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Human Resources in Tourism:

A study of the position of human resource issues
in national tourism policy development and implementation

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THESIS ABSTRACT FORM

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TITLE OF THESIS: Human Resources in Tourism: A study of the position of human resource issues in national tourism policy development and implementation.

ABSTRACT (Single line spacing; do not exceed 300 words):

This thesis is concerned with the relationship between tourism policy, its formulation and implementation, at a national and regional level, and human resource concerns within tourism. The thesis includes detailed literature reviews in two main areas, i) tourism policy formulation and implementation and ii) human resource issues in relation to the tourism/ hospitality industries. Through the execution of two surveys of national tourism organisations, the study considers

- a) the extent to which employment and related human resource determinants shape wider tourism policies;
- b) how human resource policy, planning and implementation are managed within tourism;
- c) the specific role of national tourism organisations within the development of policy and implementation strategies for human resource matters within tourism, and changes that have occurred in the role since a previous WTO study in 1975; and
- d) mechanisms that can be implemented to integrate human resource concerns more closely with mainstream tourism policy development.

The study reports considerable fragmentation in the management of human resources, within tourism, both in terms of policy and the implementation functions. As a result, the area is seen as peripheral to the mainstream concerns of most tourism industries, is accorded low status and does not receive the same attention or support as related product and marketing concerns.

A conceptual framework is proposed, which is designed to assist in the creation of an integrated approach to policy development and planning for human resources within tourism. The framework is developed in the context of a case study, based on Malaysia.

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Table of Contents

	<u>Page</u>
Acknowledgements	ii
Introduction	iii
Chapter 1: An overview of human resources in tourism	1
Chapter 2: Literature review - tourism policy	29
Chapter 3: Literature review - labour market and human resource factors in tourism policy	101
Chapter 4: Survey methodologies	204
Chapter 5: A study of national tourism policies	211
Chapter 6: A study of human resources in national tourism policies	253
Chapter 7: Placing the research findings in context	308
Chapter 8: Creating an integrated human resource environment for tourism: a case study of Malaysia	323
Chapter 9: Conclusions	338
Bibliography	348
Appendices	
A. Publications by the author in the field of human resource planning and development in tourism	
B. Survey 1 : instrument and letter	
C. Survey 2 : instrument and letter	
D. A detailed framework for the integrated development of human resources in tourism	
E. Tourism and related human resource issues in Malaysia	

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INTRODUCTION

Objectives of this study

This thesis is concerned with the relationship between tourism policy, its formulation and implementation, at a national or regional level, and human resource concerns within tourism. Firstly, therefore, the focus of this work is on the extent to which employment and related human resource determinants shape wider tourism policies. Secondly, it is concerned with how human resource policy, planning and implementation are managed within tourism. Finally, this thesis focuses on a discussion of mechanisms that can be implemented to integrate human resource concerns more closely with mainstream tourism policy development. The working hypothesis, which was formulated in relation to this project, is

That human resource concerns, while featuring within the broad scope of national tourism policies, are in practice not central to the development and implementation of such policies and are fragmented in the ways in which they are addressed.

Specifically, the objectives of this study were:

1. To identify the main determinants of national tourism policies.
2. To identify the role of employment/ human resource factors in tourism policy formulation.
3. To identify agencies responsible for the development and implementation of human resource

policies within tourism and to consider their specific roles.

4. To consider the specific role of national tourism organisations in the human resource policy development and implementation area and to consider changes in this role since 1975.

5. To consider the extent to which human resource policies are integrated and managed in conjunction with other areas of tourism policy.

6. To consider mechanisms which can assist in the integration of human resource policies, planning and implementation within the mainstream of tourism development at national and regional level.

Chapter summaries

Chapter 1 provides a general overview of some of the issues that can be identified with respect to the position of human resources within tourism at a national and international level. The chapter focuses on the identification of some of the more apparent problems which can be identified regarding the relationship between tourism policy formulation and its implementation in a general sense and the specific human resource area. In a general sense, it also considers some of the responses to these problems.

Chapter 2 reviews the literature with respect to tourism policy and the extent to which human resource concerns feature within tourism policy consideration. The main focus is on literature pertaining to the tourism policies of developed countries, reflecting the limited availability of equivalent material from

the developing world. The historic development of tourism policy is considered with respect to the United Kingdom, the Republic of Ireland and the United States and material with respect to a number of other countries is discussed in terms of their current policies. Tourism policy within the European Community is also considered. While human resource concerns are, superficially, evident within tourism policy determination, the actual substance of this consideration is found to be relatively minor when compared to areas such as product and market development.

Chapter 3 reviews the very extensive literature on the labour market and the human resource environment within tourism. In fact, the review shows there to be a considerable imbalance within this literature, with the vast majority of references relating specifically to the hotel and catering, rather than the wider tourism, industry. The review considers the material from a number of different perspectives, notably employment, education and training, and also focuses, where possible, on international comparisons. The majority of sources are concerned with practical, implementation issues relating to this area and the consideration of policy matters is very limited and of mixed quality.

Chapter 4 describes the methodology adopted with respect to the two international surveys, which are reported in this thesis, and points to some methodological problems encountered.

Chapter 5 reports the findings of the first international survey on the contents and determinants of national tourism policies as well as on the roles and functions of national tourism organisations. The survey identifies that the major concerns,

primarily economic and employment-related, are common to all countries, irrespective of development status. However, some significant differences, between richer and poorer countries, are identifiable with respect to other policy concerns, for example environmental protection and infrastructural development. The implications of the study are discussed.

Chapter 6 reports the findings of the second international survey, which focuses, specifically, on the development of policy, its implementation and the management of the human resource area within tourism. Particular attention is paid to the role of national tourism organisations, in this respect, and comparisons are made with the findings of a 1975 WTO study. The diversity of other agencies, which have a role in this area, is also identified. The overall fragmentation of policy, planning and implementation with respect to human resources in tourism is highlighted by the analysis of the research findings in this chapter.

Chapter 7 considers the main findings of the research in the context of wider trends in human resource management and within tourism, generally. The chapter identifies the need for coherent policy development and planning for human resources in tourism.

Chapter 8 proposes a conceptual framework or model which can assist in achieving the objective of an integrated approach to the development of policy, planning and implementation strategies for human resources in tourism, thus addressing the main deficiencies identified in the two surveys. Application of the framework is described with respect to a case study of Malaysia, where the author undertook a major national manpower planning

project in tourism.

Chapter 9 considers some of the broader implications of this study and addresses the need for further research in this area.

Chapter 1

HUMAN RESOURCES IN TOURISM:

AN OVERVIEW

1. Introduction

To state what is, perhaps, the obvious, tourism is about people. For once, what is under discussion is a cliché that does encapsulate both common sense and reality and it is one that should never be far from the minds of those who have an involvement with tourism, whether from a policy, business, administrative or academic viewpoint. Firstly, tourists as customers or clients or economic statistics are people and, consequently, are subject to the vagaries of behaviour, demand, decision making and response that cannot be wholly predictable or anticipated. Nor should they be. Secondly, in common with many other labour intensive service-based industries, the tourism product is about people and is dependent, for its delivery on the human factor. It is conceivable to visit Stonehenge or the Pyramids or the Taj Mahal or the Great Barrier Reef and to appreciate what they have to offer without assistance, interpretation and mediation from a guide or the support of physical comforts such as accommodation, food or transport, all dependent, for their quality, on the human element. Conceivable, but unlikely and, for most visitors, undesirable. Finally, many tourism products actually include people as an integral part of the experience that they offer, whether they are cast members at Disney locations; traditional dancers and singers in many parts

of the world; or, indeed, our fellow guests in a restaurant who contribute to the atmosphere.

For most of us, the experience of tourism is about more than the physical sensation of eating a good meal, sleeping in comfortable beds, travelling in safe and efficient aircraft or viewing magnificent natural scenery or man-made artifacts. It is also (and frequently primarily), about contact with the people who contribute to the actual experience, whether through being an integral part of the location - city dwellers in Manhattan, bazaar vendors in Istanbul and ceremonial dancers in Bali. - or as direct contributors to the actual product delivery and experience, as guides, cabin attendants, receptionists, chefs, craft demonstrators or the myriad of other professions and activities that, collectively, go to make up the global tourism industry. This notion that, when purchasing the tourism product the client is also, in a sense, buying the skills, service and commitment of a range of human contributors to the experience that they are about to embark upon, is crucial to much of the ground that is covered in this thesis. It is also frequently forgotten by those responsible for the development, packaging, marketing and delivery of tourism products as well as those responsible for the development and implementation of tourism policies at national, regional or local levels.

The author's experience of interviewing young people for both employment and educational opportunities in tourism has shown that their motivation is frequently guided by somewhat idealistic notions, by the desire to travel, to work in an expanding industry with an exciting future but, above all, "to work with

people". Often, they are none-too-sure exactly what this entails but they do know that their job satisfaction will be through human contact in their employment and by helping others to enjoy and benefit from the contact and assistance they can provide. This desire, naive and unstructured though it may be, forms the raw material or human resources through which tourism, as a global industry, fails or succeeds and is the basis for the investment, through education, training and development, that is crucial to business success in all tourism industries.

This thesis is about this tourism resource, the human resources through which the quality of a country's or a locality's tourism product, natural or fabricated, is "mediated" to the customer, client or guest. The focus of the thesis is on the relationship between tourism policy, primarily but not exclusively, at national level and human resource issues. The industry is already well served by a literature which looks at human resource issues, primarily within the hospitality industry, but there is little doubt that the principles they contain transfer onto the broader tourism canvas. A number of these are discussed in Chapter 3, which considers literature in the human resource field. What they have in common is an approach that starts with a focus on the requirements of management, in the industry, and their responsibilities for the human resources within the company. In these texts, the work of the manager in the human resources area may be considered from a functional point of view, looking at the range of HR tasks with which a manager might expect to become involved (Boella; Riley; and Tanke). Headings, in this context, include

- * analysis of the labour market
- * job design
- * recruitment
- * selection
- * appointment
- * equal opportunities
- * induction
- * training
- * management development
- * job evaluation
- * salaries and wages
- * incentives
- * fringe benefits
- * labour turnover
- * termination of employment
- * grievance and dispute management
- * industrial relations
- * employment law
- * personal administration
- * technological administration of personnel

Alternative approaches, drawn from wider study of psychology, do also feature, looking at broader issues relating to people at work (Riley, 1992; Lockwood and Jones, 1984) and the application of transactional analysis techniques within the human resource function (Martin and Lunberg, 1991). The sociological perspective is represented by the recent work of Wood (1992). A final approach combines elements of the other two but includes an additional element, with considerable emphasis on placing the

tourism/hospitality industry within the wider labour or manpower market (Hornsey and Dann, 1984).

This thesis takes, as its starting point, the macro tourism environment, internationally and nationally, and looks at the range of issues that affect the effective utilisation of human resources within the tourism industries. Thus, put simply, the approach within much of the human resource literature is one that starts at the level of the company and moves, to a limited extent, towards the consideration of wider issues which have an impact on operations at the company level. This thesis starts at the other end of the continuum and focuses on matters such as human resource policy formulation, research and planning at a national level; the development of educational and training systems for tourism; and the relationship between growth in the tourism industry and the labour market and how all of these inter-relate with broader tourism policy concerns. However, there are clear implications of many of the "macro" issues for the work of the personnel or human resource manager within the individual company.

The centrality of the human element to tourism has already been discussed. It is also important, at the onset, to recognise the diversity that exists, within all major tourism industries, in terms of

- a) the various sectors that make up the industry and
- b) the wide range of jobs and employment categories which exist within the industry.

One of the problems, in considering various sectors which go to make up tourism industries in all countries, and the nature of

employment within them, is inherent in the nature of the sector itself, primarily that there is no single centre of production. As Parsons indicates, tourism

"cannot be isolated from other activities by looking at the goods or services it produces. It is better regarded not as an industry in itself but a consumer activity of which the effects on employment are dispersed across an uniquely wide range of industries and activities" (Parsons, 1987, p. 365).

Consequently, precise sectorisation is difficult and considerable variation may be evident between countries, depending upon the emphasis that is placed on aspects of the tourism product. Locations where the focus of the tourism product is on sun, sea and sand geared towards the mass package tour market will have a supporting tourist industry that is very different in business structure, ownership and size to an industry that is built around meeting the requirements of specialist groups, interested in fine art or theatre. Furthermore, while in some countries, especially within the developing world, tourism products are for the virtual exclusive use of the international tourist - resorts in the Maldives are a case in point - and even limited local use is very unusual, by contrast, many tourism facilities in developed countries are shared between the international tourist, the domestic tourist and the local resident - pubs in Ireland and shops in Singapore are good examples of this mixed use. The case study, in Chapter 8, discusses how this process has, increasingly, influenced product development in Malaysia. One example of the various sectors of a tourism industry can be seen

in a study based on the Irish tourism industry, where nine main sectors were identified:

<u>Sector</u>	<u>Constituents</u>
1. State organisations	Government departments, Bord Fail (the Irish Tourist Board), regional tourism organisations, CERT (the training agency), SFADC), Uaras Gaeltachta, local government.
2. Access transport	Airlines, sea carriers
3. Internal transport	Car rental, coaches, caravan hire, rail and bus services, internal air and boat services, taxis.
4. Accommodation	Hotels, guest houses, town houses, country homes, farmhouses, camping and caravanning, self-catering accommodation, youth hostels.
5. Tourism facilitation	Customs and immigration, Aer Rianta (the airports authority), docks and harbour boards.
6. Dining and entertainment	Restaurants, pubs, cabarets, theatres, cinemas, festivals, TV and radio.
7. Leisure/recreation/activity	Cabin cruising, horse-drawn caravans, golfing, fishing, historic houses, national parks, shopping.
8. Tourism services	In-coming tour operators, tour operators and travel agents, youth/student organisers.
9. Other services	Banks, bureaux de change, local tourism companies and co-operatives. (CERT, 1987, p.8).

The wide variety of sectors which characterise most tourism industries inevitably result in a very diverse range of jobs in terms of their technical demands, their educational requirements, their location, their conditions and the kind of person that will be attracted to employment in them. It is virtually impossible

to list all the employment categories within a typical tourism industry and even were this possible, the outcome would not be of significant value, owing to the diversity of businesses, in terms of size, markets and operations, that exist within any one category. Thus, a hotel manager, may well be responsible for a property that ranges in size from 10 to 2000 bedrooms, with consequent differences in business volume, turnover and staffing. Standard job classifications such as the International Standard Classifications of Occupations (ISCO) (ILO, 1988) and the Standard Occupational Classification (SOC) (HMSO, 1990) provide limited information on the jobs that exist within the tourism industry. The SOC document, for example, includes the following designations that may have a significant tourism-orientation:

- * Hotel and accommodation managers
- * Restaurant and catering managers
- * Publicans, innkeepers and club stewards
- * Entertainment and sports managers
- * Travel agency managers
- * Airline pilots
- * Receptionists
- * Receptionist/telephonists
- * Chefs
- * Waiters, waitresses
- * Bar staff
- * Travel and flight attendants
- * Railway station staff
- * Housekeepers
- * Hotel porters

- * Kitchen porters, hands
- * Counterhands, catering assistants
- * Cleaners, domestics

(extracted from HMSO, 1990).

This classification reflects just a proportion of the wide range of positions that exist within tourism and many designations are omitted, testifying to one of the main weaknesses of general, non-tourism specific analyses. This is, to a substantial extent, a reflection of the inadequacy of tourism sector employment research as well as difficulties which are found in the definition of the sector itself.

2. Key Human Resource Issues in International Tourism

Regular perusal of tourism trade publications, in virtually any major tourism destination country in the world, gives a clear indication of the pre-eminent concerns of professionals within the industry for human resource matters. The discussion is one of reiteration and repetition, with the same themes emerging, albeit with significant local or cultural modification, worldwide, and within both developed and developing economies. These "universal" themes include:

- * demography and the shrinking employment pool/labour shortages;
- * the tourism industry's image as an employer;
- * cultural and traditional perceptions of the industry;
- * rewards and benefits/compensation;
- * recruitment, retention and staff turnover;
- * education and training, both within colleges and industry;

- * skills shortages, especially at higher technical and management levels;
- * linking human resource concerns with service and product quality;
- * poor management and planning information about human resource matters in the tourism industry; and
- * the tendency to develop human resource policies, initiatives and remedial programmes that are reactive to what is currently happening rather than proactive to what is likely to occur.

One of the underlying problems, with respect to human resources in tourism from a "macro" point of view, is linked to the status and consideration given to these issues within overall tourism policy development and planning. The growth of tourism since 1945 has tended to focus attention, mainly, on concerns of product development and marketing and this model has been replicated as each new tourism destination has emerged to international significance. Thus, priority has, invariably, been given to the building of hotels, airports, roads and other facilities and to attendant marketing campaigns. This commitment to product and marketing-related planning has been, and continues to be, very significant in terms of both public and private sector investment. This reflects of the general optimism which surrounds international tourism, which looks forward to the year 2000 with considerable confidence and in an environment of decreasing world tensions and economic and travel liberalisation.

To a certain extent, this optimism is clouded by what may, arguably, be the main challenge facing tourism, worldwide, during

the next decade, that of human resources. A report prepared by Horwath and Horwath, on behalf of the International Hotel Association (IHA) in 1988, pinpoints three key issues, all in the human resource domain, which will face the international hotel industry during the 1990s. These are

- * the availability of labour;
- * monitoring and motivating labour; and
- * the provision of training opportunities (IHA, 1988, p.12).

The IHA study acknowledges that it is necessary to classify these concerns on a geographical and economic basis; however, such classification focuses more on the detail of cultural, social and economic variation and does not negate the overall worldwide pattern with respect to these issues. For example, availability of labour is an issue in both Canada and India but in the former it is of concern in the absolute sense of too few available personnel whereas, in India, it reflects shortages in specific skills areas.

Despite considerable international homogeneity, with respect to human resource concerns in tourism, general models of response to these issues are not clearly discernable. In other words, countries appear to go about dealing with the concerns in a manner that is locally determined rather than through the application of common principles. Each country or region appears to adopt policies and provision which have their roots in local traditions, cultures and systems. Traditionally, common approaches, between countries, to the planning and organisation of human resources in tourism have only been evident in limited and fairly specific situations. However, there are an increasing

number of initiatives, particularly in the area of training and accreditation, that have been instituted on a transnational basis and this situation has been assisted by the growth of multinational companies, demanding common qualifications and human resource practices.

This picture of diversity between countries contrasts with the far more general approaches which can be identified with respect to product development and marketing in tourism. It is possible to speculate that this difference, with respect to common practice, exists because human resource issues are, generally, inward looking, to and at the indigenous population, local structures and policies, whereas marketing and product development, not linked so closely to established practice in related areas, perceive their focus to be outward looking at a common international market, albeit with distinctive sub-market segments.

A further and, arguably, the main determinant of this status situation is the fractionalisation which characterises the co-ordination and provision of human resource policies, planning and implementation for tourism in most countries. This is a key theme within this thesis. On the one hand, the private sector of the industry (notwithstanding operations in the few remaining planned economies), in most countries, is highly fragmented, an amalgam of small to large businesses, providing a range of diverse products and meeting the need of differing markets. As a consequence, their human resource requirements are varied. On the other hand, public sector involvement, in the area of human resources, may be subject to the involvement and control of a

number of public different agencies as well some overlap with private sector responsibilities. By contrast, the number of agencies and companies involved in, for example, the area of tourism marketing tends to be rather less and their functions much more clearly defined. While the pattern varies from country to country, in the human resource field, as the empirical studies in this thesis will demonstrate, the bodies involved may include

- * the various industry sectors, through their representative bodies as well as at individual company level (especially large state owned or multi-national companies such as airlines and hotels);

- * national (state) education providers;

- * private educational institutions;

- * specialist training agencies;

- * national employment, labour or manpower agencies;

- * a wide range of national and state government departments (which may include Tourism, Employment, Education, Industry, Productivity etc);
- * social partner organisations, especially trade unions; and
- * national, regional or local tourist agencies.

This situation is further complicated by the fact that these diverse agencies do not, necessarily, fulfil the same roles in different countries and that these roles certainly do change over time. One of the features of the situation in the United Kingdom over the past twelve years, for example, has been a significant reallocation of responsibility for training in tourism from the public to the private sector, reflecting similar developments within all sectors of the economy. As a consequence, training

support for the hotel and catering sector, traditionally an area where there has been considerable state assistance through the Hotel and Catering Training Board, is now left much more to the private sector.

The varied relationship between national tourism organisations and responsibilities for training for tourism further illustrates this point. Although the information presented here is rather out of date, the selected extract from the World Tourism Organisation's report, Aims, Activities and Fields of Competence of National Tourist Organisations (1975) shows that the relationship can be one of total management of the training system at one end of the spectrum through to a limited policy/information collection role at the other (Table 1).

Table 1: Responsibilities of selected National Tourist Organisations for Tourism Vocational Training
(from WTO, 1975)

<u>Country</u>	<u>Functions</u>					
	1	2	3	4	5	6
Algeria	*		*			
Argentina	*	*	*	*	*	*
Australia	*		*	*		
Austria	none					
Bahamas		*	*			
Belgium			*	*	*	*
Brazil	*	*	*	*		
Bulgaria	*	*	*	*	*	*
Canada	*		*	*	*	*
Chile			*			
Egypt		*	*	*	*	*
France	none					
Ghana	*		*	*		
Greece	*	*	*	*	*	*
Hong Kong			*	*		*
Hungary	*		*	*		
Ireland	none					
Jamaica	*		*			*
Kenya	*	*	*	*	*	
Malaysia	*	*	*	*		
Malta	*		*			
Mexico	*	*	*	*	*	*
New Zealand	none					
Pakistan	*	*	*			
Peru	*					
Poland	*	*	*	*	*	*
Portugal	*	*	*	*	*	*
Singapore	*		*	*		
Spain		*	*	*	*	*
Thailand			*	*		
Tunisia	*	*	*	*	*	*
Turkey	*	*	*	*	*	*
United Kingdom	*	*				*
United States	none					
Zambia	*			*		*

Key

- 1 = Determination of manpower and training requirements
- 2 = Granting of fellowships
- 3 = Formulation of training programmes
- 4 = Organisation of vocational training courses, seminars
- 5 = Establishment of hotel and tourism schools
- 6 = Reception of trainees (a somewhat ambiguous term, not fully explained in the report)

A more recent WTO study (WTO, 1988) also analyses the role of NTOs in the vocational education and training sector but in a much less systematic manner. The report contains very comprehensive national sections, from over one hundred countries but varied objectives were implemented for the study, only one of which related to training and other activities to develop human resources. As a consequence, many countries omitted such information and, where it is included, it is predominantly descriptive and not really amenable to comparative analysis. These WTO studies, especially the 1975 report, referred to here in a fairly general sense, will be considered and analysed, in a comparative context and in rather greater depth in chapter 6 of this thesis.

The interaction of the varying agencies and interests in the area of human resource planning and management in tourism inevitably produces a response, in terms of national policies, plans and structures which closely reflect the local environment and are, in many respects, dedicated to the requirements of that environment. This has considerable merit in that it should ensure that education and training, in particular, are relevant to local industry needs and can be related to systems that operate within other vocational sectors. As this study will show, this is not necessarily the reality. However, at the same time, there is a danger that this parochialism acts as a barrier to international co-operation and the transfer of ideas and practices between countries. Thus, while small segments of human resource provision for tourism may have relatively universal transferability, the development of national systems has not evolved with such

benefits as priority.

Perhaps more seriously, failure to take a macro or coordinated view of the human resource considerations and how they link to all other elements within tourism development can lead to neglect and duplication and, possibly, can have major business impacts on tourism within a region, country, locality or business. By way of illustration, a good example of this comes from Singapore where the 1988 Product Development Plan (STPB, 1988) is one of the most ambitious, sophisticated and exciting of its kind. It covers issues such as urban regeneration; theme park and resort development; and cultural, artistic and events programmes as well as focusing on infrastructure, accommodation and other support facilities. Much of the plan has, subsequently, been implemented. Nowhere, in the plan, is any reference made to the inevitable human resource implications of such ambitious developments within an already tight labour market or to the consequences for human resources of growth projections for tourism to the country at that time, in order of 15% per annum. Subsequent realisation of this significant gap has resulted in some measures to up-grade tourism education and training for tourism in Singapore.

However, as a general axiom, effective human resource strategies require considerable lead time in order to support tourism development and, ideally, should be in place well before the bulldozers and diggers move in. The Singapore illustration is by no means an isolated example. Cases have been reported at the individual property/business level in locations such as Hawaii, the Keys in Florida and Queensland in Australia, where new developments in relatively remote, low population density areas

reached opening without evident human resource research or planning. As a result, serious human resource and skills shortages posed a significant threat to service quality, customer satisfaction and, ultimately, to profitability. The principle at stake here, that of incorporating human resource considerations into product and marketing development, applies, therefore, at both the macro and micro levels.

Despite the situation where human resource concerns are frequently separated from other areas of tourism development, administration and management, employment or labour market factors do feature within the stated tourism policies in most countries, as examples in Chapter 2 and the findings of the study reported in Chapter 5, will illustrate. In some cases, this factor may be the dominant concern, as is the case with the Republic of Ireland in its policy since 1987. Viewed from an economic perspective, most countries promote tourism in the context of objectives that give priority to balance of trade, foreign exchange and employment criteria. The varying emphasis given to these within broader national policies depends upon the strength, structure and balance of the economies in question. This, in Germany or Japan, while the actual value of international tourism may be fairly significant, it is, in relative terms, dwarfed by the scale and value of other industries. Therefore, the economic and, consequently, the employment significance of tourism is not accorded priority. By contrast, island economies in the Caribbean or the Indian Ocean are dominated by tourism and are very vulnerable to fluctuations in global or regional travel patterns. The immediate and fairly

drastic effect of the 1991 Gulf War on the whole economy of the Maldives was a direct result of tourism dependency in that country. Between these extremes, most destination countries recognise the economic significance of tourism, including the employment component and this, therefore, features strongly within stated policy tourism documentation as the literature study and the empirical studies demonstrate.

What these studies show is the importance of human resource considerations in the framing of national and local tourism policies. The prime motives, however, do show some variation. In Ireland, for example, a direct contribution to what was seen as unacceptable levels of adult and youth unemployment was central to the Irish tourism policy for the period 1987 - 1992, which took as a central objective the doubling of tourism arrivals in order to increase employment by 25,000. Implicitly, the same objective to reduce unemployment, although not so overtly stated, was, until recently, represented in the United Kingdom where government responsibility for tourism was vested in the Department of Employment until its recent transfer to the new Department of National Heritage. However, even this scenario had considerable regional diversity. U.K. policy is particularly concerned to disperse tourism activity, and consequent employment, to areas of economic disadvantage at the expense of traditional and congested tourism areas, especially London.

An alternative perspective on the association between tourism policies and employment is found in countries where there is an actual shortage of both skilled and unskilled labour. Both Hong Kong and Singapore have booming tourism economies and encourage

this growth for, largely, economic reasons. At the same time, the labour market, in both city states, is very tight and this concern is one that is becoming more and more prominent within economic planning. In Hong Kong the tourism industry could utilise up to three times the number of skilled personnel than its current recruitment level. Thus, priority in these locations is not so much on growth in overall tourism employment as on increasing productivity in the industry and ensuring more effective management and utilisation of labour within tourism. This imperative has, potentially, great significance. Both Hong Kong and Singapore have developed tourism industries on the basis of a well marketed reputation for quality and highly personalised service. This is in evidence through the awards won by hotels such as the Mandarin in Hong Kong and the Shangri-la in Singapore and by carriers such as Cathay Pacific and Singapore Airlines. Increasingly tight human resource environments may lead to technological alternatives to personal service and a loss of market competitiveness in this respect to other countries in the region, such as Indonesia and Thailand. Similar labour market pressures are emerging in other countries, notably South Korea, Malaysia and Taiwan, where the rapid growth of competitor industry sectors, such as in electronics, is applying ever increasing pressure on developing tourism industries.

The final model is represented by many developing countries where there is no absolute shortage of labour but where there are significant limitations in the availability of the appropriate skills for tourism and other service industries. This is a growing concern in countries such as India and Kenya but also in

a variety of other significant tourism destinations. In these countries, national labour objectives seek to maximise the productivity of the skilled workforce while, at the same time, increasing the overall pool of skilled personnel from which tourism can draw. In addition, to a certain extent, labour resources can substitute for capital investment in these countries, thus reducing the import requirement of international tourism.

National tourism policies make the basic assumption that investment in human resource development for the industry, which is an integral component of employment generation, has direct and exponential benefit to the industry. This is assumed to apply both to investments by government, in initial education and training and to that of the private sector, through in-company development programmes. This assumption is implicit in policies that seek to encourage the growth of tourism as a means of generating employment.

However, there are certain problems with this argument, which centre on skills attrition out of the industry. Such attrition may be internal to the country in question from, for example, hotel reception positions to front-line administration posts in other industries or from management in tourism into leadership roles in other service or manufacturing sectors. This process can be clearly seen in the continuing high rate (in some case over 50%) at which hotel school graduates, in the United Kingdom, leave the industry during the first year after graduation. This process can be seen at work in many European countries, in North America as well as in Hong Kong and Singapore. Alternatively,

this process of attrition may represent an actual skills drain out of the country into tourism industries elsewhere. Malaysia has, traditionally, lost skilled tourism personnel to Singapore; Ireland has and continues to face a similar loss to the U.K., mainland Europe and the U.S.A.; India's attrition has been to the Middle East and to a variety of other locations; while tourism personnel from Hong Kong have emigrated to a variety of countries in Europe, America and Australasia. Such international mobility from country to country and similar trends within countries (from country to city) is a process that is likely to increase as labour shortages increase and barriers to employment abroad decrease.

3. Responding to the issues

Examples of policy responses to the diversity of human resource issues in tourism are illustrated through reference to the literature and the findings of the two empirical studies, which show how both public and private sector responsibility can contribute as solutions to some of the identified problems. The conclusions to this thesis suggest responses and strategies which could be adopted elsewhere. They may be classified as:

- * individual business related;
- * local;
- * national; and
- * regional.

Examples of such responses at the level of the individual business abound. They may include

- * localised recruitment campaigns, targeted at

specific groups of potential employees, for example married women;

* local transport, accommodation and child-care schemes so as to attract employees who may, otherwise, be unable to work for the company;

* flexible rosters and shifts in order to meet employee needs;

* enhanced benefits packages;

* changes in product, designed to reduce labour costs, often involving reducing service levels and job de-skilling;

* the use of technology as part of labour saving initiatives; and

* enhanced in-house training programmes.

Local initiatives are, frequently, the result of collective employer action, through industry organisations or under the sponsorship of public agencies. They can be self-help, as would be the case with the proposed (but not so far delivered) local hospitality training centre for the London Docklands, designed to meet local industry needs through skills training or re-training of local people. An alternative model, which utilises public monies, is the establishment of a dedicated training centre to meet the skills needs of new theme parks nears Paris, by AFPA, the French adult training agency. A third model is where local industry pressure and representations persuade government agencies to make specific, local training provision - examples from Ireland illustrate this process. The provision of specific tourism-related training in the Regional College, Tralee in County Kerry represents the results of such pressure.

National initiatives take a variety of forms and feature action at both the public and private sector level. At a "macro" level, the influence of both may be evident. In Ireland the establishment of CERT, in 1963, as the agency responsible for manpower planning and training in tourism, reflected such a joint initiative. The agency's wide remit in the area of human resource research and planning; training facilities development; programme design; and training funding and provision illustrates a strategy designed to anticipate human resource needs within a predominantly small business tourism industry. This approach allows for the proactive anticipation of change in the volume of business, skills profiles and demographics among other things and represents a national tourism manpower model which is under review in a number of other countries. A key component of this model is the information collection process, utilising the direct survey method. Other forms of national initiatives can also be identified. Countries with a strong tradition of skills emigration in the tourism field - Ireland and Singapore are examples - have instigated major "return home" campaigns through relevant industry associations and government agencies.

Substantial investment in training facilities by large companies to meet their national and, in some cases, international human resource needs, is a growing trend. Good examples are Forte Hotels' Management Academy and the facilities of McDonalds and Disney. These are by no means isolated. Both Taj and Oberoi in India have developed hotel schools that provide courses leading to accredited awards. Plans for a mega international resort in Desaru, West Malaysia (while currently in abeyance), included a

major tourism training centre as a early component within the development. Likewise, a recent craft training centre initiative by Inter-Continental and the U.K.-based Hotel and Catering Training Company is designed to overcome Inter-Continental's skills shortages in Australia. This trend, while currently mainly based within the hotel and restaurant sectors, is one that is likely to spread and extend, both geographically and sectorially. Regional or transnational initiatives frequently mirror national responses in kind but transcend boundaries, often because small countries, with limited resources are involved. Within the private sector, common human resource policies and transferable training programmes are increasingly found in larger multi-national companies, notably in the hotel sector, where the benefits of facilitating staff mobility within the company is one clear motivation. The Taj Group of Hotels, from India, have made the transfer of technology, service standards and key personnel a central requirement within their investment in Asian republics of the former Soviet Union. Disney, for reasons that are more product-related, have replicated their American human resource approach, with some modifications, in their Japanese and European developments. Beyond individual companies, a good example of regional co-operation can be identified in relation to the Caribbean, where the collective Hotels Association and the Caribbean Tourism Organisation have been at the forefront in organising co-operative training and work is currently underway to agree common curricula and qualifications in the hospitality field. A similar initiative is that funded by the European Community in South-East Asia, the ASEAN Tourism Training Project,

which includes the objective to establish compatible but separate hospitality training systems within all six countries of the Association of South East Asian Nations (Brunei, Indonesia, Malaysia, the Philippines, Singapore and Thailand). The European Community, itself, provides an alternative model where transnational co-operation is designed to harmonise qualifications and skills within the Community so as to facilitate labour mobility.

A crucial and often neglected component of the responses to human resource issues in tourism, at the company, local, national and regional level, is that of the information or data which guides decision making. Indeed, it is arguable that one of the main reasons that issues such as

- * skills shortages;
- * high labour turnover/attrition; and
- * perceived gaps between educational provision and industry needs

take such positions of prominence is because necessary research studies and data collection systems have not been put in place. As a result, what should be predictable and manageable through proactive planning, becomes an issue of debilitating consequence to the tourism industry, whether an individual company or a whole country.

It is important to recognise the vital importance of valid, current and comprehensive information to the management of human resources in tourism and address two key methodologies for its collection. At the company level, the use of modern, computerised personnel systems is a contribution to this, especially in

relation to career tracking and succession planning. On a wider plane, the use of different techniques for estimating employment and related human resource concerns require consideration. The methodology which receives particular attention in this thesis that of the direct industry survey, which is a flexible, multi-functional approach to the collection of information about human resources in tourism and provides the most useful input into the model considered in chapter 8. Alternative approaches, primarily econometric, are also available for this purpose but it is beyond the scope of this thesis to discuss these in any detail. Suffice to say, they do not provide the quality and depth of information which is available through the direct survey method.

The final chapters of this thesis are intended to bring together the main themes of both the literature reviews and the empirical studies. The focus, in the Malaysian case study, is on the development of a comprehensive, integrated and cohesive framework for human resource development in tourism, which can be analyzed and modified for application within tourism industries at a local, national or transnational level. The wider implications of the empirical studies will also be discussed.

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Chapter 2
Literature Review -
TOURISM POLICY

1. Introduction

This review evaluates the literature in the area of tourism policy at an international, national, and regional level as a precursor to consideration of the main theme of this thesis, that of the extent to which labour market/ human resource factors influence such policies. Tourism policies, in this context, mean the ways in which public administrations, at whatever level, intervene in the development, control, marketing and management of the tourism industry in its widest sense. Of course tourism can operate in the absence of such policies, although, in practice this is relatively unusual and, indeed, unlikely. As Hartley and Hooper (1990) point out, in the context of U.K. tourism,

" Left to themselves, market forces will determine the size of the UK tourist sector. However, economic analysis suggests that private markets might fail to work properly, because of imperfections (e.g. monopoly, entry barriers) and beneficial or harmful externalities, including public goods (e.g. noise, traffic congestion, street lighting, information). On this basis, some form of state intervention is often proposed to "correct" market failure and ensure that markets fully and

accurately respond to consumer preferences" (Hartley and Hooper, 1990, p. 355).

Tourism policies are, therefore, driven by a diversity of factors which cannot be seen in isolation of policies with respect to a wide variety of other areas of economic, industrial, social and environmental activity. Arguably, indeed, the articulation of formal tourism policies arises out of attempts to co-ordinate a variety of other policies in so far as they impact on the tourism industry. In the European Community context, Akehurst (1990) refers to the identification of an emerging EC tourism policy on the basis of a number of measures and initiatives in the tourism domain, individually implemented and in the absence of a coherent policy framework. It is only when sufficient such measures are in place that it is legitimate to talk about an actual tourism policy.

Hartley and Hooper point to some of the theoretical and practical difficulties which arise in the definition of tourism policy.

"Public sector policy objectives which may be sought from tourism include the creation of income and wealth; job creation; maintaining and improving the image of an area; its environment and the quality of life; maintaining and improving links both within and between nations; and contributing to the nation's balance of payments position. These objectives have to be specified clearly and, in principle, they have to be accepted by, and reflect the wishes of, the electorate. But what do these

objectives actually mean? Are all jobs equally valuable to policymakers regardless of whether they are for young people, men or women, part-time or full-time, skilled or unskilled, temporary or permanent? Conflicts can also arise between some of these policy objectives. Job creation might destroy the environment and the image of an area. And how does society express its preferences for maintaining the environment and "protecting its heritage"? Here, difficulties arise since local and national elections are usually fought on a range of issues with tourism only one (minor?) element in a complex voting situation...giving politicians considerable opportunities to interpret the "public interest" (Hartley and Hooper, 1990, p.358).

While most aspects of this analysis are acceptable, it is necessary to question the relationship between the wishes of the electorate and the formation of tourism policy as a general rule. Tourism policy is rarely a major agenda item in the politics of local or national government and, if anything, tends to be submerged within a much wider range of policy issues, ranging from employment and the economy to environmental concerns.

In considering tourism policies, it is important to clarify their geographical scope. Policies are, almost inevitably, national and derived from national social, economic and cultural priorities. Some local or regional initiatives are identifiable at the sub-national level - the examples of American or Australian states are

illustrative of such policies as is the Nigerian example discussed at a later point in this chapter. Some transnational regional initiatives are identifiable as well, notably within the European Community, the Caribbean and member states of the ASEAN group of countries.

The development of tourism policies at an international and national level frequently shows evidence of both the confusion discussed by Hartley and Hooper and of this somewhat ad hoc process at work, resulting, after a period of time, in the articulation of formal policy statements which draw on both historic direction and current priorities. In other words, tourism evolved, by and large, in the absence of formal policy, in both developed and developing countries. At a point when the scale of development or the need for regulation in one form or another became evident, local or national administrations articulated policies in order to represent priorities and guidelines in relation to the further development and management of the industry. A further complication relates to the fragmented nature of tourism's management, with responsibilities frequently vested in a diversity of public and private sector agencies, more as a result of historical accident than design.

Some caution is required, however, in the consideration of formal tourism policy and strategy statements from governments or tourism administrations. Heeley and McVey (1985) support the World Tourism Organisation's estimate that about half the national tourism plans formulated are never actually implemented and most of the remaining

plans are only implemented in part, reflecting both the uncertainties inherent in most tourism environments and the limitations of status accorded to tourism ministries and administrations in many countries. In terms of this literature review, the development of tourism policies, over the last century, is best illustrated by reference to examples taken from a number of countries and also from wider international initiatives and documents. I will start with the United Kingdom but similar themes will be drawn from elsewhere.

2. The evolution of tourism policy in the United Kingdom

In Britain, tourism developed, as did many other industries, as a free market enterprise, initiated by entrepreneurs who were, as Pimlott (1947) described them,

" practical men, who did not look beyond the possibilities of private profit.... they were most of them good businessmen who set out to give the public what they thought it wanted" (Pimlott, 1947, p.115).

Heeley (1981), the dominant literature source in this area, points out that tourism, as a public policy concern, evolved out of this entrepreneurial start and as a by-product of commercial self-interest. Prior to that, the first semblance of a structure for tourism policy, primarily linked to marketing and promotion, was determined by the major companies with interests in tourism, notably the railways who "were quick to grasp the concept of the tourist area and region" (Heeley, 1981, p.62). Local government

reform in the last twenty years of the nineteenth century resulted in growing interest in tourism development in resort areas and the initiation of public sector investment in leisure and cultural facilities. As Heeley points out, this investment reflected the first willingness on the part of local authorities to invest in non-remunerative tourism projects, provided that the benefits accrued to the community as a whole. These investments represent, probably, evidence of the first discernible public policies, at either local or national level, with respect to tourism in Britain. Heeley (1987) points out that "national government interest and involvement in tourism is a feature of the twentieth century" (p. 1) but, in that sense, tourism is not significantly different from other service sector industries which developed after the industrial revolution. The first recognition of national responsibility for tourism in Britain, and the implementation of identifiable policy came with the voting of £5000 of exchequer monies to the voluntary Travel Association of Great Britain in 1929 as a means of stimulating foreign travel to the country (Heeley, 1987). As Davies (1979) points out

"The decision to make this grant resulted from a realisation by the Department of Overseas Trade that tourist traffic would be able to contribute materially to the balance of payments and would contribute to invisible exports" (Davies, 1979, p.2).

This identification of policy determinants was not articulated publicly at the time. Davies argues that it was the Pinney

memorandum of 1944 where recommendations mark a clear awareness of the real potential of tourism and urge the establishment of an official central tourist organisation, with government financial responsibility. The Pinney memorandum was officially re-inforced when, in 1950, the President of the Board of Trade, Harold Wilson, articulated two policy priorities for publicly funded tourism development, vis

- to bring visitors from overseas, especially from the dollar area; and
- to ensure that these overseas visitors, as well as home holidaymakers, were well received and accommodated and had the best facilities that could be provided (Davies, 1979, p.3).

However, public investment in tourism remained on a non-statutory basis, through voluntary trade associations, up to 1969, representing national government's "chosen instrument for the purpose of promoting travel to and within the United Kingdom" (British Travel Association, 1969, p. 11) and the sole manifestation of public policy in the tourism area at that time. Arrangements for Northern Ireland, however, were somewhat different, following the establishment of the statutory Northern Ireland Tourist Board under the development of Tourist Traffic Act (NI) 1948 (Smyth, 1986). The policy frameworks established at that time have remained largely unchanged in the intervening years, providing for the expenditure of public monies on tourism marketing, investment in product and for the development of

infrastructure. Tourist Boards, in Scotland and Wales were formed in 1930 and 1948 on an entirely voluntary basis by the industry itself. The motivation for public investment in tourism in all parts of the United Kingdom was, primarily, recognition of tourism as a contributor to the balance of trade and as a generator of foreign currency. There is no evidence, in the literature, that employment-related factors influenced early public policy in the tourism area.

The 1969 Development of Tourism Act was what Heeley (1987) described as a "watershed" in the development of public policies for tourism in Britain. "Its overriding political purpose was to boost the foreign exchange earnings associated with international travel to Britain" (Heeley, 1987, p.2) in the aftermath of the devaluation of sterling in 1967 and it was seen as a relatively modest and low-cost means to promote increased overseas visits to the country. Kendell and McVey (1986) concur with this assessment when they say that

"The political impetus behind the 1969 Act stemmed from a desire to increase foreign exchange earnings resulting from visits to Great Britain by foreign nationals... In order to encourage British tourists to stay at home and not spend Sterling abroad the 1969 Act sought to enhance the tourism potential of Scotland and Wales through the creation of statutory domestic promotional agencies" (Kendell and McVey, 1986, p.17).

Interestingly, the Act followed the first year in which Britain

attained a balance of payment surplus from tourism-related activities (Davies, 1979) and this prompted heightened awareness of its economic value.

Despite the semblance of a national tourism policy in the development of the industry prior to 1969, Burkart and Medlik (1974) rightly point to the absence of an articulated and comprehensive policy on tourism. This was manifested in the organisation of tourism at government level with virtually no co-ordination between departments and ad-hoc decision making by interested ministries, tourism organisations and the private sector (Davies, 1979).

The 1969 Act created statutory bodies as the instruments of public tourism policy in Britain, the umbrella British Tourist Authority (BTA), concerned with overseas marketing of tourism to the country as a whole and three national bodies to cater for tourism promotion at the domestic level, the Scottish Tourist Board (STA), the Wales Tourist Board (WTB) and, after initial omission, the English Tourist Board (ETB). The respective Boards saw their roles in limited terms, hardly reflective of possible broader policy objectives. Following the Act, the Scottish Tourist Board saw its objectives as being

- "1. to promote Scotland as a tourist destination;
2. to encourage the provision and improvement of tourist facilities and amenities;
3. to co-ordinate tourism interests within Scotland, mainly through its Area Tourist Boards " (Heeley and

McVey, 1985b, p.5).

However, the absence of clear policy objectives is well illustrated in evidence to the Trade and Industry Sub-Committee of the Expenditure Committee (1972), during which a senior civil servant noted

"It seemed evident that we ought to be able to attract more tourists to this country.... and I think the government believed that if they could give this process a bit of a push and enable it to happen rather faster than it might otherwise have happened, then this would be something that was worthwhile doing" (HMSO, 1972, p. 28).

Highlighting this somewhat woolly approach, Kendell and McVey (1986) criticise the 1969 Act on the basis that

"It failed to dictate in precise terms what the respective roles and responsibilities of the four statutory national tourist agencies were and how they were to inter-relate with each other. Neither did it state how the four agencies were to co-ordinate their activities with other public sector agencies...and the local authorities" (Kendell and McVey, 1986, p.18).

Discussion so far, in fact, omits reference to a major plank of the 1969 Act, that of the contentious establishment of the Hotel Development Incentives Scheme (HDI) which was designed to improve and expand the country's hotel stock so as to meet the growing and increasingly sophisticated demands of tourists from overseas (Heeley, 1987). This component reflects one of the policy strands

articulated much earlier by Harold Wilson and it is interesting that it was a Government over which he presided that committed the state to direct investment in tourism facilities. This was a new departure, although investment in infrastructure and ownership of transport monopolies (at the time, BEA, BOAC and British Railways, for example) was well established. British policy, in this respect, has never been as strong in the area of ownership of tourism enterprises as has been the case in other countries. Pearce (1989) notes public ownership of hotels in New Zealand and Spain but other examples can readily be found in countries as far apart as India, Ireland and Malaysia. HDI stimulated a hotel construction boom, especially in south east England, achieving the government's short-term aim of accommodating the influx of additional tourists during the latter half of the 1970's. HDI was subsequently replaced by the Tourism Projects Scheme (TPS) in 1972 to support capital developments in tourism within Development Areas but this commitment was phased out following changes in political complexion after 1979.

This vagueness in the policy domain illustrates the lack of clarity which the four statutory tourist boards faced with respect to both their policies and their respective roles and responsibilities. Clarification of these, according to Heeley (1987), only evolved over the subsequent decade. The initial priority accorded to foreign exchange objectives shifted to a situation where this policy was given equal weighting to that of regional development. The minister responsible for tourism, Sir John Eden, noted in 1971,

"In failing over the past years to realise the importance of tourism to our regional policies the full value of the domestic tourism market has been overlooked. The home holiday-makers are the backbone of the holiday industry in this country" (Eden, 1971).

This dual policy emphasis was confirmed in what was known as the 1974 Shore Review and guidelines which, according to Heeley (1987) "confirmed that balance of payments and regional policy considerations were the prime factors justifying government aid for tourism". Indeed, this dual policy resulted in some contradictions. Moves to shift tourist movements from developed areas, notably London, to economically "fragile" ones implied an acceptance of reduced foreign receipts.

The fundamental policy shift, with respect to British tourism, took place in the early 1980's as a response both to changing political emphasis and to continued rises in unemployment. Heeley (1987) notes the "importance of tourism as a job creator assumed increasing importance in this decade" (p. 8). The most tangible manifestation of this policy shift came in 1985 with move of responsibility for tourism from the trade and industry portfolio and to the Department of Employment. One of the priorities, within this initiative, was "to spearhead a tourism-led drive to create jobs and wealth" (Heeley, 1987, p. 8). The change in ministerial responsibility was welcomed by the report of the Trade and Industry Committee, published at the time of the transfer and noting no other changes in policy attendant on the move (HMSO, 1985). It is

interesting to note, therefore, that this focus on employment priorities would seem to have been reversed, following the 1992 election, following which tourism is now the responsibility of a new Department of National Heritage.

However, the generality of these policies, known as the Lamont guidelines, were widely criticised for the weakness of their commitment to the industry and were described as

"little more than a statement of good faith in the balance of payments contribution and the wealth/job creation of tourism, and in the desirability of achieving certain specified but largely uncontentious improvements to the country's tourist product" (Scottish Tourist Board, 1987, p.11).

This critical tone appears to be justified on the basis of analysis of statements from Norman Lamont during his period of responsibility for tourism. His review of tourism, in 1983, does not include any clear statement of priority or direction beyond the confirmation that "the Government recognise the great economic and employment potential of tourism and are determined to encourage the industry's development" (DTIa, 1983, p.1). The review itself identified government responsibility clearly. It makes clear that

"The Government's main role in support of tourism is to provide the institutional framework and to create a favourable general economic climate for the tourist industry's development. Within the institutional framework it is the job of the tourist boards to work

together and to coordinate and foster an industry which by its nature is fragmented and diverse" (DTIb, 1983, 1).

The only other area of real significance related to affirmation of policy with respect to the attraction of further private sector funding for tourism development and marketing, a policy consistent with that applied in other sectors of economic activity.

In a sense concern is further justified on the basis of considering the way in which Norman Lamont himself delimited government involvement in the tourism policy domain. Lamont noted

" Perhaps I can draw a distinction here, I see my role and that of the DTI as being to set down the broad parameters of policy, our role is to emphasise that tourism is an extremely important industry, that it has enormous potential for employment growth, and it is my function to see that other parts of government, other departments in Whitehall, do not obstruct the natural growth of tourism. When it comes to tourism policy, if by "policy" you mean should the emphasis be placed on seaside resorts, this part of the country, covered swimming pools, historic buildings, I think there a lot of the responsibility is devolved to the Boards. They are the people who are in the field, at the sharp end" (HMSO, 1985, pp. 286-7).

Perhaps reflecting on statements of this nature, Kendell and McVey rightly argue that

" Tourism does not and cannot exist in isolation and if

governments have any serious intention of realising the political goals set for tourism, whether it be income generation, employment creation, elimination of public sector waste and duplication etc., they must go beyond generalised and ambiguous statements of intent. Such statements only serve to make attempts of those trying to develop the tourist industry in this country more difficult as they try to interpret each new government's political aspirations for tourism" (Kendell and Mcvey, 1986, p.20).

Arguably, the main policy areas to affect tourism over the past decades have been the implementation of policies outside of the direct tourism field, derived from the economic, social and foreign affairs fields, among others. Indeed, the policy areas discussed up to this point are, in many respects, drawn from the wider economic environment. As Smyth points out "traditionally, government involvement in tourism has largely been a product of wider policy aims relating to balance of payments and regional economic development " (Smyth, 1986, p. 122). In relation to this wider environment, tourism was affected alongside any other industry by, for example, economic liberalisation, changes in employment law and privatisation of key industries (such as British Airways and Thomas Cook). Perhaps it is because of this that tourism policies, in the United Kingdom, have tended to appear weak and ill-defined. However, it is important to note the way in which the portfolio of policy areas has grown over the past seventy years, commencing with

balance of trade and developing to include foreign exchange concerns, provision of suitable accommodation and facilities, regional development and, finally employment and national wealth creation. At a national level, it is interesting that, up to this point in the evolution of British tourism policies, no official mention is made of two areas that have taken on considerable importance in other countries, namely environmental protection and the contribution to international understanding and peace. Heeley and McVey (1985b) caution against an over emphasis on purely economic factors when they state

"It would be a mistake to regard public policy for tourism as being about economic matters alone. Tourism has important social and environmental dimensions. Successive governments have accepted that it is their duty to help ensure "appropriate" levels of leisure and cultural provision for all sectors of the population....

In addition, governments are also concerned to protect and conserve natural and historic environments" (Heeley and McVey, 1985b, p.63).

As my earlier quote from Hartley and Hooper (1990) indicates, it is difficult to envisage policy issues in the tourism area featuring strongly as central issues of political debate; Britain and the 1992 election appears to substantiate this claim, with no more than passing reference to the industry in any of the major manifestoes. In the context of the development of tourism policy in the United Kingdom, passing reference has already been made to the evolution

of tourism in England, Northern Ireland, Scotland and Wales. In terms of the broad parameters of policy, clearly tourism, at a regional level, is largely determined by national priorities. Thus, the evolution of tourism policy in the United Kingdom is, probably, the main determinant of how tourism policy has been interpreted in the individual regions. However, this interpretation does show some interesting variations in the policy area.

Smyth (1986), discussing tourism in Northern Ireland, identifies the considerable level of public sector investment in tourism product and promotion as directly attributable to regional development and balance of payment considerations. While the lead body for policy implementation is the Northern Ireland Tourist Board, under the auspices of the Department of Economic Development, Smyth points to the "myriad of bodies" which have, to varying degrees, a role in tourism. This is a problem similar to that identified by Heeley and McVey (1985b), with respect to Scotland, who identified more than twenty public authorities active in tourism on a national scale. As a result, integration and co-operation in Northern Ireland is weak owing to a lack of any umbrella mechanism to link the respective areas of policy implementation, despite the Province's early public commitment to tourism development. This gap between stated policies and their implementation is, by no means, unique to Northern Ireland.

The English Tourist Board provide a good example of how broad, national policy objectives can be translated to a series of more specific and action-orientated aims and objectives, focusing on

both the broader implications of national policy and on the more practical requirements of implementation. As such, the policy document is fairly typical of a number of similar statements, especially within the developed country context (ETB, 1987).

The main features of the policy document include the priority accorded to economic concerns, especially through focusing on tourism's capacity to contribute "to the economy through the creation of wealth and jobs" (ETB, 1987, unnumbered). Given its primarily domestic remit, the ETB policy document gives stress to the combined benefits of international and domestic tourism in this respect. Competitiveness is also a key focus word within the document, reflecting political and economic priorities within public finances at the time. Subsidiary policy objectives are much more functional and specific, arguably moving away from strictly policy areas into implementation concerns.

Thus, what is evident in these aims and objectives, is the presence of some broader policy concerns (wealth creation, employment, the environment) but a dominance of more practical objectives concerned with marketing, promotion and product enhancement. It is interesting to note the reference to employment in the context of job status and the role that education and training can play in this respect. Such references are not widespread in the policy literature.

The policy and objectives of the Wales Tourist Board represent a similar menu, reflecting both the centre and the periphery in the areas that are covered. As with the ETB document, the Welsh

objectives make passing reference to human resource concerns in terms of education and training but also through reference to the quality needs of Welsh tourism, where the people dimension may be taken as implicit. The Board introduces these objectives by stating that they implicitly include "the need to sustain and promote Welsh culture, language and heritage, to protect and enhance the physical environment of Wales, and to ensure the economic and social well-being of the host community" (WTB, 1988, p.15). The policy recognises the dependence of Wales on a varied visitor mix and the first priority states the objective to "promote Wales as an attractive destination for all forms of tourism and day visits throughout the year" (WTB, 1988, p.15) and, unlike the ETB document, does make specific reference to human resource concerns with an objective "to encourage education and training facilities for employees in the Welsh tourist industry" (WTB, 1988, p.15). Turning to Scotland, Heeley (1985) takes the view that, despite the level of public investment in tourism, "national government does not have a policy on tourism" (Heeley, 1985, p.58). The consequence of this is to be found at the level of implementation, where the lack of co-operation which Smyth discusses in the Northern Ireland context, is reiterated by Heeley in his discussion of the conflicting and competing roles of the Scottish Tourist Board and the Highlands and Islands Development Board, both charged with implementation of tourism policy in Scotland. Elsewhere, Heeley (1986b) concludes

"Tourism administration in Scotland presents a complex

picture of national and local scale initiative and involvement. Policies and programmes to enable the industry to flourish have no real organisational focus. The disparate nature of the commercial tourist sector, with the enormous number of small firms, is supported by an equally fragmented system of official responsibilities" (Heeley, 1986b, p.13).

3. Tourism policy in the Irish Republic

The development of tourism policy, in the Irish Republic, is of particular interest in that the period from the mid-1970s onwards demonstrate, in a manner much clearer than in the case of the United Kingdom, how a wide variety of factors contribute to the realignment of policies. In the Irish case, this period saw a realignment from generalised economic priorities channelled into employment creation as the prime policy objective.

Although state involvement in tourism in the Irish Free State (after 1949, the Republic of Ireland) can be dated back to the 1920s, the Tourist Traffic Acts of 1939 and 1952, which established Bord Failte (concerned with tourism development) and Fogra Failte (responsible for marketing) can be identified as the origins of a state policy for tourism in Ireland. Prior to this, there was a certain reluctance, on the part of governments, to commit the state to tourism in a practical way, although the industry was third in importance in the list of sources of external income. There was a widespread belief that a competitive tourist industry could have

established itself without support (Lynch, 1969).

However, it was not until 1973 that formal policy objectives were articulated by Bord Failte (BFE). These were stated as

"To enable the people of Ireland to benefit from the promotion and development of tourism, both to and within their country by optimising tourism's contribution to the national economy in terms of net value added and taking account of:

- a) the balance of payments;
- b) the quality of life and development of the community;
- c) the enhancement and preservation of the nation's cultural heritage;
- d) the conservation of the physical resources of the country" (BFE, 1973, p.8).

The primacy given to the economic benefits of tourism in this statement is interesting when compared to the policies stated in countries such as France and Denmark (O'Hagan, 1986). These objectives have subsequently been revised by government, following a review of tourism policy by the National Economic and Social Council (NESC, 1980), in such a way that the economic dimension has a further enhanced but altered status, vis.

" to optimise the economic and social benefits to Ireland of the promotion and development of tourism both to and within the country consistent with ensuring an acceptable economic rate of return on the resources employed and taking account of:

- tourism's potential for job creation,
 - the quality of life and development of the community,
 - the enhancement and preservation of the nation's cultural heritage,
 - the conservation of the physical resources of the country, and
 - tourism's contribution to regional development"
- (Stationary Office, 1985, p.8).

This revision has removed concern for the balance of payments as a specific objective so that it is subsumed in general economic objectives and, at the same time, has introduced both employment and regional development as key concerns, reflecting changes in trade and employment patterns over the intervening decade. The revision also reflects comments in the NESC report, which note that "currently there is no way of knowing if tourism is making the appropriate contribution to the economic and social development of the country" (NESC, 1980, p.13) in the absence of government articulating "the necessary steps to make clear the overall policy objective which it wishes to see pursued and the priorities which it attaches to each" (NESC, 1980, p.13).

The revised policy objectives were prepared in response to a NESC analysis which had identified the main barriers to growth in Irish tourism and the need to overcome these as a prerequisite to an increase in tourism revenue. The analysis attributes the decline in revenue from out-of-state tourism, during the 1970s, to

- "i) The acute seasonal peak in tourism demand.

- ii) Tourism's dependence on the maintenance of the quality of the environment, which is in fragile balance.
- iii) Deficiencies in the supply of environmental services.
- iv) Problems relating to the co-ordination of planning.
- v) Deficiencies in local contributions to tourism promotion and development.
- vi) Deterioration in the general quality of hotels.
- vii) Difficulties experienced by traditional resorts.
- viii) Rises in the domestic costs of facilities in Irish tourism relative to those of competitors.
- ix) Manpower deficiencies in the industry"

(NESC, 1980, pp.11-12)

This NESC critique and policy recommendations, subsequently adopted by government, appear to be designed to counter concerns expressed about the objectives of Irish tourism policy by, among others, Conniffe and Kennedy (1984). They argue that policy measures, specific to the tourist sector, generally affect the supply of tourist services rather than demand for them. This analysis advocates a significant policy shift from one based on the assumption that tourists will visit the country (and, indeed, stay there) if the facilities are available in sufficient quantity and of appropriate quality to one which recognises the need for initiatives such as easing the cost and availability of access to Ireland and targets specific market groups rather than undertaking more generalised promotion.

The 1982 national economic plan (Stationery Office, 1982) anticipates these criticisms, to a certain degree, but is particularly significant in that it places tourism in a central position within the overall plan and gives the industry a role within the strategy for national growth, which previously had not been the case. The plan notes that

"tourism has the potential to make a significant contribution to economic growth in terms of export earnings, regional development and the provision of employment. Like manufacturing, tourism offers a product which must be marketed in a highly competitive international environment and its potential for growth is critically dependent on its cost competitiveness and on the industry's success in developing and marketing its product. However, a worthwhile return to the economy can be achieved by investment in improving the quality and image of Irish tourism" (Stationery Office, 1982, p.52).

The national plan recognises the contribution which wider economic measures can make to the tourism industry, notably reduced inflation, and other means of improving price competitiveness. This concurs with the argument put forward by Conniffe and Kennedy (1984), to the effect that policy measures to try to improve the level of tourism business need to operate in a wider context than the tourist sector alone. Policies to reduce inflation and to improve the competitiveness of the economy generally should, they argue, produce a spin-off benefit to tourism.

The Tourism Policy White Paper (Stationery Office, 1985), owes much to the NESC report but, at the same time, provides a more comprehensive policy analysis of the deficiencies, the needs and, above all, the potential for growth within the tourism industry. The 1985 national economic plan (Stationery Office, 1985b) contains limited reference to tourism as part of broader strategies for recovery; the White Paper is intended to develop these into more comprehensive policy statements. There is particular stress on the contribution that tourism can make to two areas of national economic policy, regional development and employment. With respect to the first of these, the White Paper comments that

"Ireland is fortunate in that a high percentage of the tourism industry is centred around areas which are, on the face of things, not very well suited to intensive industrial or agricultural development. Therefore, tourism is a major benefit to regional policy. The Government maintain, however, that every area of the country has some tourism potential. This should be recognised particularly in matters of planning and environmental control" (Stationery Office, 1985, pp. 10-11).

With respect to employment, the White Paper notes that

"tourism is clearly one of the service sectors where progressive policies can help create jobs in the future. Its influence is widespread..... The extent of the benefit varies according to such factors as location and

time of the year but the relationship is clear"

(Stationery Office, 1985, p. 11).

The key impetus for changes in policy direction in Irish tourism came as part of the run-in to the 1987 general election. Perhaps the most significant contribution of the tourism lobby, at the policy level, was through a study, commissioned by the Irish Hotel Federation (IHF), which investigated a "what if" scenario for Irish tourism, based on the following proposition:

"What if we could double Ireland's tourism in real terms over a five year period - what would be the effect and, if it is possible, what resources would be required"

(IHF, 1987, unnumbered Foreward).

The approach adopted was to address four major questions in order to test the feasibility of doubling tourism revenues, in real terms, over a five year period:

- "1. Can Ireland attract sufficient numbers of tourists to the country to achieve this growth level?
2. Can the access transport sector cope with getting the tourist from source market into Ireland?
3. Can the tourist industry within Ireland accommodate and care for those tourists?
4. What is the economic impact of achieving the targeted growth?" (IHF, 1987, p. 3).

Overall, this report concluded that it was feasible to double the real value of tourism in six to seven years, provided that an intensive plan for growth be implemented. The first requirement,

according to the IHF report, is for a Government decision:

- * to recognise the significance of tourism for the economy,
- * to develop a detailed co-ordinated plan in conjunction with the state interests involved in tourism,
- * to strengthen the Ministry of Tourism, and
- * to ensure that the funds are provided to invest in the growth plan.

Secondly, it would require a substantial increase in the level of promotion in the four key source countries,

- * to stimulate existing and generate new visitor traffic,
- * to support more forcefully the appeals and image of Ireland,
- * to match the high promotional spend of competing destinations, and
- * to encourage wider distribution of Irish holiday products within the trade.

Thirdly, it would require a more competitive cost of access transport from some source markets. Fourthly, the IHF argued that the price of Irish tourist product, especially in the hotel and catering sectors, would need to be frozen in real terms, and standards raised to improve customer perception of value for money. The economic effect of these proposals was projected as substantial, especially in terms of improving the gross national product and the balance of payments, reducing the government borrowing requirement and creating in the region of 40,000 new jobs

(IHF, 1987).

The significance of this lobbying paper lay in its impact on the tourism policies of the in-coming governing party, Fianna Fail. The IHF document came at a time when economic performance was poor and the level of unemployment the highest in the European Community. The party prepared a dedicated tourism manifesto, entitled "Putting Growth Back into Tourism" (Fianna Fail, 1987) which presents a comprehensive blue print for tourism development. Policy issues addressed include planning and administration; marketing; price competitiveness; access transport; investment; the environment; and the potential for employment generation. The accession to government, of Fianna Fail, prior to the 1987 tourism season, saw an initial attempt to implement aspects of the manifesto, through what the Minister for Transport and Tourism described as a "crash programme", aimed at increasing tourist numbers for 1987 by 400,000, revenue by £100 million and employment by 5,000.

From a policy point of view, this new Irish strategy represents an unusual approach in that general objectives are translated into specific performance targets for tourism. Over the five year period, 1988 - 92, these targets were presented as a doubling of both overseas visitor numbers and revenue and an increase in employment, within tourism, of 25,000. What is very clear is that the policy was driven and maintained in the intervening years on the basis of employment as its prime mover and key determinant. This is recognised in the strategic response from Bord Failte, the body charged with much of the responsibility for implementation,

which focuses on the mechanisms necessary to attract the additional visitors (BFE, 1989) on the basis that revenue and employment benefits will accrue in direct proportion to the number of arrivals. The issue that is not addressed here relates to the quality and stability of employment, that can be generated, in tourism in a highly seasonal industry such as that in Ireland.

4. Tourism policies in other European countries

It would be reasonable to expect, with the move to a common internal market in the European Community, that there would be evidence of convergence within the tourism policies of member states, reflecting both the market environment and the direction provided by transnational policies as implemented through the Commission. I shall address Community policies, with respect to tourism, as a separate matter in this review. However, while some convergence may be evident, there is still considerable evidence of diversity within tourism policies in member states, reflecting variation in tourism products and traditions as well as different economic and industrial structures and performance. The United Kingdom and the Irish Republic reflect countries where the prime policy determinants are economic, in both cases shifting from, primarily, fiscal concerns to a greater concentration on socio-economic, primarily employment, objectives since the late 1970s. However, the means of achieving these goals vary; in the United Kingdom, the role of government policy has been to facilitate the free operation of market forces in the tourism sector so as to

promote growth and increased employment. In Ireland, the role of government has been somewhat more overt and directive, based on specific performance targets, set for the industry as a whole but delegated as the responsibility of the national tourism administration.

The same economic focus is not always evident in the policies of other European countries. In Sweden, for example, "one overall aim of a state policy for recreational activities should be that public funds used for tourism and recreation be invested in such a way that the broad mass of the population can make use of the facilities and areas created with the help of public funds" (Ministry of Agriculture, 1974). Thus the emphasis of Swedish policy is that public investment should be designed to benefit the domestic population and any spin-off for international visitors is a side concern. This contrasts with Denmark where

"a political decision was made that the Board should direct its efforts towards increasing foreign currency income but not to encourage the domestic market in an attempt to limit foreign currency expenditure. Consequently DT (Danmarks Turistrad) is not involved in domestic tourism promotion activities and is responsible for formulating only those marketing policies which relate to tourists from abroad" (O'Hagan, 1986, p. 77).

German tourism policy focuses on a facilitating role which straddles the economic, political and social dimensions. Four goals are identified.

"- to provide the basic conditions necessary for lasting growth of tourism in both economic and social fields;
- to increase the performance capability and competitiveness of the German tourist industry;
- to improve opportunities for the mass of the population to take part in tourism;
- to further the development of international co-operation in tourism" (O'Hagan, 1986, p. 88).

Schnell (1991) points out that the federal structure of the country mitigates against a formal national tourism policy in Germany. However, the extreme balance of payments deficit in German tourism has resulted in special efforts to support tourism development in the country.

France is another European country where tourism policy focuses more on the the role of public authorities in the organisation of tourism rather than stating broad objectives for the industry. Tuppen (1991) argues that government attitude to tourist development has been somewhat ambivalent, demonstrated by frequently changing ministerial responsibility for the industry. O'Hagan (1986) summarises the general objectives of France's tourism policy as

"- continuing priority is given to enhancing France's tourism products. Efforts have been made to develop a range of products (winter sports, cultural tourism, thalassotherapy, etc.), suited to foreign markets.
- It has been the aim to improve the way tourism is

organised in France at regional and local level. A policy designed to promote tourist information, local activities and the quality of accommodation and facilities has been implemented at all levels at central government instigation.

- Agreements have been concluded with most agencies, commercial and social, in the tourism sector, to guarantee a continuing high standard of services, improve marketing, and further develop training for staff now dealing with increasing numbers of foreign tourists.

- policy on paid holidays and measures to enhance utilisation of leisure time have increased domestic tourism and led to more splitting of holidays, to the benefit particularly of the winter period" (O'Hagan, 1986, pp. 83-4).

Tourism policy during the 1970s and early 1980s, in Portugal, focused on rapid expansion of the industry as the country entered the mass tourism market. However, as Lewis and Williams (1991) point out, there has been a subsequent reassessment of policy and a modification of the the rush to attract purely volume tourism. The 1986-89 Plano Nacional de Turismo set out four major objectives for the industry:

"1. To increase tourism so as to contribute to the balance of payments by

a) increasing external receipts;

b) increasing earnings, and

- c) increasing foreign investment.
 - 2. To contribute to regional development by
 - a) creating priority zones for tourist development;
 - b) developing spa towns; and
 - c) implementing measures which favour regional development.
 - 3. To contribute to the quality of life in Portugal by
 - a) increasing domestic tourism;
 - b) increasing agritourism;
 - c) increasing turismo de habitaco; and
 - d) supporting social tourism.
 - 4. To contribute to conservation of the national and cultural heritage by
 - a) organising a more balanced use of space between tourism and other needs;
 - b) defining the optimum numbers of tourists in particular areas;
 - d) protecting regional and urban traditional architecture;
 - e) preserving monuments; and
 - f) developing artisanal crafts and supporting folklore"
- (Lewis and Williams, 1991, pp. 122-3).

These priorities are interesting in their width and, according to Lewis and Williams, they have not been prioritised by government, although it is likely that, in reality, economic considerations are paramount. In this context, therefore, the absence of human

resource considerations is noteworthy.

Since the 1970s, Dutch tourism policy has been led by the need to contribute to balancing the trade deficit but, that said, policy has traditionally been non-interventionist. However, the Tourist Policy Paper, in 1979, prompted a more active and initiatory policy, based on three main action points:

- "- improvement of quality and price control in the tourism product (infrastructure, accommodation)
- improvement of service provision for better presentation of the product (accessibility, information, professional training etc.)
- reinforcement of tourism promotion" (Ministerie van Economische Zaken, 1986, p. 3).

This statement is unusual in its reference, albeit brief, to human resource matters in terms of professional training. The 1979 document was up-dated in 1985 to place greater focus on the administrative arrangements for co-operation between tourism and related economic and social sectors. The 1985 - 89 Tourist Policy Paper announced measures

"conducive to a better and closer relationship between tourism policy relating to recreation, sport and culture, and export promotion and museums policy" (Ministerie van Economische Zaken, 1986, p. 4).

This provides practical acknowledgement of what this document notes, that

"tourism policy has many interfaces with other forms of

policy, such as employment policy, planning and environmental policy, cultural policy, transport policy etc."(Ministerie van Economische Zaken, 1986, p. 5).

In addition, O'Hagan points to features of Dutch tourism promotional policy, represented by the NBT (Nederlands Bureau voor Toerisme), which focus on economic objectives, including

- "- increasing the number of domestic vacations
 - stabilising the average length of stay of domestic vacations
 - stimulating tourism with a high level of spending
 - increasing the number of foreign tourist arrivals
 - extending the foreign tourists average length of stay"
- (O'Hagan, 1986, p. 109).

The development of Swiss tourism policy constitutes one of the most reflective and wide-ranging processes within European tourism. In the early 1970s, Swiss tourism faced a number of difficulties, relating to product, markets and the international economic environment. Reassessment of tourism priorities led to a report by the Federal Consultative Commission on Tourism (1979). As Gilg (1991) points out, the Commission noted a number of problems within the industry.

"The Commission pointed to the issues of seasonality, the high rate of spare capacity, the role of foreign workers, and structural problems within the industry.....The report also pointed out the poor social image of tourist work for the Swiss, and that skiing was degrading some

mountain pastures, while there were many conflicts between agriculture and tourism." (Gilg, 1991, p. 138)

This analysis leads to principles and objectives for tourism which argue that tourism is vital to a healthy and sane society. Within this overall statement of principle, a wide range of social, economic and environmental objectives are identified (Gilg, 1991). The breath of tourism policy considerations, in Switzerland, were re-inforced by what is styled the Krippendorf Report (1987) which considers both the benefits and problems associated with tourism in the country. Krippendorf concludes by advocating an emphasis on quality rather than quantity in tourism (Gilg, 1991).

In many respects, Austrian tourism has some similar characteristics to that in Switzerland but, as Zimmermann (1991) demonstrates, the human resource issues which feature as Swiss concerns, are not so evident in the Austrian context. Tourism policy is, largely, decentralised to the Lander and the main objectives are

1. to encourage patriotism and regional identity;
2. to make people more aware of environmental problems;
3. to ensure that tourism gives guests positive emotional feelings;
4. to take advantage of old and new segments of the tourist market;
5. to intensify promotional activities; and
6. to improve marketing" (Zimmermann, 1991, p. 158).

Cyprus, in the form of the Greek sector, lies towards the periphery of Europe but is assuming an increasing importance in Mediterranean

tourism. National policy objectives have, traditionally, been driven by economic considerations, identified by Andronicou (1979) as

- * foreign exchange earnings;
- * contribution to national income;
- * employment-generating capacity; and
- * regional development.

However, the Cypriot industry has evolved in such a way that far clearer and more refined objectives have subsequently emerged which, while they do not subsume the economic priorities, certainly focus them on a conception of tourism in Cyprus which combines specific markets and matching quality products. Implicit in these changes are consequences for human resources, especially in terms of education and training for quality and service but these are not explicit in their statement. Witt (1991) identifies the future objectives of the Cyprus government, with respect to tourism, as the following:

- "* a greater emphasis on the preservation and improvement of the environment;
- * a greater emphasis on those source markets from which middle and upper income tourists are attracted;
- * a reduction in the rate of increase of new tourist accommodation together with greater emphasis on high grade accommodation;
- * a reduction of the seasonality problem through lengthening the tourist season by developing various

specialised forms of tourism such as conference tourism, special interest tourism and out-of-season long-stay holidays for senior citizens;

* an improvement in the ancillary facilities necessary to provide recreation opportunities for active holidays" (Witt, 1991, p. 45).

O'Hagan's (1986) report also points to a number of common policy features in many European countries, especially a desire to spread the economic, social and environmental impact of tourism on a wider geographical basis (especially in Portugal); to tackle seasonality by increasing the length of the tourism season (most countries in the European Community); and the role of social tourism (especially in Belgium, France and Luxembourg). Clearly, with the possible exception of Ireland, the Netherlands and the United Kingdom, the human resource dimension does not feature strongly in the tourism policies of European Community member states. This assessment is supported by a summary by Airey (1983) who identifies employment as a relatively small part of a much wider policy environment.

"The nature of involvement (in tourism) in this context varies widely, ranging from government legislation, directives and guidance, fiscal and monetary measures to the creation of special bodies. The concern of this involvement also covers a very broad area. The more obvious are likely to include a concern for foreign exchange earnings, employment, regional development, environmental protection, consumer protection. Less

obvious might be a concern for small businesses, of which there are a high percentage in tourism, or a concern for energy consumption or for international and technical co-operation. Across a number of countries the scope for variation in the nature and concerns of government involvement in tourism is clearly vast" (Airey, 1983, p. 238).

Collectively, the European Community is gradually moving towards a policy for tourism. In 1986, O'Hagan attributed a relatively limited role to the Community, primarily focusing on the provision of a forum through which member states may discuss policies in the areas of promotion, seasonality, rural tourism, cultural tourism and social tourism. It is interesting that economic (including employment) and environmental concerns are not included. In this way, the Community takes on a "clearing house" role (O'Hagan, 1986). A further function is in relation to data deficiencies, where O'Hagan notes a lack of adequate and reliable information about the industry.

The way in which tourism policy evolves at the behest of a diversity of other policy areas is well illustrated in Lickorish's (1989) discussion of the implications of the internal market for tourism. These areas cover fiscal policy; financial regulation; transport; and health, safety and consumer protection. It is interesting that Lickorish does not address labour market and employment issues in the context of the internal market.

Akehurst (1990) points out that the Community has been very slow to

develop a tourism policy, noting a certain reluctance to become involved in this area as a result of diversity within the industry. This reticence is supported by Akerhielm, Dev and Noden (1990) who note that "tourism seems to be an area where EC activities are not well developed" (p. 104). Likewise, despite its economic significance, Pearce (1988) notes that "tourism has so far played only a minor role in the official development programme of the European Community" (p.13), although it is arguable that the re-orientation of the structural funds after 1988 has altered this situation.

Akehurst points to the emergence of the bones of a EC tourism policy on the basis of a series of resolutions and measures that affect tourism, in other words, an ad hoc process towards the formulation of a cohesive policy. These resolutions and measures cover areas such as seasonal and geographic distribution of tourism; standardised information on hotels; procedures for consultation and coordination of tourism; harmonisation of legislation on package travel; easing of border restrictions; and fire safety in hotels (Akehurst, 1990). Clearly, these are disparate in their nature and cannot, even collectively, be considered as a cohesive policy for tourism. Indeed, it is arguable that the main effects on tourism in Europe were derived from non-tourism specific initiatives in terms of areas such as the single internal market, the Social Charter, competition policy and civil aviation.

The launch of plans for the European Year of Tourism for 1990, saw

objectives of the year expressed as

- " 1. to stress the integrating role of tourism in working towards a single internal market facilitating a greater knowledge of European lifestyles and cultures among citizens of Member States especially young people;
2. to emphasise the economic and social importance of tourism" (Akehurst, 1990, p. 379).

The focus of policy appears to be on promotion, information and service quality but in a relatively non-interventionist manner. Alan Mayhew (1990), writing from a Commission perspective, argued that

"The role of Community tourism policy is not to regulate the industry, although this may be necessary when no other way is open to it. The principles of community enterprise policy, which apply equally well to the tourism sector, aim to achieve administrative simplification and the removal of burdens on business, rather than the regulation of the sector" (Mayhew, 1990, p. 4).

Subsequent discussion, within the Tourism Council of the Community, led Akehurst (1990) to identify eight areas of EC tourism policy.

- "1. The role of the Community is not to regulate industry unless necessary but to achieve administrative simplification;
2. Member states working together to devise long term strategies;

3. to do only those things best done at a Community level;

4. the objectives of the Community tourism policy are to benefit the individual tourist and tourism enterprise - for the individual this means higher quality tourist services; helping specific groups such as the disabled, young and elderly; broadening the range of people taking holidays.

For the enterprise this means the development of new products (especially rural and cultural); promotion to third markets (especially Japan) and the provision of information on tourism to aid business decision making;

5. investment in human capital and improvement of tourism industry working conditions; improve professional training for tourism employees including languages; expand exchange programmes; data collection on training and education programmes available; networking of existing training organisations;

6. investment in infrastructure; European Investment Bank financing of transport, water supply and quality improvement of coastal waters; greater concentration of European Regional Development Fund resources to least favoured regions of the community (often areas of great tourism potential);

7. a better seasonal and geographic spread of tourism;

8. a statistical action plan" (Akehurst, 1990, p. 380).

What is interesting is the absence of a marketing role for Europe within Community policy, representing, perhaps, one of the main weaknesses with respect to collective responsibilities for the development of the industry in that the actual objectives of the initiative, increasing the numbers and quality of visitors to Europe, cannot be promoted directly through Community support. Pearce (1988) identifies a number of objectives of Community action in the field of tourism, although these, in themselves, are not presented as a coherent policy. They are similar to those identified by Fitzpatrick (1989). The objectives, as stated by Pearce, are

- * facilitating tourism within the community;
 - * improving the seasonal and geographical distribution of tourism;
 - * Making better use of community financial instruments;
 - * providing better information and protection for tourists;
 - * improving working conditions in the tourist industry;
- and
- * increasing awareness of the problems of tourism and organising consultation and co-operation" (Pearce, 1988, pp. 13-4).

The position of human resource concerns is noteworthy in what both Akehurst and Pearce write, perhaps reflecting neglect at national tourism policy levels. Subsequently, the Community has moved towards a Community Action Plan to Assist Tourism (1991) which, at

this point, remains in draft form. This plan provides for policy and action in a number of areas, headed as cultural tourism; tourism and environment; rural tourism; social tourism and youth tourism; vocational training; promotion in third countries; staggering of holidays; improving knowledge of the sector; and the encouragement of transnational actions. The human resource area, restricted to training, proposes the following:

- "- identification of professional profiles of the sector;
- encouragement of the participation of tourism businesses in existing Community action programmes for training;
- support for the co-operation between Universities and tourism schools and tourism professionals;
- pilot actions for specific training in this sector: rural, social, cultural, environment" (Commission of the European Communities, 1991, unnumbered).

The Community Action Plan does not really constitute a comprehensive policy document; rather, it is a series of measures, designed to enhance the tourism industry within the Community. Akerhielm, Dev and Noden (1990) argue the benefits of developing and communicating a comprehensive policy for tourism, identifying that this would help in the achievement of a number of goals, vis

"* A structured approach would create credibility for corporate planners in a turbulent industry. Right now there is no coherent vision of what tourism in Europe will look like after 1992.

* By implementing community-wide standards, European planners will take the lead in setting international standards. Not only will such standards ease cross-border movement and improve the efficiency of resource use, but EC countries will have a head-start on operating within these standards.

* Foreign firms with subsidiaries in the EC will benefit from a more stable environment, and those that are waiting to see what happens will be encouraged to enter the market. By waiting, these firms may miss the ground floor of the largest market available.

* Finally, the members of the Community would profit from unified action by economies of scale in promotion" (Akerhielm, Dev and Noden, 1990, p. 111).

It is arguable that the Action Plan does not provide sufficient weight, in policy terms, to achieve these benefits.

Clearly, European tourism cannot be considered exclusively in terms of developed countries to the west. The main difficulty in considering tourism policies in the countries of Eastern Europe is the state of change and flux in these countries, which mean that definable policies, within the "new order" have not really emerged. Hall (1991) points to this problem in that the former socialist states have started the move from the muting effects of "internal security questions, inert bureaucracies, inflexible economic response mechanisms and inappropriate infrastructures" (p. 3) but how these moves will conclude is impossible to say at this stage.

It is reasonable, however, to assume that tourism will loom large in the policies of economic reconstruction in most of the countries in question. Hall (1991) points to six areas through which tourism can contribute to the transformation of former socialist societies, vis

"1. A means of gaining hard currency and improving balance of payments/ indebtedness problems, through admitting much larger numbers of Western tourists.

2. A catalyst of social change, by permitting greater and closer interaction between host populations and those from the outside world, particularly as constraints on tourist accommodation and itineraries are eased.

3. A symbol of new found freedoms by permitting the region's citizens to travel freely both within and outside of their own countries, albeit initially constrained by financial considerations.

4. A means of improving local infrastructures by upgrading tourist facilities, with or without foreign assistance.

5. An integral part of economic restructuring, with the freeing of service industries through privatisation, exposure to national and international market forces, Western transnational corporations' expansion within the region's tourism industry, and through the elimination of centralisation, subsidy and bureaucratisation.

6. A complement to commercial development through a

growth of business and conference tourism, reflecting the region's entry/ return into the (essentially capitalist) world economic system" (Hall, 1991, pp. 11-12).

These issues are addressed, in a practical manner, in relation to the requirements of the former East Germany, by Godau (1991). He raises, as paramount, the need to enhance the quality of both product and service and argues that one of the main requirements is for an enhancement of human resource development and the improvement in the quality of the transfer of knowledge in order to achieve this.

5. Tourism policy in other countries

Europe presents a very useful illustration of both the diversity and the similarities in national tourism policies as well as focusing on how collective policy arrangements can be considered in the context of the European Community. It is worthwhile, however, extending consideration beyond Europe, to consider policies in a number of other developed countries and also in the developing world.

In a number of countries, national tourism policies are affected by the political structure of the country in question. This is particularly true with respect to countries with a federal structure and, in Europe, Germany and Switzerland represent good examples. Further afield, Australia is a very good example of the tensions between federal and state in tourism policy at work. At a federal level, Australia has one of the most detailed and

comprehensive tourism policies published in developed tourism economies. A report by the Federal Department of the Arts, Sport, the Environment, Tourism and Territories (ASETT) (1988) identifies four broad Commonwealth goals for tourism, stated as

"* Economic - to improve the competitiveness of the industry and minimise constraints on growth, so as to stimulate increased national income, employment growth and improved balance of payments.

* Social - to encourage a range of opportunities for increased tourism participation and the appropriate operation of tourism activity in the public interest.

* Environmental - to develop the tourism potential of our natural resources and cultural heritage, consistent with their long-term conservation, through sensitive, balanced and responsible management.

* Support - to ensure that the necessary planning, co-ordination, research and statistical support for policy formulation is provided in accordance with the previous goals" (ASETT, 1988, p. 3).

These broad goals are complemented by a very detailed presentation of policy objectives, under seven key headings,

1. The economic environment
2. Infrastructure
3. Transport
4. Facilitation
5. Standards

6. Environment, Heritage and the Arts

7. Industry support and Policy co-ordination.

Human resources get reasonable coverage within these objectives, primarily in the context of standards. Other references may be noted in the context of ensuring prompt, efficient and courteous tourism facilitation services.

The federal structure of Australia is reflected in this document in that the area of marketing and promotion is skirted if not ignored. This reflects the sensitive and, sometimes, conflicting relationship between the federal tourism authority and those of the states.

In the context of human resources in this statement of these policy objectives, the accompanying report puts the requirements of this area into context.

"High standards of service are crucial to sustaining long-term tourism growth. Australia's success as a tourist destination is determined not only by price competitiveness or the range of attractions available, but also by the quality of goods and services provided. Repeat visits, a vital factor in maintaining growth, will be deterred if standards of service do not meet expectations.

Central to the attainment and maintenance of high standards of service is the provision of appropriate tourism training, the creation of long-term career opportunities, the promotion of ideals of excellence and

quality management and the protection of consumer interests" (ASETT, 1988, p. 37).

It is interesting, given demographic trends in Australia and difficulties faced in staff recruitment in some tourism sectors, that these issues are not really addressed in the main policy document.

The situation in the United States is similar to that in Australia in the federal structure of the country and this has impacted on the development of national tourism policy. Richter (1985) notes that "After World War 2, the Eisenhower administration specifically considered and rejected the proposal that the federal government become involved in tourism promotion" (p. 165). Edgell (1990) also discusses the relatively short history of federal interest in international tourism.

"From a policy perspective, the United States did not really understand the intricacies of what was happening in the international tourism arena and the potential positive impact for the U.S. tourism industry. In fact, the United States had been encouraging its citizens to travel to Europe as part of its effort to help stimulate the economies of Europe in the reconstruction period. But by about the mid 1950s the United States began to take notice of the large deficit in tourist trade" (Edgell, 1990, p. 9).

Richter also notes the tourism deficit problem which, by 1960, accounted for nearly 30% of the total US balance of payments. The

Kennedy administration established the US Travel Service as a result of the International Travel Act, which Richter sees as "the turning point in US national policy" (p. 166). The objectives of the Act included the intent "to strengthen the domestic and foreign commerce of the United States and provide friendly understanding and appreciation of the United States by encouraging foreign residents to visit the United States and by facilitating foreign travel generally" (Government of the United States, 1961, p. 158). However, the impact of this measure was limited and a evaluation of US tourism policy, under the Tourism Resource Review Commission, in 1973, resulted in a large number of recommendations, from which Richter (1985) identifies two central conclusions.

* The government tourism efforts were in confusion and disarray. Over 100 programmes were found in more than 50 agencies that directly concerned some aspect of tourism. Coordination and further study were essential.

* The study recommended (as subsequent studies would also) that a national tourism organisation be established to execute a national policy on tourism" (Richter, 1985, p. 166).

However, this latter recommendation took some time to implement, as a result of the National Tourism Policy Study (1978). This study recommended a number of key actions as essential to the development of American tourism, although the weight and significance of the measures does vary considerably. With the exception of the preamble, the absence of a human resource dimension is noteworthy.

The very extensive series of recommendations in the Policy study, in turn, led eventually to the passing of the National Tourism Policy Act in 1981 amid optimism that it would "signal a new national effort at co-ordination of existing national programmes and a serious look at international promotion" (Richter, 1985, p. 167). The Act did establish the United States Travel and Tourism Administration (USTTA) but the actual policy provisions in the Act are, arguably, statements of good intent and of little concrete value in guiding resourcing or implementation. They draw much from the Policy Study but, in some respects, dilute aspects and leave others to fairly ambiguous interpretation. The subsequent duties are amendments of detail within the 1961 Act and do not really develop the policy area in any significant manner. Twelve policy objectives are identified in the Act, combining political (national and international), economic, social and cultural objectives. Considerable weighting is given to the enhancement of the image of the United States abroad but the human resource implications are confined to a full employment objective (Government of the United States, 1981).

Airey (1984) sees the significance of the Act as "an important attempt to provide both the coordination and the administrative structure for tourism in the USA" (p. 269). However, despite the intent of the Act, Richter (1985) argues that its implementation did not match the rhetoric at the time of its passing and the actions of the Reagan Administration "seem to belie any serious interest in a national tourism policy" (p. 168). She expresses

particular concern in relation to

"The perceived unimportance of the USTTA and of national tourism policy in general, in the face of the actual significance of the industry in the American economy" (Richter, 1985, p. 168).

Writing some six years later, Richter (1991) remains in favour of the policy model but recognises its deficiencies. She argues that

" Legislation like the U.S. National Tourism Policy Act create mechanisms (as yet inadequately utilised) for gathering representative input and co-ordinating relevant policy initiatives" (Richter, 1991, p. 192).

Canadian national tourism policy is presented in a complex document, which reflects the diversity of the country and its federal structure (Minister of Supply and Services Canada, 1990). The policy document has a strong environmental protection focus but recognises the human resource element when it states that "in a time of fundamental shifts in labour requirements and structural unemployment the tourism industry acknowledges the need for increased investment in human resource development" (Minister of Supply and Services Canada, 1990, p. 30). However, implementation in response to this concern is not addressed, despite the fact that the balance of the overall document is devoted to strategic and implementational concerns.

The situation in Australia, Canada and the United States is somewhat confused by the federal nature of these countries as the national policies do mask the importance of state policy and

initiatives in tourism. Hawaii, for example, with its very large dependence on tourism, has a tourism policy of a wide-ranging and sophisticated nature.

Thus far, consideration has focused on tourism policy within developed economies, in Europe and countries of the English speaking world. It is useful, at this point, to expand the discussion somewhat, and include reference to tourism policies in developing countries. The main problem, in this respect, is the very limited range of published material and this, undoubtedly, was a barrier in preparing this part of the review. A further difficulty, in assessing the tourism policies of less developed countries, is that, in many cases, such policies have not really been articulated. Cleverdon (1979) noted that the key problem with tourism in less developed countries was the lack of a clear tourism policy. This problem, in turn, leads to subsidiary difficulties relating to the absence of systematic planning of development and marketing.

Jenkins (1980) considers some of the key distinctions between tourism development in developed and developing countries.

"In the developed world, tourism has attained its present importance largely as a consequence of private sector enterprise and initiative. In many countries this initiative has been, and is being, supported by a wide range of government assistance. The emergence of national and international companies mainly engaged in the leisure and tourism field has been a parallel development.

However, in most developing countries the private sector is small, private investment funds are limited, and experience of tourism is negligible. Governments often have to adopt the role of entrepreneur, sometimes in response to proposed private foreign investment" (Jenkins, 1980, p. 27).

This, then, points to some likely fundamental differences in the respective priorities, within the national tourism policies, of developed and developing countries. Jenkins continues by arguing that

"The governments of developed and developing countries share many areas of responsibility. But in the developing countries the problem of resource scarcity and consequently allocation is acute. Strong government control is necessary to prevent exploitation and obvious waste, and to ensure that the benefits from tourism are optimised. Tourism in developed countries can be regarded as a mainly social activity with economic consequences; in developing countries it is largely an economic activity with social consequences" (Jenkins, 1980, p. 27).

This final assertion, perhaps, reflects a pre-1980s judgement. In terms of its relevance to the more underdeveloped countries of the third world, it remains indisputable and countries such as Thailand provide good examples of this argument in practice. Changes in this situation may be seen, in policy terms, in discussion about

Malaysia which follows. However, the analysis with respect to developed countries may no longer hold true in such clear terms, as policy direction in the Republic of Ireland over the past decade illustrates. Economic priorities and specified economic targets have come very much to the fore in many developed countries in an overt way not previously so evident.

Jenkins (1991) points to the interconnections between wider economic benefits of tourism, in developing countries, and the contribution that the labour market can make to reducing the overall costs, especially in foreign exchange terms. He argues that

"One of the factors which can increase the labour intensity of tourism, particularly in developing countries, is the ability to develop tourism in such a way as to take advantage of resource-substitution possibilities. In these countries where labour is not scarce and is therefore usually cheap, labour is substituted for capital" (Jenkins, 1991, p. 85).

Malaysia represents a country where national policy for tourism focuses, very clearly, on economic benefits and in this it is treated in a similar way to any other export earning industrial sector. Malaysia constitutes the basis for a detailed case study elsewhere in this thesis (Chapter 8 and appendix E). In the Fifth Malaysia Plan, 1986 - 1990 (Government of Malaysia, 1986) tourism policy objectives are clearly articulated.

"The tourism industry will be further promoted in order to exploit its growth and job-generating potentials.

Being dependent on a variety of services, the industry exerts a considerably high multiplier effect on the economy not only in terms of income but also employment The industry also helps to create a better understanding of the various cultures and lifestyles of the population, and thereby becoming an effective agent for national integration and unity.

The industry will also be entrusted to play an important role in reducing the deficits in the service account of the balance of payments. This objective will be met by way of promoting further foreign tourist inflow into the country to increase foreign exchange earnings. In addition, local residents will be encouraged to travel internally rather than overseas in order to reduce foreign exchange outflow.

In order to meet the policy objectives, a total commitment will be needed not only from the public sector, but also the private sector and the general public. The efforts of all related Government agencies and the private sector will be properly co-ordinated. In the process of promoting the tourism industry, the religious, moral, and cultural values of the country as well as the environment will be fully respected, protected, and utilised as assets for the development of the industry" (Government of Malaysia, 1986, p. 403).

It is interesting to note the absence of all but a brief reference

to the human resource area in this policy statement. Furthermore, the Plan's consideration of the Malaysian manpower environment, while considering the needs of the manufacturing and agricultural sectors, makes no reference to the specific needs of tourism. The period of the Fifth Malaysia Plan saw sustained growth in all sectors of the Malaysian economy, not least in tourism, and the result was an environment where priorities for tourism required re-definition. The policy objectives proposed for the Sixth Malaysia Plan are somewhat broader in conception, in that they, perhaps, give greater focus to non-economic areas. This, perhaps, represents evidence of a shift from developing towards developed status, in terms of Jenkins' distinction, discussed earlier. Reference to human resource concerns is, again, tangential, although the preparatory research for the Plan did give due recognition to this area. The preparatory report for the Plan identified a number of key policy objectives for Malaysian tourism, which were further translated into policy guidelines.

- "* Generate foreign exchange;
- * Encourage even economic and social development throughout the country;
- * Promote rural enterprises;
- * Generate employment;
- * Accelerate urban/ rural integration and cultural exchange;
- * Develop national unity;
- * Create an improved image of Malaysia internationally;

* Foster national unity" (Peat Marwick, 1991, p. 14).

The Malaysian example represents a shift from purely economic to a broader-based policy for tourism. According to Choy (1991), a similar broad-based policy is evident in the Philippines, where four wide-ranging goals are identified for Filipino tourism in the National Tourism Development Plan (1987-88). These are

"* Economic goal - maximise the economic benefits to be derived from the development of existing and potential Philippine tourism assets to benefit a wider base of the Filipino population.

* Sociocultural goal - ensure a level of tourism development that is for and by Filipinos to improve their quality of life, conserve and promote their heritage, and thereby heighten their national identity and unity.

* Physical-environmental goal - achieve a level of tourism development that will ensure protection of the natural environment and preservation of the country's ecological balance.

* Government goal - to provide a strong government organisation that will effectively and efficiently direct, implement and coordinate the functions and resources required to institutionalise the priority position of the tourism industry within the country's political framework" (Choy, 1991, p. 32).

The human resource dimension is, again, implicit in these goals but does not receive specific recognition.

At a regional level, within developing countries, there is relatively little by way of published material on tourism policies and priorities. Lagos State, in Nigeria, represents one example where consideration has been given to this area. Falade (1990) addresses the policies and objectives of tourism in the State, having first noted that "generally speaking, there is low priority accorded tourism planning in Nigeria". He then goes on to identify three "cardinal aims" that underlie Lagos State tourism policy.

- * to preserve and utilise the land areas set aside for tourism development in the regional plan and to acquire additional land or centres of tourism value;

- * to create a conducive atmosphere for all investors in tourism with a view to establishing a sound economic base for Lagos State, thereby enriching the physical development of the state as well as developing facilities for vacation and recreation for the generality of the population; and

- * to promote cultural values in tourism and to protect the environment" (Falade, 1990, p. 259).

These goals are supplemented by detailed objectives and specific policies for Lagos State tourism. These cover a range of both developmental and promotional areas but make no reference to human resource-related commitments.

Comparative literature on national tourism policies is not readily available. The only major study, covering a very wide range of tourism destinations, is now very dated and relates to the self-

reported aims, activities and fields of competence of ninety-five national tourism organisations (NTOs), published in 1975 (World Tourism Organisation, 1975). While marginally up-dated by the WTO's 1979 study on the role and structure of NTOs, this report remains the most comprehensive of its kind. Interestingly, the study does not look to identify the role that NTOs have in relation to policy formulation but, instead, categorises NTO activity in terms of

- official organisation of tourism at the national and international level;
- research, studies, surveys and statistics;
- tourism promotion abroad;
- tourism planning and development;
- regulation and supervision of tourist enterprises;
- tourist reception and information;
- tourism vocational training;
- preservation, protection and utilisation of historical, cultural and handicraft resources; and
- ecology and the environment (WTO, 1975).

What is interesting is the diversity in the involvement of NTOs in tourism. The patterns of this involvement, especially in relation to the human resource/ vocational training field and how they relate to the empirical findings in this study will be discussed elsewhere.

6. Tourism policies at the international level

Tourism policies at the level of the European Community, itself a

reflection of transnationalism in this policy area, have already been discussed. The current absence of a really coherent tourism policy for the EC was noted. Other initiatives in different regions of the world have not achieved as much as the EC. The ASEAN countries, for example, have engaged in limited co-operation in the area of joint marketing and some similar initiatives have taken place in the Caribbean. At a two country level, co-operation between Mexico and the United States in tourism, dating from the late 1970s, is an example of harmonised tourism policies. This arrangement was, in 1983 and 1989, enshrined in formal bilateral agreements as part of general trade development between the two countries (Edgell, 1991). Similar agreements are in force with respect to the United States and Venezuela, 1989 (Edgell, 1991) and Canada and the United States, 1989 (Edgell, 1991).

At a truly transnational level, there are a number of declarations, signed by a large number of countries, relating to the development of international tourism guidelines. These include the Manila Declaration (1980), The Tourism Bill of Rights and Tourist Code (1985) and the Hague Declaration on Tourism (1989). These are too extensive for reproduction here but, as Edgell (1991) notes, have the potential to impact significantly on national tourism policies, if fully adopted and implemented. However, in themselves, they can have little specific impact unless adopted by the governments of individual countries.

This review of the tourism policy literature cannot be exhaustive but certainly gives a reasonable flavour of both policy development

over a considerable period of time (in the case of the United Kingdom and, to a lesser degree, Ireland and the United States) and the current situation in both developed and developing countries. A number of pertinent issues can be extracted from this literature review. Firstly, the review points to the limited extent to which national tourism policies really play a significant role in the development of the industry in most countries. The policies represent, to a large extent, statements of good intent but have relatively little to contribute to the direction of the industry's development.

Perhaps one of the main reasons for this situation is the fragmented management of tourism and its related activities in most countries. Co-ordination and management of various aspects of the development and delivery of tourism services, in many countries, lies with a diversity of public sector bodies responsible for such areas as transportation, immigration, the environment, public services, education and training, to name but a few as well as the formally designated tourism ministry or NTO. In addition, private sector involvement is dispersed and reflects the fragmented nature of the industry in most locations. Thus policy formulation, frequently, is the practical responsibility of the NTO, more concerned with the implementation issues than with the development of policies which impact on agencies and businesses over which they have no direct control. There is also an apparent misunderstanding of what tourism policy really entails and much reference actually concerns itself with practical tasks and targets. The WTO's Tourism

Development Report (1988) illustrates this point clearly in that a significant number of national contributions to what was intended to be a policy-orientated study, respond in limited and specific manner, concentrating on how the areas in question are approached in the country.

The Tourism Development Report (WTO, 1988) is innovative in that it does give some focus to areas of increasing importance within tourism policy formulation, such as youth, third age and health tourism. The study of the policy-related literature shows growing awareness of the need to focus on issues of sustainability as well as economic return from tourism. The entrance of these issues into the policy domain has, in no small way, been influenced by the work of authors such as Krippendorf, who argues for the inclusion of environmental and sociocultural considerations within tourism policy determination (Krippendorf, 1982). These issues are also reflected in the work of bodies such as the World Tourism Organisation which provide focus for the diverse concerns which affect tourism in the area of policy and include environmental issues as one of their main reference areas (WTO, 1982, for example).

A further concern, which this review brings to light, is the impact that various geographical and political considerations have on the development of tourism policies. The impact of federalism, within the political structures of countries, was considered in the case of Australia, Canada and the United States and, to a lesser degree, in Nigeria. In this context, national tourism policies need to be

considered in relation to what are, frequently, substantive local or state policies and the powers held by states to implement these policies. The lack of federalism in the United Kingdom, however, does not diminish the respective policy functions and roles of the English, Northern Irish, Scottish and Welsh tourist boards but it did allow central government to define, closely, their relationship with the BTA. Other political influences on national tourism policies also manifest themselves in various ways, especially in developing countries and this is effectively illustrated by Richter (1989).

Tourism policy formulation, hardly surprisingly, is influenced, to a significant degree, by the nature of the tourism industry in the country and, above all, by its significance within the economy. Where dependency levels are high, policy appears to be rather more clearly developed and articulated, as the examples of the Republic of Ireland and the United Kingdom show by comparison with some other northern European countries. Size of the country is also a factor in influencing the nature of a country's policies with respect to tourism, especially where tourism is, perhaps, the only significant export industry, as in the case of many Caribbean and Pacific islands.

Finally, and most pertinently in the context of this thesis, the extent to which human resource issues receive significant coverage within national tourism policies is clearly limited. Some of the sources make limited reference to this dimension but it does not receive major attention and is rarely developed beyond the

preamble. This may, in part, reflect the fragmentation concern considered above and subsequently in this thesis, in that human resource matters (primarily education and training), generally are managed by government departments removed and beyond the normal scope of interaction of the tourism ministry. It also reflects the marginalisation of human resource concerns within tourism in general, an area which is acknowledged as being of importance but does not figure within mainstream policy or development discussion in tourism, internationally.

This part of the literature review has, undoubtedly, suffered through a lack of breadth in that the published material is only readily available from a limited range of countries. Representation from developing countries is, clearly, limited as is material from locations where political and economic structures are undergoing rapid change. Likewise published sources dealing with sub-national policy issues, at local or regional level, are poorly represented. Most pertinent, however, is the clear picture, culled from the review, that the main theme of this thesis has not been substantively addressed in the literature on tourism policy development, to date.

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Chapter 3

A literature review:

LABOUR MARKET AND HUMAN RESOURCE FACTORS IN TOURISM POLICY

This section considers the wide-ranging literature relating to the labour market and human resources within international tourism and assesses the contribution of this literature to the policy area. The literature is diverse and somewhat fragmented, considering a wide-range of aspects of this topic, from what might be styled the micro concerns of personnel and training issues at the company level right through to the macro perspective, which considers the tourism labour market within the context of a country's or region's overall employment structure or total economy. The focus of the literature is on micro concerns, looking at human resource issues from the perspective of particular aspects or components of, for example, employment, education or training. The contribution to the policy domain, as can be seen, is clearly limited and such associations can be made more by inference than through direct reference.

As a consequence, this chapter covers a broad and somewhat heterogeneous spectrum of issues and approaches to the labour market and human resource environment within tourism. The literature, however, is not truly representative of the multi-sectorial nature of tourism and much of what has been written, in the human resource field, pertains to the hotel, catering or

somewhat broader hospitality fields. This is an important limitation in reading the section. A further important limitation is that it has not been possible to incorporate the literature covering areas that, while not directly concerned with tourism, may well impact directly upon the human resource field in tourism. This pertains, in particular, to the wider employment, labour, education and training environment, within which tourism is just one example. Tourism is, undoubtedly, affected by general developments and legislation in areas such as general demographic trends; employment law; trade union regulation; vocational education and training policies; and labour mobility within the European Community or North America. It would not be realistic to incorporate these and other similarly wide fields into a review of this nature and their inclusion is restricted to material that considers these areas in the context of tourism. Finally, it should be noted that the writer has contributed to literature in this field, through a number of book chapters, papers and conference presentations. These are not discussed in this review but a full listing is included as Appendix A.

1. Social and sociological perspectives

The literature which addresses human resource issues in the tourism/ hospitality industry from what might be described as broadly sociological perspectives is diverse and varied in its methodological rigour. In considering this field, Wood (1992) classifies this literature into five categories:

1. Sociological studies of work and employment in hotels and catering, the majority of which are concerned with workplace relations;
2. Quasi-sociological research addressed to one or other of the hospitality industry's labour problems such as labour turnover or flexible working strategies;
3. Combinations of sociological, economic and social policy studies, considering hotel and catering labour markets;
4. Mainly official and government reports on the condition of labour in the industry and related problems; and
5. Similar themes addressed by pressure groups.

These areas will all be addressed in this chapter and examples of literature from the main categories considered, although not specifically in the context of this section.

Perhaps the first publication to consider working lives and conditions in the tourism and hospitality industry was George Orwell's Down and out in Paris and London, published in 1933, as the author's first book (Orwell, 1986). Orwell's approach is to describe his own experiences of work and homelessness in two major capital cities, including employment within Paris hotels, with the objective of exposing the social deprivation experienced by a specific segment of society. Orwell's picture is one of pessimism and his perspective is one from the bottom, as a plongeur in the hotel kitchen. In many respects, Orwell's tone is echoed

in more recent studies of the industry, which focus on the negative aspects of employment in a comparative social context (Dronfield and Soto, 1982; Byrne, 1986). Equally precise and from the same period as Orwell are the accounts written between 1937 and 1942, in some five books, by Ludwig Bemelmans. By contrast to Orwell, Bemelmans is the supreme optimist and describes hotel work from the point of view of someone climbing to a senior position in a luxury New York Hotel (for example, Bemelmans, 1942).

Further discussion of employment, within tourism, in a social or sociological context, is not particularly extensive. Good examples focus on specific sectors and describe the working environment that operates in these areas of employment. Gabriel's focus is catering, primarily outside of the hotel domain. His concern "was to express the feelings and views of these people (catering workers) in their own words and to document their relations with each other" (Gabriel, 1988, p.vii). Thus, what emerges is a study of workplace relationships and politics which the author relates to other employment sectors as a model for the study of working class existence.

Gabriel's analysis is derived, largely, from observation. Chivers, by contrast, adopts a predominantly theoretical position in considering the situation of cooks and chefs, although his conclusions are derived from a survey of over 600 respondents from the industry (Chivers, 1973). Chivers' concern is to consider the relevance of the classical marxist concept of proletarianisation to the situation of the cook and chef in the

hotel and catering industry. His interest in this particular group comes from an analysis which suggests that there are a number of features in the job situation of cooks and chefs which should be conducive to hindering their development of class consciousness or proletarianisation. These, Chivers identifies as

- * orientation to service, the notion that the cook or chef, typically, derives satisfaction from the appreciation of the product by the customer;
- * dedication to task, resulting from perceptions of work as skilled, interesting and offering scope for expression of ability;
- * status divisions between cooks and chefs, with the latter seeing themselves as an elite in quality establishments; and
- * ready access by mobility to employer or managerial positions (Chivers, 1973, p.639).

The irony, as Chivers points out, is that, despite the significance of these factors, the objective reality is that chefs and cooks are remunerated on scales which average considerably below that of most other skilled manual employment categories. Chivers, perhaps reflecting the time that he was writing, does not distinguish between cooks and chefs except as a gender differentiation. In more recent times, the professional status of and market demand for chefs is such that many do, in fact, earn considerably more than the average for manual employees in general.

Other areas that receive coverage of an equivalent nature, within the hospitality sector, include Mars and Nicod's study of the waiter (Mars and Nicod, 1984); Saunders' consideration of the hotel head porter (Saunders, 1982); and an occupational study of room maids by Saunders and Pullen (1988). Lennon and Wood review a range of literature sources and consider the wider hospitality labour environment and the relative neglect of work within the accommodation sector in these studies (Lennon and Wood, 1989). A socio-cultural perspective, from the point of view of employment in the restaurant, is provided by Marshall (1986). These studies provide an empirical extension of the descriptive approach, pioneered by Orwell, and are important, in the context of this study, because of the light which they shed on working conditions and attitudes to employment, within the tourism and hospitality industry and the impact that this has on significant policy areas. Comparable studies in tourism, beyond the hotel and catering sector, were not identified in preparing this review.

2. Text-books in the field

Text-books are an important source in this field and the literature is well provided with such material which, by and large, considers human resource matters from a micro, company-based perspective and, generally, concentrates on the hospitality sector. In addition, the wider human resource and personnel field provides a substantial number of publications that have practical applicability to the tourism field. What is particularly

interesting about a study of texts is what they tell about changing perceptions about the role of human resources within tourism and hospitality businesses and also moves in the role and status of the personnel/ human resource function within companies in general. The key element in this is the move from a relatively narrow, functional personnel outlook to

- * one which places the human resource function on a much broader plane, relative to other areas within the company;

- * one that recognises the contribution of social and occupational psychology to the execution of human resource functions;

- * one which sees human resources as a contributor to profit rather than purely a drain on resources; and

- * one which acknowledges it as an area of operation that relates to a wider social and economic environment.

The majority of early works, in this area, concentrate on a functional approach, considering the operation of the personnel area, in hotels and restaurants, in relation to matters such as recruitment, training, rewards, industrial relations and similar areas, in other words a conventional approach to personnel management but with a hotel or restaurant slant upon it. One of the first such texts, in fact, takes a somewhat wider human relations perspective. This is Whyte's consideration of the food and beverage sector (labelled restaurant in the United States) (Whyte, 1948). This delightful book is wide-ranging and very

readable as a pioneering approach to the subject. It is, primarily, task and job oriented, considering the process whereby employees are managed while food moves from kitchen to customer. It is also innovative in considering the restaurant as a social system, referring to issues such as friendship, race and unions as well as devoting considerable space to supervision and management.

Both Magurn and Morgan widen the field of consideration from restaurant to what was then the relatively novel hospitality industry but the approach remains primarily personnel focused (Magurn, 1977; Morgan, 1977). So does Boella's work, which is probably the best known text in this country, having run through six editions since 1974. It closely follows the functional approach, even though more recent editions give some recognition to broader human resource matters such as manpower planning, the organisation of human resources, customer care and management in the international context (Boella, 1992). A variation on this approach, which considers the main functions from a problem-based perspective, is represented in the work of Mars et al (1979).

The early 1980s witnessed significant changes within the personnel field generally and shifts towards a broader understanding of human behaviour and roles within organisations. This resulted in more overt recognition of the contribution of various branches of social and occupational psychology and the influence of these changes can be seen in texts from this period onwards, representing a major shift from the previous functional

approach. Hornsey and Dann represent a staging point between the two approaches in that they consider the area in personnel terms but also look at individuals at work and a range of related themes, such as leadership, group relations as well as reference to the external labour market environment (Hornsey and Dann, 1984). Lockwood and Jones, however, place people and the role of the individual within a people business as central to their theme, which covers areas such as perception, motivation, communication, interpersonal behaviour and group relations (Lockwood and Jones, 1984). A similar approach can be found in Gale and Odgers (1984)

Tanke's (1990) approach has similarities to that of Hornsey and Dann but what is of specific interest about her book is the attempt that is made to link in the views and contributions of industry professionals into what is a wide-ranging discussion of both functional aspects of human resource management and of the wider social, legislative and employment environment in which the hospitality industry operates (Tanke, 1990). Fourteen of the sixteen chapters have a direct input from leading American industry experts. As a result, the approach is practical and upbeat in a way that is not evident in other texts. It is also somewhat removed from the real issues that face the industry on the human resource front, especially in the United States.

A similar industry emphasis, but approached from a somewhat different methodology, is that in Riley's text, geared towards both students and practising managers in the hotel and catering

industries (Riley, 1991a). An interesting dimension to this book is the inclusion of a significant economic component, looking at the labour markets in which the industries operate, which, in turn, is complemented by consideration of human resource management in the context of corporate strategy and management. In this way, as well as focusing on the practical concerns of the individual hospitality unit, Riley goes furthest towards consideration of the macro environment in which the human resource concerns of the industries exist.

Mullins (1992), in one of the most recent contributions to this area, avoids the functionalism of other authors and focuses on the application of wider human resource management concerns within the hospitality industry. As such his themes adopt some common ground with other authors and cover topics such as the nature of work in the hotel industry; working with people; organisational design and structure; the nature of managerial work; the personnel function; motivation and leadership; group behaviour and performance; organisational communication; and improving organisational performance.

Mill takes as his unifying theme the subject of productivity within the hospitality industry (Mill, 1989). By adopting this theme, the author considers a wide range of human resource functions (hiring, training/ development, job design, for example) in the context of how they can be managed in order to maximise productivity. This is one of the few texts that give more than passing consideration to the major contribution that

effective human resource management can make to profitability and business success. Productivity is a theme that is not widely discussed in the literature, although an exception, covering all sectors of the tourism industry, is the survey approach, covering initiatives in a number of countries, adopted by the International Labour Office (ILO, 1989b). The ILO's interest in this area is further represented in the writing, on productivity, of Grandone (1992).

In many respects, Martin and Lundberg's text is the least function driven and most innovative of the books reviewed (Martin and Lundberg, 1991). They take the view that effective guest relations are the key to operational success in the hospitality and tourism industries. Thus they devote a considerable part of their text to a practical discussion of guest relations and how to manage this area to best effect. However, their argument goes somewhat further in that they see the process of transactional analysis as a valuable tool in expediting effective guest relations and describe the use of TA in some detail. According to Martin and Lundberg,

"TA can be thought of as a means of developing tact, and tactful people have been sensitive to other people's feelings since time immemorial. They listen carefully and respond thoughtfully to what is said by the other person in face-to-face communications. Tactful people are aware of their own feelings at the moment of communications, or, in terms of TA, "where they

themselves are coming from." They also are aware of the other person's feelings, or "where that person is coming from" (Martin and Lundberg, 1991).

Martin and Lundberg further develop their thesis by arguing that in order to achieve what they term quality guest relations, the key lies in how employees, within the hospitality business, are managed and developed and they see TA methodologies, especially group dynamics and the use of the managerial grid, as the key to achieving success in this area. In many respects, while their methodology varies considerably, their conclusions and recommendations for action, have strong similarities to arguments in much of the service excellence literature, in which employee empowerment, especially at the front-line or point of customer contact is seen as critical to effective guest relations (Albrecht and Zemke, 1985; Mahesh, 1988a; Mansfield, 1990; Quinn, 1990; and Zeithaml et al, 1990).

Boella (1986) undertakes a descriptive review of the various texts in this field and his analysis is consistent with that in this section. This study provides, in chart form, a topic by topic comparison of the main contents of seven text-books (including three editions of his own) and thus provides a very useful means by which to identify core and peripheral content areas (Boella, 1986).

Wood (1992) criticises the general personnel texts in the hospitality field as being "written without reference to hard research data, exhibiting instead a tendency to offer prescriptive

and generalised solutions to personnel issues" (p. 6). This assessment would concur with Wood in this criticism. His own book is not so much a text as a wide-ranging critique of some of the more controversial issues that relate to the human resource environment within the hotel industry.

This review of text-book sources is dominated by the hospitality sector, specifically hotel and restaurant, within the tourism industry. There appears to be a dearth of published information that is specifically designed with other sectors of the industry in mind. Even at a relatively basic academic level, the IATA/UFTAA travel agents training programme gives only brief recognition to the fact that students and graduates of the course will be required to operate within a customer care environment and that they will need to recognise that they are part of a team at work. Thus the need for human relations skills would appear to be self-evident. In fact the Standard course includes limited coverage of a number of functional areas, including sales, customer contact and telephone techniques (IATA/ UFTAA, 1988).

3. Human resource issues at the company/ business level

In many respects, the micro level focus of the text-books, in this field, is reflected in a very substantial literature, relating to a diversity of issues that have particular force and relevance within individual businesses or companies. These topics include conditions and benefits; recruitment, retention and selection; training and development; and management and

managerial style. In some respects, this field is very extensive, especially at a non-academic, trade journal level; from an academic perspective, Riley, in talking about the hotel industry, rightly points to a paucity of literature (Riley, 1991b). As a consequence, this aspect, of the review, must, of necessity, be selective.

3.1 Conditions, rewards and benefits

The area of conditions, rewards and financial benefits, in the tourism and hospitality industry is widely and incessantly represented in the non-academic trade press of most countries. Indeed, characteristic of these pieces is the extent to which the same concerns are expressed, time and time and again, without evident solutions or progress in dealing with them. A good example of such a piece is an open letter to employers by McGrath (1990). The focus of the piece is to relate corporate manpower and personnel policies to perceived reality. A sample of the argument will suffice here.

"You have announced that your employees are your most valuable assets but do your operation and line management also believe this? I heard you tell them to control their wage costs and wage percentages. Their interpretation of this was to use the employees as commodities which could be considered of less value rather than more expensive, Only this week I was talking to two restaurant staff who told me they had worked more than 50 hours but had only been paid for 39. Their

manager, advising them that he was under pressure to control his wage costs, said he would give them time off in lieu" (McGrath, 1990, p.36).

The author covers a number of such areas and then turns to general remedies, with which most industry management personnel would agree but would be unlikely to implement. The remedies include

- * employment of more full-time staff on 39 hours per week, with a consequent reduction in part-time and casual workers;
- * abolition of split shifts;
- * two days off together per week, fixed permanently;
- * wage costs to be fixed at a proper establishment level and not varied according to business performance;
- * flexible use of full-time staff to cover peaks and troughs, with attendant training for all areas of work;
- * bonuses for managers who manage to reduce labour turnover;
- * meals on duty to be of the same standard as guest meals;
- * staff accommodation to be of the same standard as that for guests;
- * extensive induction and up-dating training programmes;
- * a proper people development plan for staff at all levels;
- * training and retraining of all senior management in

modern management methods; and

* employee involvement in agreeing their terms and benefits (McGrath, 1990, p.37).

This piece represents a particularly idiosyncratic argument, designed to provoke debate and discussion but, at the same time, pointing to some "home truths" in the industry. However it is not unique. A similar piece considers whether young people should enter the hospitality industry and concludes that

"Even taking into account the tips I may pick up if I work in the right sort of establishment, even making allowances for the free meals I can expect when I'm on duty, and for the fact that you'll possibly provide me with a place to live, the hotel and catering industry is still one of the worst- paid in Britain" (Anon, 1990, p.9).

Wages are a frequent theme in these types of reports. National surveys, in the United Kingdom, all point to the relative uncompetitiveness of the industry in salary terms (for example, Helby, 1990). Perhaps more serious is the line taken by McDermid, who points out that it is the very staff who have the highest level of customer contact (and are, thus, crucial to the success of the business) who, in fact are among the poorest paid in many tourism businesses (McDermid, 1990).

The issue of pay also features, strongly, in more academic writing. As Riley points out, writers in this area consist of two groups, those who decry wage levels (Dronfield and Soto, 1980, in

the United Kingdom; Tomada, 1983, in Japan) and those who consider the role of minimum wage legislation and debate its effects on employment. Of these studies, Alpert is an example of research which attempts to measure, empirically, the effect of minimum wages on employment and arrives at the conclusion that the effect is negative (Alpert, 1986). Other writers are somewhat more polemical (Johnson and Whatton, 1984) or fail to reach any real conclusions (Lucas, 1989). Studies, generally, assume that the low pay associated with the tourism industry is caused by excess labour, itself the result of the largely unskilled nature of work in the industry (Robinson and Wallace, 1983). This surplus often consists of members of ethnic minority groups or representatives of socially deprived groups (Morgan, 1982). A related concern is discussed by Worland and Wilson (1988) in the Australian context. That country is, possibly, unique in the role that is played by wage-fixing tribunals, which hand down awards, specifying legally binding minima on all aspects of employment, including wages, notably the penalty rates for work outside of normal hours. What is interesting is that the expected negative effect of penalty rates on employment does not, in fact, materialise. It is concluded that "a significant reduction in penalty rates will, in all likelihood, have very small employment creating effects" (Worland and Wilson, 1988, p. 375).

International comparisons of conditions, remuneration and related matters are difficult to make with any degree of accuracy. Some of the most useful comparative data come from the publications of

the International Labour Office (for example, ILO, 1980; ILO, 1989a; ILO, 1990). The purpose of some of this literature is to seek enhanced conditions and remuneration for employees in the country, through the implementation of formal arrangements in each participating country. The ILO take a relatively balanced view on the main conditions and remuneration issues that face the industry.

"It would not be appropriate to characterise the entire hotel, catering and tourism sector as subject to precarious work arrangements. Many enterprises offer excellent conditions and have been able to find ways to reconcile their need for flexibility with stable and well-protected forms of employment. There are, however, strong pressures which affect many if not most employers and workers" (ILO, 1989a, p.3).

These factors are identified as

- the preponderance of small establishments;
- fluctuations in the level of business activity;
- cost pressures induced by competition; and
- vulnerable employees, because of contractual status (part-time, youth etc) (ILO, 1989a, p.3).

In terms of remuneration, the ILO note both positive and negative developments in the industry. In relation to the former, they point to reduced weighting placed on tips or other service charges and increasing participation of employees in decision making fora. On the negative side, they point to problems,

especially in developing countries with respect to collective bargaining in the industry and comparatively low wages in relation to other industrial sectors (ILO, 1989a).

3.2 Recruitment, selection and retention

The main problem with the thesis that low pay is a function of labour availability is that, in many developed countries, this surplus of unskilled labour is not as readily available as it once was. Demographic studies in Europe, North America and some Asian countries show that the situation of plenty is rapidly moving to a labour market scenario of scarcity (Parsons, 1990). The main body of the literature, in this respect, concentrates on the interpretation of broad demographic scenarios in the context of individual businesses or organisations in the tourism industry. Forward looking companies are recognising the challenge that demographic factors present for the operating efficiency and the need to maintain and even enhance quality and service in the tourism industry. Parsons notes, however, that relatively few employers, in the United Kingdom, are actually raising the wage levels and benefits for young recruits, reasoning that, while this may have short-term benefits, in the longer term it would be costly and ineffective (Parsons, 1990). His remedies, to these problems, focus on strategies within the recruitment process and, subsequently, through how employees are treated at work. These strategies include

- * improving liaison between schools and colleges;

- * improving youth training packages;
- * adapting recruitment and working practices to alternative sources of recruits, projected to expand in the 1990s - women returners and mature workers in particular;
- * Identifying and tapping under-utilised skills potential - people with disabilities, those from ethnic minorities, and the longer term unemployed;
- * reducing replacement rates by improving retention rates for young recruits and experienced personnel; and
- * placing less emphasis on meeting new skill or knowledge needs from the external labour market by making much more of the existing workforce (Parsons, 1990, p. 65).

At the heart of Parsons' argument, however, is the need to innovate and to recognise the inevitability and potential benefits of change during the next decade. He concludes his paper by stating

"The workforce of the year 2000 is expected to look very different from that of today. The indications are that in many parts of the country the sharp fall in young people coming into the labour market in the early 1990s, will be counterbalanced by an increase in the adult workforce. Businesses will be able to profit from this only if employment policies adapt to and facilitate these changes.

As yet few employers have risen effectively to this challenge. Too many seem to be complacent about their ability to compete more successfully in the youth labour market. Fewer are building the changes into their recruitment and training systems, working practices, and benefit systems, which will bring them longer-term advantage" (Parsons, 1990, p. 69).

Like Parsons, both Davis (1990) and Lucas and Jeffries (1991) address the demographic issue from an United Kingdom perspective. Lucas and Jefferies consider the issue in relationship to how other industrial sectors are coping with, broadly, the same demographic scenario and conclude that the hospitality industry lags somewhat behind other areas. Davis' prime concern is in the strategies that management can introduce to overcome, in part, the impact of the shrinking labour market. Davis' argument is that management practices must respond to the pressures of demographic change, especially through the more efficient deployment and use of staff by the introduction of flexible working practices and the use of information technology (Davis, 1990). The key factor, in the use of technology as a productivity enhancement tool, is the extent to which comprehensive and user-friendly training programmes are put into place (Collins, 1990). Worsfold and Jameson (1991) take a somewhat wider, European view of the demographic issue, although the main basis of their material is the United Kingdom. They note that the problem is one that is of concern within most major European countries, and reach conclusions which are broadly

similar to those of Parsons. In particular, they note that

"It is generally acknowledged that industry as a whole will have to seek alternative sources of labour and must consider increasing the employment of women (who may be returning after a substantial absence), of people belonging to ethnic minorities, of older persons and of the long-term unemployed. The hospitality industry has traditionally placed great reliance on young employees, female employees and those belonging to ethnic groups. If in the future these groups are to be targeted by other industries then the hospitality industry will be particularly disadvantaged" (Worsfold and Jameson, 1991, p. 101).

On a wider international scale, the Asian Institute of Tourism (1981) consider the characteristics of the labour market within Philippine tourism while Worland and Wilson consider the labour market environment in Australia (Worland and Wilson, 1990) and agree with Worsfold and Jameson in concluding that the tourism industry is very vulnerable to wider labour market movements and pressures. Given the pattern of tourism development in Australia, which has concentrated in relatively remote, resort areas in recent years, demographic trends towards migration of skilled labour to the cities has had a particular impact on the industry (Worsfold and Jameson, 1990). Olsen et al (1991) take a worldwide view of the demographic issue and point to the situation in the west, where there is an absolute shortage of labour and the east, where the

competition for labour, especially at skilled level, is increasing. They argue that

"In terms of labour supply, we see a growing similarity between the situation of the Western and Eastern worlds. In the West, changing demographics have led to a labour shortage. In the USA, for example, on any given working day, we estimate that just over 20 percent of positions go unfilled, or are filled unsatisfactorily, due to a lack of available labour. The East has traditionally had an abundance of labour and has, as a direct result of labour supply outstripping labour demand, been able to produce the level of service for which Far Eastern hotels have become famous. We predict, however, that the 1990s will see the beginning of some intense competition for labour in several Far Eastern countries, with a resulting lowering of the service level offered by hospitality organisations in these countries" (Olsen et al, 1991, p.219).

This line of argument may be somewhat contentious in relation to the emerging tourism destinations of Asia. Certainly, the reality in countries such as China and India is that there will be growing competition for skilled labour but that there will always be plenty of unskilled labour, potentially suitable for training. However, the situation in Hong Kong and Singapore is already such as to meet the conditions for Olsen's prediction and my own studies in Malaysia (see Chapter 8) suggest that a similar situation is fast

approaching there, despite aggressive government policies to stimulate the birth rate.

Demographic considerations, whether the prime motivators of change or operating in tandem with other factors such as economic recession, have, despite Parsons' concerns to the contrary, prompted some interesting responses and these are widely reported in the literature. A number of commentators consider the notion that flexibility, within the tourism working environment, is essential as a remedy to labour shortage. Guerrier and Lockwood (1989a), for example, introduce the notion of core and peripheral employees in the hotel sector in discussing how companies can build their staffing policies around a relatively small number of key (or core) staff, undertaking a diversity of roles as circumstances demand, especially when business levels are low, and utilising part-time and casual (peripheral) staff to provide support labour as and when required. The main conclusion of their paper is that the key personnel function and the time and energy of this department must be invested in the creation of a stable and strong core workforce; without this investment, the tendency will be to drift towards reliance on peripheral groups, with significant consequences on quality of product and service. They conclude that

"The key message is that rather than relying on the vagaries of the labour market, managers need to take conscious decisions to develop the workforce they require for future successful operations" (Guerrier and

Lockwood, 1989a, p. 15).

The same authors consider a range of strategies that management can adopt in order to introduce greater flexibility into hotel working (Guerrier and Lockwood, 1989b). These strategies include

- * the need to examine the current system for demand forecasting and manpower scheduling, so as to make it readily available to managers who need to use it;

- * increasing functional flexibility, especially through the recruitment of more staff with a strong service orientation, who see themselves as hotel rather than departmental employees; and

- * put in place means to increase the commitment of peripheral staff to the organisation, through ensuring comparable training, benefits and status (Guerrier and Lockwood, 1989b, p.416).

Bagguley (1990) considers flexibility from a historical perspective, especially in the context of gender divisions, and notes its emergence as a concern during the 1960s and 1970s. He distinguishes between functional flexibility, which represents a response to technical changes and labour market shortages, and numerical flexibility in the form of part-time work which arises as a result of demand-side, supply-side and legislative factors, especially with respect to women's employment.

The theme of flexibility is one that is found in a number of other discussions of the labour market with respect to the hospitality industry. Only limited similar analysis was found with

respect to other tourism sectors. An example that is available in the literature is a description of British Airways' measures introduced to help cabin crew cope with the demands of the life-style imposed upon them. The strategies include team rostering, whereby crew are drawn from a relatively small community so that there is an enhanced chance of working with familiar colleagues, as well as preference rostering which allows crew to bid for preferred routes or days when they wish to be home-based (Foster, 1991). Job sharing is an alternative strategy, designed to create a more flexible working environment. Seal (1991), writing in the American context, notes that job sharing, in the hospitality industry, lags somewhat behind that in other industries but anticipates considerable growth. She discusses schemes planned or in place in a number of major companies and concludes that, while job sharing is primarily utilised by women, men are showing increasing interest in schemes (Seal, 1991). One aspect of enforced flexibility relates to the importance of seasonality within many tourism industries and the effects that this has on the tourism labour market. The effects of seasonality are also considered by Ball (1988). The issue of job stability and the impact of tourism employment in a wider context, in the developing world, is considered by Mackie (1992). She discusses the displacement of traditional industries by tourism and notes that

"although alternative employment may be created, it is often casual and temporary. Labour required to construct hotels and resorts may not be needed after completion,

and the willingness of foreign developers to pay high wages for short-term employment may contribute to inflation" (Mackie, 1992, p. 82).

One of the problems in advocating flexibility as a response to labour shortages or staff turnover is the lack of functional flexibility within businesses (Kelliher, 1989). This was demonstrated, empirically, by Simms et al (1988) who identified

"a weak internal labour market within hotels, and consequent excessive dependence on the external labour market. Manifestations of this are multiple ports of recruitment and entry; no fixed differentials; no promotion criteria; and on-the-job training focused on the unskilled employees within the establishment" (Simms et al, 1988, p.11).

The issue of hospitality and tourism labour markets cannot, of course, be considered in the absence of their legal implications and aspects of this dimension are addressed, from a case study perspective, by Mitchell (1988).

Within this unstable labour environment in the hospitality industry, purely financial incentives become of lesser significance as a retaining influence among workers than other strategies, such as promotion opportunities (Riley, 1990), and this element becomes a powerful factor in external job mobility between companies and the process which is variously known as "poaching" or "pinching". This issue is addressed by Farkas (1988) who notes that survey respondents complain of competitors who lure

employees away shortly after training has been completed. The application of Herzberg's two factor theory to hotels in Greece further suggests that when the organisation does not allow employees the opportunity to satisfy most of their needs (for example for promotion and development), what Herzberg describes as "hygiene factors" such as remuneration become powerful motivators, influencing behaviour and productivity (Chitiris, 1988). A more theoretical analysis of job stability is undertaken by Saunders (1981) who advances

"a tentative conceptual framework for the measurement in social and statistical terms of stableness in employment based on total life/work history to date of measurement" (Saunders, 1981, p.25).

Returning to the notion of flexibility, which underpins much of the above discussion, the antithesis to those who advocate its adoption as a means of enhancing business efficiency is represented in the following:

"For those involved in the hotel and catering industry, the talk of "flexibility" and of "core" and "peripheral" workers induces nothing more than an ominous sense of deja vu! Patterns of employment within the industry are already arranged in a way that promotes a high degree of management flexibility through the use of "manpower" practices that leave individual workers with few legal rights and limited opportunities for collective organisation" (Byrne, 1986, p.8).

There is a context in which this negative concept of flexibility is, perhaps, not so applicable and that is in the sense in which employers may need to introduce greater flexibility into their working conditions in order to attract good employees. One important aspect of this is the need to recognise the changing and raised aspirations and ambitions, as well as the increased range of career options, which young people, especially at graduate level have (Linney and Teare, 1991). This necessitates changing attitudes among employers to much more selective and demanding employees.

"Staff expect better pay and conditions of service as their life-style and standard of living expectations are influenced by societal patterns and trends. These sources of expectation have in common the need to devise systems and methods which will facilitate improvements in productivity. The enabling mechanism for productivity improvements is a well motivated workforce. This means that the employee expects the employer to provide opportunities to grow and develop, to be trained and to be promoted within the organisation" (Linney and Teare, 1991, p.iii).

Empirical evidence of the expectations of graduate entrants into the industry is provided through a study by McCleary and Weaver (1988). They isolated the factors that are of greatest importance to entrants as a chance for promotion and growth in the company; interesting work; and a chance for growing responsibility. They

note that women tend to place more importance on reasonable hours, training, working conditions, and interesting work than do their male colleagues.

As has already been noted, Davis sees technology as one response to enhanced productivity at a time of labour and skills shortages (Davis, 1990). Other writers consider this matter in the context of restructuring theory. Bagguley (1987 and 1990)) outlines the main features of the theory, which has its origins in the manufacturing sector. He identifies three forms of production reorganisation as options within restructuring. These are

- * intensification, where labour productivity is increased without any major changes in techniques of production;

- * investment and technical change, where investment and new techniques of production lead to reduced labour requirements; and

- * rationalisation, where capacity is simply reduced (Bagguley, 1987, p.5).

Perhaps the simple perception of tourism businesses, and hotels in particular, is that they will adopt intensification as a means of overcoming labour shortages or to reduce staff costs. This is the conclusion reached by writers such as Buck (1985). However, this does ignore the considerable investment in information, transportation and production technology which has been evident in the tourism business in recent years (Bennett and Radburn, 1991). It also ignores extensive rationalisation in many industry

sectors, especially airlines and hotels, willing to eliminate unprofitable routes, contract out functions or franchise revenue areas.

The literature is relatively comprehensive in its consideration of strategies to recruit alternative or non-traditional employees into the tourism industry and a number of examples will suffice here. Attracting older employees into what has traditionally been seen as a young person's industry has become an important strategy in Europe and north America; by contrast, airlines and hotels in a number of Asian countries maintain an age bar, which results in some front-line employees, normally female, losing their positions on reaching a specified age. In the United Kingdom, elements of similar attitudes persist; for example, in relation to fast food, Lyon and Mogendorff (1991) report a project designed to attract and retain a higher proportion of mature employees in what is typically a "youth" employment environment. They conclude that strategies to attract more "grey" workers has a number of benefits and a number of problems for management.

On the plus side, older workers

- * tend to stay longer;
- * are there to do a job and do not just see the post as a stepping stone to a better career;
- * are potentially better mannered with customers, especially children; and
- * they are more likely to recognise the need to clean as

they work.

On the debit side, older workers

* see fast food as a young environment and are worried about how they fit in;

* may feel insecure about returning to work after a long absence; * face potential problems with technology; and

* may feel concerned about being able to keep up with the pressures of the job and with learning quickly enough (Lyon and Mogendorff, 1991; Mogendorff, Lyon and Cowls, 1991).

Similar conclusions emanate from studies of restaurants in the United States (Bosselman, 1984; Dee, 1987). Bosselman also notes the positive factors which older workers can bring to an organisation, notably through greater loyalty, reliability and equal productivity when compared to traditional sources of labour. Perhaps even more contentious are strategies to bring a higher proportion of the disabled into the tourism workforce. The reality can, frequently, present far fewer problems than many employers would assume (Ingamells, Rouse, Worsfold, 1991). Again, similar arguments appear in the American literature, although the tone is rather more geared towards persuasion than analysis (Fanning, 1981; Schapire and Berger, 1984; Stokes, 1990). The somewhat limited extent to which such exortations have impact on the industry is also reported (Elder, 1987).

Women, especially mature returners, constitute, perhaps, the main group for targeting as alternative sources of tourism and

hospitality employees. The literature refers to the diverse factors which indicate the growing importance of women to the hospitality industry (Jafari, 1986/ 87). Specifically, changing family patterns and increased financial pressures to work outside of the home are referred to. It is surprising that reference to mechanisms to attract them into the workforce are not widely covered in the literature, except in the general sense of creating more flexible and "employee-friendly" places of work (Linney and Teare, 1991).

There is, however, a fairly extensive literature which considers the factors behind the very evident failure of women to compete on equal terms for senior positions in the industry. At a relatively simplistic level, the issue is attributed, in part, to simple prejudice, reflecting employment barriers facing women that exist in other industries. Marshall (1991) considers the gap between the number of women graduating from hospitality programmes and the relatively small group that actually attain general management positions. He attributes blame on the industry itself and argues that, unless businesses examine and eliminate wage gaps between men and women, women will look elsewhere for career opportunities. What is interesting, in this context, is that there is some evidence that management burnout, represented by emotional exhaustion, among food and beverage managers in the industry is higher among women than men although further studies may be advisable in order to verify this research finding (Tabacchi et al, 1990). Another study points to other problems that women face

in working in the industry, that of sexual harassment, which takes place more widely in the hospitality industry than in other work sectors (Eller, 1990). Guerrier (1986), indeed, poses the question as to whether the hotel industry is suitable for female employment at all.

Walsh and McKenna (1990) report an in-depth study into the expectations of employees in the industry with respect to the two genders. The findings suggest that perceptions of women in positions of authority are very different from those held about men in similar positions. Expectations are lower regarding their achievement, especially in areas relating to authority and control while their strengths are seen to be in areas such as staff/ human relations (Walsh and McKenna, 1990). The authors conclude with a pessimistic note of general interest within the industry.

"Throughout all sectors of tourism where there is customer contact, women predominate - as front office and dining room personnel; as airline staff; as tourist office personnel; as tour guides - to mention but the more obvious. However, when it comes to the more senior positions in these same areas, where the jobs have less customer contact but a greater management and decision-making role, the situation is usually reversed. Employers in these situations either announce that women operate so well at their existing levels that it is impossible to replace them or else cite the perceived negative traits of women - their inability to gain authority and

respect, their timidity and indecisiveness as barriers to promotion" (Walsh and McKenna, 1990, p. 163).

A study by Hicks (1990) sought to examine the possible processes occurring in organisations that appear to work against women fulfilling their managerial potential. The perceived reality of the respondents, in this study, was that females' presence in the industry was only temporary. Instead of playing the "game" that the male managers are playing (including accepting the long, unsocial hours and fostering a sense of managerial camaraderie), the females are seen to be playing a different sort of game with different values and assumptions. Christensen (1987) anticipated this argument when she noted that many supervisors have perceptions of female entrants which can thwart their progress, seeing them as not conforming to the leadership image. She argues that women need to present a far more assertive image to their superiors.

In an interesting extension of this argument, Baker (1988) argues that hotel businesses may be divided between those with a traditional orientation, where the emphasis is on craft training, especially in food and beverage, and those with a rooms orientation, where it is possible to become a general manager without having food and beverage experience. She argues that the latter type of hotels are likely to offer better career prospects for women (Baker, 1988).

Ensuring that the tourism industry is an attractive prospect to women entails making changes in a number of areas. These include

creating a more flexible working environment, designed to suit the lifestyles of potential employees (Worsfold and Jameson, 1991) and also to demonstrate in practice that women have equal opportunities and access to positions of responsibility in the industry (Walsh and McKenna, 1990).

The above strategies, focusing on the recruitment of alternative labour sources into the industry, are a response to changing demographic structures in society and heightened expectations of work and careers among young people. Competition for these sources is likely to increase, both within the tourism and hospitality industry and externally (Teare and Brotherton, 1990).

As a general response to these problems

"There is a variety of short- and medium-term measures which hospitality and tourism operators can implement to maintain operational effectiveness in a contracting labour market. These include redesigning job roles and work schedules to improve the productivity of existing staff - provided that this can be achieved without increasing overall work load or eroding conditions of employment. Hospitality and tourism operators also need to take steps to improve the image and attractiveness of the working environment. To compete on equal terms with firms in other industries may involve appraising career structures and salaries, improving incentive and fringe benefit packages such as better maternity benefit arrangements and enhancing the education and training

opportunities available to employees" (Teare and Brotherton, 1990, p.6).

3.3 Training and development

This area is one that is extensively treated in personnel texts for the hospitality industry (see above) as well as in the context of technical training manuals for skills or supervisory areas within the tourism industry generally (for example, Lagreca, 1988). Approaches may cover general training and development principles or focus on specific dimensions, such as staff induction training (CERT, 1990). What such material has in common is extolling the importance of training and development as strategic tools within human resource policies and as prime motivators of staff, essential as means of retaining key personnel (Linney and Teare, 1991). The starting point of recent discussion, in this field, is the value of effective training and development to company profitability and the need to organise it in the same planned and systematic way that is applied to any other area of business activity.

This leads to the idea of a total learning organisation, a notion which is consistent with the part that training and development play within what Mahesh (1988) describes as an integrated human resource management (HRM) system, geared towards the prime goal of service excellence and customer satisfaction, within a large, service sector company, in this case the Taj Group of Hotels in India. A review of the main features of this system shows that

direct training and development activities are readily evident in only three of the eight factors that are "crucial to any organisation of some size striving towards service excellence" (Mahesh, 1988). The full list of factors is

- * manpower planning as a proactive tool, both in terms of the quantity of personnel required at company and unit level and in terms of the skills that are required or need to be developed;
- * a carefully monitored induction and pre-employment training system;
- * alignment and attunement of executives and staff towards customer and employee satisfaction;
- * identification and investment in the development of transformational leaders;
- * restructuring, decentralising and downsizing, especially in the area of management decision making in the HRM domain;
- * proactive HRM professionals and a collaborative union-management relationship;
- * reward and punishment tied to customer satisfaction;
- and
- * top management involvement and commitment (Mahesh, 1988, p.11).

The crucial assumption within this approach is based on a belief in the central part that the attainment of service quality and customer satisfaction play in a company's business strategy.

Within the process described, the ideas of organisational alignment and attunement towards customer and employee satisfaction is critical. These concepts are derived from the work of Harrison (1983). The consequence of this approach is to arrive at an organisation which has achieved

- * the alignment of all individual and collective energies of the organisation towards customer satisfaction, keeping in mind the particular segment of the market the organisation is geared to satisfy; and
- * providing an enabling environment of participation and care within which every employee of the organisation is attuned and functioning reasonably freely (Mahesh, 1988, p. 12).

Central to Mahesh's approach is ensuring that the training that is conducted is relevant and is based on appropriate analysis of needs within the industry. Discussion of training needs assessment, in the literature, is relatively limited but a good example of a broad, sector-wide study is that by Sheldon and Gee (1987) which considers the whole travel industry in Hawaii, based on the perceptions of both employers and employees.

Bright and Johnson (1985) also take a service orientation in considering trends in hospitality training. They consider the traditional approach as one of product orientation, developing skills in this area, in relation to a definition of hospitality which they quote from Cassee and Reuland.

"Hospitality is a harmonious mixture of food, beverage

and/ or shelter, a physical environment and the behaviour and attitude of people. This produces a feeling of being at home, an "at ease" feeling" (Cassee and Reuland, 1983 quoted in Bright and Johnson, 1985, p. 27).

Bright and Johnson argue that the training implications of this traditional perception of hospitality are easy to identify.

"Staff must have a thorough knowledge of the precise nature of the hospitality product on offer to the customer and must possess the technical skills and abilities to match this package. The product must be delivered to the customer in a predefined manner without deviation. Consequently training courses within the industry have traditionally emphasised technical skill, product awareness, personal appearance and social etiquette" (Bright and Johnson, 1985, p.28).

By contrast to the traditional approach, the authors describe what they call the emerging, market oriented view, by which hospitality is seen as a service rather than a product. The consequences for the business are that there are now no definitive features of hospitality and the customer is of paramount importance in the actual formation of the hospitality package or experience (Bright and Johnson, 1985). Using this perception, it is possible to disassociate hospitality from the star rating or class of business in which it operates and it is attainable in economy class in an airline or in a fast food

restaurant as it is in a fine dining establishment or in Concorde.

"Technical training has little to offer in these circumstances, for although a knowledge of the services available is required, a highly flexible approach must be adopted. Social skills training has been seen to be more closely related to the servicing of customer demands in a flexible manner, whilst still allowing the customer to retain an element of control over his/ her experience. Such training is concerned with attitudes, communications and awareness in social situations and has not, as yet, been widely adopted in the industry on a formal basis" (Bright and Johnson, 1985, p. 29).

While this last comment perhaps dates the paper somewhat, for there has been considerable movement in this respect over the intervening years, Bright and Johnson's comments remain valid as an assessment of tourism's attitude to training as a whole. An example of moves to adopt a more flexible, social skills based approach is the utilisation of customer orientation training by major airlines such as British Airways (Goodstein and Burke, 1990; Foster, 1991). In the hospitality context, Herman and Eller (1991) see on-going and planned training as essential to the attainment of consistently excellent service delivery while Watson (1988), emphasises that training is a key component in the development of an effective quality service strategy, and concludes

"Many organisations pay lip service to the provision of

quality service to their customers, but they do not provide employees with the necessary human relations tools. A quality service training programme that is delivered to all levels of management and staff, does not have to be complex or complicated to implement. Many of the key concepts are "common knowledge", but they have to be refreshed, so that employees use that knowledge in every customer interaction. A concerted effort to introduce all employees to quality service, and what it means in terms of their job responsibilities and to the organisation as a whole, will at best eliminate, or at least reduce, the chances of losing customers and profits to more service-oriented competitors" (Watson, 1988, p.23).

The importance of training and development, within companies, is emphasised, at an international level, by the ILO, which notes that, in a number of countries, no special systems or arrangements for training of personnel in the tourism industry exist beyond that which companies themselves supply (ILO, 1989b).

The report notes that

"The effectiveness of such training depends, of course, on the arrangements made at the enterprise level and on the qualifications and experience of the trainers. Larger hotels tend increasingly to have specialised training managers. In countries which have special workers' representation bodies at enterprise level, such

as works committees, staff delegates, works councils etc. such bodies are often associated with the setting up and operation of training schemes within enterprises" (ILO, 1989b, p.19).

The ILO also stress the importance of an appropriate climate for trainee learning.

"In addition there are conditions as regards learning effectiveness. Despite some disagreement amongst trainers and educators as to which conditions are most conducive to effective learning in training, there is sufficient agreement to constitute a consensus about the conditions that are the most desirable. These are that the trainees' participation should be voluntary; that the trainees should be fully aware of their training needs; that they should believe that the training will yield rewards and satisfactions that are of value to them; that there should be mutual trust between the trainer and the trainee; that the training should build from the work and life experiences of the trainees; that it should be culturally, technologically and structurally relevant; and that, where the trainees are trained as members of a group rather than individually, the group should be as homogeneous as possible" (ILO, 1989b, p.21).

The benefits of operating with a trained workforce appear to be widely accepted as given in much of the literature. There is,

however, relatively little of an empirical nature to support contentions of this nature. An exception is a comparative study of productivity in English and German hotels, which noted that average labour requirements were about 50% greater per guest-night in London hotels than in German hotels and about twice as great in hotels in large English provincial hotels as in Germany (Prais et al, 1989). The study concludes that the main, identifiable difference between the hotels is that, while in Germany 35% of all employees had attained at least craft-level qualifications in hotel and catering occupations, in England the comparable figure was much lower at 14%. The comparative quality of hospitality employees, at craft level, in Europe, as opposed to the United States, is also alluded to by Cummings (1989) who attributes this to the status, professionalism and training of employees while in employment but also to their superior pre-entry education and training.

The methodology and technology of training, within the hospitality industry, are not widely reported topics, although, clearly, this area does merit rather more consideration. One exception is in the work by Durocher (1990), who reports the use of interactive videodiscs within the training systems of a number of major companies, notably Domino's and Marriott. He considers all aspects of videodisc implementation, both the benefits and the drawbacks, and concludes that

"Interactive videodisc training is a form of instruction that is well suited to many areas of hospitality

operations. The high initial cost of IVD training is a barrier at the moment, but as time goes on it seems likely that the cost will come down. Moreover, the current IVD programs represent just the first generation of this technology. As current drawbacks are overcome, IVD training may become an important component of future hospitality- training programs" (Durocher, 1990, p.51).

The focus of this discussion on training and development has been on approaches at the sub-managerial level. The next section will consider the much more prolific literature in the area of management practice and development.

Management practice and management development

In contrast to the area of operational staff training and development, where the literature is limited and somewhat general in its tenor, there is a very wide range of material available, which focuses on various aspects of management practices in the tourism and hospitality industries and on the development of supervisors and managers within the industry. Guerrier and Lockwood (1990), in a very comprehensive review of current management research within the hospitality sector, provide a scan which cannot be emulated here. Their themes are dominated by four questions about management, vis

1. What do managers do?
2. Who are managers?
3. How are managers' careers developed?

4. What is meant by managerial effectiveness? (Guerrier and Lockwood, 1990, p. 154).

These themes are not all relevant in the context of this review. Rather, a representative selection of some of the main themes will be extracted for consideration.

The nature of managerial work in the hospitality, as opposed to the tourism, industry is relatively well researched. Dann (1990) identifies seven major studies which are directly concerned with this theme (Nailon, 1968; Ley, 1978; Arnaldo, 1981; Ferguson and Berger, 1984; Koureas, 1985; Hales and Nightingale, 1986; and Hales, 1987). Nailon's early study was primarily concerned with time and contact patterns, using a diary methodology that has been subsequently replicated (CERT, 1987) and the resulting analysis suggested a high level of fragmentation in the working day of most managers, a theme that is repeated in subsequent studies. Nailon concludes that the work of hotel general managers focuses on the continuous monitoring of their unit through fleeting contact and frequent movement about the establishment (Nailon, 1968). The work of Ley (1978); Arnalso (1981); and Ferguson and Berger (1984) all use a Minzbergian framework as their starting point in order to identify the key features of the managerial role. Only Ferguson and Berger are critical of a conceptual framework that is not without flaws when applied to the hospitality industry (Ferguson and Berger, 1984). The English studies all attempt to consider the influences of different variables on the state of managerial work. Dann concludes

"What becomes clear from the studies is that there are distinct differences in the way that managers in different sectors of the industry divide both their time and develop their contact patterns....However the studies do show that there are some uniform factors in terms of characteristics which the work takes. These studies clearly show that managerial work in the industry shows significant differences from the classical pattern of the proactive manager planning, organising, commanding, co-ordinating and controlling that is often presented in texts" (Dann, 1990, p.320).

One specialist aspect of managerial work that receives attention in its own right is the area of personnel or human resource management, again predominantly in the hospitality sector of the industry. Of particular, possibly cosmetic, note has been the change in terminology from personnel to human resource management (Mill, 1989) but, it is also argued that this titular alteration does, in fact, represent something rather more significant in functional terms (Umbreit, 1987), although this view of anything but very gradual change had, previously, been disputed (Pickworth, 1981). An empirical approach to what personnel/human resource managers actually do is contained in a paper by Kelliher and Johnson (1987), which draws together separate studies by the respective authors. Their respective conclusions paint a relatively gloomy picture of the practice of personnel management in the United Kingdom industry.

"The Industry is certainly lacking in effective personnel policies and has a long way to go in establishing them" (Johnson, 1986 quoted in Kelliher and Johnson, 1987, p. 104)).

"Without doubt...the practice of personnel management within the industry is not being utilised to maximum benefit within a high proportion of establishments" (Kelliher, 1986 quoted in Kelliher and Johnson, 1987, p.104).

Boella (1986) poses a question which, likewise, addresses the current state of personnel management in the hospitality industry. He argues that

"There is no simple answer. Each industry and many sectors of individual industries are, to a greater or lesser extent, idiosyncratic. To suggest that one industry has good personnel management practices when compared with those of other industries, in the final analysis, is a value judgement (Boella, 1986, p. 33).

His conclusion, which is not too clearly evident in the paper, appears to be that, whereas the hospitality industry has matured greatly in its personnel practices in recent years, there remains considerable scope for further development and improvement. One company's response is reported by Cajella (1988) who discusses Holiday Inn U.K.'s approach to decentralisation and the consequent change in unit personnel managers' roles. An extended development programme was put in place in order to cater for a more autonomous

and broader job.

Dann's analysis includes the development of a model which identifies three distinct phases in the nature of managerial work. These are

Level 1 -representing inputs to the job, largely outside of the control of the manager, including

- hierachical level
- size of role set
- company strategy
- prescribed role
- demands/ expectations
- work environment

Level 2 - representing the conduct of the position, within which the manager has a number of choices, including

- role choices
- role conduct
- managerial team
- patterns of delegation
- job characteristics
- job functions
- effective behaviours

Level 3 - relating to the ends of the manager and their outputs (Dann, 1990, pp. 327-9).

The concern as to who hospitality managers are, in terms of their background, personality and style, is treated at some length by

Guerrier and Lockwood (1990) but will not be replicated here. Of greater interest, in the context of human resources within companies, is the area of management careers in the industry.

A macro, manpower planning perspective of management careers is adopted by Riley and Turam (1989) in considering the various stages and the time taken in progressing from entry to general management positions in the hotel industry. Conclusions about a highly and regularly mobile managerial workforce come from this study (Riley and Turam, 1989) and support earlier findings in the United Kingdom (Guerrier, 1987) and in Ireland (CERT, 1987). Guerrier notes that managers make an early commitment to the industry and that their mobility is confined within the sector. The Irish study, however, noted a considerable number of late entries into hotel management, reflecting changes of career from a wide variety of alternative professional backgrounds (CERT, 1987).

An interesting perspective on management and management status in the tourism and hospitality industries is provided in a discussion of professionalism by Sheldon (1989). She identifies a number of key features as defining characteristics of professionalism and tests these against management requirements in different tourism sectors. The features identified are

- * long training
- * code of ethics
- * professionally organised sector
- * complex occupation

- * altruistic service
- * body of knowledge
- * people orientated
- * licensed
- * high prestige
- * competence tested
- * self employed
- * high income (Sheldon, 1989, pp.494-98)

Sheldon scored a number of tourism designations, in the United States, against these criteria and concluded that the highest levels of professionalism could be attributed to the accommodation sector, followed by transportation, travel agents/ tour operators, food service and, a long way behind, attractions/ entertainment. Sheldon concludes

"In many sectors, the growth of professionalism depends on the up-grading of the many seasonal, part-time and low-paid jobs, and redefining them to more rewarding and prestigious positions. The development of codes of ethics for those sectors that do not yet have them is recommended. The clear definition of career paths for each sector will also help to attract and keep quality employees. Personnel are the backbone of the tourism/hospitality industry, and so their development is critical to the professionalism of the industry and to the satisfaction of the employees themselves" (Sheldon, 1989, p.502).

The concept of professionalism is also considered by Gee (1980) but in the context of tourism education and the requirements that the industry should make on programmes of study in this respect. The key element is seen to be recognised certification of all courses at appropriate levels.

Issues relating to career development for tourism industry managers repeatedly feature in wider discussions of management, as can be seen above. These concerns are of particular importance because of the relatively limited impact that formal education and training has made on sectors of the tourism industry in many countries. In fact, the vast majority of employees at all levels in the hotel and catering industry, for example, have not benefited from any formal training (Battersby, 1990). At management level, many managers attain that level through service in semi-skilled, skilled and supervisory positions and are unqualified for responsibility at a higher level (Littlejohn and Watson, 1990). A study by Gamble and Messenger (1989) brings out this point and the relative lack of concern which managers have about it. They note that managers, when selecting candidates for supervisory positions put experience at the top of their criteria and formal qualifications well down it (Gamble and Messenger, 1989). In the American context, Antil (1989) comments on the limited number of formal, executive development opportunities which exist, within the industry to enable managers to seek further professional and career development. Parsons (1991) notes the slow development of post-experience programmes in the United

Kingdom and Europe but disagrees with Antil in arguing that "The situation in the USA is different. Here such programmes are gaining widespread acceptance by the industry where, through the industry's quasi-independent Educational Institute, the hotels and restaurant trade bodies have worked together with leading faculty associations to produce integrated programmes of hospitality management" (Parsons, 1991, p. 200).

Littlejohn and Watson are critical of what they describe as the training approach to management development. They distinguish between the two on the basis that

"Whereas training focuses on providing specific organisational needs, the approach embodied by management development takes a wider view of the process of providing the skills and abilities required by an enterprise" (Littlejohn and Watson, 1990, p.39).

Thus, management development recognises the centrality of organisational requirements while, at the same time, supporting the pursuit of specific goals by the individual, which can also have longer-term organisational benefits. The tourism industry frequently concentrates its efforts on management training and the short-term outcomes which accrue. This approach can result in tunnel vision in four respects.

* It can result in a "view of yesterday" in that management training is often carried out by other employees, frequently unqualified and likely to

perpetuate traditional processes and attitudes.

* It can result in "looking in the wrong direction" in that traditional approaches do not allow managers to identify new strategies, maybe involving different thought processes, for overcoming problems;

* It can result in "searching in the dark" in that hospitality and tourism managers, imbued with the notion that their industry is unique, can be reluctant to learn from other industries and their approach to problems.

* It can result in "concentrating on the wrong horizon" in that an individual task approach to training may not be the most effective way of ensuring that managers perform to their optimum and to the maximum of their potential (Littlejohn and Watson, 1990, p.39).

These authors conclude by arguing that

"Current trends in the hospitality industry minimise the role of management development. With predicted shortages in management numbers it is clear that employers will be designing a number of different schemes to ensure that their recruitment problems are minimised. It seems essential that employers pay more attention to mechanisms of management development than has previously been the case. This is important because its focus on the individual will make it a more attractive strategy to both entrants and returners. In addition the approach, if implemented with full backup, will ensure

that both organisation and individual pay attention to their respective long term objectives. Such attitudes, if they materialise, will do much to combat what we consider to be deficiencies of a purely training approach to development. With the industry able to recruit an increasing number of graduates with both an educational and a vocational background in the industry, it now also has a greater ability to plan and implement a better mix of training and development programmes" (Littlejohn and Watson, 1990, p.41).

This theme is echoed by Olsen et al (1991) when they write "Management culture in the hospitality industry is rooted in the "how-to" side of the business, as opposed to the behavioural side. Traditionally, hospitality managers have been very task orientated and have practised reactive, as opposed to proactive, management styles. If hospitality management is truly to come of age, we need to pay increasing attention to developing a more behaviourally orientated manager. It is only through the development of such an individual that corporations will be able successfully to pursue a strategy of differentiation through service" (Olsen et al, 1991, p.219).

The focus, within the literature, therefore, would appear to be on approaches to management development that lay stress on the non-technical aspects of hospitality management and focus on

behavioural and business skills. The second and equally important dimension is that of on-going or lifelong development, a process that continues throughout a manager's career within the company (Jones, 1990).

This latter process of on-going development, in particular, signals one of the main areas for linkage between the tourism and hospitality industry and its educational and training providers. Formal recognition of what happens within industry-based management development is a key concept within the United Kingdom's National Vocational Qualifications (NVQ) scheme (Messenger and Makinson, 1991) and this follows a number of similar, company-specific initiatives over a number of previous years (Robertson and Glendining, 1989). Initiatives, taken from the education side of the "divide" are also outlined, generally in case study form (Burton, 1988). Gamble and Messenger (1990) point to one of the underlying problems in reaching agreement between the industry and education, which is establishing agreement as to what the managerial role and function really is, within the industry. This is a topic that has already been considered in this review.

Underlying all discussion of this area is the need for the educational side of the relationship to be flexible and responsive. This is well put by Go (1990).

"In order to be effective, traditional hospitality management education must be broadened to reflect the specialised concerns of the diverse group of industries

that make up tourism and hospitality, their stakeholders, and the changing frame of reference from domestic or international to a global orientation. All aspects of tourism and hospitality management are vulnerable in the face of ongoing change. The accelerating pace of takeovers, mergers, acquisitions and exits in the international transport and hotel industries in the 1980s offer decision makers a clear warning. If the past decade holds a lesson, it is that the aware and prepared decision maker can respond favourably to societal shifts, changing travel and spending patterns, and come through turbulent times with positive operating thoughts" (Go, 1990, p.47).

4. Education and training for tourism

The management and development of human resources, within tourism, basically takes place in two types of location, within the tourism company (as described above) and within the educational and training system. This is not a totally discreet distinction but provides a practical division. It is the purpose of this section to consider the literature as it relates to this latter area. The field of education and training, for tourism, may be further divided on the basis of the literature into material that relates to

a) the development, quality management, delivery and outcomes of education and training; and

b) the organisation of educational and training systems, generally on a national or regional basis.

4.1. The development, quality management, delivery and outcomes of education and training for tourism

The starting point, for this discussion, is, in many respects the same as that where the previous section left off, that of the appropriateness of curricula and teaching methods to the needs of the industry. Perhaps one of the earliest, detailed consideration of this matter is contained within the broader text on the teaching of tourism in Europe by Lawson (1975). Luke and Ingold (1990) identify this concern as one of the most important elements in the planning of vocational courses for tourism. Representatives of the tourism industry seek to state their needs, to the educational sector, with increasing regularity. For example, Close (1988), speaking from the hotel perspective, argues the need for the industry to provide greater support to education in the recruitment of appropriate young persons onto courses. Murphy (1988) goes somewhat further in identifying the specific curricula areas that are of benefit to graduates entering the attractions sector and this is also the line taken by East (1988) in discussing the educational requirements of recruiters working on behalf of tourist boards. Finally, Moseley (1988) demonstrates the added-value of the in-company training that international airports offer in addition to a range of attributes developed in college. Of a more empirical nature, a study by Pavesic (1984) sought to establish what the

hospitality industry required, by way of subject area coverage, in management programmes and identified a range of professional and customer-oriented areas as priority. Feedback of this nature to the educational system, from the industry itself, is what Divine (1981) calls the missing educational link, the key to the development of a relevant and effective programme of study. This issue of an industry expectation - educational provision divide is further explored in a discussion of the respective roles of theory and practice in tourism education by Boger (1982). Broadly futuristic issues, relating to tourism education, are considered by Cooper and Westlake (1989).

Yet, one possible consequence of a mismatch between educational provision and industry reality, appears to occur with considerable frequency and that is the extent to which graduates of tourism-related programmes actually take up employment in the industry. Brennan and McGeevor (1988) report that only 56% of hospitality graduates, from nine specialist courses actually went to work in the industry on graduation. Similar findings are reported elsewhere which suggest that, while 90 - 95% of hospitality graduates go directly into employment, only approximately half take up jobs in the hotel, catering or related tourism sectors (Parsons and Cave, 1991; Parsons, 1991). These findings are by no means unique and apply equally at non-managerial levels (CERT, 1986). Interestingly, Parsons (1991) reports that, in Germany, Switzerland, France and the United States, over 80% of graduates go into hospitality or related

tourism jobs. He continues

"Hospitality management (and tourism) graduates have found a diverse range of career opportunities open to them. In the UK their broadly based business and management education had made them especially attractive to major recruiters from a range of service industries and increasingly from overseas"(Parsons, 1991, p.204).

Thus, a broad-based curriculum is seen as one of the factors behind a low conversion rate. By way of countering this process, the benefits of well planned, supervised work experience, within courses, is seen as a partial remedy to this drop-out problem (West and Jameson, 1990). In another study, the nature of jobs taken by hospitality graduates is analysed (Jameson and Hargraves, 1990). The authors looked at graduates both within and outside of the industry and noted that there are certain attributes of hotel and catering graduate jobs that may make them unattractive and uncompetitive in the general graduate labour market. However, they conclude that the industry, as a whole, is competitive in terms of the job package on offer (Jameson and Hargraves, 1990).

Ritchie (1988a) provides a very useful set of principles to guide the design, development and delivery of tourism education programmes. These are

"1. The system must provide more than education and training: it must also be a source of intellectual leadership and innovative thought.

2. Tourism is a service activity and its development

must be based on management principles to such an economic segment.

3. Tourism is an interdisciplinary field and education and training programs to develop the field should recognise this.

4. There must be a balance in the theoretical and applied inputs to program design.

5. The education and training system must be integrated so as to achieve balanced rates of development.

6. Planning for tourism and education programs at the federal and provincial levels should stress the definition of output standards rather than focusing on the nature of the programs themselves.

7. Innovative thinking will be required to find resources and to locate tourism education and training programs in existing institutions.

8. There must be an immediate commitment to the development and testing of teaching materials for tourism programs, particularly those at advanced levels.

9. There must be a balanced concern for the education and training of those currently in the industry versus those from outside it.

10. Emphasis must be placed on recruiting quality inputs as well as ensuring the quality of the education and training process itself" (Ritchie, 1988a, p.6).

This conceptual framework echos, in some respects, work undertaken

elsewhere, some of it with an input from Ritchie. McIntosh (1983) sought to develop a model curriculum for the study of tourism at university level building on the work of Jafari and Ritchie (1981), who had proposed some of the parameters required in the development of a framework for tourism education. Hawkins and Hunt (1988) consider similar issues but with an accent on their professional applications. Burke (1988), in his more general discussion of the teaching of tourism in the United States, adopts an approach that includes the development of a conceptual framework through which to link the various and, frequently, disparate levels and subject areas that amalgamate to form a curriculum for tourism. On the basis of this analysis, he identifies a number of issues facing tourism education which, arguably, transfer beyond the United States and have far wider application. Some of the issues are seminal while other are of a more practical content or delivery kind. They are

- * tourism education needs to be proactive to a rapidly changing tourism industry;
- * the shortage of qualified faculty needs to be addressed through appropriate, graduate level programmes;
- * tourism education must earn the respect of traditional disciplines;
- * the image that tourism education is "fun and games" and "fluff" must be addressed, alongside the belief that only marginal students who cannot make the grade in other areas should pursue tourism;

- * high school guidance counsellors need to be better informed about the nature of tourism and tourism education;
- * the "hands on", "practical" orientation of the majority of the faculty in tourism education must be tempered;
- * industry certification and the continuing education needs of industry must be addressed;
- * tourism education requires new delivery methods;
- * quality and integrity of programmes will be a major issue as demand rises;
- * major employers must change their apprenticeship mentality;
- * tourism education must create a better curricula balance between theoretical concepts and applied skills;
- * tourism students must receive enhanced education in data and information collection and management skills;
- and
- * students must develop technological applications as central to their learning (Burke, 1988, pp. 29-30).

At a theoretical/ conceptual level and reviewing what is quite a wide literature in this area, Haywood and Maki (1992) consider the education and employment interface within tourism education through the application of gap analysis techniques. They conclude that the responsibility for closing the identified gaps lies with both partners and recommend strategies to undertake this gap closure process.

Evidence of the application of both Burke's and Ritchie's principles is limited in the literature. Perhaps the most comprehensive treatment is reserved for debate regarding the content of actual programmes. Detailed, analytical studies of the requirements for an effective management curriculum were forthcoming during the 1970s, when the HCIMA commissioned their detailed corpus of knowledge project (HCIMA, 1977; Johnson, 1977). The original work was undertaken by Johnson and involved the identification of the core areas of knowledge required for effective management in the industry. It has subsequently been up-dated twice, in 1984 and 1987 (Gamble and Messenger, 1990). A parallel exercise, within the broader tourism industry, was commissioned by the Tourism Society (Nightingale, 1980). A more recent approach has been to consider the structure of professional profiles of managers within the British tourist industry (Cooper and Messenger, 1990), which identifies the varying educational and occupational routes pursued by those entering the industry. In this, the study has some comparative relevance to the research, conducted by CERT in Ireland, into the career paths of hotel managers, which also showed that routes to posts of responsibility are varied and, indeed, idiosyncratic (CERT, 1987). In Australia, Leiper (1981) sought to identify the distinct curriculum requirements for the study of tourism while Burke (1980) undertook the same exercise with respect to the recreation, but not the tourism, field in the United States.

Ritchie (1988) considers the issue of course content in the

context of a debate between generic as opposed to specialised tourism education programmes, in other words, a contribution to the dialogue between those who wish to emphasise the technical and industry specific components of the vocational area and those who see the priority as the development of broader, business- related competencies. Ritchie argues that

"There is clearly no "one-best solution" to this ongoing dilemma. The obvious answer is that a range of solutions will emerge, including present MBA generic managers and specialized sector managers. There would also appear to be a very real need for an intermediate solution which may be characterized as the "General Manager with special industry understanding"" (Ritchie, 1988a, p.10).

This is clearly a sentiment that will be widely accepted within both educational and industry circles.

Delpech (1985) discusses the differing traditions in tourism management education in terms of their countries or regions of origin. In other words, he notes the strongly practical emphasis in Europe as opposed to the greater business orientation in Japan, the United Kingdom and the United States. He points to an interesting trend.

"I would say that there are two schools of thinking - one emphasising technical aspects of the job, the other one insisting on the managerial capability. What is happening more and more is that students having attended the European hotel management courses complete their

education by short specialised courses in American universities. In other words one could say that those countries are complementary and if any large country is to plan a hotel management course, references should be made to both sides" (Delpech, 1985, p.47).

Support for the generalist, non-technical perspective is provided in a study by Tas (1988) into the competencies which identifies those competencies which general managers prioritise in recruiting new management graduates. Tas identified six essential areas

1. Managing guest problems;
2. Professional and ethical standards;
3. Professional appearance and poise;
4. Effective communication;
5. Positive customer relations; and
- 6 Positive working relations (Tas, 1988, p. 42).

A similar focus, but with reference to students completing postgraduate programmes in hospitality management is provided by Partlow (1990), who identifies similar but rather more business-focused competencies as the expectations of industry for these entrants. Likewise, Burgermeister (1983) assesses the range of educational skills and competencies required new managers.

Specific curriculum content issues are addressed by a number of authors and a sample will suffice. Chesser (1990) argues the value of the study of the history of food, lodging and tourism as a means to develop critical thinking within hospitality curricula, especially as an aid to understanding current and future trends

within the industry. Social responsibility, within the curriculum, is addressed by Woods and Berger (1989) whose pilot project identified learning in a number of key areas including the importance of support systems; friendship; good humour; and the acceptance of people for who they are - all important attributes within the industry. George (1989), in discussing the need to develop people management skills, within the curriculum, focuses on the role of pedagogic methodologies in achieving this aim, especially through the use of experiential learning techniques. Evident in the literature, during the 1970s and 1980s, were emerging concerns for the teaching of technology-related skills within the tourism and hospitality curriculum, issues that have faded, to a large extent, in recent years as their place becomes the norm. Examples of such work are papers by Andrew (1984) and Evans and Matthews (1985).

Reflecting contemporary concerns, Lazarus (1990) addresses the place of AIDS within the hospitality curriculum, the extent of current students' knowledge of this field and their attitudes to the inclusion of the study of AIDS in their courses, generally favourable. The concern of preparing students for the care of handicapped guests is addressed by Lazarus and Kaufman (1988) who discuss the alternative curriculum structures that can be adopted for an in-out of this nature. Preparing potential managers for employment in a multicultural environment is the concern of Tanke (1988) who reports the development of a specialist course in the United States.

The curriculum research, content and design requirements of specific courses of tourism education present interesting case-studies, which have application elsewhere. A broad-based, industry wide study of this nature is reported by McGinn and Binder (1990) in their report on the tourism education requirements of secondary schools in Alberta, Canada. Their proposals are integrated, wide ranging and innovative and suggest a secondary school curriculum that should

- "* provide awareness of career options in tourism;
- * provide opportunities for experiential learning;
- * emphasize transferable, life-time skills;
- * focus on the development of interpersonal, service-industry skills;
- * develop basic skills;
- * emphasize problem solving, critical thinking and self-directed learning; and
- * explore enterprise culture and risk-taking alternatives" (McGinn and Binder, 1990, p.vii).

In this approach, the Alberta study has much in common with the programme developed in Ireland by CERT and the Department of Education (CERT, 1986) and in the United Kingdom, through the Travel and Tourism Programme, the objectives of which are stated to be to

- "* improve the knowledge and appreciation of the hospitality industry in general;
- * respond to the Government's call for improved and

extended relationships between education and industry;
and

* help to develop personal skills through the programme
in classroom and through practical work experience"

(Sall, 1990, p.38).

The detailed study of industry skills requirements as a precursor to the development of new professional cookery curricula is another good example of this process at work (CERT, 1984). Another example is provided by Rix et al (1988) who report the design of a Japanese language course both for students undergoing education in preparation for work and those already employed in the tourist industry in Australia. They note several design and logistical aspects of interest about the course:

"* it was designed to meet a carefully specified skills-development brief provided by the tourist industry

* it was designed to be taught in a classroom, not to be a self-learning kit

* it had to be designed for adult learners with no background in foreign languages

* it had to be able to be used in both intensive and regular teaching modes

* it had to be functional and immediately usable by those in the workplace. It therefore had to satisfy the urgent and glaring needs of the industry and be accepted by industry training programs nationwide. The student response indicated that this goal was achieved

* finally, the course had to be developed from scratch. No models existed elsewhere: Japanese courses prepared in Hawaii and New Zealand for tourism were nowhere near comprehensive or precise enough and no Japanese courses for other specific purposes (e,g. for business) could be properly applied to specialised tourist situations" (Rix et al, 1988, p.31).

Again addressing the specialist needs of one particular group within the wider tourism education process, Jenkins (1980) considers the educational needs of tourism policy makers in developing countries. He argues, firmly, that these needs extend beyond the remit of vocational training into the broader area of tourism education.

"The involvement of governments in tourism in developed and developing countries is likely to deepen. Concern for the wider ramifications of tourism on the environment, community, and society at large will intensify this involvement. The demand for public-sector managers will grow. The nature of this demand ensures that any proposed training course must look at tourism in as wide a perspective as possible. This perspective cannot be achieved through on-the-job training. It should be provided at university or institutional postgraduate level with emphasis placed on the the educational approach to tourism - to inculcate a critical and analytical perception of tourism by students. This

approach is suitable for developed and developing countries' public sector students" (Jenkins, 1980, p.242).

Theuns and Go (1992) also address the particular needs of developing country tourism education and argue for the application of a different paradigm than that which operates, by conventional wisdom, within developed countries. They argue that tourism education, in developing countries, must be "needs led" and focus, in particular, on education for public sector tourism planners and managers and for small scale tourism business management.

By contrast to the use of the industry as a reference point for curriculum design, Rappole (1977) took the route of reviewing what other educational institutions were addressing within their programmes. He surveyed a significant number of hospitality programmes, in the United States, as a precursor to the development of a new programme.

The issue of qualifications and the comparability of qualifications, both within and between countries, is one that receives considerable attention, within the literature. In general, the coverage relates to the situation or developments within one country or system. For example, Messenger (1991a) discusses the potential and impact of National Vocational Qualifications (NVQ) on both education and industry in the United Kingdom. In a wider ranging study (Messenger, 1991b), the same author considers the development of a number of qualifications, in the United Kingdom, at all levels and discusses the respective roles of agencies such

as City and Guilds, HCIMA, BTEC and SCOTVEC. The issue of accreditation, arguably the American equivalent of much equivalence debate in this country, is widely addressed in the literature and the arguments are summarised by Tanke (1992). Country studies also provide useful perspectives on this area (Burke, 1988; Ritchie, 1988b).

Messenger also considers the impact of issues such as labour and educational mobility within the European Community. She points out that

"It is anticipated that the Single European Act of 1987 will have a significant effect on the UK hospitality and tourism industry. It provides for the harmonization of technical standards so that qualifications from member states receive equal, mutual recognition, and it requires free movement of labour within the EEC....

In terms of employee development, companies will need to ensure that their managers are provided with the competencies that will enable them to work effectively with people from other countries. During the next few years, those managers developing a European approach to their work will be much valued by forward-thinking employers.....

The establishment of the Single European Market will also affect recruitment. As the catchment area of staff of all levels expands, increased attention will need to be given to methods of advertising, selection, induction and

training of staff coming from outside the United Kingdom. It is likely that many people from the United Kingdom will similarly be inclined towards Europe" (Messenger 1991b, p.259).

The issues of tourism education and training, within this wider European context, is considered in a study conducted by the European Institute for Education and Social Policy (1991; 1992). The objectives of the study were to

- * highlight the major issues related to human resources in the European travel and tourism industry;
- * examine the potential of education and training systems to resolve these issues; and
- * to identify how the industry can contribute to improving the effectiveness of education and training in travel and tourism (EIESP, 1991, p.7).

The report's conclusions note a number of somewhat sobering points, which are of concern at both a national and Community-wide level and point, very clearly, to the inadequacy of policy measures in the human resource area. Main conclusions of the report refer to

- * the inadequacy of formal education and training;
- * courses that are ill-adapted to the needs of the industry;
- * the lack of practical training;
- * few courses for part-timers and re-entrants into the industry;
- * no Europe-wide recognition of qualifications;

- * disillusioned students;
- * the attribution of blame with the tourism industry;
- * little co-ordination between industry and education;
- * a lack of investment in training, especially from the travel trade; and
- * insufficient training needs analysis (EIESP, 1991, p. pp. 13-14).

All these, in the view of the report, perpetuate the poor image of the tourism industry as an employer, a regular concern within the literature and addressed, for example, by WTO (1983). The EIESP study reiterates, in many respects, some of the concerns and issues addressed by Lavery (1984). Clearly the issues in both reports cut across a number of the areas considered within this review, but merit consideration at this point because of the transnational dimension.

The somewhat contentious issue of the recognition of qualifications within the European Community has been addressed, over a number of years, by the work of CEDEFOP (for example, CEDEFOP, 1987 and CEDEFOP, 1991) but this work has had relatively little impact at a practical, industry level within tourism.

4.2 The organisation education and training systems for tourism

The literature, in this field, is almost exclusively concerned with national case studies, describing systems of education and training as they operate in various countries. The quality of the material is varied and the analytical objectivity of some contributions must

be open to question. The purpose of some of the papers in question was, primarily, one of providing information and to paint the country or system in the best possible light. Even where publication is in a reputable academic journal, these contributions rarely appear to provide a critical or comparative perspective of their subject matter. Country coverage is by no means comprehensive and some countries feature far more frequently in the literature than others, which appear to be entirely neglected. One problem appears to be the difficulty in obtaining reliable information or data. As Handy (1988) points out, this collection can prove difficult, even for agencies such as the World Tourism Organisation. Another problem relates to the comparability of data and terminology used with respect to information about different systems. We are not, necessarily, comparing like with like when referring to programme type, course content, teaching and learning resources or end qualifications. Mappisammeng (1990) uses somewhat prosaic terminology to describe such variation.

"In a way those of us involved with this education and training are like people on a train. A train which is going in exactly the same direction, from the same point of origin to the same destination. We are all making the same journey. However, some of us may be travelling first class and other second class. Some may be seated comfortably, in air conditioned compartments, others may be standing in the corridor. Some may have a view out of the window, others may be able to see very little. We are

all making the same journey but under different conditions, with different perceptions, with different levels of satisfaction, and with different results. We may all get to the same destination in the end, but only in the broadest possible sense. Some will arrive in a better way than others" (Mappisammeng, 1990, p.1).

Notwithstanding these difficulties, the country case studies do provide a useful picture of tourism education and training in practice. At their simplest, these papers constitute descriptions of systems and provision without significant comment or analysis.

Examples include

- * Bangladesh (Sikder, 1990);
 - * Burma (U Pye Aye, 1985);
 - * People's Republic of China (Tao, 1988; Zhao, 1991);
 - * Hong Kong (Slater, 1990);
 - * Republic of Korea (Ministry of Transportation, 1990);
- and
- * Switzerland (Schmidhauser, 1988).

Other studies approach the subject with rather a more detailed analysis of the relationship between the country's society, economy and tourism industry and the way in which educational and tourism systems have developed in response to such factors. Such papers focus on issues and concerns as well as the basic structures of the education and training system and related provision. Examples in this category include

- * Australia (James, 1990; Wilson, 1990);

- * Bulgaria (Radadjiyska, 1990);
- * Canada (Ritchie, 1988b);
- * Indonesia (Goeltom, 1988); and
- * Scandanavia/ Norway (Orjansen, 1988).

A regional perspective is provided by Ruddy (1990) with respect to south-east Asia.

In these papers there is an element of critique and evaluation and a tendency to address specific concerns and the remedies that are in place to cope with them. There is also a propensity to link policy to application in a way that the purely descriptive material fails to do. Similar to the studies which focus on both description and analysis, in some respects, are reports, designed with somewhat different objectives to academic papers but also, generally, containing description, analysis and proposals for change. Good examples include studies based on New Zealand (Moore, 1985) and Wales (Stevens, 1990). Mahesh's (1988b) report to the Government of India focuses on the macro planning issues affecting Indian tourism and, as such, only includes a limited element of descriptive material relating to the time of writing. The focus of the report is designed to help in the creation of an expanded educational and training system. A similar study, relating to Turkey, is reported by Woolfenden (1990) who concentrates on the national curricula requirements of the tourism industry in that country at a time of considerable expansion in the industry.

A number of national case studies, however, do take a somewhat deeper and more analytical approach to their subject and consider

the diversity of links which exist between educational and training systems and the wider social, economic and tourism industry environment. A good example is the paper on the United States by Burke (1988), which focuses on the interaction of different levels within tourism education; between the public and private sectors of provision; and on the relationship between the industry and its educational providers. Burke also considers, in some detail, some of the structural and organisational problems that face tourism education and training in the United States. Similarly wide ranging is the study by Mappisammeng (1990) on Indonesia. His work is perceptive and seeks to consider education and training for tourism as an integrated and mutually dependent amalgam of many important components. He provides useful detail in the form of the terms of reference of key support bodies, in Indonesian tourism education, and describes this important feature of integration as follows:

"In the past we tended to oversimplify tourism training needs. We tended to think that if we built one or two hotel schools, this would be sufficient to take care of all of the needs. We overlooked the extraordinary diversity of tourism, and the extensive range of services and jobs which come together to form the sector as a whole. Nowadays we know better. We know that education and training must last from the cradle to the grave. That training has to be everywhere, for all levels and for all specialisations. It has to be for everybody. Tourism is a product which has to be consumed where it is produced.

At a tourist destination, nearly the whole community will become involved and affected. The ordinary citizen must be alerted to tourism, and made aware of its benefits and its needs. This public awareness poses one more educational activity required to underpin a successful tourism sector" (Mappisammeng, 1990, p.2).

Tourism and Employment

This area generates wide-ranging consideration in the literature, including material of a relatively technical and theoretical nature as well as somewhat more descriptive and, frequently, locality-based studies of employment.

Examples of the former include a paper by Kleijweg and Thurik (1988) which considers the determinants of aggregate employment in, among other industries, the hotel and catering sector. This study is useful in that it charts the level of impact which changes in consumer spending (positive and negative) have on employment and also measures the negative impact of wage increases on employment. The authors also conclude that scarcity in the labour market influence productivity. The findings have a close relationship to the discussion on the impact of penalty pay rates in Australia by Wilson (1990).

A number of studies consider the various methodologies available for the estimation of tourism employment. Four approaches are discussed in a report to the Irish Minister for Tourism and Transport (Department of Tourism and Transport, 1988) and the

merits and problems inherent in each are considered in some detail.

The methodologies considered are

- the input-output approach, which can cover the effects of overseas tourism and carrier access receipts in a rigorous way and can generate estimates of direct, indirect and induced employment. It cannot cater for domestic tourism and the methodology is highly resource consuming;
- the resource intensive direct survey method, which can give comprehensive direct employment estimates but does not, in itself, generate information on secondary or other effects of tourist expenditure;
- the proportional method which uses up-to-date information on employment in order to calculate changes in tourism employment; and
- the macroeconomic or multiplier effect approach which is particularly suited to deriving the employment effects of increments in tourism receipts but does not generate total employment estimates.

The report notes that use of these methodologies actually produces results which are not necessarily consistent or in agreement. In terms of direct employment in Irish tourism, they note a variation of approximately 50% between the top and lowest estimates, pointing to the continuing imprecision in the process of defining and estimating employment in tourism.

Vaughan (1986) considers two non-survey approaches in the

estimation of tourism-related employment. These are

- the use of official Census of employment-based estimates considers the proportion of employment within all relevant job sectors that can be attributed to tourism and bases final figures on an aggregation of these figures with estimates of both self employment and seasonal positions in the industry. Indirect and induced employment are derived from expenditure estimates;
- the use of multiplier studies to calculate growth in tourism employment in proportion to increases in tourist expenditure, with some consideration for changes in productivity built into the calculations.

Vaughan notes that there are, basically, two reasons for producing tourism employment statistics

- a) "advocacy": to show that tourism is worthwhile and should be supported, politically, financially or otherwise, and
- b) for planning: to assess the effects of different tourism policies in creating jobs" (Vaughan, 1986, p.54).

With the exception of the direct survey method, all the approaches described in the Irish report and by Vaughan are, primarily of value for advocacy purposes. This thorny and contentious area is further reviewed by the World Tourism Organisation in a practical guide to the collection of employment statistics in tourism (WTO, 1985).

Wanhill (1990) considers the application of one methodology, the

use of input and output tables, within tourism manpower planning. Wanhill argues that this methodology "is well suited to tourism analysis because of the way it picks up inter-industry linkages and hence can be used to model manpower requirements generated by future tourist spending" (Wanhill, 1990, p. 148). He concludes that

"the use of input-output model of the tourism sector permits the construction of a complete manpower planning model in which forecasts are dependent on:

- The market strategy in relation to the level of tourist spending and the pattern of that spending.
- The technical structure of the inter-industry matrix.
- Productivity and wastage rates in the labour market.

By manipulating the above information the model can be calibrated to produce target manpower forecasts which are consistent with the wider scenario for the tourism sector" (Wanhill, 1990, p.151).

The application of these various methodologies in the estimation of tourism employment generally appears in a literature that considers labour market concerns as just one component of broader economic impact studies of tourism. A number of general studies, which do not focus on one particular country or locality, can be identified, over the past twenty-five years, which exemplify this approach. They include the work of Archer (1977; 1982); Clement (1967); Duffield (1982); Gershuny and Miles (1983); Peters (1969); and Williams and Shaw (1988a). Williams and Shaw (1988b) provide a useful summary of the relative significance of tourism-generated

employment in western Europe and, furthermore, also consider the impact on employment of factors such as recession and changing structures within the work force.

The most useful work, in this area, relates to local, regional or national studies of tourism and employment. A number of reports consider the impact of tourism on employment on the whole industry (Morrell, 1982 and 1985; English Tourist Board, 1986; CERT, 1987; HMSO, 1990) but more common and somewhat more comprehensive are studies which focus on selected sub-sectors of the industry, generally the food and accommodation areas. These include national studies in Ireland (CERT, 1985 and 1988); the United Kingdom (HCITB, 1983) and the United States (U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1985). Transnational comparisons are provided in a study conducted by the OECD (1987). These reports are, by and large, non-discursive in nature and confine themselves to reporting data collection.

Somewhat different are interpretive studies which consider tourism employment in the context of employment and the economy in a locality or country. Parsons (1987; 1988) provides a review of what he calls a "stock-taking exercise" of the quantity and quality of employment in all sectors of the tourism industry in the United Kingdom. In his second paper, he extrapolates national trends to the regional level. Parsons considers the quality of jobs as well as the raw number in jobs and assesses the skills implications of changes in this respect.

Regional studies are well represented by work relating to Wales (Archer and Shea, 1977; Medlik, 1989). Medlik's study provides a

useful comparative analysis of the structure and quality of tourism employment in Wales and the United Kingdom as a whole. He illustrates the impact that varying tourism markets (Wales has a rather higher domestic tourism component than the U.K. as a whole) has on employment. He summarises the characteristics of tourism employment in Wales in the following terms:

"Tourism is an important source of employment in Wales and tourism employment is widely dispersed geographically throughout the Principality. It is also widely distributed sectorally, not only in industries serving tourists directly, but also in a wide range of industries, which supply those serving tourists. The role of the small business in economic growth and in employment creation is increasingly recognized; much of tourism is served by small businesses and self-employment in tourism is high. Women are an important source of labour for tourism and in turn tourism extends employment opportunities for women. Part-time employment provides employers with a flexibility to adjust their staffing to peaks and troughs in daily and weekly activity and in turn tourism extends opportunities for part-time employment. Seasonal employment gives employers a flexibility to adjust their staffing to peaks and troughs in activity during the year and in turn tourism creates employment opportunities for people not available for year-round employment" (Medlik, 1989, p.30).

Medlik's analysis could, of course, apply to a number of what could be described as tourism industries "on the margin" such as Norway, Ireland and Scotland and provides an analysis which goes considerably beyond the statistical material covered in many studies. Rather more locally, Dineen and Deegan (1990) consider the employment effects (direct, indirect and induced) of specific tourism projects in Ireland and make use of material that combines both domestic and international tourism expenditure. The study is based on an interesting use of the multiplier effect on three differing tourism projects in the west of the country and the conclusion is drawn that tourism growth does not, necessarily, translate into increased employment, especially if businesses are operating below optimum productivity.

6. Conclusions

What is evident, from this extended review of the human resource literature, as it pertains to tourism, is the dearth of useful material that is of specific value in the policy area. Some useful sources do exist, but they are not truly research-based and tend towards general discussion of the issues in relation to the responsibilities of the public and private sector. An example of this is Ritchie's perceptive and agenda-setting paper, which identifies priorities for tourism education in the 1990s (Ritchie, 1992). Without specifically considering tourism policy development as a separate concern, Ritchie places many of the broader tourism policy issues within the ambit of tourism education, thus reversing

the association and link.

This problem of a lack of policy recognition would be far more serious were the literature relating to the hotel and catering industries extracted from this review. The absolute absence of more than a relatively limited coverage of tourism-specific material in the tourism industry is a major problem faced by researchers with an interest in this area and points to considerable scope for further research and authorship in this field. It is possible to extract themes and issues from what constitutes a very wide ranging literature and to conjecture as to how these may impact on policy. However, given the significance of human resource factors within the tourism economy of most countries, this absence of policy-related discussion is of considerable significance.

That the literature paints a somewhat negative picture of human resource matters, within the tourism and hospitality industry, is clear (Wood, 1992). This author would not, substantively, disagree with these assessments but would point out, as a caveat, that the literature is not truly representative of the full breadth of what can be styled the tourism industry. There are sectors and sub-sectors which merit further research in order to test the applicability of this broadly negative picture. However, even this conclusion will not, in substance, alter the assessment that the human resources literature makes but a limited contribution to the main theme of this thesis.

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Chapter 4.

SURVEY METHODOLOGIES

The empirical component of this thesis was conducted after initial and detailed study of the relevant literature. Thus, the parameters adopted in the studies drew, significantly, on the limited previous work undertaken in this field. However, as indicated in the two previous chapters, the scope of comparable literature is somewhat limited and this restricted the applicability of the literature searches to the empirical part of this study.

The empirical component consisted of two distinct sections, which have different objectives and were separated in their execution by a period of time. The first part consisted of a mailed survey of National Tourism Offices, seeking information on national tourism policies, the role of various agencies in their execution and the extent to which human resource-related concerns feature within these policies. The second, follow-up study, conducted some three years later, sought information of a more specific human resource nature and how this area was represented and implemented within national tourism policies.

Assessing reliable information in a cost effective manner presented the main methodological problem with respect to both elements of the study. Clearly, mailed questionnaires offered the only realistic means to obtain detailed information from national tourism ministries or organisations in a large number of countries. However, this necessity in itself, laid the study open to the very real, inherent weaknesses of such a methodology in the collection of data about tourism and tourism policy. No

indication was available regarding the status or competence of the National Tourism Organisation officer completing the questionnaire and, especially in relation to the more subjective questions, this may be of significance. This limitation must be taken into consideration in evaluating data and information.

The letter accompanying the questionnaire also requested published or other relevant support documentation. Initial contact with London-based offices proved very unsatisfactory, beyond ascertaining the name and position of the Chief Officer of the administration's home office. Overseas offices do not hold significant information of the kind required. Indeed, their focus is primarily marketing and, as such, they could only provide promotional information relating to this function. Having selected the mailed questionnaire method, certain logistical difficulties were of concern and acted as limitations to the survey. These require recognition in the interpretation of the study findings. These difficulties included

- * the reliability of international mail;
- * the impracticality of providing paid return envelopes to stimulate response;
- * language difficulties, both with respect to the initial questionnaire and subsequent replies; and
- * balancing the need for brevity with the wish to elicit sufficient, worthwhile data.

The first stage of the project was undertaken in 1988. This involved writing to the European office of 104 national tourism administrations (in the majority of cases, located in London) to ascertain details of the appropriate contact point in the home

country, normally the Chief Officer. In addition, eight tourism organisations, with no European office, were contacted direct. A total of 92 (82%) responses to this query were received.

The questionnaire for this part of the study (Appendix B) was developed in consultation with officers of Bord Failte (the Irish Tourist Board) and piloted with staff in the research department of the same organisation and with officers of the research and training departments of the Singapore Tourism Promotion Board, to which I was attached at the time.

After post-pilot amendments were put in place, the questionnaire was mailed to the Chief Officer (by name, where this was available) of 107 national tourism organisations. The questionnaire and the cover letter were offered in English and French as cost and other practical concerns did not allow for translation into additional languages. Only a small number of responses (8 or 16% of those who replied) availed of the option to reply in French.

The response rate to the first survey can be considered to be satisfactory, given the general difficulties alluded to above. A total of 49 completed replies (46% of the population) were received. A further two letters of apology were also received, indicating an inability to supply the required information, because of staff shortages. In addition to the data requested through questionnaires, 19 responses (or 39% of the replies) appended additional published information on their existing tourism policies; their proposed policies; or information of a more general nature. Data was analyzed manually as well as using the SPSS/PC+ package.

behavioural and business skills. The second and equally important dimension is that of on-going or lifelong development, a process that continues throughout a manager's career within the company (Jones, 1990).

This latter process of on-going development, in particular, signals one of the main areas for linkage between the tourism and hospitality industry and its educational and training providers. Formal recognition of what happens within industry-based management development is a key concept within the United Kingdom's National Vocational Qualifications (NVQ) scheme (Messenger and Makinson, 1991) and this follows a number of similar, company-specific initiatives over a number of previous years (Robertson and Glendining, 1989). Initiatives, taken from the education side of the "divide" are also outlined, generally in case study form (Burton, 1988). Gamble and Messenger (1990) point to one of the underlying problems in reaching agreement between the industry and education, which is establishing agreement as to what the managerial role and function really is, within the industry. This is a topic that has already been considered in this review.

Underlying all discussion of this area is the need for the educational side of the relationship to be flexible and responsive. This is well put by Go (1990).

"In order to be effective, traditional hospitality management education must be broadened to reflect the specialised concerns of the diverse group of industries

The geographical spread of responses to the first survey is shown in Table 1 and indicates a relatively satisfactory range.

Table 1: Geographical spread of responses - 1988 survey

	<u>Total responses</u>
Europe	16
North America	2
Central America/ Caribbean	8
South America	2
Africa	6
South and West Asia	4
East/ South-East Asia	5
Australasia/ Oceania	5
Middle East	0
Unidentified	1
TOTAL	49

A further categorisation of replies was undertaken in order to divide responses according to economic criteria. Using published OECD and UN data for 1987, the criteria of per capita income was employed to create three subgroups, as shown in Table 2. This division is, clearly, somewhat arbitrary but provides a useful comparative economic framework for evaluating responses.

Table 2: Responses by economic category - 1988 survey

	<u>Total responses</u>
Per capita income less than US\$1000 (income group A)	19 (39%)
Per capita income between US\$1000 and US\$8000 (income group B)	9 (18%)
Per capita income greater than US\$8000 (income group C)	20 (41%)
Unidentified	1 (2%)
TOTAL	49

The second, follow-up study was conducted in late 1991 and early 1992. The same methodology was employed in that questionnaires (Appendix C) were prepared for mailing to National Tourism Organisations, based on the data-base established for the previous survey. This questionnaire was developed using information and parameters which were employed in the World Tourism Organisation's 1975 study Aims, Activities and Fields of Competence of National Tourism Organisations (WTO, 1975) and comparison is made with the findings of this survey. More limited use was also made of a more recent WTO study, Tourism Development Report: Policy and Trends (WTO, 1988). Piloting was undertaken with officers of the Tourist Development Corporation of Malaysia, in order to ensure clarity and comprehension. For reasons of cost and time, English only was employed with respect to this questionnaire and the accompanying letter.

The questionnaire was mailed to the Chief Officer of 108 National Tourism Organisations, not entirely the same population as the previous survey, reflecting changes in political structures, especially in eastern Europe.

The response rate was somewhat better than with the first study as a total of 66 completed questionnaires were returned (61% of the population). In addition, 11 respondents included supplementary material (19% of the responses). Of the 66 National Tourism Organisations, 43 (65%) had previously replied to the 1988 survey.

The geographical spread of responses for the second survey is shown in Table 3. Again, a satisfactory geographical spread was obtained.

Table 3: Geographical spread of responses - 1991/ 92

<u>survey</u>	<u>Total responses</u>
Europe	25
North America	2
Central America/ Caribbean	10
South America	3
Africa	6
South and West Asia	3
East/ South-East Asia	9
Australasia/ Oceania	6
Middle East	2
TOTAL	66

Categorisation according to economic criteria was undertaken on the same basis as that employed for the earlier study and 1987 was used again, although changes in economic circumstances in the intervening period will have altered the group allocation of some countries. In addition, the actual 1987 figures used are also some what dated but this does not significantly affect validity of the broad categories employed. Table 4 shows this categorisation.

Table 4: Responses by economic category - 1991/ 92

<u>survey</u>	<u>Total responses</u>
Group A	29 (44%)
Group B	16 (24%)
Group C	21 (32%)
TOTAL	66

These responses and their distribution between the three economic groups provide a somewhat more valid basis for inter-group comparison than was the case with the earlier study.

Data analysis was undertaken using SPSS/PC+, Sphinx and manual techniques.

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Chapter 5

AN EMPIRICAL STUDY OF NATIONAL TOURISM POLICIES

1. Introduction

The purpose of the empirical component of this study was to extend the data obtained through the literature reviews of the links between national tourism policies and human resource issues in tourism. The literature suggests that the links are not well forged and that, where reference to human resource concerns does feature in national tourism policies, the association is ill-defined and only developed in a very limited way. There is no evidence, in the literature, to a study or studies which, specifically, investigates this association. However, what the literature does demonstrate is both the diversity in tourism policies that exist between different countries and the divergent relationships that human resource concerns have to these policies. It is clear that policy within individual countries, in both domains, is developed to reflect a complex combination of social, economic, environmental, historic and political factors and the interplay of these factors results in this diversity. Therefore, two studies were undertaken in order to consider some of the determinants of national tourism policies and how these were influenced by human resource factors.

This chapter is concerned with the findings of the 1988 survey while Chapter 6 will report the outcome of the second study.

2. Findings of the First Survey

The findings of this and the subsequent survey (Chapter 6) are presented with limited comment or analysis. The implications of the findings and the conclusions which can be drawn from them are presented as a separate section within this chapter.

2.1 Question 1: Does your country have a National Tourist Board/ Agency?

	<u>Yes</u>	<u>No</u>
Overall	42 - 85.7%	7 - 14.3%
Group A	15 - 79%	4 - 21%
Group B	8 - 89%	1 - 11%
Group C	18 - 90%	2 - 10%

2.2 Question 2: To which government ministry is the Board/ Agency responsible?

Allocating responses to this question necessitated some arbitrary decisions as combined ministries were quite frequently mentioned, especially those including tourism. Where tourism was included within a multi-functional ministry, allocation was made to tourism. Where other combinations were mentioned, the first or dominant ministry was chosen.

Overall:

<u>Ministry</u>	<u>Number</u>	<u>% of those with Boards</u>
Tourism	21	50
Communications	1	2
Transport	1	2
Industry/ Employment	12	29
Commerce	2	5
Economic Affairs	5	12
No Board/ Agency	7	
TOTAL	49	

By economic group:

<u>Ministry</u>	<u>A</u>	<u>B</u>	<u>C</u>	<u>Unidentified</u>	<u>Total</u>
Tourism	11(52%) (73%)	3(14%) (42%)	6(29%) (32%)	1(5%)	21(100%)
Communications	0	0	1(100%) (5%)	0	1(100%)
Transport	1(100%) (7%)	0	0	0	1(100%)
Industry/ Employment	1(8%) (7%)	2(17%) (29%)	9(75%) (47%)	0	12(100%)
Commerce	0	0	2(100%) (11%)	0	2(100%)
Econ. Affairs	2(40%) (13%)	2(40%) (29%)	1(20%) (5%)	0	5(100%)
(No Board/ Agency)	4	2	1	0	
TOTAL	19	9	20	1	

2.3 Question 3: What are the main functions of the national tourist board/ agency?

Respondents were asked to check functions from a list provided. Responses varied from two to all twelve categories. Responses to this question were received from three countries which do not have a separate national tourist board/ agency but where functions are vested in some alternative body. The number of respondents and percentage checking each function overall and by economic group was as follows:

<u>Function</u>	<u>Overall</u>	<u>A</u>	<u>B</u>	<u>C</u>	<u>Uniden.</u>
a) General tourism information	35(71%)	17(89%)	7(78%)	10(50%)	1
b) Tourism marketing (international only)	15(31%)	8(42%)	3(33%)	4(20%)	
c) Tourism marketing (domestic only)	3(6%)	2(11%)	1(11%)	0	

d) Tourism marketing (international and domestic)	31(63%)	9(47%)	5(56%)	16(80%)	1
e) Regional tourism promotion	14(29%)	5(26%)	3(33%)	6(30%)	
f) Collection/ analysis of tourism statistics	34(69%)	11(58%)	6(67%)	16(80%)	1
g) Tourism product grading	25(51%)	5(26%)	6(67%)	14(70%)	
h) Tourism product development- accommodation	22(45%)	6(32%)	5(56%)	10(50%)	1
i) Tourism product development- attractions	24(49%)	1(5%)	2(22%)	17(85%)	
j) Training for tourism	21(43%)	11(58%)	5(56%)	5(25%)	
k) Tourism policy development	31(63%)	10(53%)	6(67%)	14(70%)	1
l) Other functions	5(10%)	2(11%)	1(11%)	2(10%)	

Population:

n = 49

Valid responses:

n = 45 (includes three without a
national tourist board/ agency)

2.4 Question 4: Does your country have an official national
policy/ statement of objectives for tourism?

Overall:

YES 37 (76%)

NO 12 (24%)

When these replies were correlated with replies to Question 1,
relating to the existence of a National Tourist Board/ Agency,
the following results were obtained:

	YES to Q.1	NO to Q.1	TOTAL
YES to Q.4	35	2	37

NO to Q.4

7

5

12

This appears to demonstrate that the existence of formal tourism policies is relatively closely, but not exclusively, associated with the existence of a National Tourist Board/ Agency.

Question 4 was also analyzed according to economic band.

	<u>A</u>	<u>B</u>	<u>C</u>	<u>Unidentified</u>
YES	16(84%)	7(78%)	13(65%)	1
NO	3(16%)	2(22%)	7(35%)	
TOTAL	19	9	20	

2.5 Question 5: For those respondents with a national tourism policy, what are the main reasons that your national government give for involvement in tourism?

Respondents were asked to prioritise a number of possible reasons. The mean of the ranking given is, therefore, used to place the reasons in order of priority. Not all respondents prioritised the full list of factors - the "n" column gives the number of valid responses. Thus some error may result in the rankings because they are not weighted to take into account "no responses".

Overall:

<u>RANK</u>	<u>REASON/ FACTOR</u>	<u>AVE. RATING</u>	<u>N</u>
1.	To generate foreign revenue/ assist balance of payments	1.92	36
2.	To provide employment - nationally	2.66	32
3.	To improve regional/ local economy	3.10	31
4.	To create awareness about country	3.78	27

5.	To provide employment regionally/ locally	3.79	29
6.	To support environment/ public conservation	5.00	25
7.	To contribute to infrastructural development	5.11	28
8.	To create international goodwill	5.65	23
	(Other factors - miscellaneous	1.60	5)
TOTAL			37

By economic group:

<u>REASON/ FACTOR</u>	<u>RANKING AND RATING BY GROUP</u>		
	<u>A</u>	<u>B</u>	<u>C</u>
To generate foreign revenue/ assist balance of payments	1 (1.75)	1 (1.86)	1 (2.15)
To provide employment - nationally	2 (2.58)	2 (2.71)	2 (2.69)
To improve regional/ local economy	3 (2.86)	3 (3.00)	3 (3.45)
To create awareness about country	5 (4.13)	5 (3.83)	4 (3.54)
To provide employment - regionally/ locally	4 (3.82)	4 (3.80)	5 (3.77)
To support environment/ public conservation	7 (6.00)	7 (5.50)	6 (4.77)
To contribute to infrastructural development	6 (4.69)	6 (4.86)	8 (6.80)
To create international goodwill	7 (6.00)	7 (5.50)	7 (5.50)

N = 37

2.6 Question 6: For respondents without a national tourism policy, what are the main reasons that your national government has for involvement in tourism?

In the same way as with Question 5, respondents, who had answered in the negative to Question 4, were asked to prioritise a number of possible reasons for involvement in tourism. The mean of the ranking given is, therefore, used to place the reasons in order of priority. Not all the respondents prioritised the full list of factors and the "N" column gives the number of valid responses.

Overall:

<u>RANK</u>	<u>REASON/ FACTOR</u>	<u>AVE. RATING</u>	<u>N</u>
1.	To generate foreign revenue/ assist balance of payments	1.64	11
2.	To provide employment - nationally	2.55	11
3.	To improve regional/ local economy	3.88	8
4.	To create awareness about country	4.10	10
5.	To provide employment regionally/ locally	4.22	9
6.	To support environment/ public conservation	5.00	8
7.	To contribute to infrastructural development	5.86	7
8.	To create international goodwill	7.00	9
	(Other factors - miscellaneous	1.00	1)
TOTAL			12

By economic group:

<u>REASON/ FACTOR</u>	<u>RANKING AND RATING BY GROUP</u>		
	<u>A</u>	<u>B</u>	<u>C</u>
To generate foreign revenue/ assist balance of payments	1 (1.33)	1 (1.50)	1 (1.83)
To provide employment - nationally	2 (2.50)	2 (2.50)	2 (2.57)
To improve regional/ local economy	3 (3.67)	3 (4.00)	4 (4.00)
To create awareness about country	5 (4.50)	5 (5.00)	3 (3.86)
To provide employment - regionally/ locally	4 (4.00)	4 (4.00)	5 (4.40)
To support environment/ public conservation	7 (6.00)	6 (6.00)	6 (4.67)
To contribute to infra- structural development	6 (5.33)	6 (6.00)	7 (6.50)
To create international goodwill	7 (7.50)	8 (8.00)	8 (6.67)

N = 12

When these two groups (those with official tourism policies and those without) are combined, the full population of 49 gives the following ranking and rating of factors.

Overall:

<u>RANK</u>	<u>REASON/ FACTOR</u>	<u>AVE. RATING</u>	<u>N</u>
1.	To generate foreign revenue/ assist balance of payments	1.85	47
2.	To provide employment - nationally	2.63	43
3.	To improve regional/ local economy	3.26	39
4.	To create awareness about country	3.87	37

5.	To provide employment regionally/ locally	3.89	38
6.	To support environment/ public conservation	5.00	33
7.	To contribute to infrastructural development	5.26	35
8.	To create international goodwill	6.03	32
	(Other factors - miscellaneous)	1.50	6)
TOTAL			49

When these combined responses are analyzed by economic group, the results are as follows:

By economic group:

<u>REASON/ FACTOR</u>	<u>RANKING AND RATING BY GROUP</u>		
	<u>A</u>	<u>B</u>	<u>C</u>
To generate foreign revenue/ assist balance of payments	1 (1.68)	1 (1.78)	1 (2.05)
To provide employment - nationally	2 (2.57)	2 (2.67)	2 (2.65)
To improve regional/ local economy	3 (3.00)	3 (3.14)	3 (3.60)
To create awareness about country	5 (4.20)	5 (4.00)	4 (3.65)
To provide employment - regionally/ locally	4 (3.86)	4 (3.83)	5 (3.95)
To support environment/ public conservation	7 (6.00)	7 (5.57)	6 (4.74)
To contribute to infra-structural development	6 (4.79)	6 (5.11)	8 (6.71)
To create international goodwill	8 (6.33)	8 (6.00)	7 (5.89)
N = 49			

2.8 Question 8: What are the main issues/ points of debate within tourism in your country?

This question allowed respondents to identify whether a selection of statements relating to possible issues/ points of debate were of importance in their country.

Overall:

<u>Statement</u>	<u>Agree</u>		<u>Disagree</u>	
	<u>N</u>	<u>%</u>	<u>N</u>	<u>%</u>
There is a shortage of facilities/ accommodation	31	63	18	37
There is a shortage of skilled manpower for tourism	37	76	12	24
There is concern for the effects of tourism on the environment	25	51	24	49
Tourism places excessive demand on the internal transport network	14	29	35	71
Tourism places excessive demands on other infra-structural facilities	20	41	29	59
Servicing international tourism necessitates high levels of imports	6	12	43	88
The benefits from developing domestic tourism are greater than those from international tourism	6	12	43	88
The costs of developing domestic tourism are lower than those of international tourism	7	14	42	86
Miscellaneous factors/ issues	12	25	-----	

The miscellaneous issues cited were, by and large, variations of those identified within the questionnaire. These issues included:

- * "lack of imaginative product/ attractions";
- * "too few high class hotels";
- * "standards not up to international demands";
- * "limited access air capacity";
- * "political instability";
- * "short length of stay by visitors"; and
- * "legislative and co-ordination barriers".

This information is also presented by economic group:

<u>Statement</u>	<u>Number and % by economic group</u>		
	<u>A</u>	<u>B</u>	<u>C</u>
There is a shortage of facilities/ accommodation	17(89%)	6(67%)	8(40%)
There is a shortage of skilled manpower for tourism	13(68%)	8(89%)	16(80%)
There is concern for the effects of tourism on the environment	5(26%)	5(56%)	15(75%)
Tourism places excessive demand on the internal transport network	9(47%)	2(22%)	3(15%)
Tourism places excessive demands on other infra-structural facilities	14(74%)	4(44%)	2(10%)
Servicing international tourism necessitates high levels of imports	4(21%)	1(11%)	1(5%)
The benefits from developing domestic tourism are greater than those from international tourism	3(16%)	1(11%)	2(10%)
The costs of developing domestic tourism are lower than those of international tourism	4(21%)	1(11%)	2(10%)
Miscellaneous factors/ issues	4(21%)	3(33%)	4(20%)

Respondents were, finally, required to provide additional data on the features and performance of the tourism industry in the country in question.

2.9 Question 9a: Average length of stay of international tourists

Mean of 44 respondents:	8.48 days
Maximum:	24 days
Minimum:	1.41 days
Mean of 18 group A respondents:	9.04 days
Mean of 8 group B respondents:	9.41 days
Mean of 18 group C respondents:	7.50 days

2.10 Question 9b: Average spend of international tourists (excluding international air receipts) - 1988

Mean of 32 respondents:	US\$532
Maximum:	US\$1041
Minimum:	US\$207
Mean of 11 group A respondents:	US\$478
Mean of 6 group B respondents:	US\$541
Mean of 15 group C respondents:	US\$568

2.11 Question 9c: Average spend of domestic tourists - 1988

Mean of 9 respondents:	US\$310
Maximum:	US\$678
Minimum:	US\$60
Mean of 2 group A respondents:	US\$95
Mean of 2 group B respondents:	US\$215
Mean of 5 group C respondents:	US\$434

2.12 Question 9d: What proportion of GNP is represented by tourism (international and domestic) receipts?

Mean of 33 respondents:	4.23%
Maximum:	7%
Minimum:	1%
Mean of 11 group A respondents:	5.33%
Mean of 7 group B respondents:	5.14%
Mean of 15 group C respondents:	3.01%

2.13 Question 9e: In relation to the national economy, please place tourism position in a ranking position within your most important industries.

Mean of 40 respondents:	4.60
Highest:	1
Lowest:	10
Mean of 18 group A respondents:	3.44
Mean of 6 group B respondents:	3.83
Mean of 15 group C respondents:	6.60

3. Discussion - National tourism policy study

The findings of this survey will be analyzed from a number of different perspectives, which give shape to the data generated.

These include:

- * Administration of tourism and responsibility for tourism (3.1);
- * Functions of National Tourism Organisations (3.2);
- * Determinants of national tourism policies,

particularly the role of human resource-related factors in tourism policy determination (3.3); and
* Tourism issues that may act as barriers to the implementation of tourism policies (4.4).

In addition, the analysis of the findings on the basis of the three economic groups (A, B and C) and their origin in the 1987 per capita income of participating countries, allows for the extrapolation of certain tentative conclusions with respect to tourism policy and the wealth of individual countries (3.5). This, in turn, allows for the presentation of a tentative tourism policy model, with its origins in these economic groups, against which specific national tourism policies may be evaluated (3.6). The second empirical study further explores the relationship between national tourism policies and human resource determinants.

3.1 Administration of tourism and responsibility for tourism

The survey shows clearly that the vast majority of sample countries (86%) have a designated National Tourism organisation, operating as an arm of government and on behalf of the development of tourism businesses in that country. As will be seen, the functions of these bodies show considerable variance. The operating title given to these agencies also varies from authority, board, agency, development corporation to organisation, administration and department.

Countries which do not have an officially designated National Tourism Organisation (14% of the sample) do, in general, have some form of official executing body responsible for tourism.

This may be within and part of central government, as an integrated part of a civil service function or, more frequently, responsibility for tourism is a delegated regional, state or local function, without significant national co-ordination, as was the case in the United States until 1961. An alternative model is that of Hong Kong, where the national function is vested in a private sector body, the Hong Kong Tourist Authority, which operates autonomously from government. The WTO study, Aims, Activities and Fields of Competence of NTOs (WTO, 1975), indeed, identified just six organisations of this kind, falling under the non-governmental umbrella. In addition to Hong Kong, they were Austria, Costa Rica, Denmark, the Federal Republic of Germany and the Netherlands, although in each case close links existed with government departments or ministries. There are indications, in wealthier countries adopting greater market orientation in the management of their public services, that certain traditional functions of national tourism offices are seen as likely candidates for privatisation. An example of this process is the establishment, by the Wales Tourist Board, of Tourism Quality Services, a subsidiary company charged with the execution of all grading and quality standards management in Welsh tourism and due for full independence from the Board in the near future. Another, more commonly implemented strategy, is that of placing greater financial onus for the operation of National Tourist Organisations or specific functions within them, primarily marketing, onto the private sector which benefits from those functions. This has certainly happened with respect to the British Tourist Authority and its subsidiary national and

regional boards. These examples of functional "disestablishment" of National Tourist Organisations may well precurse total privatisation and independence of government control, other than financial subvention, in the case of the United Kingdom, heralding a partial return to the pre-1969 situation.

It is interesting to note that those countries within economic group A appear to be less likely to have a formal tourist board or agency. Control of the tourism function is rather more likely to vest directly within central government while, in two of the sample cases, the tourism industry has only recently become acknowledged as an economic or political (or, indeed, desirable) reality for those countries. In itself, the fact that addresses for the original questionnaire were identified and replies were received from these two countries, suggests some growing commitment to tourism at government level.

Responsibility for tourism and the operation of National Tourism Organisations is held by a diversity of government departments, in many cases ministries that have multi-functional responsibilities. Notwithstanding the caveat already addressed with respect to classifying government departments, tourism ministries were the most commonly cited overall (50%) and over half of these were "stand alone" departments. Combinations, which included tourism, were varied and extended up to four separate areas "under the one roof". The status of tourism in a country may be monitored by the existence of a specialist sponsoring ministry and trends, in this respect, require further research. This link, however, is not inviolate and a number of major tourist destinations have no sponsoring department with titular

responsibility for tourism (examples include the United Kingdom and Singapore). There is also evidence that tourism is subject to considerable movement between different sponsoring ministries. In the case of the United Kingdom, this has involved some three departments over the past ten years, moving from Trade and Industry to Employment (in itself, an implicit statement of its prime objectives), under a junior minister and, recently, to the newly created Department of National Heritage, without specific cabinet ministerial responsibility.

Industry was cited as the second major sponsoring ministry at 29%, again frequently in combination with other functions. The same is true of economic affairs at 12%. Indeed, a rough categorisation can be drawn from the responses to Question 2. By grouping tourism, communications and transport as one broad area, 54% of the sample are accommodated. This group may be seen to reflect the placing of tourism at a level of some significance in relation to general government policy beyond the primarily economic domain. By contrast, the second category, involving the remaining 46%, include those responsible to the ministries of industry, economic affairs and commerce and thus place tourism primarily, within its economic context but, perhaps, with a lower national significance and status.

The above, albeit somewhat crude, categorisation may assume additional significance when the distribution of responses is analyzed according to economic group. This shows that National Tourism Organisations in countries of low per capita income are much more likely to be responsible to ministries of tourism, communications or transport than is the case with countries

having a higher per capita income. The converse is also evident in that National Tourism Organisations of rather more wealthy countries are likely to be responsible to ministries of industry, employment, commerce or economic affairs. This may be interpreted to show that tourism is given a rather broader status and significance in poorer countries than in those somewhat better off, despite the predominant economic management structure in place with respect to the latter. This dichotomy is clearly shown below.

<u>Ministries</u>	<u>Economic Group</u>		
	<u>A</u>	<u>B</u>	<u>C</u>
Ministries of Tourism, Communications and Transport	12 (80%)	3 (42%)	7 (37%)
Ministries of Industry, Employment, Commerce and Economic Affairs	3 (20%)	4 (58%)	12 (63%)

Furthermore, there is also a tentative link, which can be identified, between the position of tourism within the hierarchy of key national industries and its administration by a non-economic ministry. The average ranking of tourism among national industries for those within the tourism/communications/transport ministry group compared with those in the second group (industry, employment, commerce, economic affairs) can be seen below.

<u>Ministries</u>	<u>Average Ranking of Tourism</u>	<u>N</u>
Ministries of Tourism, Communications and Transport	3.89	21
Ministries of Industry, Employment, Commerce and Economic Affairs	5.38	19
Overall	4.60	40

While it would not be wise to draw excessive inference from the above, they do merit further consideration and research and will also be considered in the context of 3.6 below.

3.2 Functions of National Tourism Organisations

National Tourism organisations can be seen to execute a diversity of functions, on behalf of government. The dominant functions, on the basis of this study, relate to

- * information on tourism;
- * marketing and promotion (domestic and international);
- * statistical collection and analysis;
- * product grading and standards;
- * product development;
- * policy development; and
- * training.

The 1975 World Tourism Organisation study, Aims, Activities and Fields of Competence of National Tourism Organisations (WTO, 1975), classified activities in somewhat different terms but there is considerable overlap between the two. Detailed replication of the main findings of the WTO study is useful for

reference although it is arguable that the WTO study is very dated at this point. The WTO analysis identified the following sectors of activity among 95 participants in their study:

- * Official organisation of tourism at the national level (including regional, provincial and local activities) - identified by 67 of the 95 NTOs studied (71%);

- * Official organisation of tourism at the international level (primarily overseas representation) - identified by 89 of the 95 NTOs in terms of participation in meetings and conferences (94%); by 87 of the 95 NTOs as representatives of government (92%); and by 70 of the 95 NTOs as participants in bilateral or multilateral negotiations (74%);

- * Research, studies, surveys and statistics - 84 NTOs compile tourism data (88%); 73 out of 95 NTOs carry out surveys, opinion polls and behavioral studies of tourists (77%) and 68 NTOs have their own in-house research units (72%);

- * Tourism promotion abroad, described as a basic function of NTOs. Functions here include

- setting up overseas offices - 76 NTOs (80%)
- public relations offices - 70 NTOs (74%)
- familiarisation visits - 78 NTOs (82%)
- tourism advertising films - 83 NTOs (87%)
- publication of guides etc - 90 NTOs (95%)
- advertising campaigns - 85 NTOs (90%);

* Tourism planning and development:

- collaboration with national planning authorities in the preparation of tourism development plans - 84 NTOs (88%)
- empowered to prepare national, regional or local tourism development plans - 73 NTOs (77%)
- provide travel agents with sales promotional material - 66 NTOs (70%)
- the organisation of professional familiarisation visits - 55 NTOs (58%);

* Regulation and supervision of tourist enterprises: the regulatory and supervisory functions of NTOs were identified as

Hotel and restaurants

- draft hotel legislation and regulations - 67 NTOs (71%)
- responsibility for the inspection of hotels and restaurants - 66 NTOs (70%)
- prepare hotel classification systems - 64 NTOs (67%)
- prepare operating standards - 57 NTOs (60%)
- fix the prices of hotel and restaurant services - 48 NTOs (51%)
- issue hotel and restaurant operating permits - 47 NTOs (50%)
- grant loans for hotel construction and modernisation - 40 NTOs (42%)

Supplementary accommodation

- draft legislation and regulations - 52 NTOs (55%)

- inspection - 51 NTOs (54%)
- prepare operating standards - 48 NTOs (51%)
- fix prices - 38 NTOs (40%)
- issue operating permits - 39 NTOs (41%)
- grant loans for construction and extension - 32 NTOs (34%)

Travel agencies and tour operators

- draft legislation and regulations - 63 NTOs (66%)
- enforce and supervise regulations - 58 NTOs (61%)
- issue operating permits - 50 NTOs (53%)
- prepare classification - 45 NTOs (47%);
- * Tourist reception and information , an area covering
 - the operation of domestic tourist information offices - 74 NTOs (78%)
 - provision of tourist guides and interpreters - 56 NTOs (59%)
 - tourist policy operation - 19 NTOs (20%), although this number has certainly increased in the intervening years;
- * Tourism vocational training, recognised already in 1975 as "one of the main challenges facing the public and private sectors". The main functions identified point to a rather limited role.
 - organising vocational training courses, seminars and study cycles - 57 NTOs (60%)
 - setting up hotel and tourism schools and granting fellowships - 43 NTOs (45%);
- * Preservation, protection and utilisation of

historical, cultural and handicraft resources:

- protection, production and encouragement of folklore and handicrafts - 58 NTOs (61%)

- campaigns for the conservation of monuments, historic, cultural and artistic sites - 51 NTOs (54%); and

- * Ecology and the environment, again an area that will have changed significantly since 1975.

- activities to enhance natural resources - 60 NTOs (63%)

- conservation campaigns - 43 NTOs (45%)

- creation of national parks and protection of wildlife - 42 (44%) (from WTO, 1975).

By comparison with the 1975 study, the WTO's more recent document, Tourism Development Report: policies and trends (WTO, 1988), gives only an inconclusive comparative picture on the organisation and management of human resource issues in tourism at a national level. Part of the problem lies in the decision to send different survey instruments to authorities in developing and developed countries. The only requests, with respect to the human resource field, were made to NTOs and other agencies in developing countries and the information sought and obtained was of a much more general and unstructured nature than had been the case in 1975. Thus, the bulk of the information included in the report, while of considerable general interest as a commentary on human resource development within the tourism industries of developing countries, is largely descriptive and almost exclusively focused on the provision of education and training.

It is difficult to avoid the conclusion that the WTO missed an important opportunity in their conduct of the 1988 study.

What is interesting in comparing these three studies, in so far as this is possible, given time, sample and criteria differences, is the extent to which a much higher proportion of respondents to the 1975 WTO study checked specific functions as their responsibility than was the case with the study under consideration here. A maximum of 71% of the sample responded positively to a specific function (the provision of general tourism information) compared with a significant number in the 80 - 90% range with respect to the WTO study. This may suggest a move towards the fragmentation of functions of National Tourism Organisations in the 1975 to 1988 period, although the constraints of comparing the two studies require this conclusion to be drawn with considerable caution.

Returning to the study in question here, it is noteworthy that all of the key categories listed above, with the exception of product development and training, were identified by over half the survey respondents. All valid responses indicated a role in marketing, although the emphasis between domestic and international marketing varied - this is a possible area of change since 1975 when a small minority of respondents did not include marketing as a function of the NTO. Other core functions were identified as information provision and statistical collection/ analysis. In common with the 1975 WTO study, this survey did not allow for any weighting between individual functions and further research, on the relative resource allocations to each function, would be desirable. Anecdotal

information suggests, however, an increasing emphasis on pure marketing functions (and consequent resource allocations), especially in NTOs of first world countries and this is a trend that appears likely to continue.

Analysis, on the basis of the three economic groups, identifies some significant diversity between the groups in relation to the functions of National Tourism Organisations. Of particular note are the relative roles in

- provision of general tourism information, which is a much more frequent function in less affluent nations, with smaller and less developed private sectors than it is in more developed countries, reflecting moves to place greater onus and responsibility for "low level" promotion on the private sector;
- combined domestic and international marketing, which is more common in affluent countries and suggests stronger and more developed domestic markets in these countries. It also suggests a much greater confluence between the tourism products provided for and purchased by domestic and international tourists in developed countries than is the case in less developed countries;
- collection and analysis of tourist statistics, a vital aid to tourism planning, is more frequent among better off nations but is by no means universal as an NTO function - central statistical units within other government departments frequently take on this role;

- the greater emphasis on product development and grading among responding NTOs from developed countries, although this balance may well change in the near future with the withdrawal of product development from the portfolio of many NTOs in developed countries;

- the greater likelihood of the NTOs of less affluent countries taking responsibility for tourism training than would be the case in developed countries, possibly reflecting the limited development of general vocational education and training in these countries and the practical need to institute such provision, rapidly and independent of the main stream training system.

Further consideration of the implications of these differences and how they impact on the development of a tentative tourism policy model will be undertaken in sections 3.5 and 3.6 below.

3.3 Determinants of national tourism policy

Confirming the picture suggested by the literature review, the study found that the existence of formally stated national tourism policies is by no means universal. Such policies were acknowledged by 76% of the survey sample. Other respondents referred to documents currently under preparation. Interestingly, correlation between this question and that relating to the existence of a National Tourist Organisation is by no means total. Seven of the sample who do have such agencies do not have a formally articulated national policy for tourism while two of

the sample, who do have such a policy, do not have a central National Tourism Organisation. However, it is essential to bear in mind, at this point, that the existence of a policy does not, necessarily, translate fully or consistently into strategy and implementation.

The existence of a formal policy is linked to the economic position of the country in question in that such policies are to be found, more frequently, in less affluent nations. The link to the existence of specialist tourism ministries is of particular significance here. Formally stated tourism policies are rather more common in countries where the NTO is responsible to a ministry or department of tourism. In countries where tourism has a long-standing history, in most cases the more developed economies, it is likely that the industry evolved over this period of time without specific policy guidance. Where tourism is of more recent significance, the guiding role of a formally articulated statement of policy is likely to be of greater importance.

While some divergence is in evidence between the economic groups with respect to the existence of formal policies for tourism, actual determinants of such policy were ranked, with considerable consistency, by all respondents. The survey generated average ratings for eight key factors behind national tourism policies and, with some relatively minor variations, the order of priority was similar for all three economic groups. The actual average score allocated to factors showed rather more diversity.

Economic and employment related factors were accorded prime positions overall and by the three economic groups. Generation

of foreign currency, provision of employment and improvement of the regional/ local economy figure as the top three, in that order, with total consistency. Other economically linked factors, the provision of local/regional employment and tourism as a contributor to infrastructural development figure lower in the overall rankings but are of greater significance within less affluent countries than in more developed economies. The three less economically linked factors, creating awareness about the country; to support the environment; and to create international goodwill, figure fourth, sixth and eighth overall and were more likely to be given a positive rating by more affluent countries. It is interesting to note that the ratings given, independently, by those countries with formal tourism policies accord almost exactly with those given by countries which do not have such policies. Thus it is valid to combine the ratings of the full sample in order to analyze this data further.

The correlation between the general weighting of the factors, on the basis of inter- economic group comparison, is relatively high when the full sample is considered - rank order correlation coefficients of 0.99 between groups A and B; 0.84 between groups A and C; and 0.99 between groups B and C were identified. However, the actual average rating scores show some divergence. The highest rated factor, for example, the generation of foreign revenue, averages a position of 1.68 with respect to the least affluent group; 1.78 for the middle group of countries; and 2.05 for the most affluent. Likewise, the factor placed last on the list overall, to create international goodwill, while not the last within all economic groups, generated average ratings of

6.33, 6.00 and 5.89 respectively. The lower the average score, the greater is the number of respondents who selected that option as their priority factor or placed it relatively high among their choices. The two examples above suggest, on the one hand, that the less affluent nations give greater priority to the foreign exchange benefits of tourism than do richer countries while, on the other hand, the more affluent nations, arguably, can afford to be more positively disposed to the international goodwill benefits of tourism than are poorer countries.

The number of respondents including a particular factor within their ranking list also shows considerable variation and the ranking scores that have been considered here do not take this into account. It is arguable that the absence of a ranking position in responding to the questionnaire is tantamount to a lowest rating position and that the data could have been treated accordingly. However, a failure to rate some or all of the items may also have represented other factors such as a lack of information or authority with respect to national tourism policy determinants. Furthermore, it was noted that such manipulation would not have materially affected the outcome in that the level of response corresponds closely to the eventual ranking position and, as a result, it was decided not to further manipulate the data. Ideally, a technique such as Kelly's repertory grid, which allows respondents to construct their own key factors, would have overcome this problem. The international mailing methodology did not allow for this approach. In the overall group (n = 49), the highest response level was 47 (96% of respondents) for the top rated factor; 43 (88%) for the second rated down to 33 (67%) for

the sixth rated and 32 (65%) for the last rated. This may suggest, therefore, that had full responses been given with respect to all factors, the average ranking scores of the lower rated factors may well have been somewhat higher.

3.4 Issues of debate within tourism and possible barriers to the implementation of tourism policies

The survey sought the views of respondents with respect to the key concerns and issues which face the tourism industry in the country in question. These issues and concerns may be seen as potential barriers to the implementation of national tourism policies and, indeed, there are instances where policy objectives have been undermined as a result of issues such as these discussed here.

Responses, particularly when analyzed in terms of the three groups of countries on economic criteria, show some interesting divergences. The existence of adequate facilities, crucial to a modern, competitive tourism industry was acknowledged by less than half the overall sample. Indeed, 89% of the least affluent group of countries and 67% of the middle grouping identified the absence/ shortage of facilities and accommodation as a factor critical to that industry. By contrast, 40% of the sample of the most affluent group of responding countries acknowledged this concern, still a relatively high proportion. Clearly, "adequate", in this context, may not mean precisely the same in different countries, catering for different international and domestic markets. Such potentially important definitional problems necessitate the application of some caution in considering data

of this nature. However, meeting this basic requirement for adequate facilities and accommodation would seem to be a basic cornerstone for sustained and competitive tourism development. Countries such as Malaysia, which have attempted to expand their international tourism arrivals at a faster rate than facilities and accommodation development realistically allow, have suffered short-term practical difficulties and longer-term credibility problems as a result.

Identified by the Horwath and Horwath worldwide report for the International Hotels Association (Horwath and Horwath, 1988) as one of the key issues in tourism today, a shortage of skilled manpower is given a fairly consistent response by all economic groups. Overall, 75% of the sample indicated that skills shortages were a problem, ranging from 68% of the least affluent group through 80% of the highest per capita income group and 89% of the middle group. However, these figures, suggesting some degree of homogeneity, may well disguise rather more significant differences.

Within less developed economies, the crucial shortage is frequently in the area of skills per ce as opposed to manpower in general. Labour, as such, is in surplus in these countries but, for a variety of reasons, the requisite tourism skills, technical, linguistic and communicational, are absent in the workforce and the tourism industry is, in fact, drawing its workforce from a relatively small pool. By contrast, many developed economies are faced with demographic changes leading to absolute and skilled labour shortages. Furthermore, even in countries where current levels of unemployment are very high (for

example, the Republic of Ireland, with an unemployment rate currently running at in excess of 20%), there is evidence that the tourism industry is failing to attract the level of skilled personnel that it requires. The very high level of response to this issue by countries in the middle band is also of interest. This group includes a number of rapidly developing countries in East and South-East Asia, where growth in both the general economy and within tourism has been very high in recent years. They face general labour market constraints and increased competition at a time when the demands of the tourism industry are for enhanced skills level so as to allow increased productivity and less reliance on unskilled labour.

It is possible to cluster other responses, although none received as many positive responses as those already discussed. Concern for infrastructural facilities, covering issues such as air and land transportation as well as utilities, is significantly associated with a country's level of affluence. The issue is not of major concern within developed countries, although it does figure to a certain extent. By contrast, the less affluent responding countries did indicate concern for the demands that tourism places on internal transport (47%) and general facilities (74%). The experience of rail and air transport in countries such as India and China appear to illustrate this concern as does much publicised conflict between agriculture and tourism in the use of water resources in Thailand. These concerns accord with, but in some sense contradict, the response given in relation to the determinants of tourism policy, where the contribution of tourism to the development of infrastructure was rated rather higher

among less affluent countries than among the developed country respondents.

Other economic factors, such as the pressure which international tourism can place on imports and the relatively lower cost of developing a domestic as opposed to international tourism industry, do not feature significantly. With respect to the latter, domestic tourism is very different in developed as opposed to developing countries. In many countries within the former grouping (such as the United States and France, for example), consumer expectations and demands for domestic tourism products are frequently very similar to those required by the international visitor and the two markets are served almost simultaneously. By contrast, within most developing countries, there is virtually no overlap between the demands of the domestic and international tourist. Indian tourism policy, under non-Congress governments, has favoured the development of domestic tourism as a cheaper and culturally more acceptable alternative to international tourism. Domestic tourism, in India, is also employed as a deliberate vehicle in efforts to increase coherence and unity within a highly fragmented country. There are some what might be styled intermediate cases, however. Examples include tourist accommodation in many Mediterranean resorts of relatively developed countries, which are designed almost exclusively for international visitor use and the case of Malaysia, where the largest international market, from Singapore, utilises almost identical facilities and accommodation as the domestic Malaysian market, although, as Chapter 8 indicates, the "gap" between domestic and international useage, in Malaysian tourism, is

gradually narrowing.

Finally, concern for the effects of tourism on the environment was noted by approximately half the respondents but divergence between the three groups, as separated by per capita income, was evident. While 26% of the least affluent group of countries checked environmental issues as a concern, the corresponding figure for the most affluent group was 75%. While this latter figure means that this concern is by no means universal among developed countries, the assertion that environmental concern is a prerogative and, possibly, the luxury of more developed economies does appear to have some validity. Whether this imbalance between the richer and poorer nations in this area will decrease will be a area for further monitoring and research.

3.5 Tourism and economic development

The findings of this study suggest significant points of divergence in relation to the organisation, motivations and constraints to tourism that exist between less and more affluent countries. The position and significance of tourism within national economies, in itself, reflects this divergence. While the mean position for the full sample of respondents (n = 40) was 4.6, that for the least affluent group in this study was 3.44 while for the industrialised and economically developed countries, the mean was 6.6. It is also important to note that the higher level of dependence on tourism in less developed countries means that they are much more vulnerable to international tourism fluctuations or shifting market preferences than is the case with more developed and varied economies. These

factors, in themselves, are major factors behind the rather greater formal and administrative status accorded to tourism (as measured by ministerial involvement in tourism) by these less affluent countries. That said, the costs of maintaining a separate National Tourism Organisation are high if marketing and developmental impact is to be made. As a consequence, a lower proportion of less affluent countries can actually afford the supporting bureaucracy of tourism than is the case with developed countries.

The actual functions of National Tourism Organisations are also linked to the economic status of the country in question. More affluent nations, generally, have a rather more mature domestic tourism market and servicing this is a function of many National Tourism Organisations, although in others (such as Australia and the United Kingdom) domestic tourism promotion is delegated regionally and locally. These respondents were also likely to have a greater involvement in maintaining and improving the standards of national tourism products. The study also shows that shortage of facilities is not a major concern to most developed countries, although it is not an issue that is entirely absent within this group. In most of these countries, once adequate provision has been established, the attention of National tourism Organisations focuses on enhancing product quality and diversity in line with growing consumer expectations and demand. What is not clear, at this stage, is the impact, if any, of free market economic thinking on regulatory and development functions, such as statutory product grading and grant aid for product development/ up-grading, by a public authority on the tourism

industries of developed countries. Such developments require further study.

By contrast, the prime concern (and one that appears to be relatively easy to justify) for less affluent countries is their marketing role, especially internationally, for it is as a result of this effort that much needed invisible export revenue will be generated. There is potential for danger here, as well, because without adequate infrastructure, facilities and general product standards, the impact of marketing can only be limited.

In the absence of alternative education and training provision by other agencies, for example within the vocational education system, training for tourism is a fairly common function for the National Tourism Organisations of developing countries. This contrasts with the situation in most developed countries where this is much less likely to be an NTO function. It will be interesting to see whether the perceived "manpower crisis" in developed countries will result in NTO intervention in this area. There is some indication that insufficient provision, by the state, in some countries, both developed and developing, is leading to private sector investment in the training function and this trend, if it continues, merits monitoring.

The reasons why countries are in the business of tourism is an area of some general agreement. The prime determinants remain constant between groups, even though there are some limited variations. However, it is difficult to avoid the conclusion that the significance of these determinants does vary greatly between the respective economic groups and it is interesting that this theme has not been addressed, up to this point, in the

literature. Tourism does stand out as a prime necessity within the economies of many less affluent nations; by contrast, it is certainly more peripheral in the case of some developed countries who, nonetheless, quantitatively, benefit greatly from the tourism industry.

Clearly, the issues facing tourism industries are closely linked to their economic status in development terms. More affluent countries, generally, have tourism infrastructures which have been developed over some considerable period of time (in some cases, this may be a constraint as well). Thus, shortage of actual facilities and support infrastructure is not, generally, a major concern to these countries. By contrast, this is an issue within developing countries, where tourism is frequently of relatively recent development and has to compete for resources of all kinds with other areas of economic activity as well as with the demands of the local population.

Shortage of skilled manpower is, undoubtedly, an emerging and major concern within most tourism industries. It can be seen as one of the major crisis areas within developed tourism economies. As has already been suggested, in the context of the tourism industries of developing countries, generally actual manpower availability is not the key concern, although countries such as Hong Kong and Singapore are exceptions to this rule. The main issue, instead, is one of the availability of trained personnel with the competence to work in environments offering international standards of service. Thus, recruitment and training, both on a national basis and within individual companies in the private sector of the industry, is a universal

concern to the tourism industry, but its causes do vary.

Environmental concern is another emerging issue in tourism and has evolved in parallel but somewhat on the coat-tails of the growth of general environmental awareness in other areas. There is some evidence that such concern is more clearly manifested in more affluent countries but this, again, would seem to mirror environmental concerns in society generally. Clearly, tourism is an increasingly environmentally sensitive issue, both in terms of the demands and expectations of the consumer and the potential and actual impact that tourism can have on the environment.

3.6 A tentative summary tourism policy model

This initial survey generated significant data with respect to the administration, rationale, motivation and constraints faced by tourism industries in different economic environments. In attempting to generalise from this data, it is possible to put forward a tentative model which summarises the main findings of the first survey and against which it should be possible to evaluate national tourism policies. What the literature review points out, however, is the absence of more than a limited number of such formally stated policies and, in addition, that those which are available in published form, tend to come from developed countries.

While the evidence of this survey points to considerable overlap between tourism policies and priorities as they are found in differing economic and tourism environments, it does also point to certain differences. These contrasts, frequently manifested more in emphasis than in kind, form the basis of this model which must, of course, be evaluated in the context of the limitations

of the survey data.

The key features within the summary model relate to the following:

- * Why is a country in the business of tourism?
- * What is the significance of tourism to the country?
- * What are the main problems and challenges facing the tourism industry?
- * How and by whom is the administration of the tourism industry organised?
- * What are the priority functions of the tourism administration?

These issues can be represented, in tabular form, in order to demonstrate the similarities and contrasts between affluent and less affluent tourism environments.

<u>TURE</u>	<u>LOW PER CAPITA INCOME GROUP</u>	<u>HIGH PER CAPITA INCOME GROUP</u>
<u>is a country tourism?</u>	<u>Economic factors</u> * foreign exchange * employment * regional/ local development giving short/ medium term impact <u>General factors</u> less significant	<u>Economic factors</u> * foreign exchange * employment giving short/ medium term impact <u>General factors</u> * awareness about country * international goodwill giving longer term impact also important
<u>nificance of rism?</u>	Very high, rapid growth. Excessive dependence.	Medium to high, growing awareness, increased competition. Increasing market orientation.
<u>blems and allenges</u>	Limited capacity/ availability; infrastructural issues; and trained personnel - all high rated. Environmental issues - low at present but growing.	Manpower shortage - key concern. Environmental issues - becoming major concern.
<u>is tourism inistration anised?</u>	Specialist ministry for tourism.	Likely to be subsumed in another department. Increasing dependence on non- government control.
<u>is NTO run?</u>	Limited development, small and secondary to government. Funded by government.	Well established, strong role on behalf of government. Possible autonomy from government. Increasing private sector funding.
<u>ctions of NTO</u>	Marketing - primarily inter- national. Product development - growing. Training. Limited information/ statistics role. Growing role and significance.	Marketing - domestic and international. Product grading - decreasing. Well developed statistical and information role. Decreasing functions - devolution to private sector and market regulation.

The conclusions of this first study and the summary model which has been drawn from it, allows for the tentative positioning of manpower and human resource issues within national tourism policies, especially through a contrasting of affluent and less affluent national tourism environments. This, in turn, provides the basis and focus of the second study.

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Chapter 6

A STUDY OF HUMAN RESOURCES IN NATIONAL TOURISM POLICIES

1. Introduction

The study of national tourism policies, in Chapter 5, pointed both to the diversity of influences that contribute to these policies and the role of employment-related factors in these influences. It is clear, from this study, that the employment-generating potential of the tourism industry is of major concern in many countries, both developed and developing although the literature suggests that this concern is not frequently articulated in formal tourism policy statements. One of the evident difficulties, clear from both the literature reviews and the first study, is the general impotence of national ministries for tourism and national tourism organisations with respect to the human resource domain. The fragmented nature of human resource planning and development, within tourism, already discussed in this thesis, means that there is rarely any form of central co-ordinating mechanism for this area and tourism interests, largely, have to accede to the policies and priorities of manpower/ labour and education authorities rather than setting their own agendas.

The purpose of this second study was to further investigate the relationship between the implementation of tourism policies and human resource concerns within tourism industries at a national level. Constraints of space restricted the range of information that could be sought. The focus adopted was to replicate, in part, the human resource element of the World Tourism

Organisation's seminal 1975 study, Aims, Activities and Fields of Competence of National Tourism Organisations (WTO, 1975). This study takes the WTO questions somewhat further in terms of identifying alternative executing agencies to the NTO and also gives consideration to a number of additional areas of activity. However, direct comparison is made with the 1975 findings, which have been re-analyzed and summated for the purpose of this study. Cognisance has also been taken of the WTO's 1988 study, Tourism Development Report: policy and trends (WTO, 1988). However, this latter document, while far more current in its information, did not (as already indicted in the previous chapter) approach the human resource area in a systematic or inclusive manner. Thus, countries which the WTO defines as developed were not asked to contribute information on this area while those that were, did so in a descriptive and education/ training focused manner. Thus, valid comparison was not feasible with either the 1975 study or the survey reported here.

In addition, the three economic groupings, established on the basis of 1987 per capita income, have also been used to analyze both the 1975 and the current data. These are

Group A

Per capita income less than US\$1000

Group B

Per capita income between US\$1000 and US\$8000

Group C

Per capita income greater than US\$8000

This categorisation does not take into account evident changes in the economic and political status of some countries between

1975 and 1987.

2. Survey findings

As with the previous chapter, the findings of this study have been presented with limited comment in the text. Commentary follows presentation of the data. However, comparison with WTO data from 1975, where directly relevant, is included here.

2.1 Question 1: Are human resources/ manpower/ education and training issues of major concern within your tourism industry?

Overall:

Yes	49	74%
No	14	21%
No reply	3	5%
Total	66	

By economic group:

	<u>A</u>	<u>B</u>	<u>C</u>
Yes	21 (72%)	10 (63%)	18 (86%)
No	7 (24%)	4 (25%)	3 (14%)
No reply	1 (4%)	2 (12%)	-
Total	29	16	21

Respondents who answered in the affirmative to question 1 were also asked to identify which agencies/ organisations/ groups were the most likely to voice such concerns. Responses, for the whole sample, were as follows:

<u>Agency</u>	<u>N</u>	<u>%</u>
The private sector of the tourism industry	44	90%
The NTO	32	65%
The Ministry responsible for tourism	36	73%
Educators and trainers	21	43%
Other agencies	18	37%
Total	49	

Other agencies, in this context, included regional government bodies involved with tourism; ministries responsible for employment, training or manpower planning; and professional personnel/ human resource associations.

The answers to this question can be further analyzed according to per capita income of the countries concerned.

<u>Agency</u>	<u>A</u>	<u>B</u>	<u>C</u>
The private sector of the tourism industry	17 (81%)	9 (90%)	18 (100%)
The NTO	16 (76%)	7 (70%)	9 (50%)
The Ministry responsible for tourism	18 (86%)	7 (70%)	11 (61%)
Educators and trainers	8 (38%)	4 (40%)	9 (50%)
Other agencies	7 (33%)	3 (30%)	8 (44%)
Total	21	10	18

2.2 Question 2: Ranking in order of priority of human resource/ manpower/ education and training issues within the tourism industry

Respondents were asked to select and rank the top eight from a list of twelve options plus a further option of their own choice. Not all respondents selected the full list of eight options while

others ranked more than eight. In cases where the latter occurred, only the first eight were included. The ranking, below, is based on the average of the ranking obtained. As can be seen, the number who selected options varied greatly, from 61 out of a possible 65 to just 11 out of 65.

<u>Rank</u>	<u>Issue</u>	<u>N</u>	<u>Ave. rating</u>
1.	Poor image of tourism industry as an employer	61	1.97
2.	Shortage of skilled staff	58	2.77
3.	Uncompetitive rewards and benefits	48	2.96
4.	Labour turnover in the industry	38	3.08
5.	Unsocial hours and conditions	43	3.38
6.	Difficulty in recruiting suitable personnel	51	3.41
7.	Poaching/pinching of labour by other employers	34	5.41
8.	The role of expatriate labour	11	6.54
9.	Cultural barriers to employment in tourism	27	6.56
10.	Demographic trends and a shrinking employment pool	34	6.89
11.	Education/ training inappropriate to needs of the industry	36	7.32
12.	Lack of training places	37	7.44
(Others	24	6.11)
Total		65	

Clearly, actual averages must be treated with some caution as, by restricting choice to the top eight issues, some low ranking of selected issues was omitted. Ranking on the basis of the three economic groups produced the following results.

<u>Overall Rank</u>	<u>Issue</u>	<u>Rank and ave. rating</u>		
		<u>A</u>	<u>B</u>	<u>C</u>
1.	Poor image of tourism industry as an employer	1/2.06	1/2.01	1/1.73
2.	Shortage of skilled staff	3/2.84	2/2.68	2/2.75
3.	Uncompetitive rewards and benefits	4/3.07	4/2.99	3/2.76
4.	Labour turnover in the industry	2/2.79	3/2.94	5/3.41
5.	Unsocial hours and conditions	6/3.54	6/3.42	4/3.24
6.	Difficulty in recruiting suitable personnel	7/3.60	5/3.06	6/3.51
7.	Poaching/pinching of labour by other employers	5/3.53	8/6.99	7/6.01
8.	The role of expatriate labour	9/6.87	7/5.68	12/8.00
9.	Cultural barriers to employment in tourism	8/6.36	9/7.04	11/7.00
10.	Demographic trends and a shrinking employment pool	12/7.66	10/7.07	8/6.67
11.	Education/ training inappropriate to needs of the industry	11/7.62	11/7.34	9/6.71
12.	Lack of training places	10/7.61	12/8.00	10/6.92
(Others	5.68	7.25	7.00)

Clearly, some variation in priority is evident between the three economic groups and the implications of these will be discussed further at a later point in this chapter. Applying Spearman's rank order correlation to the rankings, relatively high positive correlations are in evidence. This method of calculating correlation is probably the only valid treatment for data of this

nature. The correlations are as follows:

Between A and B	-	+ 0.92
Between A and C	-	+ 0.80
Between B and C	-	+ 0.82

2.3 Question 3: Which agencies/ organisations/ groups take responsibility for the resolution of the issues identified in Question 2?

This question allowed respondents to identify individual agencies while, at the same time, to indicate combinations of more than one agency where appropriate. In fact, a substantial number of respondents indicated both individual agencies and the same agencies in combination with other as part of the same answer. This accounts for the total percentage answer well in excess of 100.

Overall

	<u>N</u>	<u>%</u>
a) The private sector tourism industry	32	48
b) The NTO	27	41
c) The Ministry responsible for tourism	24	36
d) The Ministry responsible for education/ training	3	5
e) Schools and colleges	1	2
f) Other agencies	11	17
g) Combination of a and b	34	52
h) Combination of a and c	23	35
i) Combination of b and c	6	9
j) More than two agencies	11	17
Total	66	

These findings can also be presented in relation to the per capita income of the countries involved.

By economic group

	<u>A</u>	<u>B</u>	<u>C</u>
a) The private sector tourism industry	11 (38%)	7 (44%)	14 (67%)
b) The NTO	14 (48%)	6 (38%)	7 (33%)
c) The Ministry responsible for tourism	12 (41%)	7 (44%)	5 (24%)
d) The Ministry responsible for education/ training	0 (0%)	1 (6%)	2 (10%)
e) Schools and colleges	0 (0%)	1 (6%)	0 (0%)
f) Other agencies	4 (14%)	5 (31%)	3 (14%)
g) Combination of a and b	15 (52%)	6 (38%)	13 (62%)
h) Combination of a and c	7 (24%)	6 (38%)	10 (48%)
i) Combination of b and c	4 (14%)	2 (13%)	0 (0%)
j) More than two agencies	3 (10%)	2 (13%)	6 (29%)
Total	29	16	21

2.4 Question 4: Which of the following human resource functions are the responsibility of the NTO?

The first six options presented to respondents in this question are direct replications of functions identified in the WTO's 1975 survey. Subsequent options were added to extend the range of function options and to reflect changes within the human resource environment. The two studies show considerable overlap in terms of respondents. Of the 66 responses to the present study, 54 were also respondents to the 1975 survey. Comparison with the 1975 study is included here, although analysis is reserved for later

in this chapter. The WTO respondents, totalling 95 in all have been further categorised into three groups comparable with those used in the current study. 1987 average per capita income has also been used, notwithstanding the considerable relative changes that took place in the economic status of many countries in the intervening period.

<u>Overall Function</u>	<u>N and % indicating function of NTO</u>		<u>N and % indicating function - WTO study</u>	
a) Determination of manpower and training requirements for tourism	45	68%	61	64%
b) Formulation/ design of training programmes	37	56%	56	59%
c) Organisation of vocational training courses	47	71%	56	59%
d) Establishment of hotel and tourism schools	23	35%	40	42%
e) Granting of fellowships	27	41%	45	47%
f) Reception of trainees	28	43%	46	48%
g) Conduct of manpower/ training needs research	34	52%	-	-
h) Co-ordination of national vocational training standards/ certification scheme(s)	19	29%	-	-
i) Operation of hotel and tourism schools/ training centres	16	24%	-	-
j) Provision of financial support for education/ training				
- to schools/ training centres	14	21%	-	-
- to trainees	8	12%	-	-
k) Other functions	17	26%	-	-
l) No HR functions	8	12%	9	9%
Total	66		95	

"Other functions", in this context, included a range of responsibilities, most of which were not related to the human resource function and covered other NTO activities. Other human resource functions included the design and publication of training manuals and the training of overseas NTO officers.

Group A responses were as follows:

<u>Function</u>	<u>N and % indicating function of NTO</u>		<u>N and % indicating function - WTO study</u>	
a) Determination of manpower and training requirements for tourism	25	86%	33	79%
b) Formulation/ design of training programmes	19	66%	26	62%
c) Organisation of vocational training courses	21	72%	26	62%
d) Establishment of hotel and tourism schools	16	55%	20	48%
e) Granting of fellowships	14	48%	24	57%
f) Reception of trainees	15	52%	22	52%
g) Conduct of manpower/ training needs research	10	34%	-	-
h) Co-ordination of national vocational training standards/ certification scheme(s)	7	24%	-	-
i) Operation of hotel and tourism schools/ training centres	11	38%	-	-
j) Provision of financial support for education/ training				
- to schools/ training centres	8	28%	-	-
- to trainees	4	14%	-	-
k) Other functions	9	31%	-	-
l) No HR functions	0	0%	1	2%
Total	29		4	

Group B responses were as follows:

<u>Function</u>	<u>N and % indicating function of NTO</u>		<u>N and % indicating function - WTO study</u>	
a) Determination of manpower and training requirements for tourism	12	75%	21	72%
b) Formulation/ design of training programmes	11	69%	22	76%
c) Organisation of vocational training courses	10	63%	20	69%
d) Establishment of hotel and tourism schools	6	38%	14	48%
e) Granting of fellowships	6	38%	16	55%
f) Reception of trainees	6	38%	15	52%
g) Conduct of manpower/ training needs research	7	44%	-	-
h) Co-ordination of national vocational training standards/ certification scheme(s)	5	31%	-	-
i) Operation of hotel and tourism schools/ training centres	2	13%	-	-
j) Provision of financial support for education/ training				
- to schools/ training centres	4	25%	-	-
- to trainees	3	19%	-	-
k) Other functions	4	25%	-	-
l) No HR functions	2	13%	1	3%
Total	16		29	

Group C responses were as follows:

<u>Function</u>	<u>N and % indicating function of NTO</u>		<u>N and % indicating function - WTO study</u>	
a) Determination of man-power and training requirements for tourism	8	38%	7	29%
b) Formulation/ design of training programmes	7	33%	8	33%
c) Organisation of vocational training courses	16	76%	10	42%
d) Establishment of hotel and tourism schools	1	5%	6	25%
e) Granting of fellowships	7	33%	5	21%
f) Reception of trainees	7	33%	9	38%
g) Conduct of manpower/ training needs research	17	81%	-	-
h) Co-ordination of national vocational training standards/ certification scheme(s)	17	81%	-	-
i) Operation of hotel and tourism schools/ training centres	3	14%	-	-
j) Provision of financial support for education/ training				
- to schools/ training centres	2	10%	-	-
- to trainees	1	5%	-	-
k) Other functions	4	19%	-	-
l) No HR functions	6	29%	7	29%
Total	21		24	

2.5 Question 5: If the NTO does not have responsibility for any or some of the functions identified in question 4, which bodies/ agencies/ organisations do have this responsibility?

This question, an extension of the previous one, sought to identify where responsibility for specific functions lay, if not with the NTO or if the NTO only held partial responsibility.

a) Determination of manpower and training requirements for hotel, catering and tourism staff

Overall

	<u>N</u>	<u>%</u>
Ministry or other agency responsible for tourism	26	39
Ministry or other agency responsible for manpower/ human resource planning	14	21
Other bodies	6	9
Not formally determined	17	26
Total	66	

By economic group

	<u>A</u>	<u>B</u>	<u>C</u>
Ministry or other agency responsible for tourism	11 (38%)	6 (38%)	9 (43%)
Ministry or other agency responsible for manpower/ human resource planning	2 (7%)	5 (31%)	7 (33%)
Other bodies	1 (3%)	1 (6%)	4 (19%)
Not formally determined	6 (21%)	4 (25%)	7 (33%)

b) Formulation/ design of training programmes for hotel, catering and tourism staff

Overall

	<u>N</u>	<u>%</u>
Ministry or other agency responsible for tourism	4	6
Ministry or other agency responsible for education	31	47
Ministry or other agency responsible for manpower/ human resource planning	5	8
Specialist tourism education/ training agency	3	5
Individual schools/ colleges/ training centres	17	26
Other bodies	3	5
Not formally formulated/ designed	2	3
Total	66	

By economic group

	<u>A</u>	<u>B</u>	<u>C</u>
Ministry or other agency responsible for tourism	2 (7%)	2 (13%)	0 (0%)
Ministry or other agency responsible for education	8 (28%)	9 (56%)	14 (67%)
Ministry or other agency responsible for manpower/ human resource planning	3 (10%)	2 (13%)	0 (0%)
Specialist tourism education training agency	0 (0%)	1 (6%)	2 (10%)
Individual schools/ colleges/ training centres	3 (10%)	4 (25%)	10 (48%)
Other bodies	1 (3%)	0 (0%)	2 (10%)
Not formally formulated/ designed	1 (3%)	1 (6%)	
Total	29	16	21

c) Organisation of vocational training courses and seminars

Overall

	<u>N</u>	<u>%</u>
Ministry or other agency responsible for tourism	7	11
Ministry or other agency responsible for education	28	42
Ministry or other agency responsible for manpower/ human resource planning	6	9
Specialist tourism education/ training agency	3	5
Individual schools/ colleges/ training centres	19	29
Other bodies	1	2
Not formally organised	0	0
Total	66	

By economic group

	<u>A</u>	<u>B</u>	<u>C</u>
Ministry or other agency responsible for tourism	3 (10%)	2 (13%)	2 (10%)
Ministry or other agency responsible for education	7 (24%)	8 (50%)	13 (62%)
Ministry or other agency responsible for manpower/ human resource planning	1 (3%)	4 (25%)	2 (10%)
Specialist tourism education training agency	0 (0%)	1 (6%)	2 (10%)
Individual schools/ colleges/ training centres	4 (14%)	4 (25%)	11 (52%)
Other bodies	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	1 (5%)
Not formally organised	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)
Total	29	16	21

d) Establishment of hotel and tourism schools

Overall

	<u>N</u>	<u>%</u>
Ministry or other agency responsible for tourism	4	6
National ministry or other agency responsible for education	49	74
Regional/ local ministry or other agency responsible for education	11	17
Ministry or other agency responsible for manpower/ human resource planning	2	3
Specialist tourism education/ training agency	1	2
Individual schools/ colleges/ training centres		
- in the public sector	13	20
- in the private sector	7	11
Tourism/ hotel companies	4	6
Other bodies	1	2
None established	1	2
Total	66	

By economic group

	<u>A</u>	<u>B</u>	<u>C</u>
Ministry or other agency responsible for tourism	2 (7%)	2 (13%)	0 (0%)
National ministry or other agency responsible for education	23 (79%)	12 (75%)	14 (67%)
Regional/ local ministry or other agency responsible for education	2 (7%)	3 (19%)	6 (29%)
Ministry or other agency responsible for manpower/ human resource planning	1 (3%)	1 (6%)	0 (0%)
Specialist tourism education/ training agency	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	1 (5%)
Individual schools/ colleges/ training centres			
- in the public sector	1 (3%)	4 (25%)	8 (38%)
- in the private sector	0 (0%)	2 (13%)	5 (24%)
Tourism/ hotel companies	1 (3%)	1 (6%)	2 (10%)
Other bodies	0 (0%)	1 (6%)	0 (0%)
None established	1 (3%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)
Total	29	16	21

e) Granting of fellowships

Overall

	<u>N</u>	<u>%</u>
Ministry or other agency responsible for tourism	5	8
Ministry or other agency responsible for education	17	26
Ministry or other agency responsible for manpower/ human resource planning	8	12
Specialist tourism education/ training agency	0	0
Individual schools/ colleges/ training centres	1	2
Other bodies	3	5
None granted	16	24
Total	66	

By economic group

	<u>A</u>	<u>B</u>	<u>C</u>
Ministry or other agency responsible for tourism	2 (7%)	2 (13%)	1 (5%)
Ministry or other agency responsible for education	8 (28%)	5 (31%)	4 (19%)
Ministry or other agency responsible for manpower/ human resource planning	6 (21%)	2 (13%)	0 (0%)
Specialist tourism education training agency	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)
Individual schools/ colleges/ training centres	0 (0%)	1 (6%)	0 (0%)
Other bodies	1 (3%)	0 (0%)	2 (10%)
None granted	2 (7%)	5 (31%)	9 (43%)
Total	29	16	21

f) Reception of trainees

Overall

	<u>N</u>	<u>%</u>
Ministry or other agency responsible for tourism	2	3
Ministry or other agency responsible for education	2	3
Ministry or other agency responsible for manpower/ human resource planning	0	0
Specialist tourism education/ training agency	3	5
Individual schools/ colleges/ training centres	7	11
Other bodies	2	3
No such function	19	29
Total	66	

By economic group

	<u>A</u>	<u>B</u>	<u>C</u>
Ministry or other agency responsible for tourism	2 (7%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)
Ministry or other agency responsible for education	1 (3%)	1 (6%)	0 (0%)
Ministry or other agency responsible for manpower/ human resource planning	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)
Specialist tourism education training agency	0 (0%)	1 (6%)	2 (10%)
Individual schools/ colleges/ training centres	3 (10%)	2 (13%)	2 (10%)
Other bodies	1 (3%)	0 (0%)	1 (5%)
No such function	3 (10%)	4 (25%)	12 (57%)
Total	29	16	21

g) Conduct of manpower/ training needs research

Overall

	<u>N</u>	<u>%</u>
Ministry or other agency responsible for tourism	7	11
Ministry or other agency responsible for education	0	0
Ministry or other agency responsible for manpower/ human resource planning	3	5
Ministry or other agency responsible for statistics	29	44
Specialist tourism education/ training agency	2	3
College/ University research centres	6	9
Other bodies	4	6
None conducted	13	20
Total	66	

By economic group

	<u>A</u>	<u>B</u>	<u>C</u>
Ministry or other agency responsible for tourism	3 (10%)	2 (13%)	2 (10%)
Ministry or other agency responsible for education	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)
Ministry or other agency responsible for manpower/ human resource planning	1 (3%)	0 (0%)	2 (10%)
Ministry or other agency responsible for stats.	8 (28%)	7 (44%)	14 (67%)
Specialist tourism education/ training agency	0 (0%)	1 (6%)	1 (5%)
College/ University research centres	1 (3%)	3 (19%)	2 (10%)
Other bodies	3 (10%)	1 (6%)	0 (0%)
None conducted	9 (31%)	3 (19%)	1 (5%)
Total	29	16	21

h) Co-ordination of national vocational training standards/
certification scheme(s)

Overall

	<u>N</u>	<u>%</u>
Ministry or other agency responsible for tourism	0	0
Ministry or other agency responsible for education	17	26
Ministry or other agency responsible for manpower/ human resource planning	1	2
Specialist tourism education/ training agency	0	0
Vocational standards/ cert- ification agency	7	11
Individual schools/ colleges/ training centres	0	0
Other bodies	2	3
No such scheme	37	56
Total	66	

By economic group

	<u>A</u>	<u>B</u>	<u>C</u>
Ministry or other agency responsible for tourism	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)
Ministry or other agency responsible for education	3 (10%)	6 (38%)	8 (38%)
Ministry or other agency responsible for manpower/ human resource planning	0 (0%)	1 (6%)	0 (0%)
Specialist tourism education/ training agency	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)
Vocational standards/ cert- ification agency	0 (0%)	2 (13%)	5 (24%)
Individual schools/ colleges/ training centres	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)
Other bodies	0 (0%)	1 (6%)	1 (5%)
No such scheme	21 (72%)	8 (50%)	8 (38%)
Total	29	16	21

i) Operation of hotel and tourism schools or training centres

Overall

	<u>N</u>	<u>%</u>
Ministry or other agency responsible for tourism	7	11
National ministry or other agency responsible for education	47	71
Regional/ local ministry or other agency responsible for education	10	15
Ministry or other agency responsible for manpower/ human resource planning	6	9
Specialist tourism education/ training agency	2	3
Private sector schools/ colleges/ tr. centres	8	12
Tourism/ hotel companies	4	6
Other bodies	0	0
None in operation	0	0
Total	66	

By economic group

	<u>A</u>	<u>B</u>	<u>C</u>
Ministry or other agency responsible for tourism	4 (14%)	2 (13%)	1 (5%)
National ministry or other agency responsible for education	23 (79%)	12 (75%)	12 (57%)
Regional/ local ministry or other agency responsible for education	1 (3%)	2 (13%)	7 (33%)
Ministry or other agency responsible for manpower/ human resource planning	4 (14%)	1 (6%)	1 (5%)
Specialist tourism education/ training agency	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	2 (10%)
Private schools/ colleges/ tr. centres	1 (3%)	4 (25%)	1 (5%)
Tourism/ hotel companies	1 (3%)	2 (13%)	1 (5%)
Other bodies	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)
None in operation	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)
Total	29	16	21

i(i) Provision of financial support for education and training to schools and training centres

Overall

	<u>N</u>	<u>%</u>
Ministry or other agency responsible for tourism	2	6
National ministry or other agency responsible for education	54	82
Regional/ local ministry or other agency responsible for education	11	17
Ministry or other agency responsible for manpower/ human resource planning	2	3
Specialist tourism education/ training agency	1	2
Tourism/ hotel companies	1	2
Other bodies	0	0
No financial support given	1	2
Total	66	

By economic group

	<u>A</u>	<u>B</u>	<u>C</u>
Ministry or other agency responsible for tourism	2 (7%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)
National ministry or other agency responsible for education	25 (86%)	15 (94%)	14 (67%)
Regional/ local ministry or other agency responsible for education	1 (3%)	3 (19%)	6 (29%)
Ministry or other agency responsible for manpower/ human resource planning	1 (3%)	1 (6%)	0 (0%)
Specialist tourism education/ training agency	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	1 (5%)
Tourism/ hotel companies	1 (3%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)
Other bodies	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)
No financial support given	0 (0%)	1 (0%)	0 (0%)
Total	29	16	21

i(ii) Provision of financial support for education and training to trainees

<u>Overall</u>	<u>N</u>	<u>%</u>	
Ministry or other agency responsible for tourism	1	2	
National ministry or other agency responsible for education	14	21	
Regional/ local ministry or other agency responsible for education	2	3	
Ministry or other agency responsible for manpower/ human resource planning	2	3	
Specialist tourism education/ training agency	3	5	
Tourism/ hotel companies	1	2	
Other bodies	3	5	
No financial support given	27	41	
Total	66		
<u>By economic group</u>			
	<u>A</u>	<u>B</u>	<u>C</u>
Ministry or other agency responsible for tourism	0 (0%)	1 (6%)	0 (0%)
National ministry or other agency responsible for education	7 (24%)	2 (13%)	5 (24%)
Regional/ local ministry or other agency responsible for education	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	2 (10%)
Ministry or other agency responsible for manpower/ human resource planning	1 (3%)	1 (6%)	0 (0%)
Specialist tourism education/ training agency	0 (0%)	1 (6%)	2 (10%)
Tourism/ hotel companies	1 (3%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)
Other bodies	2 (7%)	1 (6%)	0 (0%)
No financial support given	13 (45%)	7 (44%)	7 (33%)
Total	29	16	21

3. Commentary on Findings

As is the case with many studies of this nature, the findings from this second NTO survey generated an interesting range of responses but, also, raised a number of further questions which will be addressed at the conclusion to this chapter. Indeed, it was precisely this situation which prompted the conduct of this study in response to findings of the first survey.

As was the case with respect to chapter 5, this discussion will be conducted on a thematic basis in order that coherence can be imposed upon what otherwise may appear to be a somewhat disparate range of data..

3.1 Human resource issues in tourism

3.2 Responsibility for taking action with respect to human resource issues

3.3 Responsibilities of national tourism organisations in the human resource area and comparison with 1975 study

3.1 Human resource issues in tourism

The first survey clearly identified the level of concern that exists with issues in the human resource area through an analysis of national tourism policy determinants. These placed employment related considerations relatively high in the ranking of determinants. The second survey raised the issue as to whether human resource and related concerns were perceived to be of major concern within the tourism industry of the country in question. Three quarters of respondents gave a positive reply to this question, which is not particularly surprising. Indeed, given the

stated significance of this issue within the literature, it is arguable that the 26% who responded negatively actually represent a higher than anticipated proportion. When this question is related to the average GNP of the country concerned, it is interesting that a much higher proportion of the wealthiest countries see human resources as of concern than is the case with the remainder of the sample. This may suggest that demographic and related factors (associated mainly with more affluent, developed countries) focus the attention of policy makers and officers at national agency level more closely on human resource concerns than is the case with countries where priorities, generally, relate to skills availability and training/development concerns. A further factor, in this respect, relates to the role and influence of industry pressure groups in developed countries, such as HCIMA, BHA and the Tourism Society in the United Kingdom, which perform a role of which there is little parallel in developing countries. Interestingly, the middle group, comprising those countries with a 1987 per capita GNP of between US\$1000 and US\$8000, were the least likely to identify human resource matters as of concern within their tourism industry. This group contains a number of countries in eastern Europe, where technical education and training for tourism has, traditionally, been relatively well developed as well as a number of emerging east Asian countries.

Clearly, in itself, this identification of concern is insufficient in that it, firstly, does not identify the location of such expressions of concern and, secondly, does not consider the nature of the concern in any detail. The survey sought

information on the likely sources of concern about human resource issues in tourism at a national level. Three key sources were identified by those respondents who answered positively to the first question. These bodies, agencies or groups with a common interest were flagged as the private sector of the industry (identified by 90% of respondents); the ministry responsible for tourism (73%); and the national tourism organisation (65%). Educators and trainers (including colleges and training centres) and a diversity of other bodies, including skills development and labour agencies, were identified by less than half the responding sample.

Some interesting variations appear when this information is considered from the point of view of the groups as categorised by per capita gross national product. The least prosperous group identified the ministry responsible for tourism as the most likely to be concerned with human resource issues (86%), followed by the private sector (81%) and the NTO (76%). By contrast, all respondents within the most affluent group identified the private sector of the tourism industry as a source of concern, while rather less identified the ministry responsible for tourism (61%), the NTO (50%) and educators/ trainers (50%). A tentative assessment is that this confirms the greater level of development within the private sector of the tourism industry in more affluent countries but this conclusion cannot be drawn with any degree of certainty. The converse of this is the lesser significance of the public sector (the ministry and the NTO) in the human resource arena in developed countries than is the case in poorer nations.

Having attempted to determine where the main sources of concern about human resource issues in tourism were located, the next question, in many respects seminal to this study, sought to identify the range of issues that were responsible for the concern. The technique used was to ask respondents to select and rank eight from a list of twelve options and, also, to allow them to identify possible additional concerns. While this approach does present some methodological difficulties, it has the advantage of focusing respondents on issues that are prominent in the literature. One of the prime difficulties relates to the level and competence of the NTO officer completing the survey form and their familiarity with the human resource area. It is also possible that slightly differing interpretations of the actual meaning of the options, as presented, were made by various respondents and this must be borne in mind when interpreting the data.

The average rankings for the whole sample produced an interesting distribution of responses. Clearly identified as the prime concern is the poor image of the tourism industry as an employer, a "blanket" perception that is frequently voiced but, perhaps, fails to recognise the diversity of employment within the industry. It is likely that this concern, largely, reflects the situation in the accommodation and food-related sectors, especially with respect to the smaller businesses. However, it is also likely that this perception reflects, in part, cultural overtones, in countries where traditional and religious factors mitigate against the industry in employment terms and where alternative professions are seen to be more acceptable from a

career point of view.

A further complication, in this context, relates to the socio-economic status of those seeking employment within the tourism industry in some developing countries, as compared to the profile of those in more affluent countries. Because of the structure of the labour market in many developing countries and the skills/educational demands of the tourism industry, recruitment is frequently targeted at somewhat higher socio-economic groups than would be the case in more developed countries, where employees are drawn from virtually the full spectrum of socio-economic groups. Indian hotel companies, for example, typically recruit university graduates (drawn from a small minority grouping within the population as a whole) to front-office and junior supervisory posts in a way that would be very unlikely in Europe or north America. Thus the image or cultural issue relates to very different socio-economic groups in developing countries than would be the case in more affluent nations.

The next five issues cluster together within a range of 0.64 in their average ratings. There is some evident pattern among these issues although the picture is not very clear. What they do have is a clear link, either as cause or effect, with the highest ranked concern, the image of the industry. They are all, very clearly, mainstream concerns and can be grouped to include skills shortages, labour turnover and recruitment problems on the one hand and uncompetitive rewards and benefits and unsocial hours and conditions on the other. Unlike the highest rated concern, these are not perceptual issues. The first group relate to recruitment and retention within the industry, significant

practical concerns which are, perhaps, manifestations of image difficulties in their own right. The rewards and conditions area, by the same token, appear to represent contributory factors behind the poor image that the tourism industry has as an employer. It is possible to represent these issues and their interdependence/ inter-relationship diagrammatically, although the relationship must be accepted, at best, as tenuous.

Uncompetitive rewards/
benefits
Unsocial hours/
conditions



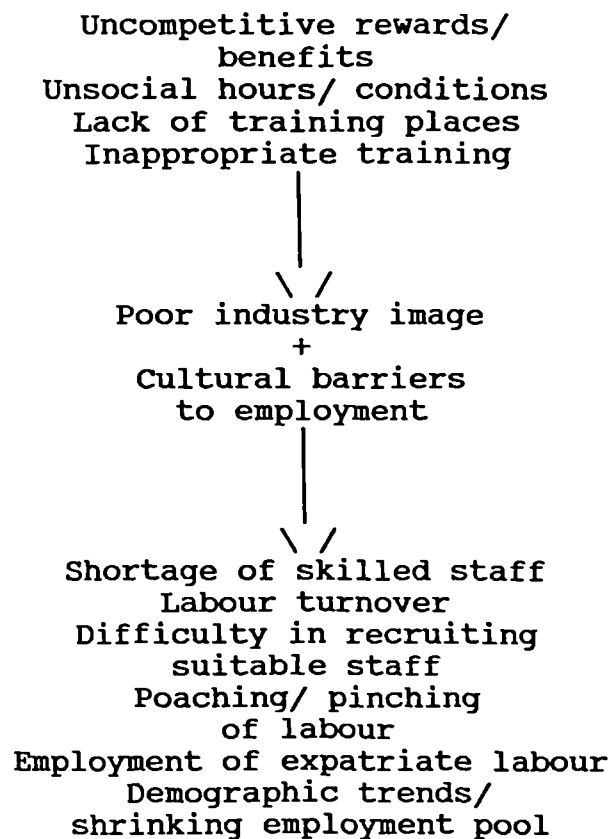
The last six concerns, which are rated some considerable way behind the first group - there is a gap of 2.0 in average rating between the sixth and the seventh in the list - are spread over 2.04 in terms of their average ratings. The factors in this group show considerable diversity. One relates to a macro trend, demographics, which is not confined in its impact to the tourism industry. Two, the lowest rated, refer to educational and training issues, the thorny and often argued case that educational provision does not meet industry's needs and the lack

of formal training places in colleges and training institutes. Given the importance of educational and training-related debate in the tourism literature, the low priority accorded to these concerns is notable and, perhaps, reinforces the remoteness of education and training from the centre stage of tourism. This is a key study finding. The remaining three issues are relatively individual. The poaching concern is a recruitment and retention issue and can be linked to the areas already discussed.

In some respects, the use of expatriate labour relates to deficiencies on the recruitment side, but also reflects inadequacies in the education and training output. This item, probably, has a number of different meanings in different cultural and geographical contexts. On the one hand, it can be seen to refer to employees at the unskilled level in a number of European countries, the United States and locations such as Hong Kong, Singapore and, increasingly, Malaysia. On the other hand, it also encompasses expatriatism at senior management and specialist technical levels (pilots, engineers, executive chefs etc.) in developing tourism economies. This is, perhaps, the more common perception of expatriatism and is an area that has expanded significantly with the growth of multi-national companies in the tourism field. It is, perhaps, an inevitable feature of a tourism industry which has expanded at a faster rate than can be catered for through local education and training provision and, because of the requirement for experience, results in an inevitable lead time before local skills can take responsibility for these areas. However, there is some reluctance among international companies to make full use of locally

developed skills in these areas.

Finally, the notion of cultural barriers to employment in tourism is closely associated with industry image but represents a much sharper and more specific focus. If these additional concerns are added to the diagram above, in terms of their relationship to the key issue, the following is derived. While the inter-relationship shown here is by no means perfect, it does provide a useful framework for categorising the factors and as a starting point in their amelioration.



Discussion so far has been based on the aggregated results from the full sample. Considerable variation is evident when this data is considered from the point of view of countries in their

separate economic groups. Across the board, the image of the industry was accorded the highest average rating. However, the average rating for the wealthiest group of responding nations was significantly lower than was the case with respect to the other two groups, suggesting that this concern was accorded even greater priority in developed, more affluent nations than was the case with poorer countries. By contrast, the related concern of cultural barriers to tourism employment, is rated rather lower by the more wealthy countries, possibly acting as a counterbalance to the image concern so that, when combined, this area is shown to have a reasonable consistency between the three groups.

A number of labour market concerns feature relatively highly in the lists of all three groups, although there is some variation in the priority accorded to each. Skills shortages rate as number two for the two more affluent groups of nations but is third among the poorest group. This finding is interesting in that the lack of skills is an issue frequently highlighted as a quality and competitive issue with respect to developing tourism destinations. It is, clearly, a matter of considerable concern in more developed countries although, as the relative prominence given to demographic factors among the wealthiest group illustrates, absolute labour shortages are also likely to be of some significance.

The issue of labour turnover is one that features quite strongly in the two less affluent groups, a finding that is somewhat surprising in that employment stability is frequently associated with less developed economies. Labour turnover is certainly

perceived to be an issue in countries where tourism growth is very rapid and new developments are increasing competitiveness within the local and national labour market. Examples of this scenario include situations in a number of south-east Asian locations. However, the lower rating accorded by the wealthier countries suggests that the timing of the study, coinciding as it did with recession and rising unemployment in Australasia, Europe and north America, may have influenced responses in relation to this concern.

Related to the perceived labour turnover concern are "poaching" or "pinching" of labour, which was rated relatively highly as a problem by the least affluent group of responding countries. This issue appears to be more overtly recognised in these countries, although this is not to deny its significance in other locations. Potentially, this issue is likely to reflect a growth environment within the local tourism industry combined with skills shortages in key areas. Thus, businesses attempt to meet their skills requirements by inducing employees to leave their current place of work, either by open methods or, quite commonly, through covert approaches. The main inducements are the perceived status of new employers and the potential for enhanced rewards and benefits. This problem is one that is widely debated in a number of countries, especially in south-east Asia, where hear say examples of direct approaches to employees by executives of other companies at work are readily available. However, it is not so overtly a matter of concern in developed and more affluent tourism economies and, consequently, was rated rather lower by this group of respondents.

The final labour market issue in this cluster and one that is also related to, and a consequence of, the labour turnover concern is that of difficulty in recruiting suitable personnel. The middle group of responding NTOs rated this concern the highest and it is perceived to be of the least significant by the poorest group of respondents. The issue of recruitment is one that is, of course, closely associated with the image that the tourism industry projects among potential employees. What this issue disguises is differences in the categories of recruits that may be included in responding to recruitment concerns. At the one level, especially in more affluent, developed countries, the concern frequently relates to difficulties in attracting appropriate school leavers onto courses of study and direct into the industry. At another, in most countries, the concern relates to difficulties in attracting personnel with the appropriate skills levels, whether these relate to technical specialisms or to areas such as language or social capabilities. Thus, partial overlap with the separate category of shortage of skilled staff is likely.

Uncompetitive rewards and benefits was ranked third among the wealthiest group of responding countries and fourth by the other two categories. It is a concern that shares much with the perception of unsocial hours and conditions which is also ranked rather higher within the most affluent group. In many respects, as has already been suggested, these areas are major contributory factors to the poor image perceptions that are held about the tourism industry and, in this sense, therefore, it is not surprising that they are rated higher by the group "C"

respondents. However, it is also arguable that they relate directly to the problem of labour turnover and, here, the less affluent groups rate this problem somewhat higher. Therefore, interpretation of these associations is somewhat difficult to attempt with any degree of certainty. This said, the two factors in question are clearly perceived to be of considerable concern although it is arguable that they, again, relate to some sectors of the industry rather than reflecting on a broader understanding of the diversity of jobs within tourism. To a certain degree, they are areas where the tourism industry, itself, has it within its power to counter both the reality (where it exists) and the perceptions of the problems.

The role of expatriate labour is, not really surprisingly, rated as of far less significance by the most affluent group of responding countries than by the other two groups. This may, in part, reflect on the use of the term, which is normally associated with executive and senior technical posts in the industry rather than with unskilled labour. The latter category, of course, is in very widespread use in many affluent countries of Western Europe and North America but would, more normally, be styled "immigrant" labour. Where the term is in more common use, generally in developing tourism destinations, identification of this area as a matter of concern may be interpreted as acknowledging that local training and development, as well as company attitudes, are not conducive to replacing expatriate managers with local skills.

The relatively low rating accorded to education and training issues within all three groups is of interest, especially in

relation to the poorer countries involved in this study. Arguably, these concerns are closely linked to others ranked considerably higher in this study. Furthermore, deficiencies in educational and training provision are, commonly, identified with countries where tourism is of relatively recent introduction or where public sector resources are inadequate to meet international standards and demands in the skills area. The middle income group, indeed, rate the two education and training-related concerns as the final concerns in the listing. Therefore, it may be surmised that the findings here do not, necessarily, reflect a low rating for these concerns, in absolute terms but, rather, the greater prominence of other concerns in the responding countries. Whether actual priorities in terms of policies and resource allocation reflect this low rating is difficult to speculate but certainly merits further research. Although the detail of the three ranking lists do show some interesting variation, the overall impression, borne out by the application of Spearman's rank order correlation, is that of a relatively consistent pattern of response within the full sample.

3.2 Responsibility for taking action with respect to human resource issues

Identification of concerns about human resources in tourism is clearly an important step in preparing policy responses and practical strategies in response to them. A further stage in this process is to clarify where responsibility currently lies for addressing human resource issues. The question allowed that, in many cases, this responsibility would lie with more than one

agency.

Essentially, three sources of responsibility were identified, the private sector of the industry(48%); the national tourism organisation (41%) and the ministry responsible for tourism (36%). Interestingly, education and training authorities and bodies do not feature as significant agencies in dealing with human resource issues. This, perhaps, reflects the low priority given to education and training issues in the study but also pointing to what is, in many countries, the fragmented allocation of responsibility for human resource concerns. Where more than one agency was identified, the combinations, almost invariably, involved the three categories identified above.

An interesting aspect of the responses to this question were the number of "other" category responses included, especially within the middle group, as categorised according to GNP, where 31% of the sample identified an agency(ies) outside of the provided listing. These included a number of manpower/ labour/ skills development agencies - for example, the Skills Development Fund in Singapore and the National Productivity Centre in Malaysia. Other agencies included ministries responsible for economic development and industry/ commerce.

However, the combined figures disguise interesting variation within the three sub-groups. In particular, respondents from countries within the most affluent group allocated significantly greater responsibility to the private sector than is the case with respect to the other two groups. This reflects the very different economic and political conditions prevailing in the more developed countries, where recent developments have sought

to allocate greater responsibility to the private sector as, in turn, the role of the public sector is reduced. What is surprising, in this group, is that the education and training agencies do not feature rather more strongly, because of their relatively long standing involvement with tourism education and training. By contrast, within emerging tourism destinations, there is a clear practical and political onus on the public sector, especially the NTO and the responsible ministry, to support all aspects of tourism development and this includes the human resource area. At the same time, the private sector is, frequently, rather smaller and less developed and is not in a position to take the same level of responsibility as is the case elsewhere.

What the responses to this question point to is the fragmentation of responsibility for human resource issues in tourism within many countries. There is little evidence of a clear model for responsibility in this respect, which is identifiable in the substantial majority of countries. Historically, responsibility for the area appears to have been allocated on a somewhat ad hoc basis, reflecting the development of a number of systems in isolation of each other, frequently, the public and private sectors of tourism industry itself; the education and training systems; agencies responsible for manpower/ labour market planning and development; and related government (national, regional and local) ministries and agencies. As a consequence, while there are many bodies with some responsibility for this area, it is rare that there is any agency which is in a position or willing to take a comprehensive and integrated overview of its

problems and need. One possible exception is reflected in the wide-ranging remit and role of CERT in Ireland.

3.3 Responsibilities of national tourism organisations in the human resource area

National tourism organisations were identified as important but not pre-eminent agencies in taking responsibility for human resource issues in tourism, although, among the poorest nations, the NTO were ranked the highest. The study looked in some detail at the human resource responsibilities of national tourism organisations on the basis that these bodies are, probably, the most directly comparable between different countries in that their broad responsibilities include similar core areas. The ministries responsible for tourism, as has already been shown, are relatively diverse and have very varied briefs. A further incentive to focus on this area was the existence of a very interesting, comparable study, conducted by the World Tourism Organisation in 1975, the Aims, Activities and Fields of Competence of National Tourism organisations. While, undoubtedly, somewhat dated at this stage, the WTO study provides useful benchmark against which to evaluate 1992 data. In addition, a number of additional areas of activity, which were not included in 1975, were incorporated in this study.

Clearly, if NTOs are not carrying out the above range of functions, it is important to establish which, if any, other bodies are responsible for them. This dimension was covered by the final question in the survey, which asked respondents to identify other agencies involved, totally or with part

responsibility, in the areas specified or to indicate if the area had no application in the country in question. This aspect is also discussed here.

First, considering the six functions which were comparable between the two surveys, considerable changes are evident over the seventeen year period between the two studies. The most frequently identified function, in 1975, was that of determining manpower and training requirements, checked by some 64% of that sample. This remained very significant in the current study and, indeed, the percentage identifying this function was higher at 68%. It is likely, however, that the nature of this function has changed significantly in the period between the studies and that the activity, today, represents a somewhat more sophisticated and comprehensive activity than it did in 1975. These changes may reflect a number of factors, including

- * increased labour market pressures, especially in developed tourism economies;
- * the growth in significance of tourism (and recognition of this significance) in many countries;
- * consumer demand for higher quality tourism products and standards of service in most countries;
- * the contribution of international aid agencies in assisting national tourism organisations to improve the quality and comprehensiveness of manpower planning and training needs analysis provision; and
- * enhanced techniques and use of technology in support of this function.

When this function is considered in relation to the three sub-

groups identified within this study (which have also been applied to the 1975 study sample), considerable variation is evident. The two less affluent groups were much more likely to identify this function than was the case with the wealthiest group and this pattern remained consistent between the two studies. In all three cases, the proportion increased significantly between 1975 and 1991-92 with the result that 86% of the poorest group identified this function in the more recent study, compared to just 38% of the more affluent group.

Only a limited number of other agencies were identified in relation to this function. These were the ministry responsible for tourism (selected by 39% of the sample) and, hardly surprisingly, the ministry responsible for manpower/ human resource planning (21%). A total of seventeen respondents (26%) responded that this function was not carried out in a formal manner. Given the specialist nature of this function, the limited range of agencies is not unexpected. There is no clear pattern when the data, with respect to this question, is considered in relation to the three sub-groups. The most affluent group were both the most likely to identify an alternative agency to the NTO and to indicate no formal determination of manpower and training requirements at a national level.

However, the most frequently identified function, with respect to NTOs in 1991-92, was that of organising vocational training courses, selected by 71% of the sample, compared with just 59% in 1975. This represents an interesting change, and is likely to reflect a number of influences and organisational/ environmental developments in the intervening period. One of the most

significant is likely to be recognition of the growing importance of skills development, especially in the realm of service/customer care skills, within many tourism industries. It may also signify the increasing need for in-service and up-dating training for many personnel in the tourism industry, in a work environment which is constantly changing in the markets it serves, the expectations of consumers and in the use of support technology. At the same time, traditional providers of education and training, primarily within the vocational education sector, have not received sufficient resources to cater for the growth and diversity in demand and this has restricted their capacity to respond to changes in the needs of the industry and in demand. A further element in this change, over some seventeen years, may reflect increasing tension, in some countries, between the traditional providers of education and training and those employing the graduates of such courses in the tourism industry. Widespread criticisms of the relevance of educational and training programmes have been voiced by the industry in many countries, both developed and developing (for example the U.K. and India come to mind in this context), and this tension may be one factor behind growing NTO involvement in provision in this area. Finally, a further change, in some countries such as the U.K., has been the withdrawal of state support for specialist manpower and training agencies and the consequent transfer of some responsibilities to the NTO.

This overall rise in the significance of the training organisation function is also reflected within each of the three sub-groups. In the case of the poorest group of countries, the

rise is in the order of 10%, maintaining a figure that is just above the overall sample mean. The middle sub-group, within which the 1975 proportion undertaking this function was the highest, sees a rise of just 6%, from above the mean to one that is a little below. The most dramatic change is evident with respect to the most affluent sub-group, where a rise from 42% in 1975 to 76% in 1991-92 can be found, thus moving the sub-group from a position well below the sample mean to one where it is some 5% above the mean. This change is likely to, primarily, represent a dramatic shift in the perceived significance of human resource/ labour market issues within the tourism industries of many developed countries, driven by many of the factors considered, in general terms, above but reiteration with specific reference to the human resource/ labour market concerns of developed countries is merited here. The factors which may have influenced this change include:

- * sustained growth in tourism and related service sector employment in the period in question;
- * increased technical, service and managerial skills demands of the industry;
- * high labour turnover within the industry and attrition of skills to other service sector industries;
- * declining supply of "traditional" labour for tourism employment, reflecting demographic and other factors;
- * rapid changes in technological and market demands within the tourism industry, requiring increased mid-career retraining and development;

* recognition of the role of service quality in attaining competitive advantage in international tourism, thus increasing the need for NTOs to recognise human resource requirements alongside those of product quality in the development of the tourism industry;

* education and training providers with inadequate resources to expand the range of programmes to meet industry requirements;

* inflexibility in structure and programme provision, within many education and training institutions, resulting in poor responses to the changing needs of the tourism industry;

* a tendency, in some countries, to focus provision at higher level, management education and training, to the neglect of education and training at craft and supervisory levels;

* increase in the number and range of private sector education and training providers in tourism, many offering post-experience/ in-service development; and

* withdrawal of government financial support for specialist tourism training agencies.

NTOs, in developed countries, it would appear, have responded to these diverse and changing environmental factors by adopting a far more direct and involved role in the organisation (but not necessarily the direct provision) of vocational education and training courses.

A number of other agencies were identified as contributing to

this organisational function. Between one third and a half of the full sample identified the ministry responsible for education (42%) but this disguises a significant variation within the three subgroups where 62% of the most affluent group identified the education ministry compared to 24% of the poorest group. This points to a dominant role for ministries of education which will be further discussed below in relation to other functions and may represent one possible source of communication difficulties between tourism and education agencies. This also appears to represent the much longer traditions of tourism and hospitality education in developed countries and the existence of well established public sector schools and colleges. Also prominent in this respect are these individual schools and colleges, selected by 29% of the full sample, with the same skew evident within the sub-groups (52% of the richer group compared to 14% of the poorest). Tourism and human resource/ manpower planning ministries as well as specialist education/ training agencies also feature, significantly, in this context. Interestingly, no national tourism organisations responded that this function was not formally identified.

By contrast to the above two functions, where there was a reported increase in participation by NTOs between 1975 and 1991-92, the remaining four functions, identified in the first survey, all saw some fall in the level of response, although none was particularly dramatic. These functions were the formulation/ design of training programmes (a fall of 3% to 56%); the establishment of hotel and training schools (a drop of 7% to 35%); granting of fellowships (a decrease of 6% to 41%); and the

reception of trainees (a fall of 5% to 43%). This last function, when replicated in the recent study, did cause some problems in relation to interpretation but was retained in view of its presence in the 1975 survey.

These figures disguise some variation between the three sub-groups. In particular, three of these four functions were identified by the same or a higher proportion of the poorest group in 1991-92 when compared to 1975, demonstrating the increasing sophistication and range of responsibilities within the NTOs of developing countries. The only area of decrease identified was that of granting fellowships(down 9% to 48%), an activity which may have been transferred to other manpower or educational agencies.

Decrease was almost universal with respect to the functions of NTOs from the middle sub-group between 1975 and 1991-92. The only exception, already noted, was in the area of determining manpower and training requirements for tourism, in line with the overall sample trend. Of particular note were very substantial decreases in relation to three functions - establishment of hotel and tourism schools (down 10% to 38%); granting of fellowships (decrease of 17% to 38%); and reception of trainees (14% less at 38%). This picture may reflect a sharpening of purpose and definition of functions in some NTOs, reflecting a greater emphasis on marketing and related activities.

Finally, with respect to the most affluent group, the pattern is not so clear cut. Two of the four functions show a significant decrease, the establishment of hotel and tourism schools (down 20% to 5%) and the reception of trainees (which decreased by 5%

to 33%). By contrast, granting of fellowships increased, as a function, by 12% to 33% and the formulation/ design of training programmes which did not move from 33% over the intervening period. Again, aspects of this picture reflects changes in functions towards a greater focus on marketing while the other side of this coin represents the growing concern for human resource matters in many developed countries.

Other agencies were also identified with respect to these functions. Education ministries feature very strongly in all but the reception of trainees, where no significant alternative agencies were identified and the function was not recognised by 29% of the sample. Ministries of education were identified with respect to the formulation/ design of training programmes by 47% of the sample and by 67% of the most affluent groups (compared to 28% of the poorest group). Similarly, with respect to the establishment of hotel and tourism schools, 74% of the sample identified the education ministry - within this figure, the proportion was 79% in the poorest group compared to 67% within the most affluent sample.

Three of the remaining functions, within this group, also featured the education ministries as the most significant agency other than the NTO, but the level of involvement was somewhat lower at 47% for the formulation/ design of training programmes; 42% for the organisation of vocational training courses; and 26% for the granting of fellowships. In the case of the first two of these, the most affluent countries were significantly more likely to involve education ministries with the execution of these functions and the poorest countries the least likely. In the case

of the granting of fellowships, the reverse picture is identifiable.

Other agencies were also identified with respect to all these five functions included in the WTO study. Of particular note were other educational bodies, notably schools and colleges, in relation to the formulation and design of training programmes (26%); the organisation of vocational training courses (29%); and the establishment of hotel and tourism schools (20% within the public sector and 11% in the private sector). With respect to this latter function, it is interesting that regional education departments also feature quite strongly at 17%. These trends are much more common in relatively affluent countries and reflects the strength and maturity of many educational establishments in these countries. Human resource/ labour/ manpower ministries also feature quite strongly, especially in relation to determining manpower and training requirements (21%) and granting of fellowships (12%). Again, this role is rather more defined and established in developed countries. Tourism ministries, themselves, do not feature strongly, making minor contributions to all functions, although this role is more strongly defined in less developed countries. The final function of the original WTO group, the reception of trainees, was not associated with any other agencies to any significant degree.

What these findings indicate is the continued importance of a number of key human resource functions within the responsibilities of many NTOs as well as within the activities of a number of other agencies. Only a small proportion of NTOs (9% in 1975 and 8% in 1991-92) responded that they had no human

resource-related functions at all. This picture is further enhanced when the additional factors, included only in the 1991-92 study, are considered.

The most important of these is the conduct of manpower and training needs research, identified by 52% of the full sample. This activity may be deemed essential for the execution of other human resource activities at a macro/ planning level but is also a resource intensive responsibility if carried out effectively. Hence, it is not surprising that, within the sub-groups, 81% of the most affluent group NTOs carry out this function whereas only 34% of the least well off group undertake this function. This is not to say that the manpower and training needs research is not conducted in these other countries but that it is not an NTO function. Within the full sample, 20%, in fact, do not carry out any form of manpower or training needs research and this figure is as high as 31% among the least affluent group and just 5% among the best off sub-group. Indeed, the main agency to take full or partial responsibility for this area, other than NTOs was the ministry or other agency responsible for the compilation of statistics at a national level (overall, 44% of the sample), ranging from just 28% of the poorest sub-group to 67% of the richest nation sample. The problem with the collection of manpower/ human resource data through this source relates, in many cases, to the lack of sector-specific sensitivity that may be employed. It is arguable that the analysis of data as part of a wider employment analysis brief does not provide the detail or the familiarity required for meaningful planning. Tourism ministries take some responsibility in 11% of the sample

countries.

Likewise, a co-ordinating role with respect to national vocational standards and certification schemes is much more common in better off countries, where 81% have this function, compared to the full sample average of just 29%. This role is one that appears to have grown and developed considerably in recent years and is likely to become more significant in many countries in the future. It is also a function that is conducted, in some countries (26%) by the education ministry while 11% of the sample have a specialist vocational standards/ certification agency responsible for this area. Again, this function is more likely to be conducted by these bodies in more affluent countries.

A related function to this activity and also to that of establishing educational provision, is the actual operation of hotel and tourism schools, under the NTO. This is carried out in 24% of sample country NTOs but a rather higher figure (at 38%) was reported by the poorest group. That any of the wealthier countries NTOs (14%) actually acknowledged this function is somewhat surprising, given the withdrawal of many governments for support for non-marketing activities within NTOs. Not surprisingly, 71% of the sample identify this as a national ministry of education function and 15% as one which is delegated, wholly or in part, to regional or local education authorities. Schools and colleges, within the private sector, take part or full responsibility in 12% of the sample countries and the ministry of tourism in 11% of the sample. In terms of the respective sub-groups, the ministry of education role is much stronger in less developed countries, while the development of

private schools and colleges for tourism education appears to be most significant in the middle range of countries.

Finally, financial support for training or to support trainees through training was identified by a modest minority of the sample, 21% and 12% respectively. Given the very high level of physical plant investment, channelled through NTOs, to developing tourism industries in many countries, this relatively low level of support is of some concern, although, clearly, support does emanate from other public sector sources. It may be seen to reflect the relatively low priority given to human resource concerns, within NTOs and governments, when compared to other aspects of tourism development. Interestingly, support is rather more likely from NTOs in the two poorer groups of countries than it is with respect to the most affluent group. The main source of financial support, other than NTOs, was identified as national (82%) or regional/ local (17%) ministries of education in the case of support for the actual schools and training centres. Levels of support for the actual trainees, themselves, is much more limited and no such funding was indicated by 41% of the sample. Where it is available, the national ministry of education, at 21%, is the most significant source. Funding for the actual providers of education and training is more likely to be the national education ministry in poorer countries and to be a regional body in richer countries. Funding for trainees is more frequent in richer countries as well.

A variety of other human resource functions were also identified by NTOs although, generally, these were specific examples of activities which could be classified under one of the other

categories. For example, training of tour guides figured on a number of occasions and is clearly widely held to be a significant NTO responsibility and activity. Training of tourism teachers and trainers for work in colleges/ training centres and in the industry was also included in this category as was providing co-ordination of the work experience of tourism trainees.

4. Conclusions

This second study clearly points to the fragmentation of responsibility that exists with respect to the development of policy and its implementation in the area of human resources in international tourism. There is, evidently, no clear picture with respect to this area and, in most countries, responsibility appears to lie with a diversity of public and private sector agencies involved, directly, with tourism or operating in some other area of specialism. At the same time, the first study pointed to the significance of the human resource area as an issue within most tourism economies. Thus, a clear gap would seem to exist between the concern that is expressed about human resource matters in tourism and the mechanisms that are put in place in order to deal with them.

This chapter also confirms the notion that national ministries responsible for tourism and their operational wings, the national tourism organisations, have a difficult position with respect to the management and development of the human resource environment pertaining to the industry. Few NTOs have full authority and responsibility for the complete range of policy areas and

functions with respect to human resources and are dependent upon a plethora of other agencies, public and private sector, for their execution. The consequence of this, in many instances, is inconsistencies between national tourism policies and their application within the human resource domain as well as variable quality in terms of the delivery of areas such as manpower planning, education and training. As a result, the concern that is, arguably, fast becoming the key competitive differential between tourism destinations, the quality of their human resources and the service that they deliver, is highly vulnerable to resourcing and management pressures outside of the control of the main sponsoring ministry and public sector agency.

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Chapter 7

PLACING THE RESEARCH FINDINGS IN CONTEXT

The literature reviews and the two empirical studies which constitute the main body of this thesis raise a wide range of issues pertaining to human resource concerns in the context of the international tourism industry. The purpose of the study, this far, has been to attempt to establish the position of human resource concerns in the policy domain, within tourism, and to identify how policy is enacted. The literature reviews, on the one hand, point to the paucity of directly relevant material that links tourism policy concerns directly to the human resource environment while, on the other, acknowledging the connection in a fairly general way.

The specific policy-related literature only gives limited attention to human resource matters in considering the historical development and the main determinants of policy. This area only receives real consideration in the context of the actual policy statements and plans which are referred to in the review but are not reproduced in full. However, they do illustrate the diversity of factors which determine a country's (or region's/ locality's) involvement in tourism. Here, the Australian, Canadian and Irish examples provide good illustrations of the adoption of human resource priorities within national tourism policies. Indeed, the case of the Irish Republic is, arguably, the most clear example of employment concerns constituting the main driving force behind a national tourism policy, placing all other considerations at

subsidiary level to this area. This dearth of a useful literature which focuses on the human resource influences and determinants in wider tourism policy formulation and determination may point to the reluctance of many involved in this field, at a practitioner or scholarly level, to seriously engage with the area while acknowledging its existence in a general but peripheral sense. This may well be a product of the fragmentation issue which has already been discussed in that there is, frequently, no clear apportionment of responsibility for human resources within tourism industries and, consequently, little specialist expertise develops. It also represents a reflection on the lower status of the human resource dimension, when compared to the rather more glamorous areas of physical product development and marketing. This sense of peripherality is one of the main barriers to the serious consideration of issues in this area within the main tourism stream.

In a somewhat similar way, the very extensive and wide-ranging literature on human resource concerns in the tourism/ hospitality industry make only limited connections to the development and implementation of tourism policy in a wider context. It is arguable that one of the main deficiencies in this literature is its predominantly narrow focus, concentrating on micro and applied personnel and related issues without giving due consideration to the wider context in which tourism policy develops. There are some significant exceptions but, by and large, few sources really come to grips with what is, arguably, an area central to policy determination. Conversely to the literature in the mainstream tourism policy field, this, in

itself, may point to a lack of willingness, among tourism human resource professionals and academics, to engage with this topic and to make any direct effort to contribute to policy formulation and implementation in the wider tourism context, reflecting, once more on this notion of peripherality.

The two empirical studies re-inforce the main conclusions of the literature reviews. On the one hand, the first study points to the importance of human resource issues within the broad sweep of tourism policy determination and its subsequent implementation. It is clear that most responding countries place employment generation and related matters very high up the list of the main reasons why the country or territory is in the tourism business and also place concerns in this area as some of the most important issues facing the tourism industry in the countries in question. On the other hand, as this and the second study show, human resource functions play an important, but somewhat ambiguous, part within many NTO activities. Consideration of these is developed further in the 1991-92 study which provides a detailed analysis of the diversity of responsibility which exists for both policy and execution of human resource matters within international tourism. The overriding impact of this analysis is, firstly, to show the diversity of human resource concerns that exist within most international tourism industries; secondly, to illustrate the range of bodies which are concerned with attempting to rectify them; and, perhaps most significantly, to demonstrate the total fragmentation that exists with respect to this area, both in terms of the actual operation of the various functions and in relation to the policy

formulation that is required. A relatively wide range of agencies, both in the public and private sectors, are identified as taking either a partial or a full role in relation to policy development and actual functional responsibility. These include

- * the national tourism organisation;
- * the tourism ministry;
- * the education ministry (national and/ or regional);
- * the labour/ manpower ministry;
- * schools and colleges;
- * specialist agencies responsible for education and training, certification and related areas; and
- * national statistical collection and analysis agencies.

In many developing countries, a further and, frequently, major influence is that of international agencies, working through various aid and development programmes in support of the tourism industry. These inputs, through the expertise of international specialists, may be operated through national assistance programmes, for example USAid or the British Council. Rather more significant is the contribution of experts working through the funding and under the auspices of agencies such as the European Community, International Labour Organisation (ILO), the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP), the World Bank or the World Tourism Organisation (WTO). This is not the place to elaborate, in detail, on the functions and varying contributions that these bodies actually make. However, technical assistance programmes, under their auspices, focus very strongly on human resource concerns, at different levels, in the tourism industries of

developing countries. Specific functions addressed, frequently, cover a much wider range than those for which the national recipient nation is equipped to carry out in its own right. They may include

- * manpower surveys and planning within tourism;
- * identification of training and educational needs;
- * planning and development of educational and training facilities;
- * design and development of curricula and teaching/learning resources;
- * training and development of teachers and trainers;
- * provision of specific management, supervisory and craft training programmes;
- * provision of overseas fellowship programmes for those working in the tourism industry (in the private and public sector) and for teachers/ trainers; and
- * assistance in the implementation of new systems and equipment within educational and training institutions.

Thus, international assistance can help to bridge some of the gap that exists between the identified deficiencies in human resource planning and development within national tourism industries and the ability of national governments to overcome them. Technical assistance programmes can also help in the achievement of greater integration with respect to policies and implementation of human resource priorities in tourism and the implementation of something that approaches the cohesive and comprehensive human resource management system which is discussed in Chapter 8.

Also of great importance, in the context of the fragmentation considered above, are changes that have occurred in the conduct of the various functions, by NTOs, since the 1975 study by the World Tourism Organisation as well as the significantly different responses generated by respondents from countries according to their per capita GNP.

It is clear, from these studies and the reviews of the literature, that there is no single panacea or universal response to the diversity of human resource issues that face the international tourism industry. Countries and, indeed, localities construct strategies to cater for their own local needs that are derived from a complex amalgam of influences, notably

- * the nature of the tourism industry in question, its structure, products and markets;
- * social and cultural perceptions of tourism as an industry and as an employer;
- * the labour market in the locality in question, especially demographic trends, levels of unemployment and competition for skilled labour;
- * existing human resource provision as a product of an ad hoc developmental history;
- * the education system and its traditions;
- * government policy and priorities, with respect to tourism, manpower and educational issues; and
- * diverse and, frequently, unco-ordinated

management of the implementation of human resource policies and priorities in tourism by a number of public and private sector agencies.

This chapter is concerned with extracting the seminal components from the literature and the empirical studies and will set the scene for a co-ordinated response to these issues. Chapter 8 will consider how the diverse human resource concerns in tourism can be presented as part of a comprehensive, integrated and cohesive plan for the development and management of the area. As will be demonstrated, in part this plan was developed as part of fieldwork conducted in Malaysia in 1990-91, where the conditions pertaining to human resource development in tourism reflect closely many of the fragmentation concerns which this study has identified. Malaysia will be used as a case study to illustrate the application of the framework.

V.S. Mahesh (forthcoming, 1993) provides a very useful starting point in response to the issues identified and towards the development of an integrated human resource planning structure for tourism in that he considers some of the main features within the human resource planning process, both from the micro company level and from the macro national perspective. Mahesh's approach is highly pragmatic and designed to illustrate responses to real situations at both levels. In this sense, therefore, his proposals for action, at a national level, are drawn directly out of the specific analysis of skills and skills shortages which he undertook on behalf of the Indian Government during the late 1980s. I have included it here, in some detail, because of the

active advisory role that I played in assisting in the development work in question and the impact that this study has made upon my subsequent work. Indeed, the planning model, which Mahesh describes, is one that was modified for use in the Malaysian project.

Mahesh's study includes proposals at both the micro and the macro levels. At the company or micro level, he proposes nine steps which are necessary in establishing an effective human resource environment within a tourism or hospitality company. These are

- "a) Correctly plan for the requisite number of people required at each level of each category of skills, providing for expansion, attrition and internal development needs.
- b) Identify alternative sources from where people can be recruited, ranging from fully trained and experienced people who could operate directly on the job, to new entrants who require appropriate training before commencing work.
- c) Set up appropriate, cost effective recruitment systems.
- d) Set up effective induction and training systems to cater for every source of recruitment.
- e) Identify and make available the requisite number of trainers to operate these systems.
- f) Install an effective personnel administration system to take care of those recruited.
- g) Set up a discipline management system whereby all employees are prepared to accept basic norms of

discipline at work.

h) Create a collaborative climate for industrial peace so that customers are not in the least aware of the unavoidable tensions that are likely to occur in any management-employee relationship.

i) Set up a team of human resource professionals who have the requisite professional and personal skills to ensure continuous monitoring and improvement of the integrated Human Resource Planning and Development (HRPD) system described here" (Mahesh, forthcoming, 1993).

At the macro level, Mahesh's approach is to provide a step by step implementation model, designed to assist with the identification of manpower and training needs at the national level. His case is based on India, probably a far more complex environment than that which pertains within many tourism destination countries, but representing a valid contribution to the framework considered in this chapter. The first step is to identify the level of human resource availability at the commencement of the planning period, which, in itself, is not always an easy or reliable exercise. This global figure must then be divided according to sub-sectors within the tourism industry and by the skills and responsibility levels of the employees. The base figures are then adjusted on a projected annual basis, taking into account

- * anticipated growth in tourism arrivals, international and domestic;
- * the variegated impact of this growth on different

industry sub-sectors;

- * strategies to improve productivity, where possible;

- * projected levels of attrition from the industry and between various sub-sectors; and

- * ensuring maximum utilisation of internal development and promotion strategies and projecting the level and impact of these on the wider human resource environment (Mahesh, forthcoming, 1993).

Utilising this process, Mahesh arrives at a detailed recruitment action plan for the country's tourism industry, by separate sub-sectors, as well as an annual estimate of the extent and nature of the education and training (within companies and within the external education and training system) that will be required in order to meet the industry's requirements over the period of the plan. This is followed by proposals designed to meet the identified recruitment and development needs at all levels and within all sectors. This approach, while clearly country-specific, also gave direction to the subsequent development work in Malaysia.

As a consequence, many of the recommendations, which Mahesh considers, have validity within the conceptual framework that will be developed here.

This approach, leading to the development of an integrated framework for the management of the human resource environment within tourism, is highly dependent on the quality and validity of the information which is fed into it. The collection of manpower and training-related information features as important to many of the responding NTOs in their replies to the second

study. Clearly, the wealth of information required for this exercise means that a diversity of other sources and field methodologies will be required in addition to the approaches which are considered in detail here. It is beyond the scope of this chapter to consider them but that is not intended to underestimate the significance of their role.

The plan is intended to integrate the main features of the two ends of the HRPD process, as described by Mahesh, and to constitute a "blueprint", drawn from the good practice that exists in a variety of countries, as drawn from the literature, the two surveys and the support documentation provided in conjunction with the studies. As such, some aspects of the plan will prove more suitable for practical implementation by some localities, countries or regions than others and some may require modification.

This "blueprint" is prepared at a time when international tourism is facing conflicting tensions with respect to the process of product "homogenisation" and it is not the intention, here, to argue the merits of uniformity for its own sake within human resource management in tourism. The history of tourism, since it has moved onto a mass market scale, mirrors much that has occurred in other social domains, with one of the dominant trends being that of changes from diversity to uniformity while, at the same time, exposing local communities to a range of new, and not always desirable, influences. These processes have been influenced by a number of important factors, which include

- * mass immigration and the migration of populations, creating new cultural, artistic and culinary

environments while at the same time establishing global expectations with regard to some products and standards;

- * the almost universal marketing and availability of mass produced consumer products, notably in food and drink, epitomised by Coca Cola but also relevant in the tourism product area ("Take me to the Hilton");

- * the demands of the growing international travel market, on the one hand exposed to new experiences but also creating needs which modify what is available locally, for example the "international hotel version" of a local culinary specialty;

- * the growth of transnational hotel and restaurant companies, offering standard international accommodation and food fare throughout the world; and

- * the influence of the international media in creating common expectations and demands from both the travelling and indigenous population.

As a result of this homogenisation process within the international tourism product, there is no doubt that there has been considerable convergence in the demands that the international industry makes of its human resources and this is clearly reflected in the common ground that is evident from the information provided for the two surveys. At the same time, there is evidence that changes may be expected in international tourism and the differences between aspects of the responses to the surveys by the respective sub-groups cannot be underestimated. A further factor of significance will include significant shifts

in consumer preferences. Kurent describes these in some detail:

"The once-dominant middle market of "Happy Mediums" will also continue to decline during the 1990's under the impact of consumer sophistication. Demand will continue to grow for more individualized, high quality vacations and services geared to widely varying consumer desires. As Alvin Toffler described in The Third Wave, post modern life will turn from "mass" production of all kinds to customization whereby technologies make possible more tailored products to meet individual tastes. In the case of tourism it will be a further fragmentation of the market to accommodate customization of individual tastes for travel experiences." (Kurent, 1991 p. 79)

These, apparently, contradictory images of homogenisation and customization need not be as uncomfortable together as may, at first, be thought. The benefits of common administrative, reservations , energy and information systems are apparent and their interface with the customer provide a quality enhancement that will be welcomed by most tourists. Likewise, the application of similar quality criteria in the area of service and hygiene, for example, will also benefit tourists wherever they travel. However, demands for customization will result in increased prominence for the tourism product that is both unique and authentic to the locality or country in question.

The implications for human resource management in tourism of, on the one hand, trends towards uniformity and, on the other, demands for product customization and authenticity, are that this

area requires the capacity to respond to, and cater for, what appear to be two divergent demands. The keys to this duality are flexibility and responsiveness, both within the overall human resource management system and its structures and at the level of the individual.

The conceptual framework, that is developed in the next chapter, is intended to be one that can respond to the diversity of, at times, contradictory demands which the tourist of the future will place upon tourism employees at all levels as well as on the whole host population.

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Chapter 8
CREATING AN INTEGRATED HUMAN
RESOURCE ENVIRONMENT
FOR TOURISM

1. Introduction

A constant theme, within the literature and the responses to the surveys, has been, on the one hand, the variety of influences which impact on the planning, management and development of human resources within the international tourism industry and, on the other, the fragmented nature of the management of this diversity. The diverse influences are complex and do not interact with the tourism environment in the same way in different countries and regions. Their origins can be found in factors such as

- * the nature of current and projected tourism products and markets, and how these influence the human resource requirements of the locality or country;
- * national or local culture, religion or history and the impact this has on employment in sectors of the tourism industry;
- * contemporary perceptions of tourism and tourists, as presented by the media and official agencies, particularly in relation to employment;
- * the traditions, orientations and priorities within national educational systems, both within vocational and academic areas;
- * the role of higher educational institutions, especially universities, in tourism-related education,

research and development;

* the position of tourism sector requirements, within national industrial training provision;

* the labour market environment, especially competition for labour and skills and policy priorities with respect to new job generation;

* the demographics of the labour market;

* the cultural and ethnic mix of the workforce and the impact of immigration, emigration and transnational labour mobility;

* government (local and national) tourism policies and the emphasis, within these, that is accorded to employment creation and skills development;

* incentives and support for investment, by both the public and private sector, in human resource development, generally and within tourism; and

* the role of national and local tourism promotion and development agencies in the human resource field.

This chapter is concerned with providing the structure through which this diversity can be acknowledged while, at the same time, allowing the mechanisms to be put into place in order to provide for the coherent and co-ordinated management of both policy and implementation strategies for human resource planning and development in tourism. This is attempted through the development of a conceptual framework or model which provides the structure or guidelines for implementation at national or regional level within countries. This framework draws together most of the diverse strands which impact upon human resource planning and

management in tourism and which, as the study to this point has demonstrated, are rarely considered and managed in anything approaching an integrated and coherent manner.

The conceptual framework or model for the integrated development of human resources in tourism is designed to reflect the need for flexibility and responsiveness in the face of the diverse environmental and structural conditions which have been addressed at earlier points in this thesis. The framework was developed through the author's previous experience in managing the human resource environment within Irish tourism as well as through field consultancy experience with the Singapore Tourist Promotion Board, the Planning Commission for India and involvement with a number of similar projects elsewhere. The case study, which is employed here to illustrate the application of the framework, is based on work undertaken in Malaysia on behalf of Economic Planning Unit of the Prime Minister's Office through Peat Marwick Consultants Sdn. Bhd., Kuala Lumpur in preparation for the Sixth Malaysia Plan. The Manpower Report, for which the author was responsible, was one of twelve commissioned as the Tourism Policy Study for Malaysia. Information on the background to the Malaysian study in the form of a brief on Malaysian tourism and its relationship with the human resource environment, is contained in Appendix E.

The objective of the framework is to provide a comprehensive policy and implementation management tool for human resource planning and development in tourism. The framework is intended to be

* Comprehensive, in that it includes all

sectors of the tourism industry; all relevant aspects of human resource development; all levels of training and development; and reflects the demands of local cultures, traditions and tourism markets.

* Integrated, in that all components, in the model, have clear and identifiable links to other elements and contribute to, or are beneficiaries of, other parts of the model.

* Cohesive, in that the total model, the overall outcome of the process, has a logic and applicability in its own right, almost independent of its individual parts.

* Flexible in that it should allow for modification and adaptation within a variety of different national and regional tourism environments.

The value of this approach is, primarily, as an aid to policy formulation and the establishment of national, regional or local priorities with respect to human resource concerns in tourism. Where this approach differs from that practised in most tourism environments is in its breadth. It is designed to incorporate as many of the diverse influences and considerations which affect the development and management of an effective human resource policy in tourism. It is non evaluatory in the sense that the implementing agencies will not receive clear judgements as to the relative importance of the components. However, it provides a

practical framework through which such judgements can be made. The framework, therefore, has been developed on the basis of five main divisions. These are, by no means, mutually exclusive and definite cross-divisional links exist between all of them. They do have a certain sequential logic but the order is not intended to imply priority of importance. The divisions are

- * A. The tourism environment
- * B. Tourism and the labour market;
- * C. Tourism in the community;
- * D. Tourism and education;
- * E. Human resource development in the tourism industry.

Each division contains a number of key elements or considerations which require evaluation by those responsible for policy formulation and the identification of priorities. They may be deemed significant factors within the human resource environment or they may be considered to be beyond its scope. Other considerations may also be of importance and may be added to the framework. At the end of the process, however, responsible agencies and practitioners alike will have the information and, consequently, the basis for the development of a relevant human resource planning and development structure within the requisite tourism industry.

The components of the conceptual framework are summarised in Figure 1 and full details of these components are given in Appendix D.

<u>TURE</u>	<u>LOW PER CAPITA INCOME GROUP</u>	<u>HIGH PER CAPITA INCOME GROUP</u>
<u>is a country tourism?</u>	<u>Economic factors</u> * foreign exchange * employment * regional/ local development giving short/ medium term impact <u>General factors</u> less significant	<u>Economic factors</u> * foreign exchange * employment giving short/ medium term impact <u>General factors</u> * awareness about country * international goodwill giving longer term impact also important
<u>nificance of rism?</u>	Very high, rapid growth. Excessive dependence.	Medium to high, growing awareness, increased competition. Increasing market orientation.
<u>blems and allenges</u>	Limited capacity/ availability; infrastructural issues; and trained personnel - all high rated. Environmental issues - low at present but growing.	Manpower shortage - key concern. Environmental issues - becoming major concern.
<u>is tourism inistration anised?</u>	Specialist ministry for tourism.	Likely to be subsumed in another department. Increasing dependence on non- government control.
<u>is NTO run?</u>	Limited development, small and secondary to government. Funded by government.	Well established, strong role on behalf of government. Possible autonomy from government. Increasing private sector funding.
<u>ctions of NTO</u>	Marketing - primarily inter- national. Product development - growing. Training. Limited information/ statistics role. Growing role and significance.	Marketing - domestic and international. Product grading - decreasing. Well developed statistical and information role. Decreasing functions - devolution to private sector and market regulation.

2. Applying the policy and strategy framework: the case study of Malaysian tourism

The framework is not a panacea, designed to solve all identified problems at a stroke. Rather, it is a continuum, a process which allows for problems to be identified and solutions to be considered. Hence, the application of certain components (notably, the collection of relevant background and base information and data), in tandem with the preliminary, investigative phase of the project. What the framework provides, after this stage, is the structure through which a systematic range of recommendations could be formulated at policy, strategic and implementation level. The framework provides the structure upon which to "hang" a disparate range of responses and proposals, to ensure that they are considered relative to each other as well as, separately, in their own right and, thus, to give them coherence. In this case study, the recommendations of the author's work in Malaysia will be included in order to illustrate this diversity and the precise rationale and mechanisms for implementation will not, always, be included.

Recommendations at the policy, co-ordination and management level

Recommendation 1: The enhanced role for the Ministry of the Arts, Culture and Tourism (MOCAT) with respect to policy development, strategy and implementation for human resources in tourism and, specifically, to

- a) formulate policies for the establishment and operation of national, comprehensive, co-ordinated manpower, education and training structures in order

- to support the development of tourism in Malaysia;
- b) to initiate and co-ordinate the collection and evaluation of current and predictive manpower planning and training needs data;
 - c) to formulate policies and make financial resources for the development of tourism education and training;
 - d) to ensure liaison between Ministries and all other bodies interested in tourism education and training;
 - e) to support, through the Ministry of Education, the development of tourism education in schools and colleges; and
 - f) to establish an operational National Tourism Training Council (NTTC) (see below).

Recommendation 2: MOCAT should take full responsibility for the co-ordination of all public sector involvement in tourism and, specifically, in tourism education and training.

Recommendation 3: In support of MOCAT's roles as outlined above, a National Tourism Training Council should be established in order to

- a) co-ordinate the design and implementation of suitable tourism educational and training programmes;
- b) to support the design and development of curriculum resources, such as textbooks; co-ordinating physical facilities teachers/ trainers so as to ensure effective programme delivery;
- c) to conduct survey and research work in order to improve and strengthen the quality of tourism

education and ensure its relevance to the needs of the tourism industry; and

d) to co-ordinate the quality management of programmes and validation of qualifications awarded as a result of the completion of education and training programmes in tourism.

Recommendation 4: The development of management and supervisory education for tourism within existing the existing university and college system and on the basis of co-operation between all institutions and their respective government sponsors and co-ordination by MOCAT.

Recommendation 5: Development of school-level tourism programmes under the auspices of the Ministry of Education but in close liaison with public and private sector tourism industry interests.

Recommendation 6: Co-ordination, by MOCAT, of a national campaign to promote and enhance awareness of career opportunities in tourism and through tourism education/ training.

Recommendations at the strategy and implementation level.

Recommendation 7: The development of an integrated and multi-level education and training system for tourism, based on identified skills requirements and regional needs.

Recommendation 8: Placing skilled craft training and supervisory development as the priority areas for

development, thus applying the "base up" approach to human resource development and addressing the key skills shortages in the industry. Skills areas (identified in the report) should reflect the full diversity of vocations within tourism, considerably broadened from the existing hotels focus, supported by nationally agreed curricula and recognised and equivalent certification.

Recommendation 9: The development of a national system or network of public and private sector colleges and training centres, operating under NTTC auspices, for the provision of skilled craft education and training. Proposed locations and number in training were included in the report. Provision of temporary training measures, as a short-term strategy was also included.

Recommendation 10: The recognition and certification of industry-based training as equivalent to that within the formal system, with NTTC quality and standards control.

Recommendation 11: Localised provision of basic craft training, within secondary schools, to be expanded and regularised under NTTC.

Recommendation 12: Inclusion of tourism as a subject of study within academic and vocational streams in secondary education.

Recommendation 13: Recognition of Malaysian culture, crafts and culinary traditions through their inclusion

within tourism curricula and the establishment of a specialist Malaysian Culinary and Craft Institute.

Recommendation 14: Recognition of the training needs of small tourism businesses and the basic skills requirements of self-employed entrepreneurs.

Recommendation 15: a focus on diploma level programmes within supervisory and management education, reflecting industry's priority needs. Proposed programmes and the location of institutions were included in the report. At the same time, limited degree and postgraduate-level provision was also proposed, partly to satisfy needs at this level, currently met by students studying overseas.

Recommendation 16: Development of a specialist tourism research facility within an existing college or university.

Recommendation 17: As a short- to medium- term strategy, provision of overseas study scholarships for the tourism area on an equitable footing with that available in other disciplines.

Recommendation 18: Recognition of the importance of teacher and trainer education and development as an essential pre-requisite for the expansion and improvement of the tourism education and training system.

Recommendation 19: The institution of a formal and on-going programme and institutional review process for tourism education, under MOCAT and NTTTC, in order to

ensure the relevance of programmes and the quality of delivery and outcomes.

Other key recommendations in support areas

Recommendation 20: Implementation of systematic and on-going manpower and training needs research, to be conducted under the auspices of MOCAT and NTTC. A full model for the conduct of this research was included in the report.

Recommendation 21: Funding of tourism education and training should be developed as public and private sector partnership and should attract the same level of public purse support as other areas of economic activity.

Recommendation 22: Greater delegation to State level could enhance the quality and relevance of much tourism education and training. This would require assistance through greater financial allocations to the States from the Federal government.

Recommendation 23: The educational and training needs of public sector tourism staff, working for MOCAT, TDC and the States requires particular attention. The development of specialist tourism expertise, at all three agency levels, is important to enhancing the policy development, marketing, and human resource-related skills of these staff so as to maintain the competitive position of Malaysia in international tourism.

The twenty-three recommendations covered here represent a sample of those actually incorporated within the Tourism Policy Study report but give an indication of the diversity of its scope.

3. Conclusion - evaluating the integrated human resource environment for tourism

This chapter demonstrates the application of the model or framework for policy development, planning, strategy formulation and implementation within the area of human resources in tourism. The focus of the chapter is on a case study from Malaysia but the key point about the framework is its transferability to almost any tourism destination area. This flexibility should allow for its use in most tourism environments where policy making and planning can be identified as a discrete function within a geographical or administrative unit. The focus and prime objective of the framework is to provide policy makers and planners, responsible for tourism and the identification/management of its human resource component, with a toll with which to bring all the diverse and fragmented components that currently exist together and as well as to identify gaps within the system. This objective, therefore, is designed to overcome the key deficiencies, identified through the analysis of the published literature and as a result of the two international surveys, in tourism policy development and planning in so far as the human resource dimension is concerned.

Evaluating the effectiveness of the framework, however, is a local and, to a certain extent, a subjective assessment. The framework, in itself, does not initiate change. Rather, it

provides the agenda through which to consider what measures may be required to develop an integrated and comprehensive human resource planning and development system for tourism. Therefore, at one level, the input to the Tourism Policy Study in Malaysia provides the basis by which to evaluate the framework and the recommendations that have been discussed illustrate that it can generate a wide-ranging and inclusive review of human resource concerns tourism and a plan for change. These recommendations and details of them, are open to challenge and discussion but that does not affect the process in its own right. Final evaluation, however, must be deferred until the recommendations are either actioned in part, in full or ignored.

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Chapter 9

CONCLUSIONS

At the commencement of this study, it was the overall purpose to investigate the relationship between tourism policy making at a national or regional level and the specific area of human resource planning and development within tourism. More specific objectives were also identified in order to guide and focus this study in attempting to achieve this overall purpose.

The study has combined empirical field research, through the conduct of two surveys, and an extensive (but, by no means exhaustive) search of the literature pertaining to both national and regional tourism policy and human resource planning and development in tourism. On the basis of these investigative strands, conclusions were postulated and a conceptual framework or model developed and applied as a means through which to manage some of the apparent deficiencies in the relationship between national and regional tourism policy formulation and the position of human resource concerns within this process. These deficiencies merit further discussion here.

The major issue, identified within this study, is the peripheral position that human resource concerns occupy within overall tourism policy formulation, strategy and implementation. It is clear that, while this area is acknowledged as being of considerable significance at a surface level, it is seen as marginal to the real concerns of tourism. Thus, tourism policy statements and related documentation seem to isolate the human

resource area within virtually self-contained sections or clusters of objectives, without any attempt to integrate them with other areas of concern. This peripherality features in both national policy documentation and in more analytical and discursive reviews of tourism policy at a transnational or global level.

This marginality is also manifested in the quality of reference made to human resource concerns in the policy domain. Where reference is included, within policy documentation, it is frequently concerned with micro operational issues rather than considering the macro human resource environment within tourism. A good example of this is the European Community's action plan for tourism (Commission of the European Communities, 1991) which, while eclectic and wide-ranging in the policy areas that it covers in a general sense, is very concrete and specific in dealing with the vocational education and training measures which are proposed for tourism.

Both these issues may, in no small measure, reflect on a further major concern which has become apparent during the conduct of this study and its subsequent analysis. This relates to the dispersal and fragmentation of public and, sometimes, private sector responsibility that is very apparent when considering both the policy and implementation dimensions of human resource planning and development within tourism. In virtually all situations, one of three scenarios pertains.

a) Here, the predominant responsibility of the ministry or other government agency is with tourism marketing, product development/ management or

regulation and human resource issues (manpower research and planning; education; training) are peripheral to what is seen as the main scope of the agency's responsibility. As the second survey shows, this scenario is commonly the case with respect to government ministries responsible for tourism or national tourist organisations but also manifests itself at regional or state level. Even where a specific human resource brief exists within the agency, it tends to be low profile and low status, concerned with operational functions such as tour guide training and with only limited policy input.

b) Here, the predominant responsibility of the ministry or other government agency is with human resource functions but over a far wider remit than just tourism. Indeed, tourism manpower planning, employment, education and training are, probably, considered alongside similar remits relating to other vocational sectors or do not figure as an area of significant concern at all. Examples that figured in this research included ministries for education, higher education, employment, labour and human resources as well as their support agencies and the schools, colleges, universities and training centres which deliver programmes on their behalf. The relevance of specific tourism-related policies and programmes are frequently questioned by non-specialist professionals in these areas.

c) Here, the main remit of the ministry or agency does not lie with either tourism or the human resource area and the relevance of concern for either dimension, let alone both, is, frequently, not appreciated. Examples of such situations may include home or internal affairs ministries, responsible for immigration officials, including for the numbers deployed to meet incoming flights and ships and for their training in customer handling and related skills. Likewise, public works or environment ministries may include the management of various historic and cultural sites while the ministries of agriculture or forestry may be responsible for national park provision. These also have, potentially, a human resource dimension relating to tourism.

From a human resources in tourism perspective, there is very little evidence, in practice, of serious consideration given to the co-ordination of these disparate bodies at a policy or implementation level. It is debateable whether all the diverse strands and interests that have, potentially, a valid and valuable contribution to make, can, in practice, be involved and integrated into the planning and implementation process. However, the conceptual framework or model, which is considered in relation to the Malaysian case study, represents an initial attempt to bring together as wide a range of these concerns as possible. This is to ensure that, on the one hand, their concerns and needs are incorporated into policy and implementation strategies and, on the other, that their own practices and

priorities take cognisance of the needs of tourism and its human resources.

Clearly, the conclusions that can be drawn from this study remain tentative. Methodological difficulties in accessing data from such a wide variety of countries and national tourist organisations constitute one major problem encountered at the survey stage and, with greater resources and the status of a body such as the WTO, it is possible that more detailed and in-depth data could be accessed in this area. The key methodological weaknesses, with respect to the study, can be summarised as follows:

- * inherent unreliability of the international mailed survey approach, affecting both the level of response but also leaving open questions regarding who actually completed the questionnaire on behalf of the organisation.

- * the paucity of directly applicable literature, to act as a framework for comparison and as a means of validating and guiding the approach adopted.

- * the time gap between the conduct of the two empirical studies, affecting the continuity of the work in terms of policies within the various NTOs and the personnel involved. Furthermore, the three year period (1988 to 1991) was one of great significance to tourism, owing to major political developments, the impact of the Gulf War, the growing economic downturn in the west and general reduction in the positive feelings about tourism's short to medium term future.

* Dependence on a limited range of personal and professional contacts, in selected countries, for additional material and response.

Indeed, the findings and conclusions of this study but be tempered by acknowledgement that this work is, by no means, a definitive exploration of what is a complex and contentious area. Because this study does appear to break new ground in attempting to link policy development in tourism with the specific human resource environment relating to the tourism and hospitality environment, it provides answers that are limited, for methodological and scope reasons. However, of equal import is the fact that the study identifies a range of areas for further study and research.

The evident gaps in the literature provide one clear starting point. Tourism policy, its development and implementation, has been considered, in depth, in a limited number of countries and there is an evident need for further work, especially in the context of developing countries and evolving tourism destinations. The fluidity of the political, economic and social environment in a number of countries, notably, but not exclusively, those in eastern Europe and the former Soviet Union, point to the need for this process of analysis to be on-going and subject to regular up-date. However, research needs to go beyond a focus on national or regional tourism policies and attendant systems. Few studies have attempted what might be styled broadly comparative analysis between the policies of different countries. A possible exception is Richter (1989). This thesis attempted a

crude categorisation of empirical data relating to tourism policy, on the basis of the relative affluence of the countries concerned. This approach generated some of what are, potentially, the most significant outcomes of this study. Clearly, this kind of comparative analysis, on a transnational basis, has the potential to afford a rich source for further research.

Turning now to the human resource literature in relation to the tourism and hospitality industries, further major gaps are evident. The lack of inclusiveness, with respect to the full scope of the tourism and hospitality industry, has already been pinpointed. There appear to be no studies which focus on the working lives of airline pilots, tour guides, ski-instructors or tour operator representatives in the depth and detail of similar studies within the hospitality sector, for example that by Gabriel (1988). Thus the scope exists for detailed research in this field. The same argument can also be applied with respect to the considerable empirically-based literature, which exists in relation to other aspects of the human resource domain within the hospitality industry. Little comparative work exists in the broader tourism environment and this deficiency merits a remedy. In particular, analysis of national tourism human resource policies and systems, which go beyond the descriptive and banal, would be of value.

The main focus of this thesis is based on the two empirical studies and the conclusions drawn from them. Methodological frailty has already been discussed and this points to the need for further comparative study in this area. There would be considerable benefit in partial replication of aspects of these

studies. More pertinent, however, would be the conduct of detailed case study analysis of the relationship between tourism policy formulation and human resource considerations, which would have the value of collectively remedying some of the methodological deficiencies of this study and testing out the validity of the broad conclusions of this thesis.

Finally, this thesis puts forward a model or conceptual framework through which the problems of poor integration between tourism and human resource policy issues can be addressed. Malaysia provides a case study for its partial evaluation. In part, the model has also been tested, on a pragmatic and non-academic basis, through work undertaken by the author elsewhere. Clearly, this model requires rigorous re-evaluation in a variety of contexts and environments in order that claims regarding its general applicability may be tested.

The need for further research in order to expand and validate the findings of this study, is one of the key conclusions that can be drawn. Methodological deficiencies notwithstanding, it is a reasonable claim to make that the central hypothesis behind this study has been substantiated to a satisfactory level. It is evident, both from the literature sources and the empirical studies that human resource concerns, while featuring within the broad scope of national tourism policies are, in practice, not central to the development and implementation of such policies and area fragmented in the way that they are addressed.

In addition to the needs for further study, the conclusions of this thesis present important implications for the work of policy makers within tourism, at a public and private sector level and

with respect to those responsible for education, training and employment policies in so far as they impact on tourism. At the very simplest, policy makers in these two areas need to establish an on-going dialogue about issues of mutual concern, something clearly lacking in most countries and regions. Such dialogue may lead to the addressing of some of the fundamental and politically uncomfortable questions which are implicit in the outcomes of this study. Why, for example, does the massive public investment in education and training for hospitality and tourism in the United Kingdom (in effect a direct subsidy to the private sector on a level not provide for other industry sectors) have so little impact on the skills level, quality of employment, levels of remuneration and standards of professionalism within the industry? Which companies are the main beneficiaries of this subsidy? Is it, in fact, the small number of major multi-national tourism companies as opposed to the small businesses which dominate the industry? Is the transfer of predominantly "western" models of human resource development to the developing world appropriate and valid and have policy makers in these later countries given sufficient considerations to the implications of this uncritical transfer and its relationship to suggestions of cultural imperialism?

These concerns, among others, are the subject, on the one hand, for considered academic research but, ultimately, lie in the political domain of policy determination.

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APPENDIX A.

Publications by the author in the field of human resource planning and development in tourism.

1984

- o "CERT's curriculum development - realism and innovation", Education Ireland, Spring.
- o "Compensating for deficiencies in the second level system", Irish Educational Studies, 4/1 (with L. McLoughlin).
- o "Catering for lifeskills", IITD Journal, October (with L. McLoughlin).

1986

- o "Interface between education and training", Proceedings, ESAI, Galway.
- o "Flexible learning in hospitality crafts", Proceedings, ETIC '86, Edinburgh.
- o "Developing the ladder to professionalism", Florida International Hospitality Review, Fall (with P. Reid).

1987

- o "Education and training of adults for employment in the Irish tourism industry", Proceedings, International Conference of the European Bureau of Adult Education, Toulouse.
- o "Introducing educational innovation in hospitality studies", International Journal of Hospitality Management, 6/2.
- o "Scope of the tourism industry in Ireland", Tourism, 65.

1988

- o "Profile of hotel management in Ireland", Proceedings, HCTB International Conference on Personnel and Training, London (with B. Leahy).
- o "Managing quality hospitality service", Paper to International Hotel Association Conference, Dublin.
- o "Researching the role of industry in the training of managers", Proceedings, Conference on Research into Tourism Management, University of Ulster.
- o "Tourism education in Ireland", Proceedings, International Conference on Tourism Education, University of Surrey (with M.E. Walsh).

- o "Towards a new definition of hotel management", Cornell Hotel and Restaurant Administration Quarterly, 29/2.
- o "Teacher education for tourism", Paper to Conference on Tourism Education, Institute of Hotel Management, Bombay.
- o "Developing curriculum for hotel and catering studies", Workshop for Staff Conference, Taj Group of Hotels, Bombay.

1989

- o "Scope of the tourism industry and its employment impact in Ireland", The Service Industries Journal, 9/1.
- o "Managing hotels in Ireland", International Journal of Hospitality Management, 8/2.
- o "Maximising the HR factor in tourism", Proceedings, Conference on Making the Most of Tourism Resources, Tourism Society/University of Ulster.
- o "Distance and open learning in hospitality education", Paper to Staff Conference, Hong Kong Polytechnic.
- o "Manpower and training needs in the Singapore tourism industry", Paper to Conference on National Strategy for Human Resource Development in Tourism, Singapore Tourism Promotion Board.
- o "Tourism in secondary education", Paper to Conference on European funded projects, the European Commission, Dublin.

1990

- o "Responses to the human resource dilemma in the international hospitality industry", Proceedings, CHRIE Annual Conference, Washington D.C.
- o "Human resource issues in tourism - global concerns and local response", Paper to the First International Assembly of the Tourism Policy Forum, Washington D.C.
Published in: (ed) Hawkins, D. and Ritchie, R.B. World Travel and Tourism Review, Volume 1. Wallingford: CABI International, 1991.
- o "Planning manpower and training for tourism: the contribution of research", Proceedings, Conference on tourism research into the 1990s, University of Durham.
- o "Competencies for hotel management: industry expectations of education", International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management, 2/4.

1991

- o "Towards a framework for global tourism policy", Tourism, 69.
- o "Management trainees in the hotel industry: what do managers expect?", Journal of European Industrial Training, 15/2.
- o "Comparing managers in U.S. and U.K. hotels", Cornell Hotel and Restaurant Administration Quarterly, Summer.
- o "Anglo-Swiss co-operation in hotel management education", Paper to CHRIE Annual Conference, Houston, July (with F. Mieczkowski).
- o "International perspectives on hotel management competencies", Paper to CHRIE Annual Conference, Houston, July.
- o "Learning from others in the hotel business" Paper to 3rd IJCHM Conference, Bournemouth Polytechnic, October.

1992

- o "Human resource development in tourism: how companies can benefit", in (eds) Hawkins, Donald and Ritchie, J.R. Brent, World Travel and Tourism Review, Volume 2.
- o "Issues in human resource development within European tourism", Proceedings, Tourism in Europe: the 1992 Conference, Durham.
- o "Human resources: the unsung price-value issue", Proceedings, Island Tourism International Forum, Bermuda.
- o "Applying Herzberg's hygiene factors to the changing accommodation environment", Proceedings, IJCHM Regional Conference, Colchester (with S. Balmer).

Forthcoming

- o Developing a system for competitor analysis in (ed.) Teare R. Hospitality Management: Developing Solutions to Business Problems. London: Cassell, (with V.S. Mahesh).
- o Human resource issues in international tourism, Butterworth-Heinemann (editor and contributor of four chapters).
- o Island tourism: price-value issues, joint editor of special interest section of World Travel and Tourism Review, volume 3 (with M. Conlin).



The state training agency for hotels, catering and tourism.

CERT, 7/8 floors, Lansdowne House, Lansdowne Road, Dublin 4, Ireland.
Telephone (01)602300. Telex 90161 CERT EI. Fax 602230.

INTERNATIONAL SURVEY OF TOURISM POLICY

National governments are committed to tourism and the development of their tourist industry for a number of differing reasons. The purpose of this international comparative survey is to investigate the prime influences/ determinants of tourism policy.

The method for this is two-fold:

- (a) Through questions contained within this questionnaire;
- (b) Through analysis of published documents, reports, plans and papers on tourism policy in countries included in the Survey.

Examples might be:

- Plans for tourism
- Statements of objectives for national tourism
- Tourism legislation - Acts, Bills, discussion documents, etc.
- Information documents
- Papers and articles on national tourism.

These documents are welcome in whatever language in which they are available.

1. Does your Country have a National Tourist Board/ Agency?

Yes

No

2. If yes, to which Government Ministry/ Department is the Board/ Agency responsible?

3. What are the main functions of the National Tourist Board?
(tick as appropriate)

- (a) General tourism information
- (b) General tourism marketing/ promotion - international only
- (c) General tourism marketing/ promotion - domestic only
- (d) General tourism marketing/ promotion - domestic and international
- (e) Regional tourism promotion/ marketing
- (f) Collection and analysis of tourism statistics and information
- (g) Tourism product grading
- (h) Tourism product development - accommodation
- (i) Tourism product development - attractions/ facilities
- (j) Training for tourism
- (k) Tourism policy development
- (l) Other (specify)
-
-

4. Does your country have an official national policy/ statement of objectives for tourism?

Yes

No

7. Turning to your reasons identified as 1, 2 and 3 in Qs 5 and 6 above, can you indicate, in relation to each, how important this is to your country (for example, if one of the reasons is employment, what % of the workforce is employed in tourism?; where does tourism rank as an employer?; if foreign revenue is a factor, what proportion of export revenue is tourism-related?)

Your No. 1:

Your No. 2:

Your No. 3:

10. What is the total value of

(a) international tourism _____

(b) domestic tourism _____

to your national economy?

11. What proportion of Gross National Product (GNP) do these combined represent?

_____ %

12. In terms of value to your national economy, please list your most important industries in order.

1.

2.

3.

4.

5.

If tourism is not within numbers 1-5, where does it rank?

13. Turning now to future plans for the development of tourism, can you indicate the key developments/ changes that are planned/ expected in tourism in your country by the year 2,000? (Support documentation would be welcomed.)



The state training agency for hotels, catering and tourism.

CERT, 7/8 floors, Lansdowne House, Lansdowne Road, Dublin 4, Ireland.
Telephone (01)602300. Telex 90161 CERT EI. Fax 602230.

TB/ML

21ST November 1988

NAME OB
POSITION OB
COUNTRY T/O OB
HOUSE OB
STREET OB
CITY
COUNTRY

Dear SALUTATION

I am writing to invite your participation in an International Survey of Tourism Policy - designed to find out exactly why countries and National Governments invest in and support both international and domestic tourism. The survey is being conducted under the auspices of CERT, the Irish State agency for training and development in tourism.

We are looking for detailed information on tourism, and, particularly, tourism policy in your country, as represented through official government sources. Therefore, I would be grateful if you or your representative could:

Complete the attached questionnaire - which is provided both in English and French

Forward any relevant literature on tourism policy (official documents, tourism plans, research reports, papers, etc. in original language or translation).

Naturally, information received will be treated in confidence, as we are interested in general conclusions on tourism policy, worldwide.

I have pleasure in enclosing a brochure on CERT's activities, for your information.

I look forward to your reply and please feel free to contact me for further information, etc. A copy of our report will be available in due course.

Yours sincerely,

/En français à l'envers

TOM BAUM
Manager -
Curricula Development and Research

CERT - Council for Education, Recruitment and Training
Registered in Ireland under No. 20937. Registered Office: 1 Ailesbury Road, Ballsbridge, Dublin 4.



The state training agency for hotels, catering and tourism.

CERT, 7/8 floors, Lansdowne House, Lansdowne Road, Dublin 4, Ireland.
Telephone (01)602300. Telex 90161 CERT EI. Fax 602230.

ENQUETE INTERNATIONALE SUR LA POLITIQUE EN MATIERE DE TOURISME

Les gouvernements nationaux se sont tous engagés à développer l'industrie du tourisme pour un certain nombre de différentes raisons. Le but de cette enquête internationale, de comparaison, est d'étudier les influences et déterminants principaux d'une politique en matière de tourisme.

La méthode utilisée se décompose en deux parties:

- (a) le questionnaire*
- (b) l'analyse des documents, comptes rendus, plans et documents sur la politique en matière de tourisme dans les pays participant à l'enquête.*

Des exemples pourraient être:

- plans de développement du tourisme*
- énoncé des objectifs de développement du tourisme sur le plan national*
- législation en matière de tourisme - Actes - documents de discussion etc.*
- articles sur le tourisme au niveau national*

Tous les documents que vous pourrez mettre à notre disposition seront les bienvenus, quelque soit la langue dans laquelle ils sont disponibles.

1. Votre pays a-t-il un Bureau de Tourisme National/ une Agence?

Oui

Non

2. S'il ou elle existe, de quel ministère dépend-il/ elle?

3. Quelles sont les principales fonctions de votre Bureau/ Agence National(e) de Tourisme? (Cochez les réponses appropriées)

- (a) Informations générales sur le tourisme
- (b) Promotion/ Marketing du tourisme, en général - seulement au niveau international
- (c) Promotion/ Marketing du tourisme - au niveau national
- (d) Promotion/ marketing du tourisme, en général, et au niveau national et au niveau international.
- (e) Marketing/ Promotion du tourisme régional
- (f) Relevé et analyse de statistiques en matière de tourisme, et d'informations
- (g) Classement de "Produits" du Tourisme
- (h) Développement de "Produits" du Tourisme: hébergement
- (i) Développement de "Produits" du Tourisme: attractions/ installations
- (j) Formation en matière de tourisme
- (k) Développement d'une politique en matière de tourisme
- (l) Autres fonctions [préciser la(les)quelle(s)]
-
-

4. Votre pays a-t-il une politique officielle en matière de tourisme/ énoncé d'objectifs de développement du tourisme?

Oui

Non

Pouvez-vous indiquer, pour les raisons que vous avez placées en position 1, 2 et 3, dans les question 5 et 6, leur importance dans votre pays (par exemple: si l'une des raisons est la création d'emplois, quel pourcentage de la population active est employée dans le tourisme?; quel rang occupe l'industrie du tourisme en tant qu'employeur?; si "les revenus venant de l'étranger" est l'un des facteurs, quelle proportion des revenus d'exportation est directement liée au tourisme?

Votre no.1 _____

Votre no.2 _____

Votre no.3 _____

9. Si vous possédez les derniers chiffres sur ces différents points, pourriez-vous nous les donner:

- (a) nombre total de touristes étrangers en 198 :
- (b) nombre total de touristes "nationaux" en 1988:
- (c) durée moyenne de séjour de touristes étrangers
jours
- (d) dépense moyenne des touristes "étrangers"
- (e) dépense moyenne des touristes "nationaux"

10. Quelle est la valeur par rapport à l'économie nationale

- (a) du tourisme "international"
- (b) du tourisme "national"

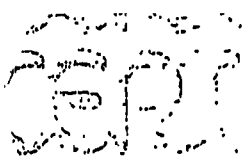
11. Quelle proportion du Produit National Brut représentent ces deux types de tourisme combinés?

_____ %

12. Ranger par ordre d'importance, par rapport à l'économie nationale, les industries les plus importantes de votre pays.

- 1.
- 2.
- 3.
- 4.
- 5.

Si l'Industrie du tourisme ne figure pas dedans, quel rang occupe-t-elle?



The state training agency for hotels, catering and tourism.

TB/ML

CERT, 7/8 floors, Lansdowne House, Lansdowne Road, Dublin 4, Ireland.
Telephone (01)602300. Telex 90161 CERT EI. Fax 602230.

le 21 novembre 1988

Monsieur, Madame,

Je vous écris pour vous inviter à participer à une "Enquête internationale sur la politique en matière de tourisme". Cette enquête a pour but de découvrir exactement les raisons pour lesquelles pays et gouvernements nationaux investissent et soutiennent le tourisme aussi bien au niveau national qu'au niveau international. Cette enquête a lieu sous les auspices de CERT, l'Agence d'Etat irlandaise pour la formation et développement en matière de tourisme.

Nous souhaiterions obtenir des informations détaillées sur le tourisme et plus particulièrement sur la politique de votre pays en matière de tourisme, telle qu'elle est présentée par les sources officielles de votre gouvernement. C'est pourquoi je vous serais très reconnaissant si vous-même ou quelqu'un de votre bureau pourrait:

- compléter le questionnaire ci-joint, qui est à votre disposition et en anglais et en français;

- nous faire parvenir toute information appropriée sur la politique en matière de tourisme de votre pays (documents officiels, futurs plans, comptes rendus de recherche, autres documents, etc. dans leur langue originale ou traduits).

Cela va sans dire que toute information que vous nous ferez parvenir sera traitée de manière confidentielle, puisque nous nous intéressons aux conclusions générales de politiques en matière de tourisme, à travers le monde.

Vous trouverez ci-joint pour votre propre information une brochure sur les activités de CERT.

N'hésitez pas à me contacter pour toute information supplémentaire. Une copie de notre rapport vous parviendra dès qu'il sera disponible.

En espérant avoir votre réponse sous peu, je vous adresse, Monsieur, Madame, mes très sincères salutations.

> English >

TOM BAUM

Manager -

Curricula Development and Research

APPENDIX C

SURVEY OF HUMAN RESOURCE POLICIES AND IMPLEMENTATION IN INTERNATIONAL TOURISM

This survey is designed to assess the position of human resource/ manpower/ vocational education and training concerns in the formulation and implementation of national tourism policies. It is a follow-up study to one that I conducted in 1988, with the assistance of a large number of NTOs. In part, this study also draws upon the methodology and findings of the World Tourism Organisation's 1975 study, Aims, Activities and Fields of Competence of NTOs.

You are asked to

- a) complete the attached questionnaire and return it to the above address; and
- b) provide any published documentation that will throw further light on the position of human resource concerns within your national tourism policies and their implementation.

These documents are welcome in whatever language they are available.

Tom Baum BA MA MPhil FTS,
Senior Lecturer,
School of Accounting, Business and Economics.

Q.1 Are human resource/ manpower/ education and training issues of major concern within your tourism industry?

Yes.....

No.....

If your answer, above, is "Yes", which agencies/ organisations/ groups most frequently express such concern? (tick as appropriate).

- a) The private sector tourism industry
- b) The National Tourism Organisation
- c) The Ministry responsible for tourism
- d) Educators and trainers
- e) Others (specify)

.....

Q.2 Please rank the following in order of priority as human resource/ manpower/ education and training issues within your tourism industry. Rank top EIGHT issues only (1 - 8).

- a) Labour turnover in the industry
- b) Difficulty in recruiting suitable personnel
- c) Shortage of skilled staff
- d) Lack of training places
- e) Poor image of tourism industry as an employer
- f) Demographic trends and a shrinking employment pool
- g) Cultural barriers to employment in tourism
- h) Uncompetitive rewards and benefits
- i) Education/ training inappropriate to needs of the industry
- j) Unsocial hours and conditions
- k) The role of expatriate labour
- l) Poaching/ pinching of labour by other employers
- m) Other issues (specify)

.....

Q.3 Which agencies/ organisations/ groups take responsibility for the resolution of the issues that you have identified in Q.2?

- a) The private sector tourism industry
- b) The National Tourism Organisation
- c) The Ministry responsible for tourism
- d) The Ministry responsible for education/ training
- e) Schools and colleges involved with tourism
- f) Others (specify)

.....

- g) A combination of the above (specify which)

.....

- h) None of the above

c) Organisation of vocational training courses and seminars

- Ministry or other agency responsible for tourism
- Ministry or other agency responsible for education
- Ministry or other agency responsible for vocational training/ manpower planning
- Specialist tourism education/ training agency
- Individual schools/ colleges/ training centres
- Other body (specify)
.....
- Not formally organised

d) Establishment of hotel and tourism schools

- Ministry or other agency responsible for tourism
- National Ministry or other agency responsible for education
- Regional/ local Ministry or other agency responsible for education
- Ministry or other agency responsible for vocational training/ manpower planning
- Specialist tourism education/ training agency
- Individual schools/ colleges/ training centres
 - in the public sector
 - in the private sector
- Tourism/ hotel companies
- Other body (specify)
.....
- None established

e) Granting of fellowships

- Ministry or other agency responsible for tourism
- Ministry or other agency responsible for education
- Ministry or other agency responsible for vocational training/ manpower planning
- Specialist tourism education/ training agency
- Individual schools/ colleges/ training centres
- Other body (specify)
.....
- None granted

f) Reception of trainees (recruitment, selection etc.)

- Ministry or other agency responsible for tourism
- Ministry or other agency responsible for education
- Ministry or other agency responsible for vocational training/ manpower planning
- Specialist tourism education/ training agency
- Individual schools/ colleges/ training centres
- Other body (specify)
.....

g) Conduct of manpower/ training needs research

- Ministry or other agency responsible for tourism
- Ministry or other agency responsible for education
- Ministry or other agency responsible for vocational training/ manpower planning
- Ministry or other agency responsible for statistics
- Specialist tourism education/ training agency
- College/ University research centres
- Other body (specify)
.....
- None conducted

h) Co-ordination of national vocational training standards/ certification scheme(s)

- Ministry or other agency responsible for tourism
- Ministry or other agency responsible for education
- Ministry or other agency responsible for vocational training/ manpower planning
- Specialist tourism education/ training agency
- Vocational standards/ certification agency
- Individual schools/ colleges/ training centres
- Other body (specify)
.....
- No such scheme

i) Operation of hotel and tourism schools or training centres

- Ministry or other agency responsible for tourism
- National Ministry or other agency responsible for education
- Regional/ local Ministry or other agency responsible for education
- Ministry or other agency responsible for vocational training/ manpower planning
- Specialist tourism education/ training agency
- Private sector schools/ colleges
- Tourism/ hotel companies
- Other body (specify)
.....
- None in operation

j) Provision of financial support for education/ training

* to schools/ training centres

- Ministry or other agency responsible for tourism
- National Ministry or other agency responsible for education
- Regional/ local Ministry or other agency responsible for education
- Ministry or other agency responsible for vocational training/ manpower planning
- Specialist tourism education/ training agency
- Tourism/ hotel companies
- Other body (specify)
.....
- No financial support given

* to trainees

- Ministry or other agency responsible for tourism
- National Ministry or other agency responsible for education
- Regional/ local Ministry or other agency responsible for education
- Ministry or other agency responsible for vocational training/ manpower planning
- Specialist tourism education/ training agency
- Tourism/ hotel companies
- Other body (specify)
.....
- No financial support given

k) Other functions (please specify)

.....

Thank you for completing this questionnaire. Any supporting documentation would be welcomed.

Q.4 Which of the following human resource functions/ responsibilities, if any, are located with the National Tourist Board/ Administration? (tick as appropriate)

- a) Determination of manpower and training requirements for tourism
- b) Formulation/ design of training programmes for hotel, catering and tourism staff
- c) Organisation of vocational training courses and seminars
- d) Establishment of hotel and tourism schools
- e) Granting of fellowships
- f) Reception of trainees (recruitment, selection etc.)
- g) Conduct of manpower/ training needs research
- h) Co-ordination of national vocational training standards/ certification scheme(s)
- i) Operation of hotel and tourism schools or training centres
- j) Provision of financial support for education/ training
 - to schools/ training centres
 - to trainees
- k) Other functions (please specify)
.....

Q.5 If the NTO does not have responsibility for any or some of the above or has joint responsibility, which bodies/ agencies/ organisations do have this responsibility?

- a) Determination of manpower and training requirements for tourism
 - Ministry or other agency responsible for tourism
 - Ministry or other agency responsible for manpower/ human resource planning
 - Other body (specify)
.....
 - Not formally determined

- b) Formulation/ design of training programmes for hotel, catering and tourism staff
 - Ministry or other agency responsible for tourism
 - Ministry or other agency responsible for education
 - Ministry or other agency responsible for vocational training/ manpower planning
 - Specialist tourism education/ training agency
 - Individual schools/ colleges/ training centres
 - Other body (specify)
.....
 - Not formally formulated/ designed

APPENDIX D

A DETAILED FRAMEWORK FOR THE INTEGRATED DEVELOPMENT OF HUMAN RESOURCES IN TOURISM

This framework, the application of which is described in Chapter 8, has been developed on the basis of five main divisions. These are, by no means, mutually exclusive and cross-divisional links exist between all of them. They do have a certain sequential logic but the order is not intended to imply priority of importance. The divisions are

- A. The tourism environment
- B. Tourism and the labour market
- C. Tourism in the community
- D. Tourism and education
- E. Human resource development in the tourism industry.

Each division contains a number of key elements or considerations which require evaluation by those responsible for policy formulation and the identification of priorities. They may be deemed significant factors within the human resource environment or they may be considered to be beyond its scope. Other considerations may also be of importance and may be added to the framework. At the end of the process, however, responsible agencies and practitioners alike will have the information and, consequently, the basis for the development of a relevant human resource planning and development structure within the requisite tourism industry.

A. The tourism environment

This starting division covers the broad tourism environment, within which human resource issues require consideration. Tourism, in this context, may relate to both or either the national or local industry and includes both the domestic and international markets.

Inputs, to this division, include

A1 Features and products of tourism

Consideration of the main features of the tourism industry, why visitors come to the locality or country and the origins of the industry, including

- the main attractions, natural and man-made;
- location;
- accessibility;
- historical development.

A2 Structure of the industry

Review of the main tourism industry sectors and their organisation, including

- the relative importance of the various sectors;
- business size and organisation;
- ownership and management - family, local, chain, multinational etc.

A3 Tourism industry markets

Consideration of the main tourist originating markets for the locality or country, including

- domestic tourists;
- international tourists;
- expenditure and activity profile;

- price/ value issues;
- quality issues;
- responsibility for and organisation of tourism marketing.

A4. The impact of tourism

Consideration of how tourism impacts upon the locality or country, with particular reference to employment and human resource factors, including

- economic impact;
- employment impact, direct, indirect and induced (ref. B);
- cultural and social impact;
- environmental impact.

A5. Other related considerations

B. Tourism and the Labour Market

This division covers the relatively wide scope of the interface between the tourism industry and the general labour market, in particular how the human resource requirements and priorities of tourism relate to those of other industries and to the manpower, economic and social environment of the locality, country or region as a whole. A major contribution, of this division to the framework, is in the area of information collection and analysis.

Inputs into this division include:

B1. The national and/or local labour market environment

Information and analysis of current labour market trends and their implications for the tourism industry, including:

- The national (or local) labour market structure by sector and region;
- Short, medium and long-term employment and unemployment situation;
- Description of employment and related trends, including moves to part-time, shared and other alternative work forms;
- female/ male, ethnic minority and immigrant participation in the workforce;
- demographic trends and their relationship to the workforce;
- national skills audit and the identification of key areas of shortage and oversupply.

B2. Public labour market/ employment/ industrial relations policies

Consideration of the above policies and interventions (or lack of them) and their impact on the operation of tourism businesses, including:

- minimum wage and related legislation;
- controls over hours and conditions at work, for example components of the European Community's Social Chapter;
- trade union legislation;

- safety at work;
- workplace hygiene legislation;
- the extent of government (local and national) intervention in employment protection/ support;
- employment creation initiatives and incentives;
- support for changes in the employment environment, for example incentives to invest in computerisation/ automation.

B3. Educational and training policies

Consideration of public education and training policies and their implications for the tourism industry at a local and national level, including

- the relationship between "academic" and "vocational" strands within secondary and tertiary education;
- public funding of post-compulsory education;
- industrial training policies and the agencies with responsibility for this area;
- the role of private sector industry in training;
- public funding for training;
- the relationship, in terms of programme content and end qualifications, between education in school/ college and training at work;
- the position and status of tourism education and training within national policies/ provision;
- public sector management responsibility for tourism education and training policies and implementation.

B4. Quantitative and qualitative information about human resources in tourism

Ensuring that human resource developments in tourism, at micro and macro levels, are implemented on the basis of valid, reliable and quality information, through

- analysis and evaluation of macroeconomic data on tourism employment;
- undertaking of on-going and comprehensive direct surveys of the tourism industry in order to collect the range of necessary information.
- maintaining and up-dating data bases generated as a result of information collection processes;
- evaluating and disseminating conclusions of surveys.

B5. Other related considerations

C. Tourism in the Community

This division is concerned with the interaction of tourism, as an industry, with the society in which it is based. It is concerned with matters of the social values, culture, the economy, conservation and the environment and how tourism, as an industry, impacts on these areas, to their benefit or detriment. It is also of great significance in that the human resources, upon which the tourism industry is totally dependent, are, generally, drawn from this community, whether national or local, and the interaction between tourism and its potential workforce is, therefore, crucial.

Inputs to this division include:

C1. National commitment to tourism

Managing and supporting change with respect to the effects on the industry and its human resource environment of

- the attitude and policies of government (national and local) towards tourism as an industry;
- the policies enunciated and objectives set for tourism (foreign exchange earning, employment generation, international understanding) at national and local levels;
- the status and location of those allocated responsibility for tourism in government (full ministerial rank, part of a broader portfolio etc.);
- investment policies and levels in tourism at local and national levels through promotion agencies/ boards and tax allowances as well as directly in relation to human resource/ training concerns.

C2. Public attitudes to/ awareness of tourism as an industry

Managing, and in some cases working to change, the impact of the perceptions and portrayal of tourism, at local, national and international levels, on human resource considerations, including

- public attitudes to tourism and to tourists;
- tourism development and local support/ opposition at official and "popular" levels;
- attitudes resulting from religious, cultural and environmental impacts;

- media portrayal of tourism as an industry.

C3. Attitudes to and awareness of tourism as an employer

The collection of information on how the tourism industry is perceived and portrayed as an employer, and the development of strategies designed to produce change in these areas, where appropriate, including

- status of the industry, locally and nationally, relative to other areas of employment;
- traditions of cultural and religious concern about employment in certain sectors of the tourism industry;
- attitudes (cultural, religious, status) of parents, teachers and others to employment in tourism;
- labour turnover/ attrition rates for tourism relative to other employment areas;
- actual comparative remuneration and conditions in tourism and other industries, locally, nationally and internationally;
- school-leaver and college graduate employment choices;
- school-leaver college course preferences;
- the extent of industry's demonstrated commitment to ensuring a competitive and flexible employment environment (remuneration, conditions, benefits, job security etc);
- media portrayal of employment in tourism.

C4. Tourism within education

Evaluating the extent to which tourism, as an

industry, is represented within educational curricula at all levels (ref. D) and the relationship of this to human resource concerns in tourism and the management of developments to increase the visibility of tourism within the educational system, including

- the study of tourism as an economic and social activity, in the school and college curricula, notably in association with geography, economics, social science etc.;
- education through tourism: the use of field trips, visits etc. as part of the school and college curriculum.

C5. Tourism and the media

Analysis of how tourism and tourists are portrayed by the local, national and international media and the development of strategies designed to enhance the image, especially in so far as it projects on human resource concerns (Ref. C2 and C3), including

- portrayal of domestic and international tourism options;
- portrayal of visitors;
- portrayal of the industry, from a business, environmental, cultural and employment perspective.

C6. Careers awareness

Evaluation and management of the extent to which public sector, educational, manpower and tourism industry bodies take responsibility for the promotion of tourism careers to all target markets, including

- careers information on tourism, available to school and college graduates;
- careers information available to alternative, non-traditional sources of recruitment (older workers, women returners, ethnic minorities, immigrant communities at home and abroad);
- role of manpower/ employment agencies in careers promotion;
- special recruitment/ careers awareness initiatives (media-based, special fairs etc.);
- initiatives aimed at teachers, careers advisors.

C7. Other related considerations

D. Tourism and education

This division covers the role of the educational system at all appropriate levels, in developing the requisite skills and attitudes necessary for employment within tourism. The resourcing requirements, for tourism education and training, are also of critical importance in this context.

Inputs, to this division, include

D1. The administration and management of public sector tourism education

Allocation of responsibility for the administration and management of public sector tourism education, at local or national level, to appropriate departments/ agencies, including

- identification of interested bodies in tourism, education and labour/ manpower areas;

- identification of component areas of tourism education and their existing administrative/management arrangements (covering schools; colleges and other higher education institutes; training centres; specialist external education; and training for tour guides);
- establishment of co-ordinating mechanisms to cover all areas of tourism education, either under unitary policy and administrative management or through formalised and effective liaison systems;
- development of links with private sector tourism education (schools, colleges, within industry) so as to ensure management of output, skills and qualifications equivalences;
- ensuring comparability with other vocational sectors.

D2. The funding of public sector tourism education

Identification of policies and provision of appropriate structures and resources for the funding of tourism education at all levels, including

- allocation of resources from public taxation, local and national;
- ensuring the support and the collection of appropriate resources from the private sector, through a levy or similar scheme;
- ensuring equitable funding with other vocational education sectors;
- ensuring that the funding allocated to tourism

education is compatible with the priorities accorded the industry within national/ local planning and development for tourism;

- ensuring appropriate capital and recurrent allocations to meet the needs of practical education and training at all levels;
- provision of funding sufficient to ensure the employment of quality, qualified and industrially experienced teachers and trainers.

D3. Quality standards and qualifications equivalences in tourism education

Establishment of mechanisms and agencies to ensure the development and maintenance of comparable quality standards and qualifications, where this is suitable, between all programmes, centres and levels, within tourism education, including

- a national quality standards, qualifications and certification scheme to cover all tourism education and to ensure comparability with other vocational areas;
- linkage between this scheme and the outcomes of education and training within the private sector, both in schools/ colleges and industry;
- ensuring broad comparability of all teaching and learning resources within institutions offering equivalent level programmes;
- establishment of mechanisms to conduct appropriate research in support of national/ local curricula and

quality standards guidelines (Ref. B4);

- agreement of national/ local education, training and curricula development priorities and the translation of these into workable guidelines for implementation by providers;

- agreement of equivalences of learning outcomes and qualifications at all levels, so as to facilitate transfer and career development within tourism;

- linking, where possible, with equivalent schemes and systems in states and countries in close proximity (for example, within the European Community) so as to facilitate mobility.

D4. National assessment, examinations and awards

To provide the formal expression of the objectives within D3, by means of a specialist agency or by the co-ordination of the operations of other appropriate agencies, through

- co-ordination and execution, where appropriate, of national assessment of practical and coursework within tourism education and training;

- setting and marking of external examinations;

- approval of internal examination standards;

- awarding of appropriate certificates to graduates of programmes at all levels.

D5. Education for tourism at secondary school level

To ensure and manage the provision of academic and vocational tourism education at secondary (or technical vocational) school level, including

- tourism as a non-vocational subject of study, leading to examination and certification at appropriate levels up to final matriculation and comparable in status and standards to other academic disciplines;
- pre-employment and specific vocational education and training programmes, carrying recognised certification, and enabling graduates to
 - a) take up positions at operative or semi-skilled levels in the tourism industry;
 - b) join industry-based apprenticeship or training programmes; or
 - c) progress to programmes of further education and training within the education system;
- use of tourism case study material within general academic curricula (Ref. C4).

D6. Vocational skills education for tourism at craft level

Management and provision of craft education and training at post secondary school level, designed to meet identified needs for skilled employees within all sectors of the tourism industry (Ref. B4). These should be courses

- that are relevant to meet the needs of the local, national and international industry;
- that are flexible in delivery, timing and location;
- that combine and integrate practical and theoretical skills and knowledge;

- that include supervised industrial experience and training;
- that are offered in a wide range of disciplines, relevant to the needs of the local/ national/ international industry and which lead to the award to recognised certificates in areas that could include
 - * Food and beverage service, basic and advanced levels
 - * Food preparation and production, basic, intermediate and advanced levels
 - * Front office/ reception operations, basic and advanced levels
 - * Front office/ portering operations, basic level
 - * Front office/ security operations, basic and advanced levels
 - * Hotel housekeeping, basic and intermediate levels
 - * Travel industry travel agency clerk, basic and advanced levels
 - * Travel industry tour guides, advanced level
 - * Tourism information operations, advanced level
 - * Coach and taxi operations, basic level
 - * Airline ticketing and check-in operations, basic and advanced levels
 - * Retail industry sales operations, basic and advanced levels
 - * General customer care operations;
- which may be located in either dedicated tourism

education and training centres or within multi-faculty institutions of further/ higher education;

- that may be offered within either the public or private sector of education and training;
- that may be offered through use of temporary or mobile training facilities, which can be instituted in, for example, seasonal hotels in order to meet local or specialist needs;
- that are taught by quality, qualified and industry-experienced teachers and trainers;
- that provide for progressive career development opportunities for skilled craft personnel in the tourism industry;
- that allow recognised access to courses at more advanced, non-craft levels;
- that provide training that develops flexible and transferable skills, for application within various sectors and jobs in the tourism industry;
- that, above all, place particular emphasis on the development of generic skills and attitudes, especially in the customer service domain.

D7. Supervisory and management education for tourism

Management and provision of tourism education, at supervisory and management level, designed to meet the identified skills needs of all sectors of the industry, at local, national and international levels.

These should be courses

- that are offered at a variety of levels

(certificate, diploma, degree and postgraduate), appropriate both to needs of the various sectors of the industry, locally and nationally, and to the aspirations of entrants;

- that are designed to be both sector specific (where appropriate, eg. hotel management; catering supervision; heritage management) and to include widely applicable business and management skills;

- that recognise the importance of small businesses and entrepreneurship within the tourism industries of many countries;

- that combine appropriate practical and applied theory components;

- that include real work industrial placement with supervisory/ management responsibility;

- that are available on a flexible basis, through a variety of modes (full-time, part-time, block release, open learning) as appropriate;

- that are taught by teachers who combine academic expertise with relevant professional experience in the tourism industry;

- that provide for progressive career development opportunities to allow supervisory and junior management personnel to qualify for more senior positions;

- that may be offered in the public or private sector of education.

D8. Centres of excellence in tourism education

To manage and provide for specialist education, training and development needs to levels of excellence not normally achieved within mainstream education, through partnership between the tourism industry and education, and in areas such as

- culinary arts, in order to focus on excellence in local, regional and national cuisine and to contribute to the development of food as a marketable tourism product and to the training necessary to achieve this;
- traditional performing and handicraft arts, to meet similar objectives to that of the culinary institute;
- other areas of technical specialism such as airline pilot training and advanced tour guide education;
- advanced postgraduate study and research, catering for the development of high level, academic skills in the tourism field.

D9. National recruitment and selection of entrants to programmes of study in tourism

Establishment of mechanisms to co-ordinate the local or national recruitment and selection of potential entrants to tourism education and training courses, especially in environments where there are identified skills or other personnel shortages, including

- careers awareness campaigns (Ref. C6);
- institution of centralised applications procedures, either independent or in conjunction with other vocational areas;

- operation of centrally co-ordinated but localised section testing and interviewing;
- utilisation of tourism industry expertise to support selection.

D10. Teacher training for tourism

Management and provision of a formalised system for the education and training of teachers to work within both the public and private sectors of tourism education and training, thus addressing one of the main weaknesses in many existing tourism education systems, to include

- nationally recognised courses and centres for tourism teacher education;
- requirement for all permanent teachers and trainers to receive appropriate training at time of recruitment;
- recognition of professional and craft experience as appropriate for entry to courses.

D11. Curriculum development centre for tourism

Provision of a local or national support centre, to work with institutions in the public and private sector as well as the industry itself and to assist in the development of quality and relevant education and training programmes, through

- commissioning of specialist curriculum research in appropriate areas (Ref.B4);
- interpretation and dissemination of curriculum and general manpower research findings, as they apply to

education and training programmes;

- development of local or national curricula, if required, for utilisation within schools, colleges, training centres and industry;

- development and publication of education and training support resources in print and other formats.

D12. Other related considerations

E. Human resource development in the tourism industry

This division relates to the role of the tourism industry itself in the development of its human resources and the investment and provision which tourism businesses should make in order to ensure quality, efficient and motivated staff.

Inputs to this division include

E1. Financing and investment in human resource development

Supporting the institutional frameworks necessary to ensure that the tourism industry, through its diverse businesses, meets, in full, its responsibilities for investment in human resource development through

- operation of a national or local training levy, remitted on acceptable evidence of training investment;

- operation of tax and other fiscal incentives to invest in training and/ or the development of specialist training facilities;

- encouraging recognition of the business and competitive benefits, to individual companies, of

investing in human resource development.

E2. In-company training policies and practices

Encouraging the provision of training, for all levels of personnel within the industry, that is

- reflective of commitment to training from board room and chief executive level down;
- based on researched identified training needs within the company but also recognising requirements at a local, national and international level;
- based upon clear and planned priorities within a given time frame;
- designed to meet the needs of all staff, from induction training through to senior management development;
- progressive and developmental, utilising mechanisms such as career tracking and succession planning;
- proactive rather than reactive, designed to meet anticipated requirements rather than actual, emergency needs;
- that maximises the benefits of all sources of training, whether internal to the company or purchased from outside;
- carried out by skilled professionals, whether specialist trainers or operational supervisors/managers developed in the requisite skills.

E3. Recognition of industry-based training within local and national education and training provision

Support for the provision of recognised links between

the education and training which takes place in industry and that which is the responsibility of the external education and training system, through

- institution of common and recognised awards for equivalent levels of education and training within both sectors;
- facilitation of transfer mechanisms between the two systems and the institution of an Accreditation of Prior Learning (APL) scheme to cover both education and industry;
- support for the development of specialist education and training centres, by the industry, which meet recognised national and international standards and criteria in terms of facilities, faculty, funding and curricula;
- support for reciprocal mobility and co-operation (full-time and part-time) between training staff within the education system and those working in industry.

E4. Other related considerations

APPENDIX E

TOURISM AND RELATED HUMAN RESOURCE ISSUES IN MALAYSIA

1. An outline of the industry

This brief introduction to tourism in Malaysia cannot do full justice to the country or to its tourism industry. It will consider aspects of the tourism product, infrastructure, existing markets and market projections. Information has been derived from the Malaysia Tourism Policy Study and from various unpublished sources and, as such, will not be referenced here. This analysis, undertaken in somewhat greater depth and with a focus on the implications of product and market characteristics for the manpower and human resource development domain, is an essential initial step in the development of the integrated planning and development framework, covered under the first division, the tourism environment.

Tourism in Malaysia has developed very rapidly over the past decade, in tandem with the overall economic development of the country but also in response to the lead given by neighbouring ASEAN (Association of South East Asian Nations) countries such as Indonesia, Singapore and Thailand. The Malaysian tourism product is, arguably, less diverse and rich than that of some of its neighbours in that the cultural and historical dimension, while not totally absent, is by no means as apparent and well recognised as that in Bali and Thailand, for example. However, Malaysia benefits from rich cultural diversity in terms of its multi-cultural population as well as wide variety in its natural

environment, including unspoilt jungle and mountainous locations as well as magnificent beaches and island locations. At the same time, Malaysian cities are attractive and interesting and retain a level of Asian charm which better known locations, such as Singapore, are fast losing. The relatively unknown tourism product of East Malaysia has considerable potential for future development. One of the main benefits for tourism in Malaysia is its relatively small population so that pressure on land and overcrowding in cities and tourism locations is not the problem that it is elsewhere. However, government policy, in the long-term, seeks to alter this situation as part of broader economic and social strategies.

The basic elements of the tourism product are well developed and, mostly, in place. Infrastructural provision, when compared to Indonesia and Thailand, is good with well developed communications and utilities. Domestic travel, essential for a growing tourism industry, is relatively easy and safe, with a good internal air network, with a tightly controlled fares structure, provided by the national carrier, Malaysian Airline Systems (MAS) and private carriers. Land transport consists of the main north-south railway system and a rapidly improving road system, including the north-south highway which, when completed, will provide motorway-standard roads from Singapore to the Thai border. Independent travel, for the tourist, is easy and safe in Malaysia, using the variety of transport forms available. International access, by air, is mainly through Kuala Lumpur, which suffers, somewhat, by its proximity to Bangkok and Singapore in attracting major foreign carriers. However, MAS

provides a growing network, coupled with quality service. Charter access is relatively undeveloped although of some importance, especially to Penang. Land access, by road and rail, provides the main source of international tourists, by number, mainly from Singapore but also, from Thailand to the north.

The development of hotel and resort accommodation has not kept pace with the growth in promotion and arrivals within Malaysian tourism although rapid and extensive investment is currently redressing this deficiency. Many city and resort hotel of international standard experienced occupancies in excess of 80% during Visit Malaysia Year 1990 and, although 1991 saw some slackening in demand owing to international factors, projections support continued investment in this sector in many parts of the country. In addition to major hotel building projects in cities such as Johore Bahru (across the Causeway from Singapore and a major industrial growth city), Kuala Lumpur and Penang, mega integrated resort developments are either under development and planned for a number of coastal locations, notably Desaru in south east Johore and Langkawi, an island off the north west coast.

One of the interesting features of Malaysian tourism has been the sustained buoyancy of domestic travel and changes in its character, reflecting the increasing wealth of the country. Domestic demand, increasingly, is for product standards that have, traditionally, been associated with international visitors, thus imposing further pressures on existing accommodation provision. Furthermore, the characteristics of Singaporean tourism to Malaysia (constituting some 70% of all arrivals) have

shown similar features over the past decade and have also moved from a totally separate consumption pattern to one that has a much higher degree of overlap, in terms of accommodation used and other purchases made, with other international tourists.

Malaysia's main attractions are coastal and scenic and there has been only limited attempts to complement these with created facilities of the type developed in Singapore (for example, Haw Paw Villa, the Chinese mythological theme park). The specific development of heritage locations has also been limited although Malacca, with its combination of Malay, Portuguese, Dutch, British and Peranakan cultures is an example to the contrary. Archaeological locations, such some of the aboriginal sites found in Selangor, are relatively undeveloped and unknown in tourism terms.

The marketing of tourism, internationally, is the responsibility of the Tourism Development Corporation (TDC), an agency responsible to the Ministry for Arts, Culture and Tourism (MOCAT). The Malaysia Tourism Policy Study estimated international tourist arrivals to Malaysia at 4.3 million in 1990, Visit Malaysia Year, a figure that must be treated with some caution owing to inadequacies in measurements. Variants on this number saw it rise to over 7 million in some estimates (that published by the Tourism Development Corporation, for example), and based on extrapolated rather than "counted" figures but this seems excessive. However, even this conservative figure shows considerable growth over previous years, as the estimates for 1988 (3.6 million) and 1989 (3.9 million) show. The source markets, for these visitors, show a significant dependence on

ASEAN visitors, in practice mainly from Singapore. The 1990 breakdown of the 4.3 million arrivals was estimated to be as follows:

<u>Country/ region</u>	<u>Thousands</u>	<u>%</u>
ASEAN	3145	72
Japan	213	5
United Kingdom	146	3.4
Australia/ New Zealand	132	3
Hong Kong	86	2
USA	77	1.8
Taiwan	63	1.5
India	49	1
Germany	41	0.9
France	22	0.5
Others	370	8.9
TOTAL	4344	100

Clearly, these markets generate very different stay and spending patterns. Overall, tourist expenditure generated approximately US\$745 million in 1988, US\$839 million in 1989 and close to US\$1000 in 1990, with average expenditure rising from US\$208 in 1988 to approximately US\$230 in 1990, low figures that reflect the short stay character of much of the Singaporean tourism to Malaysia.

Malaysia Tourism Policy Study projections are for sustained growth in tourism over the decade up to 2000. The level of growth was projected at ranging between 4.2% and 8.8% per annum, again somewhat more conservative than the estimates made by other

agencies. The cumulative effect of these projections is that international arrivals will reach 7.4 million by the year 2000, of which 2.2 million (30%) will be generated by non-ASEAN markets, an increase over the current proportion.

This growth, of over 70% in the ten years from 1990, constitutes a major challenge for all sectors of the Malaysian tourism industry, not least in relation to product development requirements and marketing. However, the focus of the author's contribution was to address human resource planning and development needs in terms of this tourism environment and projections for its growth.

2. The labour market environment within Malaysian tourism

In preparing the human resource development plan for Malaysian tourism, the first step consisted of a wide ranging analysis of the wider manpower, training and educational environment and the specific consideration of how this related to the needs and existing provision for the tourism industry. This section addresses the labour market and how it relates to the tourism industry in Malaysia. This, again, is a process that is essential as an early step within the development and utilisation of the framework.

With a total population of over eighteen million and unemployment at a manageable level, Malaysia, overall, has a good supply of manpower. Demographic projections suggest that this situation will be maintained well into the next century and that the availability of labour will be further enhanced by movement away from agriculture and other land-based industries. Official

assessments of the labour market in Malaysia suggest that there may well be an absolute labour shortage within the next twenty-five years but that this will be subject to considerable regional variation, with certain locations witnessing more rapid competition for labour, notably greater Kuala Lumpur, Johore and Penang. These are areas of major industrial growth and have benefitted greatly from the recent industrialisation of Malaysia. At the same time, they are core tourism foci and are expected to receive additional visitors at above the average growth for the country. Thus tourism, in key geographical locations, already faces considerable competition for suitable labour and this situation is likely to become more significant during the coming decade.

Taking the country as a whole, absolute labour shortages are unlikely to be of major concern and may be countered through internal labour migration within the country. However, of rather more pressing concern is the likelihood of specialist skills shortages. Malaysia's growth, since recession in the mid-1980s, has put considerable pressure on technical, vocational and higher educational and training institutions as well as on the internal training capabilities of companies themselves and the system, as currently operating, cannot keep pace with growing demand for skills in a wide variety of technical and service areas. Tourism faces acute competition in this regard.

Against this background, current demand and projected growth, within Malaysian tourism, means that the sector will require additional personnel, at unskilled, skilled and supervisory/management levels, in direct proportion to the anticipated rise

in demand for tourism services in the country. The numbers employed in Malaysian tourism, even on the basis of conservative estimates, are likely to double to over 100,000 by the year 2000. This estimate, central to the planning recommendations within the Manpower report of the Policy Study, takes into account likely improvements in productivity in larger, well organised businesses and the character of much new tourism investment which is likely to be concentrated in larger hotels and integrated resorts.

This growth projection will necessitate an average of 5,000 extra employees per year over the decade up to 2000. Existing high levels of employee attrition are unlikely to decrease (some new resorts are basing their plans on an annual labour turnover rate in excess of 50%), especially given competition from other high technology and service sector industries. Consequently, the tourism industry's annual recruitment target may reach 20,000 by the year 2000. This relates to the current college throughput of some 850 graduates a year, from all levels and types of tourism programmes.

In this volatile labour market environment, accurate data and related information is essential and this is not readily available in Malaysia. Although a manpower survey was undertaken in conjunction with the Tourism Policy Study, this was very much by way of a limited pilot exercise, designed to assist in the evaluation of existing data, derived from a variety of sources, but primarily from official Department of Statistics estimates. The problem with this source is one that is common to tourism industries in many countries in that the parameters used, in other words the sectors included as tourism from the point of

view of employment, do not necessarily co-incide with the full scope of the industry and thus a somewhat inadequate estimate is derived from such sources. There are also further methodological difficulties in the approaches frequently adopted by non-specialist government agencies.

In the case of Malaysia, resource and other factors meant that the best had to be made of inadequate data. However, a strong recommendation within the utilisation of the framework is that accurate data constitute an essential starting point for any valid and reliable human resource planning and development exercise.

3. The education and training environment within Malaysian tourism

This section complements the previous one in that it seeks to identify the main features of existing education and training for tourism in Malaysia as the starting point from which recommendations for change, using the framework, could be made.

It has been widely documented that formal education and training provision for tourism, in Malaysia, is insufficient to meet the requirements of the diverse sectors of the industry; this was noted at the time of the preparation of the 5th Malaysia Plan and by a number of international consultants engaged with this issue (WTO, 1985; ASEAN Tourism Training Study, 1988; EC/ ASEAN Manpower Project, 1990). Current output of graduates, from all sources and at all levels within the formal education and training system, is estimated at 850 per year.

Continued growth in employment within tourism and projections for

further growth, largely based upon anticipated sustained increases in international arrivals; the development of domestic tourism; as well as major product development plans in hand or at the planning stage mean that a situation identified as critical in earlier reports had attained even greater urgency by the time that the Tourism Policy Study was undertaken.

Tourism related education and training in Malaysia is undertaken in both the public and private sectors. Provision developed under the auspices of two major public sector agencies, namely the Institute of Technology, MARA (ITM), responsible to the Ministry of Education and the training centre of the National Productivity Centre (NPC) which is responsible to the Ministry for Trade and Industry. These two bodies have laid the core foundation and provided the main impetus for the development of national tourism-related programmes and curricula in Malaysia. They provide quality education and training, supported by good resourcing, within the context of somewhat limited pedagogic objectives. Both institutions restrict entry on their hotel management, tourism management and craft programmes to relatively small numbers in order that they can maintain the quality of their education and training. A recent addition to public sector provision is through vocational schools, operating under the Ministry of Education. These schools have traditionally offered Home Science programmes for girls, courses that have only marginal relevance to careers in the tourism industry. However, they have commenced provision of basic craft programmes, validated and certified by NPC. Finally, within the public sector, the Tourist Development Corporation (TDC) co-ordinates

the provision of training for tour guides.

Complementary to this public sector commitment has been the active role of larger businesses within the public and private sector in training for tourism through direct recruitment and a combination of in-house courses and on-the-job training. This training role within businesses, is by no means universal and is, clearly, a function of size and markets; generally, larger concerns with a dominance of international guests are more likely to engage in internal training activity than smaller businesses with a mainly domestic guest profile.

In addition to public sector provision through ITM and NPC, there has been a recent significant growth in private sector tourism education, reflecting the demands of the industry; restrictions on multi-ethnic access to ITM courses; insufficient capacity in the public sector to meet student demand; and, in a more general sense, a growing acceptance, among young people, of tourism as a viable and attractive career option. These institutions offer a wide range of hotel and catering programmes, frequently linked to overseas curricula, text-books and assessment procedures and, frequently, have established transfer links for their students to colleges and universities overseas. Private sector education and training is faced by tighter resource constraints than is the case in the public sector and the consequences are evident in terms of class size and the attention given to practical work. Meeting similar student demand, over 200 young people, annually, leave Malaysia in order to study tourism-related subjects at a variety of levels overseas.

By and large, the emphasis, within both public and private sector

educational institutions, is on higher level courses, leading to diploma-type qualifications for supervisory and management positions within a limited number of sectors of the industry. Skilled craft and semi-skilled training also features in some of these institutions but the throughput, in terms of numbers, is very clearly geared towards the higher level programmes. By contrast, the tourism industry's training commitments are mainly geared towards basic skills and entry level competencies.

The emphasis, within education and training, is almost exclusively on the preparation of personnel for the hotel and restaurant sector, admittedly the largest and most visible component within the industry catering for international guests. Only limited exceptions to this exist through training for other tourism sectors.

This brief review of education and training for Malaysian tourism highlights some of the problems which were implicit in the findings of the research studies reported in Chapters 5 and 6. They are concerns which utilisation of the framework is intended to ameliorate. In particular, the Malaysian situation points to the fragmentation of the management of education and training for tourism, between three public sector agencies (ITM, NPC and TDC), all answerable to different Ministries. It also suggests significant gaps between industry needs, in terms of skills and training, and that provided by the training institutions and points to the need for extensive training needs analysis to be undertaken in conjunction with manpower research in the tourism industry.

4. Issues relating to education and training in Malaysian tourism

Thus far, a number of concerns have been identified in this analysis of the human resource environment within Malaysian tourism.

A. The fragmentation of its policy co-ordination and management is apparent through the identification of a number of agencies and Ministries with some responsibility for different aspects of human resource planning and development. Not all these public sector bodies have been discussed and others which merit reference include the Ministries of the Public Service, Labour and Transport as well as individual State governments. The fragmentation, at policy level, is replicated in terms of provision, curricula, certification and resourcing. The various programmes operate in isolation and do not give the appearance of logic, inter-connections or equivalence. They offer different qualifications based on different programme objectives and various approaches to training. There is no central awards body for tourism education and training. The delivery of programmes reflects diversity in the level and source of resourcing.

B. The level of provision may be deemed inadequate to meet current demand let alone projected growth requirements.

C. There appears to be some significant gaps between the skills requirements of the industry and the profile of graduates completing education and training

programmes. Specifically, there is little evidence that tourism curricula has been designed on the basis of comprehensive training needs analysis or, perhaps more significantly, to reflect the dramatic change cycle through which the sector is currently going. Examples of this situation include the dominance of academic as opposed to professional and technical priorities within many programmes; the inadequacy or absence of practical skills development on some private sector programmes; teachers and trainers with very limited or non-existent professional experience in the industry; unrealistic expectations of graduates entering the industry; limited recognition of the cultural and regional diversity of Malaysia in the programme content; and limited emphasis on language and communication skills.

D. Inadequate and poor quality manpower and training needs data that is available in support of the development of education and training in Malaysian tourism. This hinders the ability to develop policies and to plan, in this area, with any degree of certainty.

A number of further concerns were also identified in preparing the Tourism Policy Study, which require addressing through the use of the policy and strategy development framework.

E. Closely allied to C. above, education and training for tourism appears to be predominantly geared to meet the requirements of one dominant sector (hotels) and

the overseas market. The vast majority of 850 tourism-related graduates qualify for craft and supervisory positions within the international standard hotel sector. While by no means unique to Malaysia, this situation does not, adequately, reflect the needs of the whole industry.

F. Tourism does not feature, as a subject for study or research, within Malaysian education at any level, except as a practical diploma course at ITM. Considering the growing importance of the sector within the economy, the absence of school or university level options with a tourism orientation (not necessarily of a practical or professional nature) is clearly a significant weakness and does little to enhance the image of the industry.

G. Education and training for tourism has developed out of tandem with other sectors of vocational education in Malaysia. This concern reflects, in part, the overall fragmentation of tourism education and training. It also indicates a status, for tourism education, which is lesser than that accorded training for other areas of economic activity. Tourism skills do not fall under the auspices of the National Vocational Training Council (NVTC) which was established to formulate, promote and co-ordinate vocational and industrial training strategy and provision within the country.

H. Formal education and training provision for tourism

is located, almost exclusively, in the Kuala Lumpur region, removed from some of the country's main tourism regions and areas of projected growth.

I. There is little tradition of, or provision for, career development for tourism professional, through further educational opportunities.

J. The management of tourism policy development and implementation, in all areas including human resource matters, is in the hands of career civil servants with little specialist understanding or commitment to tourism.

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