as Drucker (1986) puts it that 'there is a lot we can learn from the Germans'.

Gray (1989) suggested it is time to set the record straight. He pointed the finger at vocational and technical education as the source of handling the critical workforce shortages. The Malaysian Star Newspaper (1992 March 28) reported that there is an acute shortage of skilled labour which is strongly felt in the Malaysian hospitality industry.

The existing qualifications do not go far enough in providing the kind of clear qualifications necessary to meet the demands of the labour market. Therefore there is a need for new directions for action by the government to ensure that the national
systems are not over-centralised and to allow maximum input from institutions and industries throughout the country which help employers for easy access to clear descriptions of qualifications to meet the job requirement offered. In a sense, this is what the UK is trying to do with the NVQs.

**Costs of Training**

The question of the role of government is central closely to the question of who should pay for vocational education. The dilemma is how to control standards whilst giving industry enough incentive to train. Too much central control means industry will expect the state to pay. Too little central control the industry might neglect training.

At a practical level it is question of public or private funding of education.

The Malaysian Government invested a substantial amount of money into education. Statistics from the Ministry of Education estimated as of December 1994 the number of Malaysian government sponsored students studying abroad was 14,272. Self-sponsored students numbered almost twice which is estimated around 33,699.

On an average the annual cost of living for each student in America and United Kingdom is estimated between RM20,000 to RM60,000. In comparisons it is estimated that cost of an individual studying abroad a year is equal to a student in the local university for a period of 4 years (Utusan Malaysia, 1995 April 6).
This study pointed to some possible weakness in the education systems because it has become increasingly important in making international comparisons to criticise Malaysian educational and training practices compared with Europe and U.S. The strengths of the German dual system are there to view. It produces higher proportion of qualified employees for the labour market than the recent introduction of NVQs and SVQs in Britain. Although there is no real evidence, the products of the dual system are more competent than their British and French counterparts. The Malaysian vocational system too is not as well equipped with technical and social skills as the dual system. Comparisons of some of the distinguishing features are:

* in Germany and France the early streaming of youngsters into craft professions.

* the German Dual System is committed to education and training.

* the German vocational schools and educationist are involved in training in industry.

* the German system has standardised apprenticeship programmes or schemes.

* the French and German professional associations are involved in training

Germany has no universities or polytechnic offering programme of hotel and catering management compared in UK. Most hotel and catering German products are from the dual system. However the British produced graduates and diplomas at the expense
of skilled practitioners. Most German managers in the hotel and catering sectors go through the education and training in dual system but the structure and content of state higher vocational education severely restricts their opportunity for education development into business management. The dual system dominated by work-based training for employment and may not meet the new demand for progress into management and business.

An important feature of the five systems is the involvement of the private sector. In this context, the term private sector is concern with the private institutions not related to the state sector or government agencies which provide programmes of vocational education and training. The private sectors plays an important role but one which varies enormously from one country to another. In the United States, it plays a major part, in United Kingdom is growing whilst the Federal Republic of Germany, it is unimportant as a major role already played by the commerce and industry. These differences are assumed to come from differing political philosophies. For example, in the United States, where private entrepreneurship is encouraged and therefore the private sector flourishes. Thus the American proprietorial vocational colleges financially support large proportions of the systems of vocational education and training. In United Kingdom and Malaysia, a different tradition exists. The contribution of the private sectors is small as the vocational education and training has been provided by what are termed maintained colleges, that is, institutions financed by the government. In recent years, the situation in the United Kingdom and Malaysia has changed as private institutions have developed in numbers.
The argument is that private colleges that provide courses of job related character are quick to respond to the labour market demands. On the other hand, they provide limited subjects and the investment on equipment is not high. There are many variations in the standards as this colleges are very concerned with making more money for their institutions that lacks some degree of control over standards. Hence, to ensure good standards are maintained, it is the government ministries responsibility to develop proper periodic system of inspection at their premises from time to time.

One major differences between one country to another is the attitude toward industrial training by organisations. In Malaysia, as in the UK, among companies, the development of work forces are generally speaking not given of high priority. The fact that employers assume that new employees are equipped with a sound general education from school or college and therefore they are not willing to spend money on training.

In FRG, since industrial training is offered by the industry on-the-job, which varies in length from one job to another. Thus training costs are sustained by training establishments. It is a national tradition that employers provide initial industrial training, retraining and skills upgrading. This attitude gives a good image for industry to the young as it suggests a high skilled labour force and an environment of social stability (Hayes, 1984). In comparisons, the British tradition, as observed by Malaysian and the United Kingdom, has a different approach. In Malaysia generally most workers and students are full-time whereby industrial training is quite difficult and expensive. In this case, until recently Malaysia has not considered it is necessary
to introduce national policies for the development of skills training. Therefore it is obviously natural for industry to rely largely on the colleges and academic institutions for labour force. In United Kingdom, it is quite similar as the further education colleges (FEC) provide skills training as in Malaysia. Most industry provides limited training while the larger corporations have in house training comparable in quality to education. Many companies provide little or no adequate training and as a whole the commitment to training by industry which is so typical of Federal Republic of Germany is absent in Malaysia and United Kingdom. Many employers are opposed to invest on training and prefer the method of "poaching" an employee by a rival company. Money spent on individual training is often wasted. There are signs that the training scene from the respective employers is changing. There is also a concern of training for women. Malaysia’s workforce is forecasted to be more than 50 percent of women working by the year 2000. The contribution of women to the economy is an important part of the country. Such problems are also faced in United States, in the United Kingdom, by Federal Republic of Germany and France. This phenomenon on training girls and women will require a range of questions over the next few years. The training of foreign workers are also likely to be in greater demand in future as more foreign workers are working in the country now as ever before. The size of foreign labour in Malaysia is about one million (Malaysia Digest, 1993). Some form of training is necessary to help them achieve their ability to develop skills and to meet the needs of the industry. A special designed programmes is created tailored to jobs to perform the task. The problem of training women and foreigners puts pressure on the general attitude of employers toward training as a cost rather than as an
investment. There is continuous "tension" between the state and industry in this area.

2.8 Future of Malaysia

As we approach the 21st century, the world of work will be characterized more and more in Malaysia by a shift from a commodity-based to a manufacturing with a high technology to a challenge of becoming a fully industrialised by the year 2020. The manufacturing sector has been the great success story of the Malaysian economy but agriculture's role has diminished (Cooke, 1992). Manufacturing will comprise a larger share of the Malaysian economy as to a lesser extent will tourism. Occupational education is projected to experience the fastest growth during the next few years. The problem confronted in the transition from a manufacturing to a high-tech economy is a difference in the types of jobs available and skills necessary to do the job. The major characteristics of new jobs will be heavily reliance on educated workers. Malaysia will require led specialists to be in high-tech industries. More new nobs will be created which require some education beyond high school. Very few jobs will be created for those who cannot read, follow directions and use mathematics. All job will require more-solving and communicating skills as well as basic skills. The workforce and the population in Malaysia will grow as more women will enter the workforce. Foreign workers will also share of the new entrants into the labour force. This diverse labour pool will increased the need for more highly-educated workers and will puts a particularly heavy burden on the education system.
in Malaysia towards surviving the 21st century. No aspects of schooling feels these pressures more than the vocational education. Pressures for academic reforms, greater emphasis on colleges and attendance. Either vocational must change or cease to exist as a viable component of public education is a question or how can education and industry combine to address this issue? Malaysian economy has the greatest need for what vocational education has to offer which is helping students with diverse backgrounds, learning problems, personal needs, career aspirations and home condition.

Summary

Table 2.1 summarises the main characteristics of the education systems compared in the chapter. Table 2.2 summarises the main characteristic of the vocational education system compared in the chapter.
Vocational education systems provide the individual with the education and training needed to prepare for an occupation or career within a defined area of the economy. Any vocational education "system" exists within the wider education system of the country. What is special about vocational systems is their closeness to labour market mechanisms. Vocational education systems lead to different responses from the labour market. Such markets will adapt to whatever vocational education produces or fails to produce. The development of evidence of this relationship as a continuum is an important contribution of the study. From the comparisons given above in this chapter, it is quite clear that there is substantial diversity among national vocational education systems and the way they have evolved. Vocational systems have their influence on different agencies such as enterprises, trade unions, students, parents, teachers and higher education institutions. The role of these agencies represents the structure to which the labour market mechanisms have to adapt.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>MALAYSIA</th>
<th>UK</th>
<th>USA</th>
<th>FRANCE</th>
<th>FRG</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Primary Education</strong></td>
<td>Started at 6 for six years until 12 years old</td>
<td>Started at 5 for 6 years</td>
<td>Started at 6 but varies from state to state</td>
<td>Started at 6 for 5 years</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Secondary Education(lower level)</strong></td>
<td>For 3 years until 15 years old</td>
<td>Started at 11</td>
<td>Varies from state to state</td>
<td>Cycle 1 for 4 years</td>
<td>For 5 years</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Secondary Education(upper level)</strong></td>
<td>For 2 years until 17 or 18 years old</td>
<td>GCSE &quot;O&quot; level at 16 GCE &quot;A&quot; level at 18</td>
<td>Varies from state to state</td>
<td>Cycle 2 early streamings</td>
<td>For 3 years and early streamings</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Higher Education</strong></td>
<td>Depending on levels of education</td>
<td>Depending on levels of education</td>
<td>Depending on levels of education</td>
<td>Depending on levels of education</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### TABLE 2.2 VOCATIONAL EDUCATION SYSTEMS: MALAYSIA, EUROPE AND U.S COMPARED

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Vocational Educational Institutions</th>
<th>MALAYSIA</th>
<th>UK</th>
<th>USA</th>
<th>FRANCE</th>
<th>FRG</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Vocational school, private school, training centres &amp; institutes, polytechnics</td>
<td>Vocational school, private school, training centres &amp; institutes, polytechnics</td>
<td>Colleges of Further Education; private sector training providers</td>
<td>Private and community colleges, vocational schools, private and state universities and colleges</td>
<td>Vocational schools; apprentice training centres, adult vocational training centres</td>
<td>Training company and part-time vocational schools (Berufsschulen)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vocational Qualifications</td>
<td>MCVE, certificates and diplomas</td>
<td>NVQs, SVQs, GNVQs, BTEC and SCOTVEC certificates and diplomas</td>
<td>Certificates and diplomas</td>
<td>Vocational training certificate and diplomas</td>
<td>Certificate awarded by a Chamber of Industry and Commerce, a Chamber of Handicrafts, a Guild or a Vocational School</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Awarding Organizations</td>
<td>Ministry of Education, Government Ministries: departments and training agencies</td>
<td>RSA, BTEC, SCOTVEC, City &amp; Guilds of London Institute</td>
<td>Department of Education, training agencies, institutions &amp; universities</td>
<td>Ministry of National Education; Ministry of Labour, Employment and Training</td>
<td>Chamber of Industry and Commerce (IHK), Chamber of Handicrafts (IHK), Guild or Vocational School</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
REFERENCES


Chapter 2: Literature Review I - A Review of National Education Systems


CHAPTER 3
CHAPTER 3

LITERATURE REVIEW II

EDUCATION AND EXPERIENCE CONTRASTED

3.1 Introduction

The issues which surround consideration of vocational education and work experience as alternatives fall into four broad headings which are; firstly, the performance of the labour market as an intervening mechanism in the educational process. Secondly, the issue of alternative costs between education and training in the industry. Thirdly, the problem for planners which involved collecting information in an area when the labour market can been dynamic and difficult to measure. Fourthly, the benefit and costs of mobility. This chapter summarised the work of Riley (1991 & 1993) and Psacharopoulos (1991), Pollock and Ritchie (1990), Stalker (1994), Ashton and Sung (1994), Carnoy (1994), and Caillods (1994). It addresses the degree to which national
The conventional academic view of labour markets is as mechanisms for the distribution of skills, the setting of wage levels and the determination of the level of employment. In this tradition the analytical focus is upon the operation of supply and demand and upon the market segmentation that cuts across the workings of these market forces (Mattier and Shafto, 1989). Enhancement of this approach has come from interest in the internal behaviour of firms and its effect on the external labour market (Doeringer and Piore, 1971). This focus on internal firm behaviour as being significant to labour market analysis has developed into a broader interest in the behaviour of management and organisations. It has brought labour economics closer to organizational behaviour. The way organisations are managed is now seen as a major determinant of the character of labour markets (Edwards, 1979). The extension of the organization - market interface has led to a greater interest in qualitative aspects of labour supply and demand (Psacharopoulous, 1991). It is this aspect which directs this research.
education and training programmes acknowledged the role of the labour markets as mechanisms for skill and knowledge acquisition.

3.2 The Role of the Labour Markets

Riley (1991) introduces some basic ideas of general labour markets as a preliminary for his anatomy of hotel and catering labour markets which follows the notion that economic imperatives and technical imperatives are integrated into structures and behavioural patterns. The point is that markets are defined by a set of skills represented by occupations and ordered within firms. In the case of the hotel and catering industry skills are industry specific and therefore the mobility is principally within the perimeters of the industry labour market. Movement into and out of the industry is largely restricted to unskilled jobs. According to Riley, two major influences on all these activities are: the nature of skills involved and the stochastic nature of consumer demand for services. The basic idea behind the arguments is that skills are accumulated by mobility within the industry labour market.

Riley constructs a skill model which is based on the transferability of skills between units. This welds together the concepts of mobility and skill accumulation. The skill model is in three stages. The first stage, differentiates skills into a skill classification of four tiers. The second stage estimates the number of skilled workers to unskilled per unit in proportions. This is achieved by using Knight (1971) to build an
occupational structure of a hotel and an institutional catering establishment. The author highlights the difficulty in separating skills from occupational labels. This problem is overcome with the conversion of an occupational structure into a skills classification. The third stage is to capture the graduation of skill within the skill category and to analyse the industry by its components sections of hotels, restaurants, industrial catering, hospitals etc. The model condenses the industry into two categories: hotel and restaurants and institutional catering. Finally, the model is used to explain mobility patterns. The factor is the model that influence mobility are as follows:

1. the transferability of skills across all sectors if the industry.

2. the non-transferability of skills across occupational boundaries.

3. the 'skill pyramid' structure of the industry offering mobility as a means of skill acquisition.

4. On-the-job training capacity.

5. the existence of a top limit to the capacity for skill and knowledge learning in each unit.

6. the opportunity to work at below the maximum skill level without loss of material benefit.
Riley concludes that mobility offers a means for the individual wishing to acquire skills or use less of the skill. Finally Riley (1991) relates the skill model to the analysis of pay on the nature of unskilled workers and argues that is the economic interests of each unit conflict with the overall skill needs of the industry. Therefore responsibility for skill development may be passed to vocational education supplemented by mobility around the hierarchically structured units.

Riley (1993) goes on to construct a conceptual model in order to understand the relationships between labour markets and vocational education. The conceptual framework argues the mode of human resource management and qualitative demands of vocational education are related to the skill model of the industry. He criticises the government approaches to labour issues. The broad strategy often assumes that labour markets are motionless in character. He noted that tourism labour market are almost invariably dynamic in nature and that the government did not recognise this quality.

In contrast to the dynamic model suggested by Riley (1993), Pollock and Richie (1990) present a more static concept. Pollock and Richie (1990) reported on the efforts of two provincial governments in Canada namely Alberta and British Columbia in developing an integrated strategy for tourism education and training system for the present and future students in tourism industry. The Alberta model is a response to the lack of adequate education and training of personnel and service in Alberta tourism. It is designed to enhance the focus and efforts of educators and government agencies to meet industry needs. It proposed series of programs across all levels of
the education system such as improving skills, viewing hospitality industry as a career and receiving certification on completion. It is a "tripartite system". It acts as a central point for providing discussion among industry, government and educators with a mission to meet the present and future training and hospitality education of Alberta tourism industry. Specific goals and objects were suggested in the study but it is noteworthy here the great majority of its specific recommendations pertained to the vocational training needs of the hotel and restaurant sectors.

The British Columbia model is more complete and more visionary than the Alberta model. Several key dimensions has been structured for the Columbia model. These are:

* Sectors of the tourism industry.
* Levels of concentration in tourism.
* Levels of job activity.

It was also concluded fourteen basic principles have been enunciated underlying the model for an education strategy to be successful over the long term period. The purpose of the present strategy is to provide an education and training system which will improve the hospitality industry as a whole by reaching the employers, owners and manager to tourists. There are five main components in the Columbia model. They are as follows:
1. It address the subject of career path in which was outlined in the career path model.

2. The need for state-wide credentials.

3. The need of an organization responsible for training, development of programs and granting industry-wide certification.

4. An active partnership between government, industry and educators at all levels.

5. The effective use of human resources, financial, educational institutions with substantial commitment of private and public sector funds.

In conclusion, the model focused on the conceptual foundation for the development of a tourism education system for Alberta and British Columbia. The pursuit for professionalism can be matched by the creation of provision of an education and training infrastructure capable of meeting the needs of its members and industry. Thus such a framework like the Alberta and Columbia model may provide a vision and a direction for the design and development for education and training in the hospitality industry but further refinement in the future. The approach of both models is that of "blue print" a static view of labour markets.
Carnoy (1994) argues that, as a result of the changes in economic reality, the present system of vocational education and training (VET) in almost all countries, is incongruent with their skill needs. He reviews the objectives involved in achieving efficient and equitable VET and presented a methodology to measure a VET system's effect on efficiency and ability to select criteria for the portion of public resources to meet this mission. He discusses in depth on the proportion of resources spent on VET and cites examples in certain countries such as Germany, France and Japan. Finally he offers some guidelines to use VET to improve economic and social equity.

Caillods (1994) looks at the structure of VET system in industrialized countries, central and Eastern Europe, newly industrialized countries and low-income countries. He pointed out some diversity in the way different VET systems are structured and managed in Japan, France and Germany and making some comparisons with countries like Hungary, Republic of Korea, Singapore, Taiwan and some African countries. He identifies converging trends between countries with different cultural conditions and at different stages of economic development. In spite of some differences, the author argues most countries are reorganizing their VET systems to confronted with similar problems and similar solutions. Lastly he looks at the trends in the management of VET with an attempts to make them more flexible through decentralization and giving greater autonomy to institutions.

Aston and Sung (1994) examines the role of the state in the process of skill formation among the East Asian New Industrial Countries. They proposed a new model of skill
formation in which the government’s future political and economic goals are used as a basis for the definition of the nation’s skill needs, not the needs of employers or individual. Training is directed to ensure the requisite human resources are in place to achieve those goals. The example of Singapore is used to illustrate this model. Firstly, the authors introduced two main models of skills formation process in the East Asian Industrial Countries (NICs) of Hong Kong, Singapore, South Korea and Taiwan. The first was from the dependency/world-system theory and the second was from neo-classical economics. They commented both theories fail to handle the proactive nature of state intervention in the process of skill formation. In this article they argued that a neglected aspect of the developmental state has been its role in developing appropriate system of skill formation and pointed that activities of the state in establishing education and training system and enhancing work-based skill formation is a departure from the experience of the older industrial societies such as UK, Germany and Japan.

In this new model, they specify that the basis of assessing national skills needs is not to meet the needs of the individual employer but for the government’s future economic goals. The kind of society the government wish to achieve and the standard of living they expect to obtain is central to all government policies and so provides the rationale for the developmental state. Once a government establishes its vision then it identifies the required human and physical infrastructure needed for such industries that will be competitive in the world markets. Employers to some extent play a role in the skills needed but not as the main determinant. The main drive for
future skills needs are the economic objectives embodied in the vision of the future. When the government established the vision, it is then passed down to appropriate channels to achieve those goals.

They noted that as the world markets change, and together the government's objectives and therefore the education and training policy changes to ensure that the required skills are in place. Thus it moves from low level to higher level skills. If institution were not able to provide the relevant skills then it is necessary to take appropriate steps to employ skilled workers overseas or to transfer the skills from multi-national firms to the local. It is worthy to mention that, here in this model when, the state recognises that to achieve an adequate supply of skilled labour requires the constant upgrading and modification of the education system to ensure that it produces basic skills appropriate to the present and future demands of the productive system. They pointed out this model provides dynamism in education policy as it is linked to the current and future demands of the economy ensuring the flows of skills in the labour market is in line with the future demands. The total need in terms of the human capital cannot depend on the educational system to enhance the stock of skills alone and stress the importance of work-based learning focusing on those already in employment.

The study suggested some source of resources such as income from general revenues, levies on employers, tax concessions for individual and companies or a combination of all three. The author recommends to learning from older industrial societies such
as UK, Germany and Japan in their ability to adapt to local environments. This article elaborately illustrated the case of Singapore in the process of skill formation and demonstrated how some agencies develop the skills of labour force for the enhancement of human resource for economic growth in line with government policy objectives and meeting future needs and demand.

A more fluid perspective of labour market activity is given by Psacharopolos (1991) who criticises manpower planning. He suggested a shift from traditional, old-fashioned, blind-alley activities in the area of manpower planning towards a set of more promising goals in labour market analysis. He says "historically, manpower planners have locked themselves into a long-term time horizons which leave little room for flexibility" and therefore manpower planning does not work. In his paper he concludes that to know how human capital is accumulated it is necessary to monitor labour markets. He suggests a move from static number forecasting to inspection of the dynamics of the labour market. He summarises this as follows:

* From planning to policy analysis.
* From manpower to labour force.
* From headcount to wage measuring.
* From firm employment surveys to household surveys.
* From opinion surveys to tracer studies.
* From occupational categories to educational profiles.
* From production efficiency to concern for poverty and equity.
From technical efficiency to economic efficiency.

* From output-labour relationships to cost-benefit analysis.

* From fixed wages to flexible wages.

* From skill-specific training to general training.

* From school-based training to firm-based training.

* From free education and training and training to cost recovery.

* From public education and training to private institutions.

* From filling long-term skill gaps to correcting labour market distortions.

The contrast between the old manpower planning and the newer labour market approach is the essence of this paper. To an extent, this study is based on his principle that to understand skills it is necessary to see how they have been accumulated through labour market activity.

3.3 The Alternative Costs of Education Versus Training

The normal approaches to the problems of educational investment that is, investment by educational authorities in a particular vocational direction, is assessment through cost-benefit studies. This approach requires the estimation of demand which in itself is problematic as there are a number of alternative approaches. These include an assessment of the employment prospects through the medium of national and industrial statistics, an assessment of the rate of technological change in the industry.
a forecast of the future income of relevant occupations and finally, specific studies of relevant occupations. The normal approach is to undertake cost-benefit analysis of career by education versus careers by industrial training. In the case of manufacturing industry marginal costs and revenues act as measures but in many industries the marginal product is difficult to calculate accurately.

3.4 Costs and Benefit of Mobility for the Economy

Stalker (1994) surveyed the migration of workers across international boundaries. He provides an analysis of economic migration over the globe and raised many issues in relation to labour migration. He examines why people move and looks at the costs and benefits of migration to the economy. He noted some evidence on the effects of immigration on a number of receiving countries.

He describes some stimulating evidence on the effect of immigration on OECD countries. Stalker noted that immigration may rejuvenate the population. He pointed out that it reduces the average age of the population with example of OECD countries like Australia, Belgium, Sweden, Canada, France and Federal Republic of Germany. This is caused firstly, that the new immigrants are younger than the host country as to be expected and more likely to move with no commitment in home countries and with more working years ahead. Secondly, immigrant families have more children then nationals as most immigrants come from countries with birth rates are higher.
Stalker selected OECD countries and used the Total Fertility Rate (TFR) chart to illustrate his points for comparisons for nationals and foreigners. He concludes foreigners do indeed have more children than nationals by providing fact and figures of fertility rates in three countries. He also cited that many industrial countries are concerned about the "greying" of the population. There are more elderly people and the age growing rate are increasing every month. This is a global phenomenon and he suggested some solution to population problems like promoting fertility as a long term solution.

He concluded that immigrants are unlikely, now or in the future to make much impression on the demographic balance of the receiving countries but may affect the levels of education and skills in the population. Using census data for the United States he illustrated that there are more Mexicans and Filipinos in U.S. He expressed that educated people are more likely to leave to more egalitarian countries where the more educated are not rewarded with a high proportion of national income. Stalker compares the Philippines and Mexico in this case whereby the former country lose more of its educated people. Stalker found striking differences between Asian immigrants having higher levels of education then the American-born population while the foreign-born Hispanics were in a much worse position. This is also true in Australia and Canada. Obviously the arrival of educated personnel provide a considerable gain for the receiving countries. He pointed out that today many receiving countries are setting higher standard for education entry. He cited example in Australia having a steady flow of professionals in and out as a result of exchange.
of professional personnel. The loss of professional was offset by the arrival of more foreign professionals in Australia.

He reported that immigrant workers commonly take the menial jobs which native workers are not interested. He termed it as the 3d’s job - dirty, dangerous, or demanding work. The reluctance to take on such a work can create severe labour shortages. On the other hand immigration could increase employment for the native population. The simple example is domestic service at home for low-skilled servants to manage the house which therefore release a woman to a high level full-time professional job. This phenomenon is not confined to United States but also in most Asian countries. Stalker puts it that the arrival of immigrants tend to have an employment multiplier effect on the regions where immigrants are concentrated, creating many white collar job which tend to be filled by natives.

The arrival of many immigrant workers might to some extent lower the over wage levels and inhibit wage increases. These workers were willing to work for low wages. But on the other hand if the absence of immigrants to do the job may force the local to do the menial job with increased wages. Stalker concludes that there may be an effect on local wages as a result of immigration but it is very small and careful empirical research suggests that this concern is not justified.
Chapter 3: Literature Review II - Education and Experience Contrasted

3.5 Problems of Data Collection

Perhaps the two most important issues are: firstly, data described the present situation has any relevant in the future and secondly, some data is very difficult to collect. In the later case some labour markets can make the collection of labour markets very difficult indeed. The basic rules is, the more dynamic the labour the more difficult it is to collect data.

The normal basic data used for assessing educational demand is population statistics and an information on the pattern of take-up of further of higher educations or school leavers. This forms the basis of educational planning including the planning of vocational education courses. However, when it comes to collecting data on the alternatives to fulltime education, that is, on the job training, the planner is at severe disadvantage. How does the planner find out how many people are training in industry and what jobs they will take up in the future? The issue here is a fundamental one for if vocational education and training are alternatives, then it should be possible to compare the alternative costs. However while it is relatively easy to collect information on education it is usually difficult to collect information on industrial training and experience.

The starting point of vocational educational planning is the age statistic at the school leaving age. To this is added the proportion of young people who achieve qualifications to get into higher or further education. This proportion is entirely
dependent upon the criteria used for moving into higher education. It is not fixed and can be altered by planners. At the school leaving age the population breaks into three sub-sections, there are, those who will enter the labour market, those who will enter higher education, and those who will seek vocational training in industry. The cost and efficiency calculation is between the last two. The problems for the planner are firstly, how to estimate the demand for vocational education, secondly to measure the influence of wages on the demand. The wage rate can work both ways. It may attract people directly into industrial training or it may attract them to defer earnings by going into full time education. The contribution of this study is as an example of an attempt to create the kind of methodology which will lead to an ability to access the costs of training in the market place.
REFERENCES


CHAPTER 4
CHAPTER 4

LITERATURE REVIEW III

CULINARY CAREERS

4.1 Introduction

At the outset it must be stated that the academic study of careers focuses almost exclusively on bureaucratic careers and career structures. The emphasis is clearly on middle-class white collar jobs. In a review of the literature spanning 20 years there found no reference to manual careers (Chartrand, 1991). In these circumstances it is not surprising to find literature on manual careers confined within vocational and occupational boundaries. As the literature on career paths and background characteristics of chefs is quite sparse, the researcher reports the published studies that has a secondary relationship to the topic. The issues which concerns the literature on culinary careers centre on training, education, deskilling and work flexibility. A
direct look at culinary careers reveals a changing role for chefs, a movement towards management and a persistent concern for how skills are acquired.

4.2 The Role of the Chef

There is remarkably little information about the careers of culinary workers in the hospitality industry. There has already been so much written about the chef but surprisingly very few comprehensive studies conducted on the chef as an individual. Many observers appear to have views about the job and career of chefs but evidence provided by the chefs themselves is rare.

There is a growing number of publications focused on hospitality management and managers by Nailon 1968; Mintzberg, 1973; Marshall, 1976; Hales, 1987; Ley, 1980; Arnaldo, 1981; Pickworth, 1982; Guerrier, 1987; Cooper, 1988; Riley and Turam, 1988. However, the literature on culinary workers is rather sparse.

Escoffier (1987) traces the careers of culinary workers in ancient Greece. He noted that most of the cooks which were depicted in the Greek theatre were slaves during the 4th century B.C. The Greek cooks were allowed by law to sell specialities of their own creation. The Greek tradition was passed on by Rome. It was in Rome the first professional societies of cooks were established known as Colloquium Coquorum. It was not until the 16th century A.D. that the cooking as a profession
gain prominence in the society. There was a decline in the level of sophistication during the Middle Ages but during the Italian Renaissance brought back the Roman tradition of cooking with the historical fact of the marriage of Henry IV and Catherine de Medici introduced France to the culinary wonders of the Italian Renaissance. The French chefs produced important cookbooks before the Italian and became highly regarded by society.

Escoffier looks at the evolution of the role of modern professional chef as a manager and administrator. The review starts with the career of chef Henri Vatel, 17th century. through Careme, one of the greatest French chefs to Alexis Soyer and Escoffier. The culinary tradition within the hotel started with the opening of Savoy Hotel in Paris. Chef Escoffier developed French cuisine and the "partie system". This system of work organization would please Frederick Taylor. The theme of this historical review is that the changing role of chef from the traditional work of cooking into modern profession of chefs managing the kitchen today.

The role of chefs today continues to mirror the traditional career paths depicted in the historical review. Like the great chef Escoffier, they write books and apply scientific thought in recipes. They also become famous. Probably the first study to date analyzing the role of the executive chef was conducted by Wayne Guyette in 1980. Questionnaires were send to the chefs and general managers of 425 hotels. The aim of the study was to determine how chefs performed the fours basic management functions of planning, organizing, directing and controlling. His results were that
both chefs and managers recognized the importance of managerial skills but both
groups disagreed significantly concerning the degree to which these skills were being
practised by the executive chefs. The findings showed that 90 per cent of all chefs
claimed themselves good or very good planners, while 63.3 per cent of all managers
judged their chefs’ skills as good or very good. The chefs judged themselves over
87 per cent good or very good organizers; however 61 per cent of their managers
agreed. The chefs felt that they had good or very good directing skills with 87 per
cent score while 58.3 per cent of their managers agreed. The same pattern emerged
for controlling skills where 87.55 per cent of the chefs felt that they were good or
very good at control while 60.8 per cent of managers agreed. In conclusion, this
study showed the executive chef to be consistently evaluating his performance in the
crucial managerial functions of planning, organizing, directing and controlling more
favourably than his general managers. Guyette’s findings were well founded. He felt
that most chefs were European trained where the system of apprenticeship had an
authoritarian role model of the master chef. Their advancement had been through the
ranks of culinarians not managers. It is noted that this emphasis on technical skills
to the exclusion of managerial skills in the promotion process creates a false
perception among chefs concerning the skills required by their position. The lack of
advancement of chefs within the organization resulted to the alienation of the chef
within the organization. Sixty-six percent of the managers surveyed stated that their
chefs did not possess the managerial skills expected of someone at that salary level
position. Whatever the outcome or argument of the findings it is worth noting that an
effective professional executive chefs today must possess both culinary and
management skills to manage the kitchen.

Roth (1985) who was a corporate executive chef for Westin Hotels illustrates on the changing role of chefs highlighting the change from "pure cooking" to managing the kitchen. He lists out some points the a chef must be able to do. The author then elaborates his experience and specify the know-how of a chef. There is a palpable sense of regret that chefs no longer cook.

Fine (1985) explores the aesthetical components of cooking and the sociology of the occupation of chef. He argues aesthetics are an important part of human work involving sensory evaluation, how products look and how the service is performed. The author noted that this aesthetic is referred as craft or skills or professionalism and mainly as art. To support this argument concerning aesthetic the writer apply to cooking observing students at cooking schools learning the proper style of craftsmanship for its is interesting that the author used as an examination base of aesthetics work. The research was conducted in two cooking schools to observe the students in each chef training programs. The writer argues most students enter culinary colleges unaware of the requirements of the occupation and therefore the chef instructor's task is to teach the aesthetics of professional cooking. Fine points out some of the dimensions of aesthetic in relations to cooking. He quotes appearance, taste and texture which he builds into an elaborate combination. The author concludes that aesthetics are learned in trade school without the student being aware of aesthetic qualities. He notes that cookery is like to some other vocational school programs such
as landscape design, architectural drafting, jewellery making in that the aesthetics are not appreciated during the learning process. The article outlines certain criteria for the aesthetic occupations which require a degree of artistic "flair" in an individual.

Fine (1987) goes on to observe cooks working in four different restaurants. The author presents an account of the work of the cooks in each establishment in terms of the aesthetic side of the cooking world in a dynamic professional kitchen as compared to his earlier work in 1985 which focused on educational institutions aesthetic part of cooking. This article attempts to sketch some of the more salient occupational features of being a professional chef which do not cover all the elements that enter into cooking. What this author is saying is that there are differences in perspectives and expectations of an occupation between the learners and the reality of working. The important point here is that the difference centre around aesthetics not role functions.

Cummings (1989) noted that Europeans take their food seriously and those employed in the hospitality industry regard their work as a lifelong career. They take pride of their profession at all levels of the industry. This is due to the superior apprenticeship and commitment through extensive educational programs offered in Europe. Craft professionals are enthusiastic for their profession from the time they leave school. The author commented that US trained chefs are less creative than European chefs. He noted career professionals are treated with respect in Europe and cited in case of West Germany where the respect gained is enforced by law.
George (1990), presents a study concerning the career orientation and ownership of culinary students. It is related to their future position, type of establishment, and business ownership. In this study it is indicated that most culinary arts students upon graduation desire to begin their careers in the preparation of food indicating 59 per cent of the respondents but then move to the management position with 21.9 per cent representing the response of the respondents. The remaining respondents surveyed will preferred positions relating to ownership, hotel/motel or club management. By 5 years after graduation 37 per cent of the students desired to remain in the cooking production area and over 38 per cent wish to move to managerial positions. It is evident that the culinary students eventually move from food preparation to management. As the data indicate, the need for professional "management" chefs may become more acute in the near future.

Chivers (1971) compares the job of chef in hotels and restaurants with the job in hospitals and other institutional catering. As interesting finding was that chefs and cooks viewed technological innovation as a help rather than a hindrance as it speeded up operations, reduced wastage and increase their control over the cookery process.

Wood (1992) reveals the realities of working in hotels and catering industry. His concern is with wages, high labour turnover, lack of unionisation and heavy-handed management. The author's explored further into the underlying scope of sociological
perspectives and finally draws on the future developments in the hotel and catering employment.

He comments

... even the kitchen pan washer can rise to become general manager of the hotel with hard work and dedication. ... for the industry to be regarded as unique and 'special', requiring specialist skills and training, a special attitude of mind and body, specialist professional associations and, above all, special academic understanding.

(1992: 1)

Wood emphasizes both the unique feature of the industry but also that such feature often lead to poor working conditions. In terms of chef, Wood is expanding the thinking of Chivers (1973) who illustrated the effect of deskilling on their employment attitudes.

4.3 The Chef as Celebrity

Chef Celebrities (1986, May 2) reported that chefs have attained celebrity status. A new generation of aspiring chefs is entering the ranks as working in the kitchen is a glamour occupation of the eighties. Chefs have become celebrities and as a consequence they have received more recognition. In one important case they have
received official recognition. In 1975 trained chefs began to be officially categorised as professionals by the US Department of Labour in United States. At this time the movement toward professional growth and accreditation was accelerated.

Many chefs have gained prominence in their field. Boutin (1990); Barrier (1991) and Mariani (1987) refer to today chefs finding a new respect and the profession taking on "... a glamour alluring to the new breed of chefs". Chefs have "gone Hollywood." It seems that much of the "glamour" comes with being a chef owner and writing cookbooks. The celebrity chef is a marketing tool. It simplifies the problem of the image building of a food outlets to focus on its primary attribute. There is a certain irony here in that as the role is moving away from cookery towards kitchen management. Marketing is using "cooking" as a selling devise.

Fuller (1962) acknowledges there are many books on food and cookery have appeared in recent years and are likely to continue to do so. Fewer contributions seem to have been made in the way of books about the general operations of a professional kitchen. The Chef's Manual of Kitchen Management is the first complete manual on the running of the professional kitchen written by the author. It fills a conspicuous gap in professional literature. It is said to be a thoroughly professional and a standard text book on kitchen management.

An odd argument comes from Fonseca (1991), who illustrates that there are already
many cook books lining the section of book stores shelves with a lot of competition and it is the most busiest departments in the store. The assumption of cookery books is that cooking is about recipes when the literature of the role of the cook shows that it is about organizing and about chef having manual skills. This conundrum could be seen as part of the separate of the image of the chef from the actual occupation of a chef.

4.4 Deskilling in Hospitality Industry

In recent years, one of the most important issues concerned in industrial sociology is the deskilling and degradation of work. There is a general view on deskilling in hospitality work that catering work have been deskill in the period since 1960.

Wood (1992) addresses the problem of deskilling on hotel and catering work. He noted that deskilling was advocated by the British Hotel and Catering economic Development Committee (HCEDC) during the late 1960s. According to the author the Department of Employment (1971) found evidence that deskilling would affect chefs and cooks,

In the middle range of skill less will be needed in future while at the top and bottom additional skills will be required. Increased scale of
activity and new food production and processing developments will necessitate more managerial, planning and presentational skills in head chefs, while technological advances in the manufacture of wash-up and waste disposal equipment will require higher operational skills in wash-up staff and kitchen porters.

The report suggested deskilling in the kitchen would involve redistribution of skill to the food factory where the production of prepared dishes would require skills of chefs and cooks. The redistribution of skill within hotels was also envisaged.

Chivers (1973) argues that the effect of deskilling on chefs would be to heighten their awareness of themselves as employees and thus to promote conflict with their professional ethos. He notes that not all deskilling is unwelcome.

4.5 Chef Training - An Unresolved Debate

All the components of the debate on the role of the chef and on training converge into the question of how should chefs be trained. Costs, the role of managing a kitchen, the cost of training itself are all here. There is a consensus that training chefs is expensive (Feiler, 1990 and Caterer & Hotelkeeper 1987). What is also clear from the limited literature is that the industry has not resolved the debate as to whether it should be education or on-the-job training as the vehicle for learning.

Afiya (1993) in an article reported on the response of the people views on the National Vocational Qualifications (NVQs) into the hospitality industry. There was
a mixed feeling from many professionals with the standard. Some criticise the NVQs and others impressed by the scheme. Many flaws were seen such as the scheme will vary from one establishment to another establishment and that it will all depend on the standard of the trainer.

The dilemma of uncertainty as to what is actually required of a chef comes out in the question of recruitment. Is it culinary flair or management? Massarsky (1990) interviewed some of the key personnel of catering establishments on the issue of what they look for when hiring a chef and suggested some ways how to hire a chef. Not surprisingly they look for a candidate with strong creative and administrative skills, a chef with exceptional human resources talents, who could recruit, train and develop a crew. An organisation director referred the chef as "culinary manager". The manager want their chefs to be cooks and manages whereas the professionals lean towards cooking as an art and management as an addition chore. It is an unresolved debate.
REFERENCES


CHAPTER 5
CHAPTER 5

MALAYSIAN CUISINE

AND

SOCIAL CULTURE

5.1 Introduction

As the subject of this study is the career of chefs in Malaysia, it would be appropriate to describe the actual cuisine which forms the basis of their work. It is not intended here to undertake any sociological analysis. However, the study acknowledges the work Wood (1995) on meals and meal-taking in daily life from a sociological perspective and of Mennell (1985) in establishing the relationship between cuisine and political and social structure. The study also recognises that the 'civilizing' function of eating which is at the heart of the figurational sociology (Elias, 1978), the anthropological work of Goody (1982) on the historical dimension of culinary and cultural differences and the work of Fieldhouse (1986) which explores the concept of
cultural shaping of food choice to specific elements of food choice behaviour practice in multi-cultural societies. **Malaysian cuisine is a reflection of the integration of races, the regionalism geographical structure and the civilizing process of a stable political society.**

The Federation of Malaysia is situated in the heart of South-East Asia north of the Equator, which consists of 13 states (Europa, 1993: 1847). The country is made up of two regions - Peninsular Malaysia, comprising 11 states, that lies between Thailand in the north and Singapore in the south. The two states of Sabah and Sarawak on the northern region island of Borneo, bordering Indonesia. Collectively covering a total land area of 330,434 sq. km and are separated by about 550 km of the South China Sea (TDC, 1991 :1).

Malaysia is a cosmopolitan country with a population close to 19 million. The population is made up mostly of Malays, Chinese, Indians and numerous indigenous people that is the Bajaus, the Bateqs, the Kensius, the Kintaks, the Lanoohs, the Mah Meris, the Mendriks, the Orangs Dusun, the Penans, the Semelais, the Temiars and others (Malaysian Digest, 1993: 3). Malays make up more than half Malaysia’s population, Chinese account for about 30 per cent and the rest is taken up by Indians and native peoples (Cooke, 1992: 1).

Mutual respect for each other’s culture, traditions, religious belief and way of life has not only created a peaceful social environment but has also resulted in political
stability and a strong economy for the nation. Although the diverse races speak in the national language which is Bahasa Malaysia and their own native tongue, English is also widely used.

5.2 The History of Malaysian Cuisine

The history of the Malaysian gastronomic heritage could be traced back to the time where Malacca which now known as Melaka, was a great trade and economic empire. It stretched from as far as the South China till the thousand islands of Indonesia. Malacca was at that time the greatest port in the east during the 15th century. The original people were known as Orang Asli. They consist of about twenty different tribes. From the west came the Arabs and the Indian. The Arabs were among the first to come, bringing onions, almonds, pistachios, raisins, and kebabs - the original satays (Hyman, 1993: 104). The Indian community in Malaya is smaller with a variety of groups and styles of cooking that carry over from all the regions of India and from Ceylon. Most numerous are the South Indian Tamil and Telugu people who make up the bulk of the largest Indian social group in Malaya. They were plantation workers and unskilled labourers (Brissenden, 1969: 119).

From the east came Chinese junks, Siamese vessels and the Buginese and Javanese of the Indonesian archipelago (Periplus, 1994: 7). Two sets of Chinese that came to the country. The first Chinese were mostly male migrants who settled in Malacca as
traders. Many married the local Malay women forming this union known as Straits Chinese or Peranakans. The cross-culture of Chinese and Malay elements developed a unique cuisine of their own. A variety of dishes was created ranging from spicy noodles to creamy curries and tasty cakes (kuih) produce from rice flour and coconut milk. The popularity and demand of Nyonya (women of Straits Chinese are called Nyonyas and men known as Babas) dishes in the country is found in Malacca and Penang, where most of the Straits Chinese settled in later years. Some of them were Hokkiens settling in Penang and in the northern part of Perak. Their dishes have now become famous hawker specialities throughout Malaysia. While the Cantonese contribute to the country’s finer Chinese restaurants. The Chinese Hakkas moved into the tin mining towns and bring with them their culinary experts. The Hainanese was a good cook with a high reputation in restaurants business. Their foods were enjoyed by the British during the colonial days and sought after by some Sultans. There are many similarity between the two but the Malaccans Nyonya foods tend to be less spicy in the use of chilli. The second sets of Chinese that migrated to Malaya at that time came from various Chinese provinces. They were poor and looking for a better living. Many become entrepreneurs into hawking business setting up a hawker stall with little capital needed. Most stayed around the seaside town on the east coast and in Pangkor. Their chicken rice attracted a lot of customers in many hotel and restaurants across the country.

When rubber was introduced into Malaya by the British many workers were needed to tend the rubber estates. Many Indian workers came to work in the rubber
plantations. They were from southern India bringing with them their culture and diets added to the cooking dimensions. They used very little coconut milk or yoghurt in cooking their curries. Rice served with sour fish head curry cooked with okra and eggplant is a very popular dish. The use of banana leaf is still a common practice to serve foods in some traditional Indian restaurants in Malaysia. From the history itself, the origin of local cuisine and foods come from various countries. This is indisputable as at that time the land of Malaya was well known around the globe as a popular and important port for traders and merchants internationally. As an international port, tremendous effect has been bestowed upon the local society lifestyle, culture, beliefs, religion and the most important topic here that is the cuisine. The creation and the naming of food at that time has a great relation with the common beliefs, things and natural surroundings. Until now vast changes have occurred to the Malaysian cuisine in relation with the human development and modernisation. Some of the local cuisine have been modified or changed completely in the method of cooking but the used of ingredients remain. This not only changed the ethnic and the social structure of the country but its eating habits as well.

In 1963, the Federation of Malaysia was formed, with the state of peninsular combining with the Borneo states of Sabah and Sarawak. Malaysia's cuisine are as varied as it people. The Malays, Chinese, Indians and other ethnic groups continue to create their traditional foods, while cross-culturing borrowing in the kitchen has led to a number of uniquely "Malaysian Cuisine". As peoples of all three major races - the Malays, Chinese and Indians - intermingled and so too their cuisines
(Jaffrey, 1994). Malaysia has a lot of its own locally produced vegetables, plenty of fresh tropical fruits, abundant seafood, poultry, meat and game to choose from the markets. The cooking styles include Malay, Indonesian, Indian, Chinese and Ceylonese, for people from all these countries have settled in Malaysia (Solomon, 1993). It is also to be expected that each state would have dishes peculiar to it or has its own style of preparing similar type of food, for instance rendang (a type of stew), laksa (a kind rice noodle dish), and cake (kuih) with its own favourites or specialities. The many different ethnic groups that make up Malaysia’s cosmopolitan population have also contributed gastronomically to yield a seemingly endless range of delicious and appetizing cuisine. The prevalent Malaysian cuisine today consists of the Malays, Chinese, Indians, Nyonyas, Eurasian, Borneo which is described in details as follows.

### 5.3 Ethnic Diversity and Convergence

The Malay Cuisine

The Malays lived a peaceful life undisturbed by outside traders and invaders. There was no wars, famines and plagues. Rice grew in the paddies. Fruits and vegetables were available year-round in the constant climate. Most traditional Malay meals were based on rice mixture with meat or fish, vegetables and chilli-based sambals to add the extra flavour. The jungle terrain, which makes travel difficult creates isolated regional cuisines. The foods of Kedah, Kelantan, Perlis, Penang and Trengganu in
the northern states bordering Thailand were inclined and influenced by Thai cuisine. This can be indicated by the popular presence of Thai restaurants in the northern part of Malaysia today. The use of fiery hot chillies, fresh herbs, tamarind and limes for sourness is often added to Thai foods which were quite similar to the northern states cuisine. The sourness is needed in most dishes in order to blend and lessen the degree of hotness and to control the spiciness of the food.

The mainstay of every meal for the Malays and Malaysian in general is rice. Malaysian rice dishes are probably the most varied in Asia because of its multi-racial society. The Malay word for rice in the husk is padi, the uncooked grain, beras and cooked rice, nasi (Couture, 1991: 110). Rice is served almost in every meal and a staple food to Malaysian. There were a variety of rice available but the type eaten daily is sticky white rice. Rice is eaten throughout the day. A dish named "nasi lemak" is regarded as ultimate Malaysian breakfast. It is cooked rice enriched in coconut milk and served with "sambal ikan bilis", anchovies fried with chilli, onions and prawn paste, sliced hard-boiled egg, fried peanuts and cucumber slices. The traditional way is that the prepared rice is portioned and wrapped in banana leaf with other accompaniments. It is sold in many local coffee shop (kedai kopi) open very early in the morning in villages (kampung) serving youngsters going to school or workers before attending the daily business. It is assumed that during those days the nature of work is laborious and that with the hot humid weather to cope a heavy meal is required to make up with the loss of energy.
Along the east coast, food preparation is a little different from that of the rest of the country. The cuisine is heavily influenced by the neighbouring Thai foods and with the intermarriages of the people. Kelantanese cooking is especially famous for its varied rice dishes and its renowned grilled chicken (ayam percik) pieces basted with a sweetish coconut sauce. Malay cuisine are spicy and very tasty. The popular satay, skewered, barbecued meats marinated in various spices dipped into peanut sauce (satay sauce). It is believed to be a clone of the kebab brought along by the early Arab traders. Cucumber slices and cubes of onions were served as an accompaniments. "Ketupat", boiled rice in woven palm cases comes along with it. There are many shape and sizes of this coconut leaves casing. There is an art of folding this coconut casing as not many mastered them today. The satay served today is not limited to meats item only but there were created for other seafood and even the Chinese are making it on pork, which is becoming a very favoured dish in many Chinese restaurants. "Kajang Satay" is well-known throughout Malaysia and is available in the town of Kajang, on the outskirts of the capital, Kuala Lumpur. One must not missed satays when staying in Malaysia. Another well known dish is rendang. Beef or chicken slow-cooked with a paste of ground onions, lemon grass, chillies, wild ginger and coconut milk, accompanied with lemang, glutinous rice stuffed into lengths of bamboo and cooked over smouldering coals for several hours, are enjoyed throughout the country. Chillies, lemon grass and coconut are indispensable in many dishes. Malaysians like their food to be enriched with coconut milk and generously spiced with chilli peppers (Hyman, 1993: 104). Pork is not consumed by the Muslims. Animals were slaughtered live and bleed to death. Most of the 'halal' meats come
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from Australia and New Zealand butchered according to the Muslim religious requirement.

Fresh fish are consumed daily at home and play an important part of the Malay diet. Examples are catfish, red snapper, mackerel, pomfret, skate and tuna. Fish head curry is a delicacy to some fish lovers. It fetches a high price in many speciality restaurant across the country. Fish are smoked, salted, marinated and prepared in many variations. Fresh water fish is becoming in high demand and used in many dishes. Some fish were expensive or may cost more than eating beef, chicken or lamb. Dried anchovies (ikan bilis) and dried shrimps (udang kering) are an important ingredients to many dishes for flavours. The most notable product from shrimp is the shrimp paste (belacan) which is an ingredients used to countless dishes in Malay food. It has a pungent odour, sold in blocks or cakes in the provision shop. It has a very strong smell and must be lightly toasted before crumbling for used in any dish.

Since Malaysia is comprising of 13 states, it is to be expected that each state would have dishes peculiar to it. The state of Negeri Sembilan were settled by the people from west Sumatra named the Minangkabau. Their rich spicy foods reflects in the used of creamy coconut milk in the preparation of rendang (a type of stew). In the far south states, the cuisine includes a number of Javanese foods, as many of the Javanese people settled here during the past. Pahang is isolated from rest of the peninsula by the mountains, it’s cuisines is a simple and less influenced by multi-racial convergence. Fundamentally, Malaysian food is spicy and of mixed origin.
A popular dish is "rojak", a salad flour cake, bean sprouts, shredded cucumber and turnip, hard-boiled egg, prawn fritters and squid, topped with a spicy, sweet peanut sauce. This salad can be served as a meal or a snack item by itself. This is a close substitute to the western tossed green salad served with choice of dressings.

The sambals, fresh chillies pounded and mixed with roasted belachan, prawn paste which can be eaten with rice just as it is or a paste for a dip. This sambal stir fried with slice shallots and garlic and added with leftovers cooked rice transformed a simple fried rice instantly. A Malay dish served without this sambal to some is something incomplete. The making of a perfect sambal with the right blend of flavours is the mark of any Malay cook. In the south cooking is heavily associated with Indonesian flavours and its use of chilli padi, very hot small peppers, making it more hot and spicy than its northern counterpart. Places that enjoy long-links with foreign traders from India are known for their curries made with plenty of spices. Malays living in the central regions, where little contacts are made with others cook all their food, using mostly herbs grown in their garden for flavouring. Commonly used fresh herbs throughout the country and in the southern Thailand were lemon grass(serai), screwpine leaf(pandan), kaffir leaf(daun limau perut), polygonum(daun kesum), basil(daun selasih), tumeric leaves(daun kunyat) and the fragrant bud wild ginger(bunga kantan).

Traditional spices used in Malay cooking have been a combination of Indian, Middle-Eastern and Chinese spices. The mixtures of coriander, cummin, pepper, cardamon,
star anise, cinnamon and tumeric was the basis of many Malay "curries". Many fresh spices of the rhizomes family were used to enhance Malay food which can never be better than the dried spices available in the marked today. Examples are tumeric(kunyit), galangal(lengkuas), ginger(halia) red chillies, shallots(bawang merah) and garlic(bawang putih). These spices are normally pounded to a fine paste and sauteed in fat till aromatic before the liquid - coconut milk or tamarind juice is added, in with the vegetable, fish or meats. Barbecue items is marinated in spices before grilling.

Variety is the spice in Malay food. The traditional culinary style has been greatly influenced by long-ago traders from neighbouring countries - Indonesia, India, the Middle-East, China. Many of the spices and ingredients essential in Malay cooking were introduced by the Indians and Arabs. Spices such as pepper, ginger and cardamon. Malay food also varies quite significantly across the country. Each of the 13 Malaysian states has its native specialities. Even the best-known Malay satay differs in flavour from state to state.

The basic pattern of Malay cooking lies in the preparation of the wet and dry spices used to flavour the dish. The wet spices include shallots, ginger, garlic, fresh chillies, fresh tumeric and are usually pounded in mortar and pestle or batu lesong if used in small amount. Today housewives used blender instead. The dry spices are coriander, cummin, aniseed, cloves, cinnamon, cardamon. Malay curries are delicately flavoured with various herbs and leaves - serai or lemon grass, lengkuas.
or galangal, daun limau purut or fragrant lime leaf, daun ketumbar or coriander leaf and the karuvapillai or curry leaf. Malays generally eat with their fingers of their right hand only. Some commented that eating by hands is much more fulfilling than using fork and spoons. As the Malays were Muslims no pork and alcohol were served. Desserts are not generally served and not a practise at the end of meal. The meats were halal and slaughtered according to Muslim law. Animals with hoofs and leaving in two worlds are also forbidden to eat.

The Chinese Cuisine

When the Chinese merchants set sailed their junks across the south China sea, little that we know that their travel have an influence in Malaysia. The Chinese traders stayed in the Malay peninsula marrying local women forming what was known as Peranakan or Straits-Chinese culture. In 1819 with the arrival of British colonials in Singapore which set a large wave of Chinese migration in Malaya. Many Chinese workers arrived in Singapore when tin was discovered in the Malay peninsula staying in Penang, Malacca, Kuala Lumpur and Taiping. The Chinese inherited with them the cooking styles of their homeland from southern provinces of Kwantung and Fukien. Many ingredients were introduced to every ethnic group in Malaysia like noodles, beansprouts, beancurd and soya sauce. The technique of fast stir frying in a wok was also adopted. The Chinese used curry leaves from the Indians, used Worcestershire and tomato sauce and used Malay spices like belacan into their
One may not be surprised to walk into a Chinese restaurant today offering traditional Malay as well Indian foods and western delicacies in their menu selections.

The secret of Chinese cooking lies in its preparation. Food is sliced, shredded or cut according to certain predetermined rules. For very tender, almost velvety meat, the meat should be sliced along the grain, for a slightly crunchier texture, it should, ideally, be sliced against. Vegetables are often diagonally sliced both for aesthetic appeal and for a semblance of regularity. There are no laws governing what is served with what but there are philosophical and practical requirements which are taken into consideration. Menus which start with soups and work their way through to desserts are unknown. It depends on the grandness of the occasion, a selection of four, six, eight, ten or up to almost any number of dishes is served in a course-type procedure. The final choice depends on the capabilities of the cook, both in culinary skills and in terms of the availability of money and ingredients. Everything goes in Chinese cuisine even for aphrodisiac purposes. Table-setting consists of chopsticks, a selection of bowls of different sizes for rice, soup, meat dishes and a soup spoon if soup is served. Napkins as they are used in the West are unknown. A hot, damp hand towel is handed to guests both before and during the meal. Also in contrast to western custom, the pride of place traditionally reserved for the guest of honour is often as far away from the host as possible but always directly across from the doorway or opening through which the food will come.

The variety of Chinese cuisine available in Malaysia is truly amazing. Each dish is
specially prepared and guaranteed to excite the taste-buds. A favourite is dim sum with over 30 different kinds of delicacies to choose from. Hainanese Chicken Rice and noodles were some of the popular items on the menu in most Chinese restaurants served for lunch and dinner. It is not wrong to say that the cuisine of almost every province in China is well represented in Malaysia. The Chinese favourite will be the porridge.

The Indian Cuisine

Indian cuisine is made up of both North and South Indian specialities. A typical Indian meal usually consists of white rice served in banana leaf, complemented with a variety of delicious meat curries and salads. One should also try Nasi Briyani- rice cooked in ghee with spices and vegetables and served with either beef or chicken. Indian pizza not only tasty but also inexpensive. Murtabak is a kind of pizza with special filling of marinated minced meat, eggs and onions. Other types of pizza include roti canai, chappati and thosai, all of which are served with spicy Indian curry or dhall - gravy made from lentils.

Almost everybody, when asked what food they would associate with the Indian sub-continent would be bound to reply curry, little realising that not every spiced dish is a curry and curry is not just one dish. It includes a whole range of dishes, each distinctly different according to the spices and herbs used in varying combinations.
Spices, imaginatively used, are the most important features of Indian cooking: hot or mild, pungent or bland, there is something to suit every palate. And unlike many Western cooks who indiscriminately use the same curry powder for every dish, the Indian cook carefully chooses the right spices to enhance the flavour of the main ingredients. The diversity of the Indian people in Malaysia - the Tamils, the Malayalees, the Sikhs, the Punjabis, the Sinhalese - represent the different regional culinary style of Indian cookery in Malaysia.

As for the Indians, their favourite foods for breakfast is the roti canai, thosai, chapatti accompanied with any type of curries.

The Nyonya Cuisine

The basic essentials in Nyonya cooking are lemon grass, galangal, coconut milk, chillies and limes as well as palm sugar, glutinous rice flour and screwpine leaves. There are three variation of Nyonya cooking - Pulau Pinang, Melaka and Singapore. The Pulau Pinang style of Nyonya cooking has been influenced in part by Thailand because of its proximity to the country while the Melaka and Singapore styles are more Indonesian in influence. Nyonya cuisine is created by the intermarriage of Malay women and Chinese men (Floyd, 1993: 17).

The Straits-born Chinese also known as the Peranakan or Baba Nyonya have their
own blend of spicy and pungent cuisine and prepared with the liberal use of chillies, garlic, onions, pepper and ginger. Nonya cakes are also appetizing items not to be missed.

At Sri Melaka, the Nyonya restaurant at Hyatt Saujana in Kuala Lumpur offered sumptuous Peranakan flavour of Malacca which evokes the romance of the culture. Sri Melaka affords a culinary journey with Nyonya specialities as a pleasure to savour the essence of the Nyonya culture and cuisine.

The Eurasian Cuisine

The only Eurasian food to leave a mark in Malaccan-Portuguese, veering more towards Asian than Western-style cooking with its liberal uses of chillies, spices, tamarind and belachan. A popular dish called vindaloo, devil curry, chutney and salad. In Malacca, the Eurasian diet includes seafood item.

The Borneo Cuisine

Most people of Sabah and Sarawak were characterised by their traditional lifestyles. Rivers are the major means of transportation and with limited roads from town to town. Many market produce is grown locally on small scale especially in Sarawak
and depend on wild edible plants used in their dishes. Most of the ingredients today were from peninsula Malaysia which costs slightly more in the market even today. The local people of Sabah grow hill rice, pineapples and bananas on the steep slopes of the mountain. The tallest Southeast Asians’s mountain is in Sabah named Mount Kinabalu.

Raw fish salad marinated with local lime juice, clams stir fried with chillies, braised fern tip picked from the jungle and smoked stir fried smoked wild boar with bamboo shoots are some of the culinary specialities that come out from home of native Malaysian Borneo people. Since Sabah and Sarawak joined the country forming Malaysia in 1963, many Indians, Malays and Chinese moved recently to this states working or doing business which further influenced the way of life of the local society. Traditional Borneo dishes are served in the longhouses and remote villages and along the coastal areas. As the people are living on the coastline, the diet is mainly seafood. Many are Muslim which pork is forbidden to consume. The non-muslim which were greater in number enjoyed the catch from the rivers, the animals from the jungle such as wild boar, deer and wild game turned to delicacies. Rice is still their favourite staple and the starchy sago palm porridge is popular in some areas. The Penan people of Sarawak were semi-nomadic tribe with their superb skilled of harvesting sago palm as equally better are the Bisaya in southwest Sabah. Some hill native of Sabah like the Muruts, make a similar porridge from the tapioca roots as their daily diet. In the absence of modern appliances both the people of Sabah and Sarawak sought to other methods of preserving food even some are still
practised today. Smoking is a very common technique to preserve foods for them. A speciality dish made by packing chunks of raw pork or fish into a wide bamboo or fill in a glazed jar seasoned with salt mixed with cooked rice were left in a marinade for several months to cure before this delicacy is ripe to consume. Length of fresh bamboo are packed with washed raw rice or meat and place around 45 degree angle near a fire to cook slowly for a few hours. In general the type of cuisines for the coastal settlements is to model the Malay cooking using spices and coconut milk which is a common phenomenon. People living inland part of the country use wild vegetables like several varieties of edible fern found in the jungle, herbs and sour fruits in their dishes. Dried prawns, dried anchovies and shrimp paste are seasonings used to flavour foods throughout Sabah and Sarawak which are also popular in Peninsular Malaysia.

5.4 Some Cultural Traditions Related to Food

Food is always associated with rezeki or the gift of God and is given the highest regard in the Malay culture. It must not be mishandle by allowing it to touch the feet. Food is prepared and served in all functions and forums not as snacks but often filling fare such as noodles and rice. Any host or anyone not serving acceptable food at the gathering would be regarded as rather rude. Visitors to a Malay house however short the stay may be are entertained with food, including cakes(kuih) or at least a cup of coffee or tea. If the visit was during meal time especially at home they
were invited together to join in for lunch or dinner. Entertaining guests with food is a part of the Malay culture. Even if a guest had taken lunch or dinner or eaten earlier, it is impolite not to share some of the food offered by the host at home.

Food and drink are not to be taken for granted for the Malays who are mainly Muslims. They are to be accepted with thankfulness as the bounty of God and to be used wisely and for the maintenance of health. The Prophet (peace be on him) said that the Muslims are those who do not eat unless they are hungry and when they eat they do not fill themselves. He said that one-third of the stomach is for food, one-third for liquids, and one third for air, all pointing to moderation in food habits and to the desirability of eating to maintain physical well-being rather than simply for enjoyment, although food is certainly meant to be enjoyed as well (Haneef, 1993: 164). At all meals, however simple and informal, there were rules of etiquette to observe. Malays and Indians traditionally use the fingers of their right hand for eating (Amir, 1991: 21). Before beginning to eat the right hand must be washed and thoroughly cleansed as it was this hand which must be used to take food from the plate to the mouth. After washing each person says, "Bismillah hirahman nirraheem" (In the name of God, the compassionate, the merciful) and proceed to eat. This is also pronounced in any other undertaking. At the ends his meal with brief words of thanksgiving to God. It was extreme bad manners to eat with the left hand. It was permissible to use a spoon today. Malays regarded their habit of eating with the fingers as much cleaner than the European use of implements (Gullick, 1987: 194). Muslims consider it a blessing to have guests to share their food, which is an Islamic
obligation. It is from deep conviction that it is God Who feeds all creatures.

Among Muslims it is customary to tell the visitor, "Brother or sister, this house is your house, please make yourself at home." However, the guest is also to be considerate. Islam regards wasting food as a sin and an indication of contempt for God's precious gift and bounties (Haneef, 1993: 165). Alcoholic beverages is forbidden, a prohibition to include all intoxicating liquors, wine and beers (Gerber, 1957: 14). As many other religious, the Muslims as most of the Malays in Malaysia has certain dietary rules to follow. Muslim law requires that all animals must be ritually killed, namely by drawing a sharp knife across the throat, cutting the windpipe, carotid arteries and gullet in one cut, the animal then being left to bleed to death completely. Whilst the operation is being performed in a swift and merciful manner the words "Bismillah, Allahu Akbar" must be said. (In the name of God, God is the Most Great) in acknowledgement that the life of this creature of God is taken by His permission to meet one's lawful need for food. Pork is prohibited to the Muslims and its by-products.

The teachings of the Prophet exhort believers to fast. Of the fasts, the most important is the month of Ramadan. Every Mohammedan male and female must observe for 30 days refrain from taking either food or drink between the hours of sunrise and sunset. In very religious home children from as early the age of seven already observe the fast. Once the sun set, believers may eat what they desire.
Some Muslims observing the fast, but many find enjoyment in fasting as it is obligatory and as they were trained from young for their submission to oneness of God(Allah) never fades away. Ramadan is a month that means special things to different people. For all Malaysians though, it means looking forward to the breaking of fast and the goodies that come with it (NST, February 5, 1995: 7).

As far as the Chinese are concerned there are no religious restrictions on food. Even the birds’ nest can be turned into a soup and a favourite delicacies. Some Chinese in Malaysia follow Confucianism and Taoism, but Buddhism dominates among others. Today, however there are some devoted Chinese-Christian going to the church and taking christian name. Although there are several festivals and feasts, the Chinese New Year is far the most important for the Chinese particularly in Malaysia. It is celebrated with joy for 15 days with the firing of fire crackers and lion dances. The entire household is cleaned, new clothes are sewed and special elaborate foods for dinner are prepared for this occasion. These sometimes consist of between ten to twenty dishes depending on the financial capacity of the family. Presents are bought, prayers and offerings of food, flowers and incense are made to their gods, both at home and in temples. The houses are decorated with strips of red paper with inscriptions of good wealth, fortune and happiness. Red is a choice as it is said to drive evil spirits away. Red envelops containing money know as Ang Pows are given to children, friends and visitors of all nationalities. Special meals are prepared and traditional cakes and biscuits served and the celebrations can go on for up to five days. Oranges are sent out as gift for good luck. As in the Hari Raya the open-house
concept where relatives and friends call on one another. On the fifteenth day, the Chap Goh Meh, is the last day of the Chinese New Year and celebrated on a large scale meeting the close of a happy and exciting festival.

The Moon cake festival is also celebrated by the Chinese. It is characterised by the carrying of colourful and brightly lit lanterns by Chinese children. This event is celebrated to mark the overthrow of the Mongol Overlords in ancient China. The moon cake is prepared with a special flour cake with sweet filling and is to be served during this period of time.

The Chinese eat their food at round tables. Each dinner is provided a rice-bowl, a sauce dish, a pair of chopsticks, a porcelain spoon and a teacup. Guest helps himself to the food with his chopsticks and spoon, putting it into his individual rice-bowl, not directly into the mouth as this is considered impolite. The meal ends with a soup and plain Chinese tea is served during the meal. Each dish is served individually especially for special occasions. Bones and other inedible items should be place in the saucer on which the rice-bowl rests. When one has completed one should place his spoon in the rice-bowl with the chopsticks placed over the bowl. When a large groups of guest are being entertained, the host knows his guests haven been satisfied and happy if the table is cluttered and messy but all the food is well consumed. The Chinese loved noodles with soup or a rice porridge(congee) or dim sum(dumplings) for breakfast. Lunch is a very simple meal with one main dish with a soup and accompanied with rice. There are no teatime rules but there is always room for one
of the delicious steamed cakes and a refreshing drink in the evening. A regular meal for a family consist of a meat items normally pork or fish dish, a vegetable dish, rice or noodles and a soup. Dinner usually taken around sunset and later a light supper is taken at the stalls or bought from the hawkers by the streets.

The Indian community in Malaysia are Hindus, Christian, Muslims, Sikhs, Bengalis and Ceylonese. Each community has its own customs and traditions with different eating habits and specialities in their cuisine. However, one thing in common is the use of spices for the preparation of curries which are the most important part of the dish. Since most of the Malaysian Indians are Hindus coming from the southern part of India some of it’s culture will be discussed here. There are several Hindu festivals in India but in Malaysian Indian celebrated three most important events. Thaipusam and Ponggal are celebrated sometime in the month of January. Thaipusam is a festival related with the fulfilment of vows. It is celebrated by the Hindus in honour of Lord Muruga, a popular deity of the Hindu pantheism. During this festival thousands of devotees pay homage to Lord Muruga. Severe penance is performed, and this includes tolerance of bodily pain and fasting for anything from a week to three months (Fernandez, 1985). The devotees carry kavadis - wooden ornate frames supported by metal spikes and with silver needles skewered through various parts of their bodies in trance walked through the procession till they reached the place of worship. In Kuala Lumpur, this fascinating event can be witnessed at Batu Caves, which is on the outskirts of the city.
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The Ponggal is the celebration of the harvest festival which is celebrated for a duration of three days. On the first day foods are prepared from the newly harvested rice field and vegetables were freshly cultivated from the garden. On the following days, the festival concentrated on decorating the cattle with bright colours painting the horns with different shades preferred. On the last day, single girls prayed for a good permanent living partners in the future dressed in new clothes(saris) and prepared good meals for the guests. The most celebrated festival is the Deepavali which is better known as the festival of lights. As for this celebration, food preparations(mise-en-place) was well in advance at home to serve all the guests who will visit their Hindu friends during this day. Trays of foods were sent to friends and relatives and in exchange on returning. Little lamps were lighted in the Hindus homes looking like a fairylands. Coloured rice flour are layout on the entrance of the house to welcome Lord Krishna. The housewife prepared breakfast for her family. The breakfast is served with coffee and milk and sugar accompanied with thosai with chutney and a lentil curry, chappatis or puris with a vegetarian curry. Lunch consists of one or two vegetable curries, rice, pickles and yogurt. It is then served again for dinner. The foods are served on a large steel or brass plated known as thali. Traditionally banana leaves are used as plates as seem even in most Indian restaurants across Malaysia. Indians as like the Malays generally enjoyed eating with the fingers of their right hand only. However, the young generation tend to prefer the fork and spoon today.

The Gawai Dayak is another festival of utmost importance to the Dayak people in
Malaysia. It is religious festival which is a harvest festival marking the end of a successful padi harvesting and the arrival of the new planting season. During this time there will be a lot of dancing, singing and the drinking of rice wine known as tuak. It is a belief that during this time the spirits of ill omen and evil are appeased to ensure a good harvest in the coming year.

As for the Christians, they celebrated Christmas in great fashion. During all these festivals in Malaysia, it was pronounced a public holidays throughout the nation as a respect for each other’s culture, traditions, religious belief and way of life which created a peaceful social environment resulted in political stability in the country. It is impossible to treat of all aspects of the culture, the social heritage or the way of life of the Malaysian. By culture is meant all the manifestations of social habits of a community, the reactions of the individual as affected by the habits of the group in which he lives, and the artifacts of human activities fashioned by members of the group (Hamid, 1964) but some selection of the cultural elements was discussed here which have some of the interesting aspects of role of food in the Malaysian culture.

5.5 The Change from Tradition to Modern

Malaysia is modernising rapidly towards the challenge to achieve full industrialisation by the year 2020. Many traditional kampungs (villages) scene of coconut trees, bananas and other fruit trees with chicken pecking around the house and herbs
growing in the garden is increasingly vanishing. It is in danger of disappearing as more modern housing estates were developed to meet the demand with a large acres of land were cleared for golf courses. More Malaysian are moving into modern houses with little space and time for gardening and cooking adopting the modern lifestyle. Condominiums are being built in virtually every city. Nowadays some traditional Malaysian dishes are prepared only for special occasions such as weddings or festivals.

Changes in Malaysian society are reflected in changes in Malaysian cuisine. The acceptance of the new style of food is a beginning of the new era. The trend of food nowadays has changed from traditional to convenience food. It is not unusual anymore to cook at home without messing up the kitchen. With almost every possible ingredients that can be made to instant ready to use. Malaysian cuisine either Malay, Chinese or Indian style have all change to suit the demand of the society. There is less fuss like slaughtering the chicken for making curry, climbing the coconut tree to get the coconut for the coconut milk. All these are made available to fit the modern life.

In the 60’s the cuisine was only famous among their races. The Malay foods for the Malay people, Chinese for the Chinese people and the Indian food was limited to the Indians only. But today this trend has change as the different ethnic groups have integrated.
In the 70’s the food market industry slowly started to be recognised by the outside world. Malaysian cuisine was promoted abroad and brought interest to restaurateurs to open Malaysian restaurants in New Zealand, Australia and United Kingdom. The acceptance of the Malaysian food to foreigners has an impact to the trend of the Malaysian cuisine. Hotels were promoting local foods in coffee house and restaurants offering traditional Malaysian dishes with little alterations made to suit their acceptance.

Consequently the skills of culinary workers were changed. As in the west, the deskilling process has been brought about by technological progress in food manufacturing and consumer demand for leisure. The women labour participation rate in Malaysia is estimated to increase to 52 per cent by the year 2000 compared with 46.7 per cent in 1990 (Business Times, 1993). It shows that future labour market in Malaysia is contributed by the rise of female workforce which will transformed into the change of lifestyle of many Malaysian family. However with this trends of women working in the labour force there is limited time to prepare foods for the family. More eating places like restaurants or food stalls will flourished which is good for food business in the future.

Technological advancement in the kitchen equipments has made cooking an easy task to accomplish. Many cooks used to make spice paste(rempah) using a mortar and pestle(batu lesung) which is familiar in every Malay house in the country but the food processor has taken over the hard tasks of grinding today. As for the Chinese, a cast
iron wok is an essential equipment at home. Now a stainless and non-stick woks can be purchased in the market to replace the old one which required less time for washing and equally good and practical. An electric rice cooker is almost in every Malaysian restaurants and hotels. It come in different sizes and keeps rice warm all day long with just a touch of a button. These changes influence the skills of culinary workers.

The Malaysian gastronomic tradition have coalesced with those of the other races, particularly the Chinese and Indians to form a rich combination of what is regarded as Malaysian cuisine while still saving their separate symbol of its own. Chefs will be more creative to prepare better foods combining east and west ingredients to come up with a delicious dishes to suit the local palate.

**Regional Differences**

Malaysia consists of two distinct regions, the Malay peninsula stretching south from the Kra Isthmus of Thailand to the Straits of Johore and the coastal area of the island of Borneo namely Sabah and Sarawak. It is a federation of 13 states. It is separated by 400 miles of the South China Sea with a number of islands within its borders. The peninsula is very strategic with the sea-routes east and west. This has contributed to its early commercial importance when Penang and Singapore was established as naval and commercial bases by the British. It has then become a focal
point of emigration, the geographical factor accounts for the development of regional cuisines across the country.

In west Malaysia, the main range runs north to the south dividing the peninsula into two plains of the west and the east coast. The west coast is more developed as most major towns and cities are located. Here tin mines, rubber and oil palm plantations, pineapple and rice cultivation and industrial centres of the country resulted in the settlement of the urban and rural areas. The tin mining-industry, the rubber industry and the development of Penang and Singapore affected the Malaysian economy. Tin mining was largely a Chinese enterprise and it was responsible for a substantial proportion of Chinese immigration. It led to the growth of towns as well started the growth on the development of intermingling culture and cuisine with the local. The Chinese bringing with them culinary habits and farming skills which resulted some popular foods.

The rubber industry also affected the Malaysian culture and economy. Most of the estates was in Perak, Selangor, Negri Sembilan and Johore. Rubber cultivation caused a large labour force and has contributed to the growth of towns, ports and transportation. The Indian people work on the rubber plantations and their customs did add a dimension to the cooking pot. This is one of the several ways in which contributed to the development of regional cuisine in Malaysia. With 13 states is not surprising that Malaysia have different foods peculiar to each state.
The Malays lived a life dwelling along the coasts or river banks using the boats as a means of transportation before better communication was available. Travelling north to south and east to west was limited years ago due to large jungle covered land. As a result it comes as not a surprise regional styles of cuisine existed in different parts of Malaysia. The northern states shows distinct Thai influences. The cuisine of Negri Sembilan was influenced by the people from west Sumatra known as Minangkabau which reflects in its food. The cuisine of Johore was heavily influenced by the Javanese settlers centuries ago. The state of Pahang is isolated largely from the rest of the peninsula by jungle mountains and sandy beaches which offers simple dishes mainly fish and seafood from the rivers. As for the Sabahans and the Sarawakian are people living along the estuaries and coastline and their cuisine are likely on seafood item. Other states are more or less a multi-racial in character. Inspite of regional differences, Malaysian food is a mixture of multi-racial people with a cross-cultural borrowing in the kitchen which led to unique Malaysian dishes.

**Racial Relations and Integration**

The Malays have intermarried quite freely with peoples who are racially akin to them, like the Javanese and the Bugis. These people share a common religion like the Indians, Pakistanis and Arabs and in recent decades with more peoples who have come either to settle or to work in Malaysia among whom we can include the Chinese and the Europeans (Hamid, 1964). Today there was a good deal of intermarriage and
intermingling between them.

The Chinese intermarried within their own community, marriage between Chinese and Malays being practically unknown owing to the taboos of the Muslim religion (Purcell, 1964). In the last few decades the relationships between these several component elements in the Malaysian plural society have undergone a profound change. With greater political stability, the three major communities concerned have developed a much greater degree of internal cohesion. Some traditional divisions brought with them by the immigrants have lose their significance. The Indians and Chinese have acquired a new measure of solidarity with the growth of national consciousness in their respective homeland. In the past each community was so divided within itself but today changing and cooperation structure of the population and the rising tide of nationalism in Malaysia have led to a thriving economic and prosperous land (Fisher, 1966).

The resultant three major communities - Malay, Chinese and Indian - now live together in tolerable harmony maintaining their own loyalties, cultures and points of view (Gullick, 1964). Education have brought together children of all races in a system which aims at parity of treatment irrespective of race. The government is making vigorous efforts to increase assimilation among the ethnic and linguistic groups which is not an easy tasks. Malaysia has decided to use the national language Bahasa Malaysia as a means to bring about unity among the different racial groups (Hoy and Hong, 1971: 107). English is a second language in the school system.
The gontong-royong system that has been much publicised throughout Malaysia is essentially the outcome of co-operation of individuals to help each other in any form of work. The Malaysian "open-house" tradition was observed by almost all Malaysian. During the Chinese New Year, Hari Raya and Deepavali, Malaysian families invited multi-racial visitors to their homes in a true Malaysian spirit to join in the merry-making. Festivals in Malaysia know no colour, one can join hands and jump into any celebration without feeling out of place (NST, February 7, 1995: 25). As Deputy Prime Minister Datuk Seri Anwar Ibrahim said the principle of reciprocity adapted and practised in Malaysia was helping to keep the country prospering and bring benefits to all Malaysian (NST, February 2, 1995: 1).

In summary, two forces can be identified which influence the development of Malaysian cuisine. These are, the regionalism which creates diversity and the social process of integration which creates convergence. Between these trends lies the modernization of the role of the chef which, like their counterparts in the west face the challenge of convenience food and labour saving devises which deskill simultaneously with the consumer demand for variety which encouraged reskilling.
This review of the Malaysian cuisine reveals a richness and variety of foods which is regionally specific yet embedded in a multi-cultural national culture. What is so remarkable about this cuisine is the subtlety of its varieties. It is an exciting blend of a multi-ethnic heritage with the nation’s lively cultural and culinary traditions. However, this remarkable diversity presents the methodology with a problem. How is this diversity to be captured by a template approach which must by its nature, use clear definitions? The methodological problem represents the real problem of skill accumulation. Questions of the generalization of knowledge from specific learning experiences are raised by this issue.
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CHAPTER 6
6.1 Introduction and Objectives

The study to be described is concerned with a particular social activity: careers. The research survey has two main aims which are: to describe and analyse the career paths of culinary workers in Malaysia and to measure how culinary workers develop their skills.

These two main objectives require two separate methodological approaches. The career data requires a biographical questionnaire and the measurement of skill requires a expert template.

The methodology will begin with a restatement of the objective. This will be followed by an analysis of the problems which ensue from these objectives.
Thereafter, the chapter describes the techniques which were applied to overcome the problems.

OBJECTIVES

Main objective

I. to measure and describe the career paths of chefs in Malaysia.

II. to find a relative measure of culinary skills which will allow career paths to be evaluated in qualitative terms.

Secondary Objective

III. to examine the relationship between labour market experience and vocational education as alternative form of learning and career development.

IV. to discuss the relationship between cuisine and skills in the context of Malaysia.
The first three objectives are addressed directly by the methodology. The fourth objective will be deduced from the findings of the methodology.

6.2 Problems Which Confront the Research

The study of careers involves the analyse of patterns over time. Whilst the facts surrounding careers can be elicited, the problem occur when qualitative data is needed to explain the patterns found. The essence of the problem is the reliability of memory and recall. The personal nature of a career and its closeness to the life of an individual assist in recall because the biographical details have both a continuity with the present and past, in affect, a series of events i.e job changes, skill changes, salary changes etc. The assumption of the study is that the sequential nature of a career aids recall of the details.

The problems in relation to skill accumulation patterns are:

* how to access what a subject knows

* how to access where and when it was learnt

* how to access whether the learning was sequential and logical or random
Chapter 6: Research Methodology

* how to access one skill relative to another in a developmental mode

* how to access differential rates of learning

The approach of the study was to devise a prescriptive structure based on expert opinion. It would then be possible to compare the reality with what the expert prescribed on a number of dimensions. The experts laid down:

* what should be known

* how skills are differentiate into levels

* what order skills should be learnt

These stricture were combined into a template.

6.3 Description of Techniques Used in the Study

The study has two broad objective each with its own methodology. What is described here is first, the biographical questionnaire which is the main instrument for collecting data on careers. Secondly, the development of the skill template and is place in the questionnaire. Finally are discussion on the forms of analysis which will
be used to construct and display the data.

6.3.1 Design of the Questionnaire and Identification of the Principal Variables

The complete questionnaire is in appendix A.

General objectives of the questionnaire are:

* to obtain personal characteristics data

* to obtain details of subject’s work histories of last eight jobs

* to obtain details of subject’s motivation towards a culinary career

* to obtain details of subject’s reasons for changing jobs

* to obtain details of subject’s culinary skills in terms of where and when identifiable skills were learnt

* to obtain details subject’s opinion on culinary training

It must be noted that the questionnaire incorporates the work on the skills template.
General style and format

The questionnaire combines facts with subjective material. (Backstrom, 1981: Nachmias, 1990). Demographic questions are designed to elicit objective information from the respondents regarding their background such as age, sex, marital status, education, occupation and income which is intended mainly to produce information by which respondents can be classified. The classifications become independent variables. For example, education, size and standard of hotels are used to compare different groups - educated versus non-educated culinary workers or small hotel experiences versus large hotel experiences etc, etc.

As the biographical questionnaire required both facts and subjective material a combination of closed questions and open questions was adopted in Section 1: "Your Details" on page 1 of the questionnaire. The rationale for closed-ended question is that they enhance the quality of data by minimizing measurement errors. On the other hand, with so many closed-ended questions these may not always improve data quality and may reduced validity. However, the final form here is a balance of question types described as follows.

Personal characteristics

The questionnaire design was based in part on local knowledge of Malaysia culture.
Chapter 6: Research Methodology

Personal details characteristics were placed at the beginning of the questionnaire which though considered sensitive, were crucial to the survey technique. Based on local knowledge, it was though to be culturally acceptable to ask personal details at the beginning of the questionnaire. The questionnaire was self-administered. Singleton (1988) specified that uninteresting routine questions such as background information are often placed toward the end of the survey instrument but here they were deemed too important.

Question number 1 through 5 are questions of personal characteristics. A key piece of data is the subject's age. This is used as a comparative measure of career progress over time. It allows for the formation of the descriptive tool - the biographical age distribution. Respondents were requested to give their gender and marital status. They were also to state their age at time of marriage for the purpose of determining whether this may have an impact on their careers or motivation not to move. Using the marriage data together with their age and length of time in each job, it is possible to locate at what age and which job subjects were in when they got married. Other age based questions were considered important. Question 5 asked for the actual age respondent's started working in the kitchen. This data is used to accumulate the fundamental measure of the study, the length of time to chef de partie and executive chef for analysis.
Education Background

Question number 6 consists of subject’s educational background. They were to tick only one of the six answers listed in a multiple choice question as what is their highest level of education they had completed. In the analysis of the findings, this data is used to form two subject groups: educated sample and non-educated sample. The classification used was as follows.

Classification of Education Attainment in Question number 6.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>EDUCATED SAMPLE</th>
<th>NON-EDUCATED SAMPLE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Institution/Colleges</td>
<td>Primary school</td>
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<tr>
<td>University</td>
<td>Secondary school</td>
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<tr>
<td>Technical school</td>
<td>Short Courses</td>
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<td>Polytechnic</td>
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</table>

Respondents were then asked to respond if they have attended any cooking school. This is a way to check against the educational background requested in question 6. Some subjects may tick institution/colleges in question 6 but may only attended a certificate course for a short duration. The definition of educated sample used in the study was whether or not a subject have completed a two year culinary course.
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The questionnaire solicited subjects nationality in order to make any comparisons within the sample are in order to ascertain the influence of international mobility and migration on Malaysia culinary careers.

Work and Career Information

Subjects were to state their current annual income. These are categorised into 6 multiple choice question. Ideally, it would be possible to develop a pay structure that will reflect skill accumulation. However, salary data is notoriously unreliable in biographical studies. It was however used to provide a picture of the pay structure offered in the labour market.

For the last question number 10 in section 1, subjects presented their present occupation. This important piece of data is the end-piece of the career sequence data. The length of career is "the" dependent variable in the career path analysis.

In Section 2: "Your career" on page 3 of the questionnaire, the concerned was with the career paths of chefs in Malaysia. The purpose here is to discover the career patterns of respondents.

In order to elicit an accurate description of a subject’s career which can be aggregated the biographical histories approached was chosen. Since subjects were manual
workers, the table grid format was used as it user friendly. Subjects were asked for their career moves covering their last eight jobs. The selection of eight jobs was based on previous studies and local knowledge (Riley, 1990). The range of possible job was covered by a ranked classification of job which was devised from local knowledge but which is in fact fairly standard throughout the culinary world.

There were six levels position listed ranking from the highest hierarchy of the kitchen brigade to the lowest. These are the post of an Executive Chef to an Apprentice chronologically. It is quite complex to classify the kitchen brigade and so that all organisations can be encompassed. However, it is decided to display the standard structure. Subjects were to tick in the appropriate boxes asking for their career moves covering the last eight jobs. The output from this question forms the main description of the career path. In addition to the work history data, a number of possible independent variables were identified and information sought on them.

**Sector of Industry**

Here subjects were to identify the sector of the industry which they worked in at each career job. This section was designed in the table format with five of the most important sectors of the industry listed. The aim was to test for cross sectional movement with the career.
Standard of Hotel

Four standards of hotel were listed. Subjects were to tick the star ranking of hotels in each job moves in the table provided. This independent variable was used on the assumption that the standard of hotel might influence the speed of a career. In which direction is a matter of speculation.

Size of Hotel

The hotels were classified into four levels. Subjects were to identify the size of hotels in relation to their job if they were working in the hotel industry. Like "Standard of Hotel". Does size influence the speed of climb? and in which direction?

Location of Hotel

There were seven countries listed. Subjects were to tick the country they worked in each of the job moves. There is always a propensity for subjects to travel to gain experience and knowledge around the world. The objective is to observe if subject’s working experience abroad may enhanced their enthusiasm to be a chef in shorter span of time.
The Principal Dependent Variable

It must be emphasized that these nominated variable join forces with the education variable as primary independent variable. The principal dependent variable is length of time to chef de partie.

The descriptive variable length of service is taken as a measure of careers progression. Subjects were to fill in the number of years in each job in the appropriate boxes provided. In this manner the study was able to accumulate the length of time for every job move and all job combined. This is the primary dependent variable.

Motivation and Opinion

General style and format

The questionnaire in Section 3: "Your Motivation to Change Job" on page 4 is organised in the matrix - table grid format. It is to investigate what motivates culinary workers to move? This is an issue that the study is interested to examine. It is an attempt to add some qualitative data to the quantitative measures. The purpose is to obtain information on the actual reasons culinary workers moved in the labour market. This motivational matters were then extended to explore subject’s view on
two vital questions in Section 4: "Your Opinion" on page 4. There were two multiple choice questions here asking for why subjects choose cooking as their career and what is their future plans respectively. Subjects were to select only one of the five variables listed in each question.

The study is interested to find any connections between the reason for becoming a chef, future plans, and mobility.

6.3.2 The Measurement of Accumulated Skills and the Design of Skill Template

Introduction

The methodology on skill accumulation adopted a two stage approach. First, the method involved the development of a skill template. Secondly, a questionnaire was inserted into the biographical questionnaire previously described. This technique follows the approach of Cantor, Brown and Groat (1985).

Objective

The purpose here is to describe how chefs accumulate their skills (Hamdin and Riley 1994). The approach used was to create a template then to transfer the template into
a questionnaire. The validity of the approach is substantiated by statistical measures of the resulting matrix. The technique uses dishes from Western cuisine and Malaysian cuisine of stimulus.

Descriptions of the Methodology

Description of Expert Panel Technique

A panel of fifteen experts were interviewed. The panel consisted of hotel General Managers, F & B Managers, Food Writers, Lecturers and Culinary Educators. This range of experience deemed appropriate at its represented both critical perspectives and knowledge. There were no culinary workers involved at this stage. Details of the expert panel are contained in appendix B.

The methodology was as follows:

The Expert Panel

Step One

Each member of the expert panel was presented with a set of thirty cards containing the name of a dish. The card coding system is shown in appendix C. There are 20 western dishes and 10 eastern dishes. The
designed dishes consists of a range complexity. The study uses 30 dishes to represent a more extensive range. Main aim is to create a range of dishes which can be differentiated by the skills required to produce them.

Step Two

Judges were to sort the cards into piles on the basis of the skills content of each dish into skill groups. They could make as many piles as they wished. The output here is a distribution of the thirty dishes into skill groups.

Step Three

When the piles are completed, the dishes in each pile are recorded. The judges are asked to rank the piles in terms of skill. The result was four levels of skill. All judges used four level.

Step Four

At this stage, all raw scores was collected in the frequency matrix 1.
The Template Described

Fifteen expert judges were asked to sort thirty dishes and classify them by skills level. They were to rank the dishes and therefore created stages of skills. The judges decided upon 4 skills hierarchy. Matrix 1 displays here were the scores of each judge on each of the 30 dishes using four skills categories.

The matrix would not be worth using unless there was some agreement on all the dishes by all the judges and as it is to be used in the test all dishes need to have a minimum level of support. Therefore it is necessary to have a qualifying standard by which each dish have a minimum level of support from the judges.

The qualifying rule is as follows:

Each dish has to receive a minimum support of 7 votes in one category to be used in the methodology. This rule meant that 5 dishes were removed from the matrix. Matrix 2 represents a 15 by 25 matrix which form the basis of the skills research.
## Skill Ratings by Judges

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### FREQUENCY MATRIX 2

| JUDGE | DR 1 | DR 2 | DR 3 | DR 4 | DR 5 | DR 6 | DR 7 | DR 8 | DR 9 | DR 10 | DR 11 | DR 12 | DR 13 | DR 14 | DR 15 | DR 16 | DR 17 | DR 18 | DR 19 | DR 20 | DR 21 | DR 22 | DR 23 | DR 24 | DR 25 | DR 26 | DR 27 | DR 28 | DR 29 | DR 30 |
|-------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|
| 1     | 3    | 1    | 3    | 1    | 3    | 1    | 4    | 2    | 2    | 3     | 1     | 3     | 1     | 2     | 2     | 3     | 4     | 4     | 1     | 1     | 4     | -     | 4     | 3     |       |       |       |       |       |       |
| 2     | 4    | 1    | 4    | 2    | 4    | 1    | 3    | 1    | 3    | 1     | 4     | 3     | 3     | 4     | 2     | 3     | 3     | 1     | 2     | 3     | 3     | 4     | 1     | 2     | 4     | 2     | 4     | 3     |       |       |       |       |       |
| 3     | 2    | 2    | 4    | 2    | 4    | 2    | 3    | 3    | 3    | 2     | -     | 3     | 3     | 4     | 4     | 3     | 4     | 2     | 4     | 2     | 4     | 2     | 4     | 3     |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |
| 4     | 4    | 1    | -    | 1    | 3    | 2    | 3    | 1    | 4    | 2     | 3     | 4     | 3     | -     | 3     | 3     | 3     | 4     | 3     | 4     | 1     | 2     | 4     | 2     | 4     | 2     | 4     |       |       |       |       |       |       |
| 5     | 2    | 1    | -    | 1    | 1    | 4    | 1    | 4    | 1    | 3     | 2     | 2     | 3     | 1     | 2     | 1     | 2     | 3     | 2     | 1     | 1     | 3     | 1     | 4     | 2     |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |
| 6     | 4    | 1    | 4    | 1    | 3    | 1    | 4    | 1    | 4    | 2     | 1     | 4    | 1    | 2     | 2     | 2     | 2     | 1     | 1     | 1     | 3     | 1     | 4     | 2     |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |
| 7     | 4    | 2    | 4    | 2    | 3    | 2    | 4    | 2    | 4    | 3     | 4     | 3     | 4     | 2     | 4     | 2     | 4     | -     | 4     | 2     | 3     | 4     | 2     | 4     | 4     |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |
| 8     | 4    | 2    | 2    | 2    | 2    | 2    | 3    | 2    | 2    | 4     | 2     | 2     | 3     | 2     | 2     | 2     | 2     | 3     | 2     | 2     | 3     | 2     | 3     | 2     |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |
| 9     | 4    | 1    | 4    | 2    | 3    | 3    | 2    | 4    | 3    | 3     | -     | 3     | 3     | 3     | 3     | 4     | 3     | 4     | 1     | 2     | 4     | 2     | 3     | 3     |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |
| 10    | 3    | 1    | 4    | 1    | 3    | 2    | 3    | 1    | 4    | 3     | 3     | 4     | 3     | 3     | 3     | 3     | 3     | 2     | 2     | 2     | 4     | 4     | 4     | 1     | 1     | 4     | 1     | 4     | 1     |       |       |       |       |
| 11    | 4    | 2    | 2    | 2    | 2    | 3    | 2    | 3    | 2    | 4     | 4     | 2     | 4     | 2     | 4     | 3     | 2     | 3     | 3     | 4     | 1     | 1     | 3     | 2     | 4     | 2     |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |
| 12    | 3    | 2    | 4    | 2    | 3    | 2    | 4    | 2    | 4    | 3     | 3     | 3     | 3     | 3     | 3     | 4     | 3     | 3     | 3     | 3     | 3     | 2     | 3     | 2     | 3     |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |
| 13    | 4    | 2    | 4    | 3    | 3    | 4    | 2    | 4    | 3    | 4     | 3     | 4     | 3     | 4     | 3     | 4     | 3     | 4     | 2     | 4     | 2     | 4     | 2     | 4     | 3     |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |
| 14    | 4    | 1    | 2    | 1    | 3    | 1    | 3    | 1    | 4    | 3     | 2     | 4     | 2     | 2     | 3     | 2     | 1     | 4     | 3     | 3     | 1     | 1     | 3     | 1     | 4     |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |
| 15    | 4    | 1    | 4    | 2    | 2    | 2    | 4    | 1    | 4    | 3     | 4     | 4     | 2     | 4     | 3     | -     | 2     | 4     | 3     | 4     | 1     | 1     | 4     | -     | -     | 2     |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |

**MATRIX 2**
It would not be possible to use matrix 2 unless there was a reasonable degree of concordance between the judges. This was measured by the Goodman Kruskal (1954) gamma statistic. This measure looks at the degree of relative similarity between all judges on all stimuli. The range of gamma scores was 0.97 to 0.23 with a mode of 0.81. This represents a very high degree of concordance between the judges. It is therefore decided that matrix 2 could form the basis of the template. The gamma scores are in appendix D.

The biographical questionnaire Section 5: "Where did you learn your skills" is a table form is used to audit subjects culinary skills. There were 30 dishes registered against eight jobs and subjects were asked if they could cook each dish. If the answer was affirmative, subjects then identified the place in his or her career, which could include education, where the dish was first prepared. This process links skill acquisition to career progression. Though there were 30 dishes listed in the final copy of the questionnaire, the study utilised a sum of 25 dishes as the basis of auditing skills. Due to logistics of collecting data in Malaysia, the template questions were all included in the questionnaire. After the qualifying rules only on 25 dishes applied.

6.4 The Sample Description

The research survey concentrates on commercial hotels, resorts and restaurants which served either international tourists, or at least the middle income domestic tourism
SECTION 5: WHERE DID YOU LEARN YOUR SKILLS?

Please tick (V) in column A if you can prepare these dishes. If you have not cooked any of these dishes leave the boxes blank. In column B, please tick (V) the job in which you first learnt to cook each dish.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>NAME OF DISHES</th>
<th>COLUMN A</th>
<th>COLUMN B</th>
<th>Column B</th>
<th>Column B</th>
<th>Column B</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Present</td>
<td>Before Job 1</td>
<td>Before Job 2</td>
<td>Before Job 3</td>
<td>Before Job 4</td>
<td>Before Job 5</td>
<td>Before Job 6</td>
<td>Before Job 7</td>
<td>Before Job 8</td>
<td>Education</td>
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<tr>
<td>1. Liver Pate</td>
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<td>2. Fruit Cocktail</td>
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<td>3. Consomme Bruliose</td>
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<td>4. Cheese Omelette</td>
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<td>5. French Onion Soup</td>
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<td>6. Hamburgers</td>
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<td>7. Lobster Thermidor</td>
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<td>8. Baked Potatoes</td>
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<td>9. Souffle</td>
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<td>10. Cream Caramel</td>
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<td>11. Beef Goulash</td>
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<td>12. Fish Meuniere</td>
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<td>13. Moussaka</td>
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<td>14. Vegetable Terrine</td>
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<td>15. Caesar Salad</td>
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<td>16. Steak Chasseur</td>
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<td>17. Swiss Rolls</td>
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<td>18. Grilled Lamb Chops</td>
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<td>19. Roast Chicken</td>
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<td>20. Black Forest Cake</td>
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<td>21. Beef Satay</td>
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<td>22. Chicken Curry</td>
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<td>23. Beef Rendang</td>
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<td>24. White Rice</td>
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<td>25. Nasi Goring</td>
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<td>26. Sweet &amp; Sour Fish</td>
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<td>27. Sharksfin Soup</td>
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<td>28. Fried Bee Hoon</td>
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<td>29. Peking Duck</td>
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<td>30. Prawn Tempura</td>
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</table>

KINDLY PLEASE MAKE SURE YOU HAVE ANSWERED ALL QUESTIONS
THANK YOU FOR YOUR COOPERATION
market across Malaysia. This choice of level and type of operation was considered to be of more significance in terms of training and manpower needs. The smaller hotels and restaurants are of a lesser category and often are family owned and operated and therefore have different kinds of manpower and training needs. For that reason, it was decided to include in the survey only hotels over 50 rooms.

The Malaysia’s Accommodation Directory 1992/1993 and Yellow Pages Directory 1992 was used as a reference for hotels and restaurants respectively. A list of culinary workers from the Chefs Association of Malaysia (CAM) and the Penang Hotel Chef’s Association (PHCA) members-chefs was captured from relevant associations. It is difficult to determine exactly the number of culinary workers in Malaysia. Published printout figures do not distinguished each culinary profession but the distribution of hotel manpower by skills in Malaysia for the year 1991 reported by the Ministry of Human Resources with a grand total of 456,888 workers. Appendix E shows the distribution of Hotel Manpower by Skill in Malaysia for the year 1991. There was no published statistics on culinary workers available from Malaysian Association of Hotel (MAH) and Tourism Development Cooperation (TDC) as many contacts were made during the surveyed.

6.4.1 Calculation of the Sample Size

From the figures in appendix E it was estimated that approximately 5,000 chefs were
working in hotel (as defined by the survey).

Calculation of the sample size is based on an estimate of the time taken to become a chef de partie without going to college. This was estimated at 9 years with a tolerance ± 6 months confidence level is set at 95 per cent. Standard deviation = 3.9 \( z = 1.96 \). The standard deviation was based on a pilot study.

\[
\frac{z\sigma}{x} = 0.5 \text{years}
\]

\[
\therefore \frac{\sigma}{x} = \frac{0.5}{1.96} = 0.25
\]

\[
\frac{\sigma^2}{n} = \frac{(3.9)^2}{(0.25)^2} = \frac{15.21}{0.0625} = 243
\]

Sample Size = 243

A total of 1,300 questionnaires with a stamped, self-addressed envelope was mailed across Malaysia. The sample consists of culinary workers employed in hotels and
restaurants in Malaysia. They were sent to executive chefs, sous chefs and the chef de parties selected randomly in the directories and the list from CAM and PHCA. A total of 303 was achieved. This represents a 23.3 per cent return rate. Of this 17 questionnaires could not be used. Five returned blank as the organisations was unable to participate in the research with no food and beverage outlets.

6.5 Forms of Analysis

6.5.1 The Variable to be Tested

Independent Variables

1. Education: Educated Sample and Non-educated Sample

2. Size of Hotel

3. Class of Hotel

Dependent Variables

1. Length of Time to Chef de Partie
2. Length of Time to Executive Chef

6.5.2 Descriptive Analysis

The Biographical Age Distribution

An important instrument used in analysis is the age distribution. An age distribution is simply a way of distributing a population between defined and meaningful grades or levels on the basis of age (Riley, 1991). The basic assumption of using age as a measure is that we can learnt from the past. A further justification for using age as a medium for investigation is in relation to career analysis, occupational analysis or skill accumulation analysis is that people actually use an age perspective to give direction to their working lives (Lawrence, 1986). This technique which looks back into the past to uncover hidden patterns is called a tracer technique. The career history of subjects is secured from the questionnaire. The accumulation of experience was broken down by job grade and age. An age distribution is a photographic technique. It paints picture of trends over time. By using an age distribution the researcher is able visually display the trends that emanate from the relationship between the dependent and independent variables.

The age distribution is an excellent instrument to illustrate and indicate the stages of careers paths progression in an expanding labour market. It identifies salient stages
in a development process on the premise that the more people who spent time at a
certain stage and the length of time that they spend the more salient to the career or
jobs. The advantage of the distribution is that it bypasses any mobility problems.
It is a focused technique but useful in a situation when labour mobility is high where
standard manpower planning methods run into problems. In constant circumstances
and contained within the structure of the organisation, the age distribution works like
demographic trends. It illustrate life in the organization as it progress and exhibits
future manpower problems and the cause of certain personnel policies (Bennison &
Casson, 1984). It is assumed in organisations, this method can be manipulated to
build a model which evaluates career paths (Keeney., Morgan & Ray, 1980).

However, in this study the technique was used as an investigative tool in relation to
skills level of culinary workers in the labour market in Malaysia. This study
captures the careers of culinary workers who have, at least, achieved the status
a chef de partie. It analyses the careers of chefs as they flow through the system.
To undertake this look the organisational age distribution has to be converted to a
biographical age distribution. The transformation of the conventional age distribution
to a biographical age distribution by Riley (1993) made it possible for age
distributions to be used in the analysis of career in the labour market. In the new
form, the conditions are changed from describing different people of different ages
in different grades to describing the same people at different ages in different grades.
Pictorially, the distribution now looks backwards over the career histories of a sample
of a target occupation. In using this biographical age distribution certain conditions
are needed in accordance to the requirements. Firstly, the sample must be in the same occupation level or grade and secondly, that the sample should be the same age. Therefore, the distribution has a standard starting point. The first condition is easy to fulfil by sampling a target population, the latter has to be manipulated. Because the proportions will "thin out" as age advances, this means that the sample will reduce to the right of the youngest member of the sample. This means that the ability of the sample to answer questions were limited to the left of the age of the youngest member of the sample. In conclusion, the technique is a backwards-facing, time-independent and investigative one keeping in mind it has to be used only when the past can be assumed. It does not capture the recent past and if there is recent drastic changes then the distribution is defective in its's use.

The application of the biographical age distribution to the culinary careers of Chefs in Malaysia.

The use of the technique in this study to add qualitative data to the sample measurement of length of time to chef de partie. The biographical age distribution will give a pictorial illustration of career stages as streams which are contained within the seen duration of a career. The distribution is constructed out of six occupational level and the length of time each person serves in those levels.
6.5.3 Skill Template Analysis

The basic comparative analysis of the skill template is as follows:

* skills contained with the template - actual skills accumulated by the sample

* the skill distribution within the template - the actual distribution of skills within the sample

* the degree of rationality of the skill accumulation pattern

Skills Accumulation Model

There are two models used in skill accumulation research which are, the additive model in which skills build brick by brick into a set. The alternative model is the development model in which the change of experience from job to job is seen as contributing to individual development. The study is based on the additive model. A skill pattern requires a time frame. To this effect the early part of the subject's career was divided into four period of three years each. The age period are 15 - 18, 19 - 22, 23 - 26, 27 - 30. This was done on the assumption that time as well as job would dictate what was learnt and on the common sense notion that most learning will be concentrated in the early years of career.
6.6 Limitations

Introduction

The objective of this section is to report the experience on surveys in an attempt to look at some limitations of the research. The issues were related to: research resources, research awareness, and sparse literature. These issues were central to the effectiveness of the survey and confront with the conflict between what is theoretically desirable on the one hand and what is practically possible in the other. The limitations were described as follows.

Research Resources

Resources for this research work is limited. The study was unable to survey personally in two states, Sabah and Sarawak on the island of Borneo, bordering Indonesia as compared much was accomplished in Peninsular Malaysia. This would be feasible if more funds were made available to collect primary data from respondents or interviewing more experts directly which will then enlarged the sample size. Naturally, the sum of the money granted will generate significant research interest and motivation. The scarcity of resources restricted to this research yield a report which justifies them.
Lack of Research Awareness

Another problem which is worth mentioning is that the research attitude in Malaysia is at its infancy stage. It is only for the past few years that there were many encouragement and resources for research in Malaysia. Generally research is not taken seriously as yet.

Culinary workers in Malaysia are not aware of what research is all about so much so they do not see the important contributions to their profession and all of their concerned is of own personal achievements rather than looking at the profession as a whole and how to make it better in the future.

Limited Literature

Despite the proliferation of cookery books and articles on food the literature on the job of the chef is very limited and to an extent this study makes a major contribution to a small field.
REFERENCES


CHAPTER 7

RESEARCH FINDINGS

7.1 Objectives

At this stage the objectives are reinstated. As they are presented the findings will not be directly related to the objectives, however, at the end of this chapter the findings and objectives will be integrated.

The objectives are:

I. to measure and describe the career paths of chefs in Malaysia.

II. to find a relative measure of culinary skills which will allow career paths to be evaluated in qualitative terms.
Chapter 7: Research Findings

III. to examine the relationship between labour market experience and vocational education as alternative forms of learning and career development.

IV. to discuss the relationship between cuisine and skills in the context of Malaysia.

7.2 Introduction

The sequence in which the finding are presented is as follows:

* Description of the Sample. (7.3)

* The Descriptions as Measurement of Careers. (7.4)

* The Motivational Data Associated with the Careers. (7.5)

* The Skill Accumulation Test and Data. (7.6)

* The Special Sub-group. (7.7)

* The Open Ended Questions. (7.8)
The aim is to look at the career first in a quantitative way then to bring in the qualitative information. As a result of analysis the research highlighted a special sub-group of people which expressed to stay in culinary work. They were subjected to the same analysis as the main samples.

The most important independent variable is education. The split between the educated and the non-educated sample is crucial to understanding the career pattern of chefs. For the most part where a series of calculations are necessary only one will be included in the test. Subsequent test will be shown in the appropriate appendices.

7.3 Description of Sample

7.3.1 Distribution of Questionnaire

A total of 1,300 questionnaire was distributed by mail to establishments across Malaysia. They were sent to Executive Chefs, Sous Chefs and the Chef de Parties. A total received was 303. There was 17 unusable questionnaires which a total sample of 286.
7.3.2 Calculation of the Sample Size

The sample was calculated at 243. For the calculation see 6.4.1.

7.3.3 Some Characteristics of the Sample

What follows are those characteristics salient to the research. The research had hoped to include more Executive Chefs in the sample. This shortcoming presents a small limitation for the findings. The research was surprised at the low number of foreign national in the sample. However, this may be accounted for by the low number of Executive Chef as illustrated in table 7.1. The research envisaged that education would be an important variable in the career paths of chefs. To this end the methodology separated the sample with two groups which were the educated sample which had undertaken at least two year full time culinary education and the non-educated sample which has no formal culinary education. This findings is important to the study because it forms the basis of the two sample comparative research.

The Division of the Sample by Education

The total sample was 286. As part of the research was constructed to compare chefs who have received vocational education against who have not.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>OCCUPATION</th>
<th>NUMBER OF SAMPLE</th>
<th>PERCENTAGE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>EXECUTIVE CHEF</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>11.19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SOUS CHEF</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>19.23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CHEF DE PARTIE</td>
<td>199</td>
<td>69.58</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**TOTAL SAMPLE** \( n = 286 \)
Chapter 7: Research Findings

was necessary to divide the sample accordingly. Based on table 7.2 the sample was divided into educated 128 and non-educated 158.

The complete description on all sample characteristics are contained in appendix F.

7.4 Career Findings

7.4.1 Introduction

This section presents the main findings in relation to career paths. It is concerned to present the paths clearly in diagrammatic form and to penetrate the data with statistical tests to secure the significance of the main findings. The operational dependent variables are principally age and length of service. **The crucial measurement is the length of time to reach the position of Chef de Partie.** The main thrust of the finding is a comparison between the educated and non-educated samples. Thus education is seen as a major independent variable.

7.4.2 Findings on Career Paths

The findings in this section are presented in four sections. These are:
### TABLE 7.2 SAMPLE DISTRIBUTION BY LEVEL OF EDUCATION

**TOTAL SAMPLE**  \( n = 286 \)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SAMPLE</th>
<th>NUMBER OF SAMPLE</th>
<th>PERCENTAGE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>EDUCATED</td>
<td>128</td>
<td>44.76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NON-EDUCATED</td>
<td>158</td>
<td>52.24</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Chapter 7: Research Findings

1. Length of Time to Chef de Partie

2. Length of Time to Executive Chef

3. Biographical Data

4. Structural Influences

The first two sections are concerned to demonstrate differences between the sub-sample. The third section is concerned to display career paths pictorially and by so doing reveal significant career stages. The final section highlights some structural influences which are likely to have an influence on the shape of careers.

7.4.2.1 Length of Time to Chef de Partie

In the career paths of all chefs the position of Chef de Partie was assumed to be crucial to development for two reasons. First, because there was sufficient circumstantial evidence to suspect this position is compulsory in the culinary career and secondly a pilot study suggested that it was the crucial career stage in the development on the way to executive chef.
It follows from this that to compare the performance of each sample in terms of length of time to the first Chef de Partie position would indicate the relative merits of each learning process. The length of time to Chef de Partie is the principal dependent variable. The major hypothesis of the study is that education will determine the career path. Therefore the length of time to Chef de Partie should vary according to whether the subject is from the educated or non-educated sample.

The study conducted a one-tailed hypothesis test of comparison of means. Educated sample $n=128$. Non-educated sample $n=158$. The level of significance was set at 95 per cent. $z$ value = 1.64.

Ho - that there is no difference the time taken to become a Chef de Partie by the educated sample and by the non-educated sample.

H1 - that the non-educated sample will take a significantly longer time to Chef de Partie than the educated sample.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mean for Educated Sample</th>
<th>Mean for Uneducated sample</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>8.296</td>
<td>9.569</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Standard Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Educated Sample = 2.12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Uneducated sample = 3.95</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Chapter 7: Research Findings

\[ CR = \frac{X_1 - X_2}{\sqrt{X_1 - X_2}} \]

\[ CR = \frac{9.569 - 8.296}{\sqrt{15.67}} + \frac{4.51}{128} \]

\[ = 3.47 \]

\[ as CR = 1.64 \]

Result: Critical Ratio = 3.47. Ho rejected H1 accepted.

The non-educated sample took significantly longer to reach Chef de Partie.

All raw data is in appendix G.

7.4.2.2 Length of Time to Executive Chef

Given that the educated sample appear to have an advantage up to the level of Chef de Partie it might be reasonable to suppose the advantage might continue.
Therefore a hypothesis was used on the sample of 7 educated Executive chefs and 25 uneducated Executive chefs. The fact that the proportion of Executive Chefs in the sample favour of the uneducated indicates something in the career path might have change between the Chef de Partie and Executive Chefs. Nevertheless a formal test was justified.

The experiment was a one-tailed t-test comparing 7 educated Executive Chef with 25 non-educated Executive chefs. The level of significance was set at 95 per cent.

\[ H_0 \] - that there is no significant difference between the time taken to become an Executive Chef by the non-educated sample.

\[ H_1 \] - that the educated sample, as they were first Chef de Partie, will take a shorter time to reach Executive Chef.

Result: Ho accepted.

There is no significant difference between the time taken to Executive Chef between the educated and non-educated sample.

The raw data and calculation is in appendix G.
7.4.2.3 Biographical Data

The use of the biographical age distribution had three specific purposes. First, to describe in a pictorial way the career paths indicated by the data. Secondly, based on the principle that the longer the stay the more salient the stage, to identify key career stages and thirdly, to offer support to the length of time findings.

In the data which follows the total sample size and the size of the non-educated sample was reduced by one as a check on this data showed that the age given was regarded as suspect. Figure 7.1 is a biographical age distribution chart for the total sample. As describe in the methodology such charts are read horizontally. The chart shows the proportion of the sample in each job category at each age. The sample size declines to the right of the youngest member of the sample which in this case is age 20. However, the sample holds up almost completely until the age of 27 when it begins to decline. By age 40 the sample has decline to 101.

The chart indicates that there are two ports of entry into a career, these are either becoming an apprentice or joining as a Commis de Cuisine. On the assumption that the longer a person spends in a job category the more salient to the career is that category, it is clear that the jobs of Commis de Cuisine and Chef de Partie are salient jobs. It also suggests that if a person is still an
FIG 7.1 BIOGRAPHICAL AGE DISTRIBUTION
POSITION 1 - 6  n = 285  TOTAL SAMPLE

% OF CHEFS IN EACH POSITION

AGE OF CHEFS

18 19 20 21 22 23 24 25 26 27 28 29 30 31 32 33 34 35 36 37 38 39 40 41 42 43 44 45 46 47 48 49

P1: APPRENTICE
P4: CHEF DE PARTIE
P2: COMMIS 1,2,3
P5: SOUS CHEF
P3: DEMI CHEF
P6: EXECUTIVE CHEF
apprentice at the age of 29 they are unlikely to be promoted. The same is true of Chef de Partie from the age of 44. It has already been suggested by the data in 7.4.2.1 that the educated sample have a career advantage in terms of time to Chef de Partie. It may well be that there are other differences in the career path which may be illustrated by a age distribution.

Figure 7.2 is a biographical age distribution chart for the **educated sample**. The chart shows only half of the sample started as an apprentices. It reaffirms the significant of Commis de Cuisine and Chef de Partie. However it also shows that very few become Executive Chefs. A rather strange finding here is that some of this sample move from Chef de Partie directly to Executive Chef.

By contrast Figure 7.3 is a chart displaying the data for the **non-educated sample**. The chart shows approximately 70 per cent started as an apprentices. It shows that once again the jobs of Commis de Cuisine and Chef de Partie are significant. However, it is clear that more people in this sample become Executive Chefs.

The differences in career path structures illustrated by Figure 7.2 and Figure 7.3 are as follows:

1. More of the non-educated sample start as apprentices.
FIG 7.2 BIOGRAPHICAL AGE DISTRIBUTION
POSITION 1 - 6  n = 128 EDUCATED

% OF CHEFS IN EACH POSITION

AGE OF CHEFS

P1: APPRENTICE
P2: COMMIS 1,2,3
P3: DEMI CHEF
P4: CHEF DE PARTIE
P5: SOUS CHEF
P6: EXECUTIVE CHEF

AGE OF CHEFS

18 19 20 21 22 23 24 25 26 27 28 29 30 31 32 33 34 35 36 37 38 39 40 41 42 43
2. In both samples the significant jobs are Chef de Partie and Commis de Cuisine.

3. Fewer of the educated sample become Executive Chefs.

4. Some of the educated chefs miss out the position of Sous Chef.

5. Some subject from both samples made it Chef de Partie by 26 - 27 year of age.

6. Some subjects from the non-educated did not reach Chef de Partie until after 35.

7.4.3 Structural Influences on the Career

It was thought that a number of structural influences might have an affect on the culinary career. Most notably, size of establishment and the star rating. To test this the research correlated the structural data with the data on length of time to Chef de Partie.
7.4.3.1  

Size of Hotel - Star Rating Versus Length of Time to Chef de Partie

The room sizes were categorized into four groups and the score for each subject was the average based on categories i.e. room sizes x(multiplied) number of jobs. **It is acknowledged that this was a crude measure.**

Result = correlation -0.09. There is no connection between room size and length of time to Chef de Partie.

The calculation is computed here:

\[
V_r = \frac{\sum_{xy} - (\sum x)(\sum y)}{n} \sqrt{\frac{(\sum x^2 - (\sum x)^2)}{n} \frac{(\sum y^2 - (\sum y)^2)}{n}}
\]

\[
= \frac{8703.07 - 2574 \times 974.48}{286} \sqrt{\frac{(26255 - 2574^2)}{286} \frac{(3489.85 - 974.48^2)}{286}}
\]

\[
= \frac{8703.07 - 8770.33}{\sqrt{(266255 - 2316) (3489.85 - 3320.32)}}
\]

\[
= \frac{-67.25}{\sqrt{3089 \times 169.53}}
\]
Chapter 7: Research Findings

\[ \frac{-67.25}{723.66} \]

\[ = -0.093 \]

All raw data is in appendix G.

Star Rating Versus Length of Time to Chef de Partie

The star rating were also categorized into four groups (2 Star - 5 Star) and the score for each subject was the average based on categories i.e. stars x no of jobs.

Result = correlation -0.16. There is no connection between star ranking and length of time to Chef de Partie. Calculations in appendix G.
7.5 Motivation Findings

7.5.1 Introduction

Whilst the findings on career paths in 7.4 offer a broad picture of the way culinary careers are structure, this study felt that this data needed to be extended to incorporate some general qualitative data. Given, the rather special nature of the occupation it was felt that information should be collected on why subjects took up the occupation. Given the evident of mobility it will be important to ask the key question as to why people left their job. Finally, as the thrust of the study is career it was felt that some indication of future plans would be appropriate.

The analysis in this section is base on three areas of data which are:

1. Reasons for moving.

2. Reasons for joining the profession.

3. Future plans.
7.5.2 Reasons for Moving

Figure 7.4 is a chart showing the motivation to move for the total sample. The chart is based on all moves of all subjects. The chart shows the percentage in each variable. Subjects were invited to tick more than one reason from six options in appropriate boxes. All raw data is in appendix H. The chart indicates that money represent 43.1 per cent of the total sample and seems to dominate the reasons for subjects to move. However 24.1 per cent of the subjects choose to learn more by experience. This finding substantiate the broad thesis of this study which is that the labour market is a vehicle for learning.

Figure 7.5 is on the same basis on figure 7.4 but shows the motivation to move for the educated sample. As expected the educated sample showed a greater desire for money than the total sample (62 per cent, 43.1 per cent). This may be assume due to higher expectation after a culinary course. It also shows that the educated sample wanted to learn more by experience in the labour markets. There is little evidence of company loyalty in this sample.

Figure 7.6 is a chart showing by contrast the motivation to move for non-educated sample. As expected again the non-educated sample showed a lower desire for money but a desire to learn more by experience in the labour
FIG 7.4 MOTIVATION CHART
REASONS FOR MOVING? n = 286

- To learn more by experience (23.8%)
- More money (43.1%)
- To learn more in education (6.0%)
- Advancement to higher position (12.8%)
- Promotion within company (11.3%)
- Domestic reasons (3.0%)
FIG 7.5 MOTIVATION CHART
REASONS FOR MOVING? n = 128

TO LEARN MORE BY EXPERIENCE (18.7%)
TO LEARN MORE IN EDUCATION (1.5%)
ADVANCEMENT TO HIGHER POSITION (8.6%)
PROMOTION WITHIN COMPANY (7.1%)
DOMESTIC REASONS (21%)
MORE MONEY (62.0%)
EDUCATED SAMPLE
FIG 7.6 MOTIVATION CHART
REASONS FOR MOVING? n = 158

Non-Educated Sample

- More Money (34.2%)
- Advancement to Higher Position (14.7%)
- Promotion Within Company (13.2%)
- Domestic Reasons (3.5%)
- To Learn More in Education (8.1%)
- To Learn More by Experience (26.2%)
markets. The non-educated sample also display a far greater reliance on their employer to offer promotion than the educated sample who appear to use the market for increasing earnings. However they also display a greater desire for promotion outside the present company than the educated sample. The conclusion drawn is that whilst the non-educated have the desire the educated find it easier to move. This suggests that money maybe the better vehicle for mobility than seeking promotion in the labour market.

7.5.3 Reasons for Joining the Profession

The table 7.3 shows 42 per cent of the total sample have the desire to be an Executive chef. This represent a reasonable amount of ambition in the sample. 22.38 per cent of the total sample wish to be self-employed one day. This seems to be a common feeling with people in the hospitality industry. It also shows 22 per cent of sample thought their work was artistic and creative. This represent the creative orientation which is often found in craft occupations. Figure 7.7 displays the distribution of the sample on "why subjects choose cooking?". "There is clear differences between the educated and non-educated samples. The educated sample wanted to become Executive Chefs but the non-educated favoured "their own business". Given the actual career patterns, the inference here is that the educated sample change as their career progresses.
TABLE 7.3 Shows Sample distribution why subjects choose cooking careers?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>RESPONSE</th>
<th>EDUCATED n = 128</th>
<th>NON-EDUCATED n = 158</th>
<th>TOTAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>f</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>f</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To be self employed one day.</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>(14.06)</td>
<td>46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To travel.</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>(4.69)</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To be artistic and creative.</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>(21.80)</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To be an Executive Chef.</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>(56.25)</td>
<td>49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other reasons.</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>(3.13)</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>128</td>
<td>(100.00)</td>
<td>158</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
FIG 7.7 WHY SUBJECTS CHOOSE COOKING?

VARIABLE 1 - 5  n = 286

DISTRIBUTION IN EACH FREQUENCY

Educated n = 128  Non-educated n = 158

- SELF-EMPLOYED  - TRAVEL  - ARTISTIC
- EXECUTIVE CHEF  - OTHER REASONS
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7.5.4 Future Plans

Table 7.4 indicates that 31.82 per cent of the total sample wanted to set up own business. It is clear and expected that more people in the hotel and catering industry will embark into business in the future. A similar proportions desire to move into management. Figure 7.8 shows the proportions of subjects’ future plan.

7.5.5 The Influence of Structural Variables: Size, Star Rating

The proposition here is that future intention may be influenced by the subjects experience of working primarily in large or in small hotels. To this effect the proportions of large to small would examine against three motivational categories of moving into management, set up own business and remain as a chef.

Table 7.5 displays the relevant proportions. Test were carried out to find significant different of the proportion of small to large for moving into management versus remain as a chef and for set up own business versus remain as a chef. In both cases the result were significant. In that there was a tendency for who wanted to remain as a chef being orientated to smaller hotel and those which wanted to move into management and to set up own business to be orientated to larger hotels.
TABLE 7.4 Shows Sample distribution of subjects future plans.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>RESPONSE</th>
<th>EDUCATED n = 128</th>
<th></th>
<th>NON-EDUCATED n = 158</th>
<th></th>
<th>TOTAL n = 286</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>f</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>f</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>f</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To move into management.</td>
<td>55 (42.97)</td>
<td></td>
<td>27 (17.09)</td>
<td></td>
<td>82 (28.69)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To be a culinary educator.</td>
<td>27 (21.09)</td>
<td></td>
<td>12 (7.60)</td>
<td></td>
<td>39 (13.64)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To leave cooking completely.</td>
<td>2 (1.56)</td>
<td></td>
<td>5 (3.16)</td>
<td></td>
<td>7 (2.45)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To set own business.</td>
<td>30 (23.44)</td>
<td></td>
<td>61 (38.61)</td>
<td></td>
<td>91 (31.82)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To remain as a chef.</td>
<td>14 (10.94)</td>
<td></td>
<td>53 (33.54)</td>
<td></td>
<td>67 (23.43)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>128 (100.00)</td>
<td></td>
<td>158 (100.00)</td>
<td></td>
<td>286 (100.00)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
FIG 7.8 SUBJECTS' FUTURE PLANS
VARIABLE 1 - 5  n = 286

TOTAL SAMPLE

DISTRIBUTION IN EACH FREQUENCY

Educated n = 128  Non-educated n = 158

MANAGEMENT  CULINARY EDUCATOR  LEAVE COOKING
SET OWN BUSINESS  REMAIN AS A CHEF
### TABLE 7.5 SAMPLE DISTRIBUTION BY SIZE OF HOTEL:  TOTAL SAMPLE $n = 286$

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>WHY CHOOSE COOKING?</th>
<th>LARGE ABOVE 200 ROOMS</th>
<th>SMALL BELOW 200 ROOMS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>To move into management.</td>
<td>328</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To set up own business.</td>
<td>350</td>
<td>54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To remain as a chef.</td>
<td>265</td>
<td>74</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Test for the significantly difference between two proportions based on Room Size Category Frequency

Move into Management Sample $p_1$ versus Remain as Chef $p_2$ (class 1+2 vs 3+4)

Two Tailed Test

$$\alpha = 0.05$$

$$H_0: \pi_1 = \pi_2$$

$$H_1: \pi_1 \neq \pi_2$$

Accept if CR falls below

$$\pm 1.96$$

$$p_1 = \frac{30}{352} = 8\%$$

$$p_2 = \frac{79}{339} = 21\%$$
Ho is rejected

H1 is accepted

The calculation for setup own business versus remain as a chef is in appendix H.

In relation to the nominated star value of hotels the proposition here is that the high the star value the more likely is to want to move into management or set up their own business. Table 7.6 shows the relevant proportions. Test were carried out to find significant differences of the proportion of 5 star against all other categories for moving into management verses those who want to remain as a chef and set up own business. In both cases the results were not significant.
**TABLE 7.6 SAMPLE DISTRIBUTION BY STANDARD OF HOTEL:**  
**TOTAL SAMPLE n = 286**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>WHY CHOOSE COOKING?</th>
<th>5 STAR</th>
<th>4, 3, 2 STAR</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>To move into management.</td>
<td>255</td>
<td>120</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To set up own business.</td>
<td>237</td>
<td>174</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To remain as a chef.</td>
<td>193</td>
<td>141</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
7.6 Skills Accumulation Pattern

7.6.1 Introduction

The basic principles of the analysis is that there should be a difference between the educated and non-educated samples in the way in which they have learnt their skills. However, the data concerning the total sample should show the degree of logic and rationale in the learning sequences. The experts have laid down an "ideal pattern". How far does the actual pattern agree?

7.6.2 Application of the Template

The principle by which the judges decisions are compared with the sample is that the judges decisions are multiplied up to the sample level in the skill proportions of the original 25 dishes. The basic transition is as follows.

Stage 1: Calculation on Judges Decision based on Skill Template

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Skill level</th>
<th>Calculation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Skill level 1</td>
<td>4 dishes x 15 = 60/375 = 16%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Skill level 2</td>
<td>6 dishes x 15 = 90/375 = 24%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Skill level 3</td>
<td>7 dishes x 15 = 105/375 = 28%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Skill level 4</td>
<td>8 dishes x 15 = 120/375 = 32%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: 25 dishes x 15 = 375

This is then multiply by the sample size
Stage 2: Judges Distribution Calculation

Skill level 1  \[ 16\% \times 7150 = 1144 \]
Skill level 2  \[ 24\% \times 7150 = 1716 \]
Skill level 3  \[ 28\% \times 7150 = 2002 \]
Skill level 4  \[ 32\% \times 7150 = 2288 \]

Note: 25 dishes x n=286 = 7150

However, if each skill category was simply added it would not be a dynamic pattern. Skills are accumulated over time therefore a time dimension is put on the data. This time dimension is in three year interval from 3 years to 12 years. Figure 7.9 illustrates the accumulation pattern of the total sample.

7.6.3 The Logic of the Patterns

As figure 7.9 shows that people become more skilled overtime. However, the figure also shows that the accumulation pattern is very random. **All four skills levels are represented in all four time periods.** This is not what would be predicted from the assumptions of logical accumulation. Therefore the developmental stages of skills were a mismatch of all levels. One would expect that there would be a difference between the performance of each sample in relation to their respective templates. For example it is suggested
FIG 7.9 ACTUAL SKILLS ACCUMULATED
CUMULATIVE FREQUENCY : n = 286

TOTAL SAMPLE

- SKILLS STAGE 1
- SKILLS STAGE 2
- SKILLS STAGE 3
- SKILLS STAGE 4
that the educated accumulation pattern would be more logical and therefore resemble the template more closely than the non-educated sample.

Figure 7.10 shows a sub-template of which is the judges cumulative frequency of dishes multiplied by the educated sample.

The purpose of figure 7.10 is to point out the logical distribution of skills based chefs accumulate them as they progress in their profession. It is expected that this could be the normal and systematic form of learning as subjects accumulated skills and therefore progress gradually to become highly skilled culinary workers.

By contrasting figure 7.11 compares how systematically skills were accumulated overtime. The accumulation pattern of skills is very random. This is not what we would predicted because it is expected that there would be more structure in the learning process for the educated sample. Figure 7.12 shows the cumulative frequency of the actual skills accumulated for the non-educated sample. Notice how all the skills levels are represented in each column. The conclusion drawn is that both samples display a randomness in the learning pattern.
FIG 7.10 JUDGES' JUDGEMENT SUB-TEMPLATE
CUMULATIVE FREQUENCY: n = 128

EDUCATED SAMPLE

3 YEARS: 512
6 YEARS: 1280
9 YEARS: 2176
12 YEARS: 3200

Legend:
- SKILLS 1
- SKILLS 2
- SKILLS 3
- SKILLS 4
FIG 7.11 ACTUAL SKILLS ACCUMULATED
CUMULATIVE FREQUENCY: n = 128

EDUCATED SAMPLE

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Time (Years)</th>
<th>Stage 1</th>
<th>Stage 2</th>
<th>Stage 3</th>
<th>Stage 4</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>211</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>2179</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>2502</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>2831</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
FIG 7.12 ACTUAL SKILLS ACCUMULATED
CUMULATIVE FREQUENCY: \( n = 158 \)

NON-EDUCATED SAMPLE

- **3 YEARS**: 253
- **6 YEARS**: 1460
- **9 YEARS**: 2348
- **12 YEARS**: 2795

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SKILLS STAGE 1</th>
<th>SKILLS STAGE 2</th>
<th>SKILLS STAGE 3</th>
<th>SKILLS STAGE 4</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
7.6.4 Educated Versus Non-Educated Sample Compared

The most striking aspect as comparing figure 7.11 and figure 7.12 is that there is so little difference. As would be expected the educated sample accumulated more skills in the earlier years but it even out by the 9 year period. This finding is important because it back up the findings of the career data that when they both got to chef de partie they are equal and culinary education fades away in significance.

The methodology does not allow for "quality" of performance so no distinction can be made on the bases of quality but it is clear that industry and culinary course gives the individual a better start in terms of having more skills and advancing to chef de partie more quickly.

7.7 Investigation of sub-sample of 67 who expressed the desire to remain as culinary employees.

The date on motivation suggests that there exists within the sample a sub-sample of people who wish to remain as a chef. The research look at the decision to investigate the careers of this special sub-group.
7.7.1 Introduction

The motivational data suggests that it will be worthwhile investigating a particular sub-sample. This sample of 67 consists of those who expressed the desire to remain as culinary employees. Given that other motivation were expressed such as wanting to move into management and wanting to set up own business it would be reasonable to suggest that there may be something in the structure of careers and training of the 67 which was different from the general sample. Here the educated and non-educated differentiation is displaced.

The first approach to investigation is to look at the biographical data. This is followed by the application of the size and star variable to the motivational data and finally the investigation the skills accumulation pattern of this subject-group. (This is included in the general data on skills accumulation pattern).

7.7.2 Biographical data

The intention is to compare the biographical distribution of the sub-sample of 67 with the total sample of 285. Acknowledging that the total sample include the sub-sample. This is permissible on the ground the biographical age distribution is pictorial. Figure 7.13 is a biographical age distribution showing
FIG 7.13 BIOGRAPHICAL AGE DISTRIBUTION
POSITION 1 - 6  n = 67  SUB-SAMPLE
the proportions of people who wants to remain as a chef in the profession.

Figure 7.14 is the biographical age distribution of the total sample of 218. By contrasting this age distribution it is possible to see a very small proportions of people who wants to remain as a chef reach the position of an Executive Chef. However, it is clear that those 67 sample seems to have become stagnant in their jobs compared to the overall sample. It is possible to suggest this sample to be stuck at the Chef de Partie level having pursue an earlier career which is essentially the same as the total sample.

7.8 Open Ended Question

Subjects was invited to give their opinion to an open ended question which was placed at the last page of the questionnaire. The question is: What do you think about the culinary training in Malaysia? It is a free-response or unstructured question. This invites respondents to compose their own answers because there are no preset categories. Such a question is used to discover and tap respondent’s personal opinions on culinary training in Malaysia. This type of question is useful for the reason it is likely to provoke and to get a great range of responses opinion.

On the other hand it is quite difficult to analyse. To analyse the comments, it is necessary to devise a category system by which comments can be grouped
meaningfully. This can be accomplished by organising the free-response data into basic themes for better analysis. By producing a set of themes from the opinions it is possible to gives valuable results. This leads to understanding the present position of the culinary training in Malaysia as seen by those involved. The sample responses were as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>RESPONSES</th>
<th>PERCENTAGE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Educated sample</td>
<td>32 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-educated sample</td>
<td>30 %</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The response rate was lower than was expected. To review the respondent’s responses on this question the following themes has been developed.

* A Past and Present Perspective
* International Aspect
* A Concern for Youth
* Government Involvement
* Institutional Involvement
* Industrial Involvement
* Professional Associations
1. Past and Present Perspective

There was tremendous support for training. A clear theme was making comparisons between the past and the present position of culinary training in Malaysia sharing subject’s experience in the field.

Nearly 30 per cent responses commented that the training is better than before. Many make a summary of their experience and telling stories about their training comparing and contrasting the days when they started in the industry. The present culinary training is better than before. Some were satisfied with the present culinary training in Malaysia. Typical opinions were:

' ..... in the hotel I am working now training in practical and theory has been given to the staff quite often as to improve the skill and understanding of the culinary art. Before I joined the hotel line I started my apprenticeship in Hyatt Kuantan.'

" ..... the culinary training now is much better when I first started but a lot more can be done. I think for Malaysia to produce better chef, they have to start very early. We should follow the British and Europe style
of hierarchy in the kitchen. Start in the kitchen as apprentice and go up as you advance."

2. International Aspects

Subjects were also concerned with international relations with other institutions overseas on the ground of education and training and the role of cuisine that played an important part in the hospitality industry in Malaysia.

"..... MIT - Mara Institute of Technology should plan for a twin programme with foreign university related with the industry."

"..... the culinary training in Malaysia is very good but we need more training and experience abroad to improve the skills."

"..... training has to be up graded, and it has to be recognised worldwide and of a high class."
This type of opinions throws some light on the lack of international experience shown by the sample.

3. Youth Concern

There is also a great concern for youth who were interested in the culinary profession. Skilled jobs should be open to any worker who has established his competence to do them. Apart from the initial and complementary further education for young people there should be a recognisable correspondence between the training provided for young people and that provided for adults, particularly as regards the standards of competence achieved at the end of training.

"..... training is coming up slowly. Needs a standard control, guideline and time frame. A diploma in Malaysia gives not a clear picture over professional know how. Age for study cooking have to be drop to younger age which change importance of money to importance in job and will create automatic pride and stable cooks and not jump for money like now."

" ..... there is a lack of training for young guy who
wants to pursue their career as chefs. There should be
a very intensive apprenticeship program in Malaysia.

"...... seminar to introduce them to the challenging
industry."

"Government should help the youngsters more.
Encourage and attract them into career in F & B. There
should be more on the job training for those already in
F & B. It’s very costly, as I understand. for the
smaller, budget hotel like ours to carry but such
training. This is a problem because budget type hotels
are becoming more popular now as people’s spending
power is less."

4. Government Involvement

About 11 per cent reported that the government have got an important role to
play in the labour market. Government long-term monitoring of the labour
force demand and supply with trade standards of skilled culinary personnel for
the hospitality industry is needed. At Government level strategic planning of
manpower needs is monitored, skilled are upgraded and long-term aid to
national growth and development required so that quality and quantity in
training of appropriate personnel are guarantee. A point of remark here subjects stressed the needs of having a national skill standards and certification for the culinary workers. At present there is no system of national standards or certification for culinarian exists but the National Industrial Training and Trade Certification Board of the Ministry of Labour concentrated its efforts on the industrial and manufacturing sectors i.e. mechanical, electronic, electrical, civil engineering and transport-related trades. The hospitality industry has been largely neglected by the authority (ESCAP, 1988 - Economic and Social Commission for Asia and Pacific).

There is a need to establish a standard training systems in which initial training and further training opportunities are available. However, the programmes of training should be based on an analysis of relevant jobs.

"The Ministry of Education and Tourism should uniform the training program for the whole of Malaysia ...."
"Government should be involved to set standards and policy on culinary workers in Malaysia."

5. Institutions Involvement

The were strong backing on educational institutions as an important role for culinary training identified by subjects. Systematic means of assessment should be increasingly used both of the selection of people for training and to establish their competence during the training itself. Education and training must be recognised as a continuous and progressive progress.

Approximately 10 per cent indicated that institutions have a role to play in educating and training culinary workers. Many mentioned that ITM and NPC as a leading government institutions in Malaysia have got a part to play too. As both are established institutions in culinary education the future development of culinary training and education can be shared with the hospitality industry. Some subjects indicated that they are interested with custom-designed courses for continuing education to enhance their knowledge. A liaison with the industry is essential.

The followings were some of the comments extracted from the questionnaires.
"Culinary training in Malaysia is quite sufficient in all the training schools eg. Mara Institute of Technology, Stamford College, Kolej Damanasara Utama for students pursuing Diploma in Chef. I definitely suggest that the government should encourage more people to join us."

"I think the standard in Malaysia has tremendously improved. Thanks to the school like "MARA". ....... more good school like "MARA" in the future. Anyway Malaysia is the country where I was the most impressed in Asia in terms of "quality" employees."

"but ..... what I feel nowadays there’s a lot of culinary institution in Malaysia and I think this institutions had already played an important part to train people in the hospitality industry."
6. Industries Involvement

Training must be a managerial responsibility as management must be responsible for ensuring the continuity of the organisation. Each establishment should have fully qualified training officers with direct responsibility day-to-day activities necessary to achieve the objectives of the organisation.

Roughly 7 per cent responded that hotels should have a structured apprenticeship scheme. Therefore industries are involved and committed to training. Some subjects commented that hotels liaised with academic institutions to work on an approved industrial training or apprenticeship programme. This then will establish a balance between the acquisition of knowledge on one side and experience on the other. A snapshot of subjects opinion was reproduced as follows:

"Training not sufficient in schools. Longer attachment with hotels with a specific training program throughout the kitchen area."

"Hotels should participate in the training of chefs in Malaysia. Many hotels do not have any proper training
7. Associations Involvement

Around 4 per cent indicated that CAM must look seriously at the certification issues. Such certifications are needed for culinary workers so that standards and a guarantee of qualification acquired available to measure skills of culinary professional. Looking at it closer, it is suggested and therefore the responsibility of CAM to work with NITTCB on this topic if they are interested to improve their profession.

The opinions suggest that there is still a lack of coordination and cooperation between government, associations, hospitality industry and institutions and that a closer, formalised relationships is required between them. There is also a clear indication here that education is the possible vehicle for improving standards. The general opinion that the present represent a real improvement on what has given before is surprising strong. More can be done and should be done to provide better education and training for the culinary workers in Malaysia.

This opinions echo the debate in chapter 3 where the government and
education are seen by some models as being the driving force behind progress.

Furthermore other opinion follows the professional standards and recognition line in which "official" approval of an occupation is seen a vital to its future.
CHAPTER 8
CHAPTER 8

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

This is a study attempt to examine the career patterns of chefs in Malaysia. A summary of the finding follows.

8.1 Findings on Career Paths

8.1.1 There are significant differences in length of time taken to reach the position of a chef de partie by the educated sample and by the non-educated sample.

8.1.2 There is no significant difference between the time taken to become an Executive Chef by educated and the non-educated sample.
Comment on Career Paths: Length of Time to Chef de Partie

There were significantly differences between the educated and non-educated subjects. The educated subjects were different from the non-educated sample that they have attended at least two years in a formal cooking school. The non-educated subjects had learnt on the job. The position of chef de partie was very crucial in the careers of culinary profession. The performance of each sample in relation to length of time to chef de partie position was different between the educated or non-educated samples. Statistically significant values were obtained for test of comparison of means on LTCDP for educated and non-educated sample. The non-educated sample took significantly longer to reach chef de partie.

With the advantage on the side of educated sample this might continue on careers in terms to length of time to executive chef. However, there was no significant difference between the time taken to executive chef for the samples. The biographical display illustrated that there are two salient stages in a culinary career. Commis de cuisine and chef de partie. The evidence suggest that any chef de partie aged 46 is unlikely to progress further.

8.2 Motivation

The study collected a number of qualitative aspects under the banner of
"motivation". Fundamentally, it was thought that there would be differences between the educated and the non-educated sample on a variety of qualitative dimensions. In terms of "reasons for moving between jobs" the main finding was that educated sample shown more interest in higher salary than the non-educated sample. However, the behaviour of the non-educated sample indicated the existence of a "mobility in order to learn" motivation which is in line with the career data.

In terms of "reasons for becoming a chef" there is clear evidence that college graduates are fairly ambitious and want either to run their own business or become managers. The study did find evidence of a relationship between the poles of "moving into management" and "remain as a chef" and room size. With the former associated with large hotel and the latter with small hotel. The finding has to be qualified by the comment made on the methodology in this area. The study identified a small group who desired to "remain as chef". However, the career data also showed that they had "run out of stream" in terms of advancement. The two aspects may be associated.

Comments on Salary Data

The methodology did not collect salary data in a way which allowed for that data to be used alongside the work biography. Other studies show this problem
and it is a subject for future research.

8.3 Skills Accumulation Findings

If it is assumed that the experts were correct then the findings here are at odds with what might be expected.

The development stages of skills were a mismatch of all levels which was against the logical sequential process of learning through education related to the judges' judgement. All four skills level were represent in all four time periods. The implication here is that if learning is illogical then as the source of learning is consumer behaviour, then there must be a good match between the skills acquired and the need of the market. However irrational the learning process might be.

The one area of reasonable stability was the education course which gave its participant a quicker access to skills but thereafter the market appears to take over. There was no qualitative means constructed so a comparison of quality was not possible. Given the value placed on education by the opinion section and given the existence of models which advance the virtues of education in craft areas. The study raises questions as to its long term influence. The real benefit of these finding is that they suggest that skill competence at using
career points can show the separate and combined influence of education and job mobility.

Comment of Skill Measurement

It has to be remembered that the "dishes" are representative of skills and the subjects are likely to possess for more skills that are recorded in the study. It is possible that the western-eastern dishes proportions affected the results in that western dishes are on the curriculum of courses but not on all menus in hotels. Future research in this area need to apply a finer time scale on the accumulation pattern. The three year periods may contain important variation within them.
CHAPTER 9
CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

It is clear that education carved the characteristics on the career of chefs in Malaysia. This is well illustrated in the research findings by showing that the educated culinary workers have an advantage over the non-educated subjects. There are two aspects to this advantage. On the one hand educated chefs progressed faster but on the other hand the real benefit of their education is that it gave them the ambition to go forward, and the confidence to learn, about management. They had an orientation to the future. Education as a chef is worth the money and time. Education shaped the career "behaviour" of culinarians. The study does not destroy the myth of becoming a good chef by starting from an apprentice with no formal education. The problem which the study raise is how far can skills be planned in the interests of the future when skills are the products of both education and experience in the labour market. If, the contention of Riley (1991) is accepted and that the interests of employers and
the industry as a whole are not compatible, then some form of working together has to be formed. The rationale in Malaysia is for government to play a key role in making employers contribute to the future in terms of training.

In concluding this study, perhaps it is vital at this point to look at the providers of vocational education and training (VET) in the context of the culinary profession in Malaysia. It is important to identify the agencies responsible for vocational education and training before any form of discussion put forward for further recommendation. This is important as education and training is to serve the industry needs by providing the right type of labour force at the right time. In this circumstances it is wise to consider the role of education and training as an instrument of social and an economic change for the people. The relevance of education and training objectives and the systems are important which leads to the socio-economic objectives of national development ensuring best possible congruent between them. In relation to this training refers to the delivery system at the skilled and semi-skilled level of labour force. The delivery system is a system in system approach. The basic parts of the system are the input, process, output and environment (Othman, 1992).

A good delivery system is a system that is responsive to its environment although the environment lies outside the system’s control as argued by Churchman (1968: 36) ......... it is also something that determines ....... how the system performs. It is for this purpose that this study investigate into the literature of vocational education and training particularly focusing in the culinary profession to understand and to describe
the interactive mechanism between the environment and the delivery system. This is important as training policy is directed at ensuring the requisite human resources are in place to achieve those goals as suggested by Ashton and Sung (1994).

In this setting it is wise to view the role of education and training in the hotel and catering sector in Malaysia. The vocational training system should be aware of the skills and knowledge required in this profession. The training institutions also should provide student with adequate skills for the labour markets. Therefore it is important of reassessing or restructuring the vocational training systems and industrial training program if necessary. The streaming of students at an earlier stage with a clear direction for building a better skill workers practised by the German and French school systems could helped to restructure the existing vocational school system in Malaysia.

As reported by ASEAN Hotels and Manpower Survey (1991) the training provided by public and private hotels schools has for many years come in for criticism from the industry. Industries view on courses offered by training schools in Malaysia were not encouraging with 56 per cent of the survey indicating were not relevant to the industry’s needs. It was further highlighted by the survey that there were not enough practical training among other reasons commented. What more can be seen when there is no formal apprenticeship scheme and no system of national standards or certification exists (WTO 1986: 7). Apprenticeship training has provided a steady supply of labour as described by Riccucci (1991). Therefore there is an urgent need
to create a mechanism for coordination of all training activities and to implement and monitor a national training strategy. This is also voiced out by respondents in the open ended questionnaire. The remarks concerned issue on training standards created for culinarian with the need to establish national standards for the basic hotel trades and to develop a corresponding system for the certification personnel that will guaranteed a passport for qualifications. Perhaps the NVQ framework or a combination of the American National Apprenticeship Standards or the German Model Apprentice scheme can be used with necessary adjustments to produce a better training scheme for Malaysia or perhaps the model described by Ashton and Sung (1994) can be use as a base to response to the labour market needs.

It is recommended that the skills template developed in this research could be used as a dynamic model for creating certification standards of skills attained by culinarian and a pay structure could be developed in the future. The Malaysian Tourism Promotion Board through the National Tourism Training Council in conjunction with the industry can co-ordinate and establish certification standards and a better training scheme for the country. The National Occupational Skill Standards’ (NOSS) that was designed in 1993 which the author was involved in Malaysia shows the seriousness of the government to produce and upgrade skilled culinarian for the hospitality industry in Malaysia. Part of this document is in appendix I. This is the beginning but more need to be done and research. The clear solution to this is the government, educational institution and industry become more involved in training at all levels. This standards can only be brought about through involvement. So the institutions and
industry must make a respond to co-ordinate and cooperate which therefore bringing the fragmented parts within the delivery system together to ensure that the trade standards meet the requirement of the industry. Studies should be undertaken to improve the effectiveness of the existing training system especially in culinary profession in supplying the required trained manpower. These studies may include human resource development which identified and make recommendation measures to overcome them. With a proper national training system to achieve it objective and is accessible to all Malaysian this equip them with knowledge and skills necessary to meet the needs of the labour markets and to make this profession at par with international counterparts.

As Riley (1993) reveals that the tourism labour market are dynamic in nature which the government of Malaysia should recognise more of this quality. This is pointed out by Goldsmith and Salehuddin (1994) having a National Industrial Training and Trade Certification Board which emphasis is confined to mechanical, electronic, electrical, civil engineering and transport-related trades. The hospitality has been largely neglected by the authority. The government policy on education and training requires structures which is responsible for the followings.

1. closer coordination and cooperation between the industry.

2. institutional administration and management.
3. evaluation and research development

4. link with trade associations

5. supervision and assessment

As a policy-maker, the government must decide between several strategies for culinary training and training in general. It is to find a way, who is to pay for training and procedures for payment, whether to open more centres and schools for training, whether to design a national apprenticeship schemes and whether to entrust the training to the industry giving more tax exemptions or benefits to the industry for this purpose. Making comparisons on the cost-benefit ratios is the basic technique for such a decisions. The career analysis technique used in this study can improve the efficiency of cost-benefit calculations.

In fact, one of the options of training for national development that the government put priority is the provision for training legislation. Many countries look at legislation as means of monitoring and enforcement of a training system. An example to follow is the German dual system which uses legislative power to cover vocational training. Training in the firms is regulated by a Federal Law (Vocational Training Act of 14 August 1969), while vocational school instruction is the responsibility of the Federal Lander (school law) (CEDEFOP, 1991: 40). Mathes (1991) commented that the Germany’s dual-education system successfully links education with the workplace. In
the absence of statutory provision for such bodies, responsibilities and powers. the essential point of decision on the policy and detail of all training practice lies with the individual firm. Training for trainers is important just as the development of academic staffs in the education service and training for the students.

The provision of vocational education in Malaysia has largely been determined by the government which plays an important role in an administrative structure. It is inevitable that the Malaysian Government should adopt a more interventionist policy towards vocational education training. This led to stimulate directly or indirectly the role of private sector in providing vocational education and training. The considerable power and authority of the government will lead to much more intervention and in the country's overall structure of vocational education and training. The acute shortage of skilled labour in the hotels experience in Malaysia as reported by STAR (1992) could be overcome by providing more schools for vocational education and training in the hotel and catering accessible to most Malaysian. The restructuring of the existing vocational education and training which allowed students to be streamed at an earlier age as did the French and the German schooling system obviously produced a better craft workers as any form of skilled labour required an early development. The stressed on academic pursuits alone to be qualified for a skilled job as the Malaysian education system seemed to be cannot meet the needs of the hotel industry.

While the government alone may not be able to provide all what is required for the
labour markets the institutions of higher learning continue to maintain cooperation and linkages with the private sector in various academic programmes and offering opportunities for on-the-job training for students and teachers. These linkages will meet the requirements of the labour markets. The Alberta and Columbia models reported by Pollock and Richie (1990) are vital to our understanding of the strategy for integration of tourism education and training system. It is a tripartite system that works like the German dual system where the government, the industry and the educators work together to meet the mission to provide the education and training for the labour force. This framework may provide a vision for Malaysia and a direction for a better design and development for education and training in tackling the acute shortage of labour for skilled and semi-skilled workers particularly in the tourism sector.

Industry must realised that the academic institutions has a vital role to play in providing knowledge to students for the labour force. In some ways the industry may assumed that the academic institutions were not teaching what is needed for the industry. However, in this case the study indicates that the learning process of the educated subjects and the non-educated subjects were a mismatch of skill stages in both samples. Therefore is a simple sense, the institutions were in the right direction providing the knowledge and skills needed for the industry. Since this study shows that many culinary workers have an orientation to go into management and be an entrepreneurs it is time for culinary educational institutions to add subjects on line with management and business to their culinary curriculum.
Education has motivated culinary workers. There is going to be a trend in Malaysia as more educated chefs are motivated to enter the management positions. In this case, the academic institutions will therefore enhance the present programmes with more management courses as the management skills will be required to run a kitchen. This seems to be a global phenomenon.

While the government take a position to assist in providing better provision for education and training, the industry has a part to play on shared responsibility, management and finance. The success of Visit Malaysia Year indicated a progress in the tourism sector in Malaysia. Many more hotels and restaurants will be needed and therefore more trained and skilled workers required for the industry. The industry knows what is required in order for an employee to be competent in his or her job. Therefore in assisting the education institution the industry can work together in developing standards, curriculum development and others for the profession. The availability of a national recognised system which is designed to enable those with extensive experience in the workplace or with or without formal education to gain credit for the knowledge and proven abilities which they demonstrate in the job responsibilities. Industry can developed a professional certification criteria for professional culinarian throughout the country with the help of trade association such as CAM that will secure future growth and development in this career and recognised by the industry and the public as the European did.

The benefits of a tripartite system for such development are clear as argued by
Pollock and Ritchie (1990). As for the culinarian, the certification of a nationally recognised qualification is a passport for promotion and job prospects through increased skill levels. Industry would gained from skilled qualified personnel and increase productivity and supply for the labour market. Above all the government level of strategic planning of manpower monitors the skills of professions and upgrades them from time to time (Caillods, 1994). There will be a stronger links between institutional and on-the-job training and allocation of public resources for education and training to meet both efficiency and equity goals as suggested by Carnoy (1994).

The issue on human resource development is on the agenda for government, academic institutions and industry to focus formulating for change in the education and training. These changes are shaping the education and training through discussions, reform to existing education system, developing a national skills standard and certification, providing more schools for vocational education and training in hotel and catering. The unity of effort with both public and private sector working together to address the present imbalances of demand and supply of manpower shortage in the hotel industry in Malaysia is needed to satisfy present and future labour force. The need for a rapid improvement in the nation’s skills cannot just rely on the educational systems to enhance the stock of skills but by acting on both employers and individuals in the workplace thereby enhancing work based learning as suggested by Ashton and Sung (1994) and the perception of social stigma with the aesthetic occupation of chefs and cooks as described by Fine (1985 & 1987) is accepted within the hotel industry.
and the society as a whole in Malaysia.
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Bibliography


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Bibliography


ADDITIONAL BIBLIOGRAPHY


APPENDICES
APPENDIX A
CHEF SURVEY QUESTIONNAIRE

Dear Chef:

You are one of the highly skilled chefs selected to participate in this survey. Since very few are sampled, your response is of vital importance for the success of this research.

The purpose of this study is to analyse chefs' careers in the hospitality industry. The findings of this research will contribute to the development of the culinary profession in Malaysia.

The attached questionnaire will trial your patience and memory. However, your participation will be very highly appreciated. It is essential to finish every question as fully and as honestly as possible. Your answers are only for research purposes and all information will be strictly confidential.

Kindly return the completed questionnaire in the addressed envelope enclosed by Monday, November 15, 1993.

If you wish to discuss further about this research, please do not hesitate to contact us.

Thanking you for your cooperation in anticipation.

H. M. Salleh
Researcher

August 2, 1993
SECTION 1: YOUR DETAILS

1. How old are you? _______________________________________

2. Are you:
   □ 1. Male
   □ 2. Female

3. Are you:
   □ 1. Single
   □ 2. Married
   □ 3. Others

4. If married, please give your age at the time of marriage.

5. What age did you start working in the kitchen earning a living?

6. What is the highest level of education you have completed? Please tick (V) only ONE.
   □ 1. Primary school
   □ 2. Secondary school
   □ 3. Technical school
   □ 4. Polytechnic
   □ 5. Institution/Colleges
   □ 6. University
7. Which group best describes your current annual income?

☐ 1. M$12,000 - M$35,999
☐ 2. M$36,000 - M$71,999
☐ 3. M$72,000 - M$107,999
☐ 4. M$108,000 - M$143,999
☐ 5. M$144,000 - M$179,999
☐ 6. M$180,000 & above

8. Did you attend a cooking school? If yes, please state the institution.

☐ 1. Certificate: Name of Institution:

☐ 2. Diploma: Name of Institution:

9. What is your nationality? ____________________________

10. What is your present occupation?

☐ 1. Executive Chef
☐ 2. Executive Sous Chef
☐ 3. Chef Sauciere
☐ 4. Chef Patissiere
☐ 5. Chef Bouchere
☐ 6. Chef Garde Manger
☐ 7. Chef Entremetiere
☐ 8. Others (please specify): __________________________
SECTION 2: YOUR CAREER

We are interested in your career paths and would like you to go back over your last 8 jobs as classified by level(1), sector(2), standard(3), size(4), location(5) and length of service (6). We suggest you work down the columns starting with your present job. Remember that a job change can be movement within a company as well as a move to another company. Please tick (V) in the appropriate boxes.

<table>
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<th>1. LEVEL OF POSITION</th>
<th>Present Job 1</th>
<th>Last Job 2</th>
<th>Before Last Job 3</th>
<th>Before Last Job 4</th>
<th>Before Last Job 5</th>
<th>Before Last Job 6</th>
<th>Before Last Job 7</th>
<th>Before Last Job 8</th>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Chef De Partie</td>
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<td>Demi Chef</td>
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<tr>
<td>Apprentice</td>
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| 2. SECTOR OF INDUSTRY | | | | | | | |
|-----------------------| Hotel | Restaurant | Institution | Education | Shipping | |

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>3. STANDARD OF HOTEL</th>
<th>2 star</th>
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<th>4 star</th>
<th>5 star</th>
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</table>

<table>
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<tr>
<th>4. SIZE OF HOTEL</th>
<th>less than 100 rooms</th>
<th>101 to 200 rooms</th>
<th>201 to 300 rooms</th>
<th>more than 300 rooms</th>
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</thead>
</table>

<table>
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<tr>
<th>5. LOCATION OF HOTEL</th>
<th>Europe</th>
<th>USA/Canada</th>
<th>South East Asia</th>
<th>Middle East</th>
<th>Australasia</th>
<th>Caribbean</th>
<th>Africa</th>
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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>6. LENGTH OF SERVICE</th>
<th>Please write into each column the numbers of years in each job.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
SECTION 3: YOUR MOTIVATION TO CHANGE JOB

What were your reasons for moving? Here we suggest you start with Job 8 and work backwards to move into your present job. If more than one reasons, please tick (✓) the appropriate boxes.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>LEVEL OF POSITION</th>
<th>REASONS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>More money</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>From Job 8 to Job 7</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>From Job 7 to Job 6</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>From Job 6 to Job 5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>From Job 5 to Job 4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>From Job 4 to Job 3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>From Job 3 to Job 2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>From Job 2 to Job 1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

SECTION 4: YOUR OPINION

1. Would you let us know why you choose cooking as your career? Please tick (✓) only ONE.

☐ 1. To be self-employed one day.
☐ 2. To travel.
☐ 3. To be artistic and creative.
☐ 4. To be a chef.
☐ 5. Other reasons (please specify):

2. What is your future plans? Please tick (✓) only ONE.

☐ 1. To move into management.
☐ 2. To be a culinary educator.
☐ 3. To leave cooking completely.
☐ 4. To set up own business.
☐ 5. To remain as a chef.
## SECTION 5: WHERE DID YOU LEARN YOUR SKILLS?

Please tick (V) in column A if you can prepare these dishes. If you have not cooked any of these dishes leave the boxes blank. In column B, please tick (V) the job in which you first learnt to cook each dish.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>NAME OF DISHES</th>
<th>COLUMN A</th>
<th>COLUMN B</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Liver Pate</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fruit Cocktail</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Consomme Bruinoise</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cheese Omelette</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>French Onion Soup</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hamburgers</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lobster Thermidor</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Baked Potatoes</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Souffle</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cream Caramel</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Beef Goulash</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fish Meuniere</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Moussaka</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vegetable Terrine</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Caesar Salad</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Steak Chasseur</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Swiss Rolls</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grilled Lamb Chops</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Roast Chicken</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Black Forest Cake</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Beef Satay</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chicken Curry</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Beef Rendang</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>White Rice</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nasi Goring</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sweet &amp; Sour Fish</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sharksfin Soup</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fried Bee Hoon</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Peking Duck</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prawn Tempura</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

KINDLY PLEASE MAKE SURE YOU HAVE ANSWERED ALL QUESTIONS
THANK YOU FOR YOUR COOPERATION
SECTION 6: YOUR COMMENTS

THIS SPACE IS FOR YOU TO MAKE ANY FURTHER COMMENTS.
WHAT DO YOU THINK ABOUT THE CULINARY TRAINING IN MALAYSIAA
APPENDIX B
We wish to thank the following food experts for their participation in this research.

1. Ms. Betty Chew  
   Food Consultants & Author  
   Damansara Jaya  
   Malaysia

2. Ms. Violet Oon  
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   Singapore

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   MARA Institute of Technology  
   Shah Alam. Malaysia

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   Pan Pacific Singapore  
   Singapore

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   New Straits Times  
   Kuala Lumpur. Malaysia

8. Mr. Maxson Abdullah  
   F & B Consultant  
   Pan Pacific Hotels & Resorts  
   Kuala Lumpur. Malaysia

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   College Damansara Utama  
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    HCIMC  
    Kuala Lumpur. Malaysia

13. Mr. Abdul Rahman Zabidi  
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    Subang Merlin  
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14. Mr. Jay Owen  
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    Kuala Lumpur. Malaysia

15. Mr. Shaari Ali  
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    HCIMC  
    Kuala Lumpur. Malaysia
APPENDIX C
# SKILLS STAGE 1

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>DISH NO.</th>
<th>NAME OF DISHES</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>FRUIT COCKTAIL</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>BAKED POTATOES</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24</td>
<td>WHITE RICE</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25</td>
<td>NASI GORENG</td>
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</table>

# SKILLS STAGE 2

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>DISH NO.</th>
<th>NAME OF DISHES</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>CHEESE OMELETTE</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>HAMBURGERS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>CAESAR SALAD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>GRILLED LAMB CHOPS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>ROAST CHICKEN</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>28</td>
<td>FRIED BEE HOON</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
## SKILLS STAGE 3

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>DISH NO.</th>
<th>NAME OF DISHES</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>FRENCH ONION SOUP</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>LOBSTER THERMIDOR</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>CREAM CARAMEL</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>FISH MEUNIERE</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>STEAK CHASSEUR</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>SWISS ROLLS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21</td>
<td>BEEF SATAY</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

## SKILLS STAGE 4

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>DISH NO.</th>
<th>NAME OF DISHES</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>LIVER PATE</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>CONSOMME BRUNOISE</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>SOUFFLE</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>VEGETABLE TERRINE</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>BLACK FOREST CAKE</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23</td>
<td>BEEF RENDANG</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27</td>
<td>SHARKSFIN SOUP</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>29</td>
<td>PEKING DUCK</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Calculation of the dishes which qualify to enter the research.

Decision rule:

Any dish which secure more than 7 nominations in one skill category qualifies in that category. By column count taking the mode figure the qualified dish is allocated.

| Dish 1  | 10 Skills stage 4 | Dish 16 | 8 Skills stage 3 |
| Dish 2  | 9 Skills stage 1  | Dish 17 | 8 Skills stage 3 |
| Dish 3  | 9 Skills stage 4  | Dish 18 | 8 Skills stage 2 |
| Dish 4  | 8 Skills stage 2  | Dish 19 | 8 Skills stage 2 |
| Dish 5  | 9 Skills stage 3  | Dish 20 | 9 Skills stage 4 |
| Dish 6  | 8 Skills stage 2  | Dish 21 | 10 Skills stage 3 |
| Dish 7  | 9 Skills stage 3  | Dish 23 | 10 Skills stage 4 |
| Dish 8  | 8 Skills stage 1  | Dish 24 | 10 Skills stage 1 |
| Dish 9  | 14 Skills stage 4 | Dish 25 | 8 Skills stage 1 |
| Dish 10 | 8 Skills stage 3  | Dish 27 | 9 Skills stage 4 |
| Dish 12 | 8 Skills stage 3  | Dish 28 | 9 Skills stage 2 |
| Dish 14 | 9 Skills stage 4  | Dish 29 | 11 Skills stage 4 |
| Dish 15 | 8 Skills stage 2  |

The disqualified dishes are:

Dish 11  Dish 13  Dish 22  Dish 26  Dish 30
DH 1. LIVER PATE          DH 16. STEAK CHASSEUR
DH 2. FRUIT COCKTAIL      DH 17. SWISS ROLLS
DH 3. CONSOMME BRUNOISE   DH 18. GRILLED LAMB CHOPS
DH 4. CHEESE OMELETTE     DH 19. ROAST CHICKEN
DH 5. FRENCH ONION SOUP   DH 20. BLACK FOREST CAKE
DH 6. HAMBURGERS          DH 21. BEEF SATAY
DH 7. LOBSTER THERMIDOR   DH 22. CHICKEN CURRY
DH 8. BAKED POTATOES      DH 23. BEEF RENDANG
DH 9. SOUFFLE             DH 24. WHITE RICE
DH 10. CREAM CARAMEL      DH 25. NASI GORENG
DH 11. BEEF GOULASH       DH 26. SWEET & SOUR FISH
DH 12. FISH MEUNIERE      DH 27. SHARKSFIN SOUP
DH 13. MOUSSAKA           DH 28. FRIED BEE HOON
DH 14. VEGETABLE TERRINE  DH 29. PEKING DUCK
DH 15. CAESAR SALAD       DH 30. PRAWN TEMPURA

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APPENDIX D
SKILLS
Gamma Scores 15 judge x 25 dishes. mean: 71  mode: 81  range .97 to .23

| .70  | .81  | .85  | .81  |
| .69  | .23  | .64  | .76  |
| .74  | .51  | .70  | .61  |
| .81  | .65  | .76  | .61  |
| .81  | .60  | .67  | .75  |
| .75  | .82  | .83  | .71  |
| .93  | .60  | .66  | .76  |
| .66  | .89  | .89  | .89  |
| .68  | .60  | .86  | .83  |
| .81  | .65  | .50  | .95  |
| .90  | .77  | .70  | .97  |
| .91  | .63  | .80  | .95  |
| .80  | .90  | .71  | .75  |
| .84  | .77  | .75  | .87  |
| .73  | .92  | .50  | .61  |
| .75  | .96  | .68  | .82  |
| .89  | .77  | .93  | .87  |
| .64  | .80  | .78  | .96  |
| .88  | .96  | .67  | .71  |
| .82  | .86  | .80  | .81  |
| .86  | .70  | .89  | .69  |
| .90  | .82  | .82  | .96  |
| .80  | .81  | .70  | .84  |
| .72  | .87  | .87  | .95  |
| .76  | .82  | .85  | .90  |
| .81  | .78  | .83  | .70  |
APPENDIX E
### DISTRIBUTION OF HOTEL MANPOWER BY SKILL IN MALAYSIA FOR THE YEAR 1991

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>AREA / STATE</th>
<th>MANAGERIAL</th>
<th>SUPERVISOR</th>
<th>SKILLED</th>
<th>SEMI SKILL</th>
<th>UNSKILLED</th>
<th>GRAND TOTAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>NO. %</td>
<td>NO. %</td>
<td>NO. %</td>
<td>NO. %</td>
<td>NO. %</td>
<td>NO. %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PERAK</td>
<td>359 12</td>
<td>216 7</td>
<td>1,827 61</td>
<td>398 13</td>
<td>173 6</td>
<td>2,973 100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SELANGOR</td>
<td>119 5</td>
<td>342 14</td>
<td>967 41</td>
<td>752 32</td>
<td>186 8</td>
<td>2,386 100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PAHANG</td>
<td>537 8</td>
<td>599 8</td>
<td>3,810 54</td>
<td>647 9</td>
<td>1,514 21</td>
<td>7,107 100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>KELANTAN</td>
<td>48 5</td>
<td>82 9</td>
<td>613 69</td>
<td>76 9</td>
<td>71 8</td>
<td>890 100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>JOHOR</td>
<td>564 16</td>
<td>275 9</td>
<td>1,526 49</td>
<td>432 14</td>
<td>309 10</td>
<td>3,106 100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>KEDAH</td>
<td>106 6</td>
<td>216 11</td>
<td>759 40</td>
<td>355 19</td>
<td>465 24</td>
<td>1,901 100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IFI Y.A</td>
<td>100 8</td>
<td>121 9</td>
<td>639 48</td>
<td>190 14</td>
<td>283 21</td>
<td>1,333 100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SEMBILAN</td>
<td>83 17</td>
<td>55 11</td>
<td>147 30</td>
<td>180 36</td>
<td>33 7</td>
<td>498 100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PENANG</td>
<td>448 6</td>
<td>1,058 15</td>
<td>3,696 51</td>
<td>985 14</td>
<td>1,053 15</td>
<td>7,240 100</td>
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<tr>
<td>PERLIS</td>
<td>6 16</td>
<td>2 5</td>
<td>11 29</td>
<td>13 34</td>
<td>6 16</td>
<td>38 100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TERENGGANU</td>
<td>68 11</td>
<td>57 9</td>
<td>243 39</td>
<td>151 24</td>
<td>101 16</td>
<td>620 100</td>
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<tr>
<td>KUALA LUMPUR</td>
<td>704 7</td>
<td>1,464 15</td>
<td>4,537 45</td>
<td>2,082 21</td>
<td>1,294 13</td>
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<tr>
<td>PENINSULAR MALAYSIA</td>
<td>3,142 8</td>
<td>4,487 12</td>
<td>18,795 49</td>
<td>6,261 16</td>
<td>5,488 14</td>
<td>38,173 100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LABUAN</td>
<td>21 6</td>
<td>36 10</td>
<td>149 40</td>
<td>82 22</td>
<td>80 22</td>
<td>368 100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SARAWAK</td>
<td>280 7</td>
<td>514 12</td>
<td>2,268 54</td>
<td>827 20</td>
<td>273 7</td>
<td>4,162 100</td>
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<tr>
<td>SABAH</td>
<td>334 10</td>
<td>256 8</td>
<td>1,469 46</td>
<td>667 21</td>
<td>459 14</td>
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<tr>
<td>EAST MALAYSIA</td>
<td>635 8</td>
<td>806 10</td>
<td>3,886 50</td>
<td>1,576 20</td>
<td>812 11</td>
<td>7,715 100</td>
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<tr>
<td>TOTAL FOR MALAYSIA</td>
<td>3,777 8</td>
<td>5,293 12</td>
<td>22,681 49</td>
<td>7,837 17</td>
<td>6,300 14</td>
<td>45,888 100</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

21 November 1992

Note: Total figure for the year 1991 has been grossed up according to the states.
### DISTRIBUTION OF HOTEL MANPOWER BY ETHNIC GROUP IN MALAYSIA
#### FOR THE YEAR 1991

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>AREA/STATE</th>
<th>MALAY NO</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>CHINESE NO</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>INDIAN NO</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>OTHER MALAYSIAN NO</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>ASEAN EXPATS NO</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>OTHER EXPTS NO</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>GRAND TOTAL NO</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>KEDAH</td>
<td>972</td>
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<td>1,276</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>680</td>
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<td>26</td>
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<td>-</td>
<td>19</td>
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<td>372</td>
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<td>1</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>-</td>
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<td>1</td>
<td>2,386</td>
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<td>27</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>7,107</td>
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<td>93</td>
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<td>15</td>
<td>2</td>
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<td>2</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>890</td>
<td>100</td>
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<tr>
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<td>8</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3,106</td>
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<td>54</td>
<td>707</td>
<td>37</td>
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<td>8</td>
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<td>1</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>1,901</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MELAKA</td>
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<td>709</td>
<td>53</td>
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<td>6</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>1,333</td>
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<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
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<tr>
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<td>21</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>7,240</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PINANG</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LEPONGAN</td>
<td>1,454</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>KUALA LUMPUR</td>
<td>4,032</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>4,264</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>1,532</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>181</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>10,081</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PENINSULAR MALAYSIA</td>
<td>16,054</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>15,286</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>5,784</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>796</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>169</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>38,173</td>
<td>99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ABUJAN</td>
<td>218</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>87</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>368</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ARAWAK</td>
<td>967</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>1,343</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>158</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1,660</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>4,162</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ABAD</td>
<td>845</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>1,090</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1,134</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>3,185</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EAST MALAYSIA</td>
<td>2,030</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>2,520</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>201</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2,835</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>107</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>7,115</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: Total figure for the year 1991 has been grossed up according to the states.

**By—**

November 1992
APPENDIX F
SAMPLE DISTRIBUTION BY AGE: TOTAL SAMPLE n = 286

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>AGE</th>
<th>NUMBER OF SAMPLE</th>
<th>PERCENTAGE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>UNDER 24</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1.75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25 - 30</td>
<td>117</td>
<td>40.91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31 - 35</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>28.67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>36 - 40</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>18.88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>41 - 45</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>8.39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OVER 46</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1.40</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
SAMPLE DISTRIBUTION BY GENDER:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>GENDER</th>
<th>NUMBER OF SAMPLE</th>
<th>PERCENTAGE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>MALE</td>
<td>277</td>
<td>96.85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FEMALE</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>3.15</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

TOTAL SAMPLE  \( n = 286 \)
SAMPLE DISTRIBUTION BY MARITAL STATUS:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>MARITAL STATUS</th>
<th>NUMBER OF SAMPLE</th>
<th>PERCENTAGE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>SINGLE</td>
<td>148</td>
<td>51.75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MARRIED</td>
<td>137</td>
<td>47.90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OTHERS</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.35</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

TOTAL SAMPLE  \( n = 286 \)
### SAMPLE DISTRIBUTION BY NATIONALITY: TOTAL SAMPLE  \( n = 286 \)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>NATIONALITY</th>
<th>NUMBER OF SAMPLE</th>
<th>PERCENTAGE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>MALAYSIAN</td>
<td>269</td>
<td>94.06</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OTHERS</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>5.94</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
SAMPLE DISTRIBUTION BY INCOME:  TOTAL SAMPLE  n = 286

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>INCOME</th>
<th>NUMBER OF SAMPLE</th>
<th>PERCENTAGE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>RM$ 12,000 - RM$ 35,999</td>
<td>203</td>
<td>70.98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RM$ 36,000 - RM$ 71,999</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>19.93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RM$ 72,000 - RM$ 107,999</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>4.20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RM$ 108,000 - RM$ 143,999</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>3.85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RM$ 144,000 - RM$ 179,999</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RM$ 180,000 &amp; ABOVE</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.35</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Appendix G

Time to Executive Chef

H₀ - That there is no significant difference between the time take to become a Executive chef by the educacated and by the non-educated sample.

H₁ - That the educatd sample (as they were first to chef de partie) will take a short time to reach executive chef.

This is one tailed t-test

\[ \sigma = .05 \]

\[ \bar{x}_1 = 18.71619 \quad \bar{x}_2 = 19 \]

\[ SD_1 = 4.68 \quad SD_2 = 6.19 \]

\[ \Sigma_1 = 131 \quad \Sigma_2 = 475 \]

\[ \Sigma_1^2 = 2607 \quad \Sigma_2^2 = 9983 \]

\[ t_{n1+n2-2} = \frac{(\bar{x}_1 - \bar{x}_2)^2 \sqrt{(N_1+N_2-2)N_1N_2}}{\sqrt{(N_1S_1^2 + N_2S_2^2)(N_1+N_2)}} \]

\[ = \frac{(18.7-19)^2 \sqrt{(7+25-2)(7\times25)}}{\sqrt{(7\times22.2 + 25\times38.32)(7+25)}} = 0.115 \]

30 df (degree of freedom) = 2.062

Therefore Ho is accepted and there is no significant difference in time to Executive Chef by educated - non-educated chef samples.
Room size versus Length of Time to Chef de Partie (LTCDP)

\[ x = \text{LTCDP}, \quad y = \text{Room Size} \]

\[ xy = 8703.07 \quad n = 286 \]

\[ \Sigma x = 2574 \]

\[ \Sigma y = 974.48 \]

\[ \Sigma x^2 = 26255 \]

\[ \Sigma y^2 = 3489.85 \]

The calculation is computed here:

\[
V_r = \frac{\Sigma xy - (\Sigma x)(\Sigma y)}{\sqrt{n \left( \frac{\Sigma x^2}{n} - \left( \frac{\Sigma x}{n} \right)^2 \right) \left( \frac{\Sigma y^2}{n} - \left( \frac{\Sigma y}{n} \right)^2 \right)}}
\]

\[
= \frac{8703.07 - 2574 \times 974.48}{286}
\]

\[
= \frac{\sqrt{(26255 - 2574^2) (3489.85 - 974.48^2)}}{286}
\]

\[
= \frac{8703.07 - 8770.33}{\sqrt{(26255 - 23166) (3489.85 - 3320.32)}}
\]

\[
= \frac{-67.25}{\sqrt{3089 \times 169.53}}
\]

\[
= \frac{-67.25}{723.66}
\]

\[
= -0.093
\]

As observed \( r \), we conclude that there is no significant correlation between LTCDP and room size in chefs.
Length of Time to Chef de Partie (LTCDP)

**H₀** - That there is no difference between the time taken to become a chef de partie buy the educated and by the non-educated samples.

**H₁** - That the uneducated sample will take a significantly longer time to reach chef de partie then the non-educated sample.

This is a one-tailed test. The significance was set at sigma .05 which gives z value of 1.64 for rejection of Ho.

Critical ratio =

\[ CR = 1.64 \]

Data

Non-educated Sample

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>n</th>
<th>mean</th>
<th>standard deviation</th>
<th>variance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>158</td>
<td>9.569</td>
<td>3.959</td>
<td>15.67</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\[ Cr = \frac{9.569 - 8.296}{\sqrt{\frac{15.67 + 4.51}{158 + 128}}} \]

\[ = \frac{3.47}{113.53} \]

\[ = 3.47 \]

As 3.47 exceeds 1.64 it an be concluded that Ho can be rejected as H₁ accepted. This means that the non-educated sample take a significantly longer time to reach the position of chef de partie.
Star Rating versus Length of Time to Chef de Partie (LTCDP)

\[ x = \text{LTCDP} \quad y = \text{Star Ranking} \quad xy = \frac{1}{11435.78} \quad n = 286 \]

\[ \Sigma x = 2574 \]

\[ \Sigma y = 1283.11 \]

\[ \Sigma x^2 = 26255 \]

\[ \Sigma y^2 = 5905.69 \]

The calculation is computed here:

\[ r = \frac{\Sigma xy - (\Sigma x)(\Sigma y)}{\sqrt{\left(\Sigma x^2 - \frac{(\Sigma x)^2}{n}\right)\left(\Sigma y^2 - \frac{(\Sigma y)^2}{n}\right)}} \]

\[ = \frac{11435.78 - 2574 \times 1283.11}{\sqrt{(26255 - \frac{2574^2}{286})(5905.69 - \frac{1283.11^2}{286})}} \]

\[ = \frac{11435.78 - 11547.99}{\sqrt{(26255 - 23166)(5905.69 - 5756.54)}} \]

\[ = \frac{-112.21}{\sqrt{3089 \times 149.15}} \]

\[ = \frac{-112.21}{678.77} \]

\[ = -0.165 \]

As observed \( r \), we conclude that there is no significant correlation between LTCDP and star ranking in chefs.
APPENDIX H
Appendix H

### Educated Sample

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>REASON</th>
<th>Count</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>More money</td>
<td>331</td>
<td>62.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Domestic reasons</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>2.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Promotion within company</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>7.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Advancement to higher position</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>8.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To learn more in education</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>1.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To learn more by experience</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>18.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>TOTAL</strong></td>
<td>534</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Non-educated Sample

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>REASON</th>
<th>Count</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>More money</td>
<td>390</td>
<td>62.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Domestic reasons</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>6.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Promotion within company</td>
<td>151</td>
<td>13.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Advancement to higher position</td>
<td>168</td>
<td>14.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To learn more in education</td>
<td>92</td>
<td>8.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To learn more by experience</td>
<td>299</td>
<td>26.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>TOTAL</strong></td>
<td>1140</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### What were your reasons for moving?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>RESPONSE</th>
<th><strong>EDUCATED</strong></th>
<th><strong>NON-EDUCATED</strong></th>
<th><strong>TOTAL</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><em>n</em> = 128</td>
<td><em>n</em> = 158</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>f</strong></td>
<td><strong>%</strong></td>
<td><strong>f</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More money.</td>
<td>331</td>
<td>62.0</td>
<td>390</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Domestic reasons.</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>2.1</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Promotion within company</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>7.1</td>
<td>151</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Advancement to higher position outside company</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>8.6</td>
<td>168</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To learn more in education</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>1.5</td>
<td>92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To learn more by experience</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>18.7</td>
<td>299</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>TOTAL</strong></td>
<td>534</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>1140</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Room size versus Length of Time to Chef de Partie (LTCDP)

\[ x = \text{LTCDP} \quad y = \text{Room Size} \quad \Sigma xy = 8703.07 \quad n = 286 \]

\[ \Sigma x = 2574 \]
\[ \Sigma y = 974.48 \]
\[ \Sigma x^2 = 26255 \]
\[ \Sigma y^2 = 3489.85 \]

The calculation is computed here:

\[
V_r = \frac{\Sigma \Sigma xy - (\Sigma x)(\Sigma y)}{n} \pm \frac{1}{\sqrt{(\Sigma \Sigma x^2 - (\Sigma x)^2)(\Sigma \Sigma y^2 - (\Sigma y)^2) / n}}
\]

\[
= \frac{8703.07 - 2574 \times 974.48}{286}
\]
\[
= \frac{8703.07 - 2574^2 / 286}{\sqrt{(26255 - 2574^2 / 286)(3489.85 - 974.48^2 / 286)}}
\]
\[
= \frac{8703.07 - 8770.33}{\sqrt{(26255 - 23166)(3489.85 - 3320.32)}}
\]
\[
= \frac{-67.25}{\sqrt{3089 \times 169.53}}
\]
\[
= \frac{-67.25}{723.66}
\]
\[
= -0.093
\]

As observed \( r \), we conclude that there is no significant correlation between LTCDP and room size in chefs.
APPENDIX I
Piawaian Kemahiran Kebangsaan
(National Occupational Skill Standard)

bagi

Pembantu Penyedia Makanan
(Commis)

dan

Penyedia Makanan
(Demi Chef)

dan

Penyelia/Ketua Seksyen Penyediaan Makanan
(Chef De Partie)

Majlis Latihan Vokasional Kebangsaan
Kementerian Sumber Manusia Malaysia

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KANDUNGAN

1. Pendahuluan ii
2. Takrif Pekerjaan 1
3. Carta DACUM 5
4. Profail Latihan (Training Profile) 23
1. Pembentukan Piawaian Kemahiran Kebangsaan


1.2. Pembentukan piawaian kemahiran dilakukan dengan melibatkan pakar-pakar dari industri (awam dan swasta) dan personel dari agensi/institusi latihan, mengikut bidang masing-masing. Pembentukannya dilakukan dalam dua peringkat:

- Peringkat pertama melibatkan antara lapan hingga sepuluh orang personel industri yang dijemput mengambil bahagian dalam pembentukan piawaian berkenaan. Mereka bersidang antara dua hingga tiga hari untuk menghasilkan rangka piawaian, yang disusun dalam bentuk carta. Carta ini mengandungi dua komponen penting iaitu duti (duty) dan tugas (task). Carta ini kemudiannya diedarkan kepada industri yang terlibat untuk mendapatkan komen.

- Peringkat kedua dilakukan dengan melibatkan ahli-ahli jawatankuasa peringkat pertama tadi dan ditambah dengan beberapa orang personel dari agensi/institusi latihan. Mereka bersidang antara empat hingga lima hari. Pada peringkat ini, carta yang mengandungi duti dan tugas itu dikupas secara terperinci. Sesuatu tugas itu disediakan dengan 'terminal performance objective - TPO', langkah-
langkah kerja, keperluan memboleh (enabling requirements) dan peralatan dan perkakas.

2. Format Piawaian Kemahiran Kebangsaan

2.1. Dokumen piawaian adalah mengandungi perkara-perkara berikut:-
- Tajuk
- Takrif pekerjaan
- Carta yang mengandungi duti dan tugas.
- Jadual-jadual yang mengandungi 'terminal performance objective - TPO', langkah-langkah kerja, keperluan memboleh (enabling requirement), dan peralatan dan perkakas.

2.2. Tiap-tiap dokumen piawaian yang dibentuk, disediakan dengan Takrif pekerjaan (occupational definition) mengikut tajuk piawaian berkenaan. Seboleh mungkin, takrif pekerjaan ini akan, berlandaskan kepada 'Dictionary of Occupational Classification' (DOC) yang dikeluarkan oleh Jabatan Tenaga Rakyat. Terdapat dua takrif pekerjaan bagi satu-satu piawaian iaitu:
- Takrif pekerjaan di peringkat mekanik yang merangkumi kemahiran pada Tahap 1 dan 2.
- Takrif pekerjaan di peringkat penyelia/juruteknik yang merangkumi kemahiran pada Tahap 3.

2.3. Sesuatu piawaian mengandungi sekumpulan duti yang merupakan unit-unit kemahiran dalam piawaian berkenaan, dan duti-duti tersebut adalah tidak bergantung di antara satu sama lain. Tiap-tiap duti mengandungi sekumpulan tugas. Pengrekodan tugas-tugas berkenaan adalah mengikut ciri-ciri berikut:-
1. Ia mengandungi kata perbuatan (action verb) dan objek yang menerima perbuatan tersebut.
2. Ia mestilah jelas dan tepat.
3. Ia boleh mengandungi satu atau lebih 'qualifier'.

3. Tahap-tahap dalam Piawaian Kemahiran Kebangsaan

3.1. Dokumen piawaian ini mengandungi tiga Tahap: 1, 2 dan 3. Tahap-tahap tersebut adalah berkait rapat dengan Sistem Persijilan Kemahiran Kebangsaan. Dalam erti kata lain, seseorang individu yang telah mencapai kemahiran pada Tahap 1 akan diberikan Sijil Kemahiran Malaysia Tahap 1, dan seterusnya.

3.2. Penjelasan bagi ketiga-tiga tahap, adalah seperti berikut:-

**Tahap 1**

Trampil dalam melakukan sekumpulan duti pada tahap ini bagi bidang pekerjaan berkaitan. Ketrampilan yang terkandung dalam tahap ini kebanyakannya adalah 'routine' dan 'predictable'.

**Tahap 2**

Trampil dalam melakukan sekumpulan duti pada tahap ini. Ketrampilan yang terkandung dalam tahap ini sesetengahnya adalah bukan 'routine' dan dilakukan dalam pelbagai konteks yang memerlukan tanggungjawab persendirian dan autonomi.
Tahap 3

Trampil dalam melakukan sekumpulan duti pada tahap ini. Ketrampilan yang terkandung dalam tahap ini merangkumi sekumpulan duti yang luas dalam pelbagai konteks dan bukan 'routine'. Terdapat unsur tanggungjawab dan autonomi, dan perlu memberi kawalan dan panduan kepada yang lain.


4. Kelulusan Jawatankuasa Piawaian dan Persijilan (JPP)

4.1. Dokumen ini telah diluluskan oleh Jawatankuasa Piawaian dan Persijilan (JPP) Majlis Latihan Vokasional Kebangsaan yang bermesyuarat pada ________________.

Ketua Pengarah
Majlis Latihan Vokasional Kebangsaan
Kementerian Sumber Manusia Malaysia
KUALA LUMPUR.

Jun 1993
TAKRIF PEKERJAAN
OCCUPATIONAL DEFINITION
COMMIS

A commis is designated to work as an assistant cook within the kitchen of a Hotel, Restaurant or other commercial food production unit.

In particular he/she:

1. Observes and practises safety, security and sanitation procedures.

2. Identifies and operates various tools and equipment, effectively and efficiently.

3. Collects, sorts and stores ordered items properly.

4. Identifies cooking utensils and ingredients to be used and performs mis-en-place.

5. Assists, prepares and cooks various dishes as instructed in accordance to recipes.
DEMI CHEF

A Demi Chef is designated to work and assist the Chef De Partie (Section Head) of a kitchen in a Hotel, Restaurant or other commercial food production unit.

In particular he/she:-

1. Performs supervisory functions in the absence of the Chef De Partie.

2. Observes and practises safety, security and sanitation procedures.

3. Identifies, operates and uses various tools and equipment effectively and efficiently.

4. Maintains proper food storage.

5. Interprets menu and event orders.


7. Prepares, cooks and produces various dishes as instructed in accordance to recipes.

8. Promotes team work.
CHEF DE PARTIE

A Chef De Partie is designated to work as a section head and to supervise and assist in the management of the kitchen in a Hotel, Restaurant or other commercial food production unit.

In particular he/she:

1. Ensures, observes and practises safety, security and sanitation procedures.
2. Maintains par stock.
3. Prepares work schedules and job assignments for the staff.
4. Ensures discipline and encourages team work.
5. Conducts on the job training with in the section.
6. Maintains control quality and assures attractive food presentation.
7. Ensures effective cost control measures.
8. Leads staff by example.
APPENDIX J
UNIVERSITY OF SURREY

A REPORT
A PILOT STUDY ON THE CAREERS OF CHEFS

By

HAMDIN SALLEH

Department of Management Studies
for
Tourism and Hotel Industries
1992

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THE PREFACE

The idea of studying the chef's career paths can be traced back to the writer's experience working in the hotel and restaurant cooking. When he left the trade in 1979 he has risen from the position of a Trainee Chef to becoming a Chef Garde Manger at Hyatt Kinabalu International, Sabah, Malaysia. After leaving the trade and opted for one professional degree at CIA -The Culinary Institute of America and then taking two hospitality management degrees in USA. He is currently a lecturer in Culinary Arts at MIT - Mara Institute of Technology. As his research interest developed, it seemed natural to focus in his former occupation and led to the present research; a study in career paths of chefs.

The writer is grateful for the support of the MIT Board with a scholarship provided to pursue on the study that otherwise without the grant the research would not be made possible.

The writer would like to acknowledge the help and advise of Dr. Michael Riley, a Senior Lecturer at University of Surrey who gave valued criticism and assistance over many points of methodology and analysis.

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Finally, the writer would like personally to thank all the chefs and students who were involved in the survey.
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THE OBJECTIVE

The research reported here was designed as a pilot study to examine the careers path of chefs using a developmental approach. The approach was to trace back over the careers of chefs and as a way of tracking the historical pieces together of their performance through out the entire occupation. It is not to study people at different stages on a trip towards management.

Nowadays kitchen organisation demands a systems approach and should take into account the physical and human resources of the kitchen. The kitchen system have reached the height of complexity and has undergone change increasingly from time to time. The role of the chef has changed and will continue to change. The are of managing the kitchen team of a big restaurant or hotel is a difficult one . While much has been written about the chef, very little research has been performed concerning this professional to the foodservice industry. Thus, this study was undertaken to increase the knowledge base of this significant group of the future employees in the foodservice industry.

More specifically the study were undertaken to:
* to recognize the development stages and their relationships
* to find out the length of time to first job as a chef

* to differentiate performance of professional educated and non-educated chefs in terms of development and time to the first job for both groups
THE QUESTIONNAIRE

Questionnaire construction is a complex and tedious task. It is a self-administered interview and must be simple and more self-explanatory in form. Attractiveness of a questionnaire can make all the difference in the recipients motivation to fill it out and return it.

We requested from the respondents with a lot of questions and the best technique to design the questionnaire was in the structured or close-ended questions. A questionnaire with a structured style would be easy to handle and it is expected to have a high return rate but restricted the choice of response by forcing the respondents in picking the present categories or alternatives. We have learned that structured questions are less time-consuming for the respondents and strongly believed that the rate of return would be high. In conclusion the more structured questions on the questionnaire the better. If we asked unstructured or open-ended questions it would be difficult to manage and the return rate would likely be low but respondents are free to response in a relatively unrestricted manner. We produced copies of typed questionnaire through trial and errors in a variety of fashion forms before embarking on the final version. The final version is a mixture of multiple choice and table forms designed for the respondents but before the final form of the questionnaire is determined to be use in Malaysia, many revisions in
wording, length, and content have to be made.

The questionnaire consists of three sections. It was printed on one side of A4 size paper with a laser printer and in total it takes three copies of paper.

The first section seeks personal data of the respondent's age, gender and marital status. We asked chefs to state the time of their marriage. Using the marriage data and with their age and length of service in each job we may be able to conclude at what age and at which position they got married.

Question 5 we asked the respondents to choose his/her highest level of education achieved in the multiple choice form. We would probably classified the education level of respondents as follows:

- Level 1 Degrees from Hotel Management School.
- Level 2 Diploma from Hotel Management School.
- Level 3 Completed Professional/Vocational Education
- Level 4 Completed Secondary Education.
- Level 5 Completed Primary Education

The respondents are asked about their annual income designed in multiple choice forms with choices to tick in question 6.
In question 7 is to find out how many hours the chef’s worked per day.

For question 8 we believed that it is best to ask the respondents if they any background in culinary education before entering the job market in this career profession.

The second section of the questionnaire was to trace the respondents career paths in the table format which was designed in tracing the age distribution of the respondents. Included in the table with the following headings:

1. Level of Position (modified into 6 levels)
2. Sector of Industry
3. Standard of Hotel
4. Size of Hotel
5. Location of Hotel (not relevant in the study)
6. Length of Service

The respondents are asked to mark into each level which correspond to the jobs in each category. The level of position would certainly be modified into the followings:

Level 1  Education
Level 2  Apprentice/Helper
Level 3  Commis/Cooks (positions modified)
Level 4  Demi Chef
Level 5 Sous Chef (modified)

Level 6 Executive Chef

Section three is designed in a table format requesting for what motivated the chef’s to move to a new job in the actual career moves. Every job move builds a column with vertically piled choices to tick in the appropriate boxes for every career move. This technique did not take up a lot of space and the respondents be able to choose and fill in the boxes easily and it is hope that it will not taxed the memory of respondents as there would be a minimum level of confusion. We have to make the decision on how many career moves would be cover in our questionnaire. The first intention was to come up with eight moves but it was too many as six moves would be a better choice. We assumed that most of the respondents would answer up to six moves and there is no reason for asking more than six.

The level of position in the table should be defined rather than putting numbers only because it will make the respondents going back to section 2 and would taxed their memory. We suggest to list the job titles as in section 2 so that it would be simpler for the respondents to tick the appropriate columns. We have narrow down the details of the motivation behind the move with 6 reasons. We think motivation is a complicated subject and by doing so we could get something on motivation. We were interested in factors attracting people to moves for a new job? We may look at the responses, tabulating them in the proper
manner so as to adjust or add more reasons in dealing with this topic. The most frequently mentioned will be included in the final version of the questionnaire - resulted in a more accurate questionnaire.

A pilot study was carried out which is a really a "pre-study study". It is a useful device for detecting invalid and unreliable questions. We select a very small sample. We believed that it would be sufficient to send 70 sets of questionnaire with an optimistic 50 per cent return rate. Thus the samples consists of 70 hotels around London area selected at random and an additional of 38 hotels was added later to the list. The respondents are mailed a copy of the questionnaire, asked to fill and returned using a first class stamped, self-addressed enveloped. Unfortunately response rate to this kind of administration are typically low for there are limited means of encouraging the respondent to complete the questionnaire. We received a 33 per cent return rate.

A reminder was send to the respondents. The respondent's cooperation is a function of his interest, respondent's education, intelligence, occupation and amount of leisure time. Also depend upon how important the respondents judge the research to be and how important his role in the research. One of the reason why we got such a low return rate is because these questionnaires were sent to executive chefs who may be too busy to fill in the forms and the other factor that influenced the return rate
probably was that we do not write the cover letters on official university paper and were not signed by Dr. Michael Riley, who is my supervisor at the University of Surrey so that it looked professional. We think face-to-face method of questionnaire administration would be the best for Malaysia although this procedure become much more time consuming and costly contrasted with the mailed questionnaires.

We used several statistical computer softwares available in the computer unit like Quattro Pro, Harvard Graphics which has come up with a beautiful graph lay-out. Unfortunately we have to abandon quattro software as it would traced up to six series only. Harvard graphics software would be a better choice with a maximum of eight series but it would not analyze the data. We were trying to use SPSS (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences) software and is at the early stage of learning and it seems to be better than harvard graphics as it provide a wide variety of data-management facilities and simplifies the process of data analysis. It will take quite some time to write out the commands and the process will go on and we hope it will be the best software for this kind of research work.
THE SAMPLE

We first assumed that it would be adequate to send out 70 questionnaires. At fifty percent return rate we were expecting about thirty-five questions returned but was too optimistic as we managed to get only twenty-five. An addition of thirty-eight sets of questionnaire were sent to respective respondents. Thus the sample consists of 108 hotels selected at random from the Directory of Hotel and Restaurant of Great Britain 1992 published by British Hospitality Association. It is confined to London areas as it contains the principal concentration of hotel and restaurant trade in Britain.

A list of hotels are as follows:

1. THE EXECUTIVE CHEF
   ATHENAEUM HOTEL
   116 PICCADILLY
   W1V OBJ LONDON

2. THE EXECUTIVE CHEF
   THE CHURCHILL
   PORTMAN SQUARE
   W1A 4ZX LONDON

3. THE EXECUTIVE CHEF
   CLARIDGE'S
   BROOK STREET
   W1A 2JQ LONDON

4. THE EXECUTIVE CHEF
   THE CONNAUGHT HOTEL
   CARLOS PLACE, MAYFAIR
   W1Y 6AL LONDON
THE ANALYSIS

The analysis used in this research is age distribution. An age distribution is a way of distributing a population between defined and meaningful grades or levels on the basis of age. It uses proportions of people in grades at particular ages to describe the population. The career history of chefs was derived from the questionnaires. There was relationships between careers and age distribution as a mean to measure career progress.
The age distribution chart shown is an example of chefs in each of nine levels at each age. It is displayed as a photograph of the organization and is useful in the analysis of careers. The career analysis are to show directions, identify stages of development and indicate time spans. The chart tell us how many people are working in each hierarchical level and at what age. In our small sample, there are respondents who reached the level of chefs at an early age. Taking 23 year old who was already a chef at a young age could be possible as it was seen in this sample most of the people become chefs at an early age ranging 20 - 25 years old. What can be said about the man power policies from this age structure? It could be an organisation policy that recruits the bulk of its people in their early twenties right the way across the age structure. It could be true as there was an acute shortage of skilled labour in Malaysian hotel scene. The complexity of the age distribution could also be used in man power analysis but the interpretations of the chart at this stage is most vital part of the pilot study before proceeding to obtain much wider interpretation of the impact of the age structure on other issues.

The research was designed as a pilot study to examine the careers of chefs using a developmental approach. The focus on chef's stems first from the importance of this occupation in the hotel industry, its education and little is known about the profession. The chefs career are
considered highly mobile and that woman involvement have not developed in this discipline. It is a hands-on experience craft-oriented form which greatly influenced a person personality.

The approach of the study was look back over the careers of chef and not to study people at different levels on a trip towards management. The study used a random sample of chefs operating hotels of over 50 rooms. Questionnaire were sent to 108 executive chefs. They were asked to provide details of their last eight career moves. The information requested were comprehensive. Details of all career moves were requested. The limit of eight moves was selected in a table form. The complete careers from the age of 18 to the present was obtained within eight moves.

Examination of the questionnaire reveals a number of problems, namely:

* a standardized starting points needed
* too many levels of position to be short listed
* education levels needed further education
* length of service needed adjustment
THE PROBLEMS

Some problems arise from the study in a form of questions.

* how large should the sample size be in order to represent the information anticipated for this study?

* how many moves would be needed in order to capture and encompass a career?

* how to identify development stages?

* how to standardized education levels?

* how to compare professionally educated chefs versus non-educated chefs?

* how many levels of position are required?

* how many motivation factors to focus?

* What would be the standardized age as a starting and ending point to trace the career paths?

* how best to classify the levels of
education?

* how long or number of pages the questionnaire be the best?

* how to get a high return rate from the respondents?

* how many chefs being studied in the trade?
Looking at the pilot study we understand that a number of changes would be necessary before the final version of the questionnaire be printed. They are as follows:

* a standardized starting and ending ages must be adapted for tracing the career paths

* the levels of position must be adjusted

* the levels of education needs further classification

* creating a new version of the questionnaire in the principle of 3’s - simple, short and sharp

Within the short stayed at Surrey the study have been progressing very well. We have learned so much from the research work with so many obstacles faced and frustration. Nevertheless research work needed dedication and determination plus a lot of patience in a person personality. The pilot study provide the opportunity to test some revisions and additions to the questionnaires. Although the real work was done by the researcher but without the guidance of Dr. Michael Riley we might not managed to excel this far. He has been very helpful and
cooperative all the way through the hard work up to the present time. Our relationships have been very good with many communication going on almost every week since we started in January 1992. There are more to learn from his academic experience in Human Resources Management.

The constant appointment every week was good for an hour or less as a mean to diagnose the work done building up from a low sand dune to a high mountain structure. This system of management track us what was going on and the research would always be on time and immediate correction can be done. We have learned to use computer softwares such as for data processing and spreadsheet like Quattro Pro, Havard Graphics and SPSS. The techniques of importing and exporting from one to another software and the used of word processing software wordperfect was wonderful. The used of scanner and laser printers assisted to produce excellent diagrams. Unfortunately the computer units was always full and many of the writings and printing was done during the night to get out of the busy situation. It is hope that the department MSTHI will be able to equip and provide researchers with better facilities for their work.

The pilot study has given us the first kick to further understand the real situation of the study before embarking on the actual survey in Malaysia.

We have been enjoying and eager to know the real final findings of the research work and with Dr. Riley
supervision we strongly believed it would be an interesting one ever done for the chef's profession in this decade.

The sample size of the pilot study was so small but it has provide us with many outcomes. Further critics can be found in the questionnaire section.
REFERENCES


