Geographies of Tourism and Global Change

Tom Baum
Ann Ndiuini *Editors*

Sustainable Human Resource Management in Tourism

African Perspectives

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Geographies of Tourism and Global Change

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Chapter 1
Sustainable Human Resource Management in Tourism: Introducing African Perspectives

Tom Baum and Ann Ndiuini

The enormous potential for tourism development in Africa has long been recognized (Dieke, 1993) but the evidence remains that this is a potential substantially underfulfilled. A tourism heat map of Africa is a patchwork of a few high-performing destinations in the north, east, south and offshore; some emergent locations in the east, west and south and large swathes of the continent where tourist visitation beyond localized, cross-border movement is hardly discernible. For three island countries (Seychelles, Cape Verde and Mauritius), tourism represents more than 25% of GDP, over 60% in the case of the Seychelles (UNCTAD, 2017). It is undoubtedly the case that not all parts of the continent are equally endowed with tourism riches, whether natural or socio-cultural, so it would be unreasonable to expect wholly equal distribution. Diversity of tourism resources exists both between and within countries (Rogerson, 2014; Visser and Hoogendoorn, 2012). Africa is also a continent of which parts have faced (and continues to do so) the ravages of natural disasters (notably draught) and conflict. However, as Dieke explains in this volume, the drivers of tourism performance and under-performance in Africa are complex and reflect both changes to place and the influence of time, events of the moment, in a way that is, arguably, more exaggerated than in most other parts of the world. Tourism in Africa is affected by natural and human-caused impacts at a local, country and regional level. For example, the ending of apartheid in South Africa had direct and beneficial consequences for tourism in that country. It also created competition for

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other receiving countries in the continent in the face of which they still struggle. Political and religious tension in the north, east and west of Africa, leading to high-profile terrorism incidents, have rebalanced demand away from countries in these parts of the continent. Natural disasters, notably drought, have led to population shift that creates challenges for areas where tourism might previously have flourished. Long-term health challenges (notably, HIV) coupled with episodic epidemics (for example, Ebola) also act to undermine the appeal of parts of Africa to some markets. Therefore, Africa's status as the fastest growing region in terms of international arrivals in 2017, at 9%, is particularly noteworthy although this is from a relatively low base. The World Travel and Tourism Council (WTTC, 2018) estimated that the direct contribution of travel and tourism to GDP in Africa was USD72.8bn (3.3% of total GDP) in 2017, and is forecast to rise by 4.0% in 2018, and by 4.1% pa, from 2018 to USD113.2bn (3.3% of total GDP) in 2028. In terms of direct employment, WTTC estimate that, in 2017, travel and tourism in Africa directly supported 9,297,000 jobs (2.6% of total employment). This is expected to rise by 3.2% in 2018 and rise by 2.7% pa to 12,519,000 jobs (2.6% of total employment) in 2028. Including indirect job creation, UNCTAD (2017) estimates that tourism generated more than 21 million jobs on average between 2011 and 2014. This translates into 7.1% of all jobs in Africa. What is unclear in WTTC data is the extent to which they include the hugely important informal sector in African tourism, especially that servicing domestic and cross-border travel. At the same time, UNCTAD also notes that tourism in many African countries operates in relative isolation of the wider economy in Africa, resulting in high financial leakages, socio-cultural tensions and negative environmental impacts. Furthermore, as Dieke in this volume notes, in employment terms, this can also mean a high dependence on expatriate labour in senior, high-value positions within the industry, further restricting the economic benefits of tourism.

UNCTAD (2017) note tourism's potential to contribute to meeting the UN's Sustainable Development Goals, in particular, Goals 8, 12 and 14 which highlight the central role of tourism's potential in job creation, local promotion of culture and economic development. However, as tourism's impact is intersectional, it is also an industry that can impact on key development goals relating to poverty alleviation and economic and cultural opportunity for women, youth and minorities. UNCTAD (2017: 4) argue that, in appropriate contexts, 'tourism can be an engine for inclusive growth and economic development and that it can complement development strategies aimed at fostering economic diversification and structural transformation within the right policy context'.

The purpose of this book is to explore the relationship between tourism in a variety of African contexts, from all points (north, south, east and west) and the emergent consideration of sustainability as an indicator and goal within the employment domain. Arguably, employment has been grossly neglected within the widening discussion about sustainable tourism (Baum, 2018; Baum et al., 2016). Most narratives relating to sustainability address one or more of its key pillars—the environmental, economic and social (Boström, 2012; Foladori, 2005)—although it is evident that it is the latter, within which key dimensions of work and employment fall (Littig & Grießler, 2005), that has received the least attention in the academic literature. In the

words of Longoni and Cagliano (2015: 218), 'social sustainability refers to actively supporting the preservation and creation of skills as well as the capabilities of future generations, promoting health and supporting equal and democratic treatments that allow for good quality of life both inside and outside of the company context'. Widening discourse about sustainable development has impacted upon the geographies of tourism, not least with respect to employment (Pascariu & Tiganasu, 2014) and now challenges both the quality and durability of tourism-induced employment creation. Such debate is particularly pertinent in an African context. Brouder (2017) offers the critical lens of evolutionary economic geography as a means of assessing the potential of a socially sustainable path to tourism development as a means to overcome some of the sector's historical failings. His analysis speaks clearly to the challenges posed by tourism employment creation, particularly in the Global South.

This focus on social sustainability, in turn, leads us to consideration of the emergent field of sustainable human resource management (HRM). Sustainable HRM relates to practices that contribute to the development of human and social capital within the organization and is starting to feature increasingly in corporate social responsibility (CSR) (Ehnert et al., 2016). Kramar (2014: 1085) defines sustainable HRM as 'a new approach to managing people, by identifying broader purposes for HRM, through its recognition of the complexities of workplace dynamics and the explicit recognition of the need to avoid negative impacts of HRM practices'. This focus at the level of the firm leads to Ehnert's (2009) identification of the key components of sustainable HRM practice as.

- Attracting and retaining talent and being recognized as an 'employer of choice'.
- Maintaining employee health and safety.
- Investing into the skills of the workforce on a long-term basis by developing critical competencies and lifelong learning.
- Supporting employees' work–life balance and work–family balance.
- Managing ageing workforces.
- Creating employee trust, employee trustworthiness and sustained employment relationships.
- Exhibiting and fostering (corporate) social responsibility towards employees and the communities in which they are operating.
- Maintaining a high quality of life for employees and communities.

In a sense, what Ehnert is listing here are the core components of what have always constituted good practice in human resource management and, as such, labelling them 'sustainable' is hardly groundbreaking. Despite this, however, examples of unsustainable HRM in tourism organizations, large and small, are not difficult to find. In a study of employment at Disneyland in California, Dreier et al. (2018: 2) report that 'Disneyland employees report high instances of homelessness, food insecurity, ever-shifting work schedules, extra-long commutes, and low wages'. Discussion of each of Ehnert's dimensions, both singularly and as a whole, presents challenges in the context of tourism in all countries and contexts and, therefore, sustainable HRM principles represent an important diagnostic tool with which to confront issues in the industry.

However, there is also a growing concern about the impact of HRM policies in sectors such as tourism on externalities through reference to wider societal contexts and policies (Scully-Ross, 2012) in a way that encompasses the local, regional or national workforce beyond the level of the organization. This leads to consideration of work and employment and the linkages that exist to the environment, to place and the social and human aspects of diverse communities (Avery & Bergsteiner 2010; Mariappanadar 2003, 2012). In turn, these considerations have stimulated debate about human resource practices beyond the level of the firm to include the responsibilities of regions or, indeed, economic sectors such as tourism (Baum, 2018).

In this volume, our context for consideration of sustainable HRM is tourism in Africa. The values which underpin much of the sustainable HRM narrative, not least in the context of tourism, are not indisputably universal. They reflect a critique of a post-industrial, western 'take' on the world of work and employment within a formal economy that is framed by neo-liberal business objectives and practices. This narrative is not without relevance to aspects of contemporary tourism in Africa but it is also challengeable and challenged by the infinite variety of economic, social and cultural, let us call them human, interactions that constitute work and employment in tourism on the continent of Africa and its adjacent islands. Therefore, we advisably use the term 'perspectives' in the title of this book. We aim to give glimpses, flavours, of issues and responses that touch on sustainability and sustainable practice with regard to HRM in tourism. These flavours touch on the macro in the form of policy formation and research and the micro in considering operational human dimensions of facilities management and restaurant marketing. They reflect the traditional at a community represented by missionary guesthouses and the contemporary in the form of mega events and adventure tourism. They show clearly that tourism is an industry *of* women (after all some 70% of its workforce, globally, are female) but rarely *for* women in providing the opportunity for them to move beyond the precarious in order to manage their multiple lives alongside tourism work. The collection of perspectives also addresses the mobility of tourism workers outside of Africa and the benefits and limitations of such experiences to aspiring tourism professionals. In our view, each chapter tells a different but important story that speaks to debate about sustainability and employment in tourism in Africa. Therefore, we have not attempted to classify or impose our own order on the contributions beyond the minimum.

The chapters in this book are, in reality, little more than a glimpse of the themes that could (and probably should) be included in a comprehensive assessment of sustainable HRM in practice in African tourism. We make no apologies for this because what we do have here is the start and not the end of a discussion on this theme that we hope will develop into a full-blooded conversation that will reflect the diversity of countries and cultures that go to make up the African continent.

Chapter 2, following this introduction, is an invited contribution from Peter Dieke, perhaps the grandfather of debate about tourism in Africa. Dieke surveys trends and developments in tourism across the continent and presents a cautiously optimistic analysis of future trends. Chapter 3 addresses one of the key gaps in the operation and management of tourism in Africa, that of leadership. Writing from her perspective in Nigeria, Adun Okupe identifies the leadership challenges faced by the sector and

the benefits that can accrue through reducing dependencies on external influences. Chapter 4 allows one of the leading authorities on tourism in South Africa, Christian Rogerson, to highlight the absence of a focus on employment themes in the debate about sustainable tourism, a criticism that applies more widely throughout African scholarship. Belinda Nwosu and Kemi Ogunyemi, in Chap. 5, build on the two preceding chapters by engaging with Nigerian employer and management perspectives of sustainable HRM, identifying a mixed bag in terms of awareness and commitment to principles of sustainability in employment that contrasts with wider awareness of sustainable environmental practices.

Chapters 6 and 7 address macro-level themes. In the former, Irma Booyens, Shirin Motala and Stewart Ngandu interrogate human resource competencies *vis-à-vis* innovation in tourism, using their work in South Africa to identify critical gaps within the education and training available for tourism as the basis for fostering innovation and innovative business practices. In the latter, Lydia Akunja focuses on an emergent sub-sector in the tourism industry in Kenya and identifies the arrangements that are necessary, at a national and institutional level, to meet the skills challenges of the events sector. In Chap. 8, Rutendo Musikavanhu also addresses a critical issue in the emergent mega events sector, this time in South Africa and addresses sustainability of employment in an area of work underpinned by precariousness. Gaining working experience overseas is one route to career enhancement for African tourism professionals and, in Chap. 9, Ann Ndiuini explores the experiences of professionally trained Kenyan hotel workers in developing their skills overseas in the UK and experiencing significant and unsustainable under-employment there.

Chapters 10 and 11 raise important issues pertaining to gender and women's opportunities in tourism in Africa. Heather Jeffrey reports on the challenges that women, working in tourism in Tunisia, face in balancing family and maternity obligations with maintaining their jobs and careers in tourism. George Ariya, Catherine Sempele and Florence Simaloi highlight the value of empowering women through tourism in rural Kenya, specifically in the context of the Maasai people. Their case study identifies how tourism can create a better quality of life and address social justice for rural women. In Chap. 12, Sibusiso Khuzwayo also addresses rural communities and their development, highlighting the role of government and public agencies in supporting human capital development for tourism in South Africa.

Chapters 13, 14 and 15 are industry focused. Jonathan Plimo looks at skills development in the informal guesthouse sector and highlights the importance of such operations for tourism employment overall in rural Kenya. Julia Giddy addresses a neglected area of employment in Africa which has significant growth potential that of adventure tourism where many key positions traditionally have been taken by outsiders and expatriates. Joy Goopio considers the skills implications of effective facilities management in hotels. In the final piece in this book, Chap. 16, Chibuzo Ejiogu, Amanze Ejiogu and Adeniyi Asiyanbi draw together debate on sustainable HRM in tourism from a theoretical perspective, highlighting limitations within current debates that provide guidance for future researchers in the area of sustainable tourism and employment in Africa.

The genesis of this very mixed bag of perspectives is a researcher workshop hosted in September 2017 by the School of Tourism and Hospitality of the University of Johannesburg in partnership with the Moi University, Kenya and the University of Strathclyde, Glasgow, Scotland. Over 30 participants, a mixture of early career researchers and experienced academics from the three participating countries contributed to lively debate, learning and high-quality research insights. Most of the contributions to this book emanated from presentations to the workshop. The workshop was made possible under the aegis of the UK Government's Newton Fund and the foresight of British Council in Kenya and South Africa in showing faith in our ambition. This book as well as multiple and ongoing academic collaborations has resulted from the workshop.

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Chapter 2
Tourism in Africa: Issues and Prospects

Peter U. C. Dieke

2.1 Introduction

This chapter sets out the current state of tourism to and within Africa, highlighting the key themes and issues that confront the industry across the continent. The trend issues have human resource consequences for the tourism sector there, in terms of attracting the quality staff to meet the increasingly globalized service standards. The implications from these trends will mean further marginalization of Africa in the global 'pleasure periphery' in the near future. By definition, but consistent with the UN World Tourism Organization's (WTO's) regional classification of countries for tourism statistics purposes, 'Africa' refers to the Islamic countries of the northern sub-region (excluding Egypt and Libya) as well as sub-Saharan Africa—the central, eastern, southern and western sub-regions—and the Atlantic and Indian Ocean Africa islands (Dieke, 2003, 2013). 'Issues and prospects' describe the challenges and opportunities associated with the process of developing tourism: the reasons they arise, the responses to them and the outcome of the measures (Dieke, 2009).

First, the chapter critically reviews, in brief, the role of international tourism in development. Second, it relates the analysis to the African continent by discussing a wide range of global and regional factors that influence tourism's inclusion in, and implications for, development strategies. In the third place, the chapter identifies and discusses the major 'areas of concern' in relation to the sustainability of the tourism

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sector in the region in the twenty-first century. Finally, the chapter considers the way forward, suggesting how some of the challenges might be overcome.

2.2 International Tourism in Development

Many countries, both developed and developing, have recognized the advantages that international tourism can contribute to their development efforts (Jenkins, 2015; Sharpley & Telfer, 2015). These advantages can be encapsulated in six areas: earning of foreign exchange, contribution to government revenues, creation of employment opportunities, generation of income, stimulus to inward investment and regional development.

In this chapter, there is no space to explore these impacts in detail but it is worth noting that although invariable emphasis is given to the economic advantages of tourism, there are inevitable impacts of a social, cultural and environmental nature that have to be considered in any sustainable development strategy. If these potential impacts are not considered, then they may be the very factors that will compromise the sustainability of the sector. For example, development experience and many academic studies (Christie, Fernandes, Messerli, & Twining-Ward 2013; Novelli, 2015; Rogerson, 2007; UNCTAD, 2017) have indicated that the scale, type and location of tourism developments are critical factors in gaining community acceptance of proposals. There is a growing awareness of these considerations among development planners and to a greater extent tourism development is now taking these community views into account. To improve the chances of developing a sustainable tourism sector any proposed developments have to integrate into the community and not confront it.

The following paragraphs take a more balanced view, explore the preceding issues within a broader framework of international tourism economy, relate the synthesis to African tourism perspectives and assess the development potential for international tourism in Africa if the continent is to successfully compete in the global tourism marketplace.

2.3 Global and Regional Tourism: Trend Analysis

2.3.1 Global Context

The extent and impact of tourism, both at global and regional levels, can be seen by reference to Tables 2.1, 2.2 and 2.3 (see also Emeraldinsight, 2019). It is evident (Table 2.1) that 1,323 million tourists travelled globally in 2017, some 84 million more than the previous year and a new record. This was an increase of 7% in comparison with 2016, a highest growth rate since 2010. The sector has now seen

Table 2.1 International tourist arrivals (by sub-regions)

	International tourist arrivals (million)							Market share (%)	Change (%)		Average annual growth (%)
	1995	2000	2005	2010	2015	2016	2017	2017	16/15	17/16	2005–17
World	**531**	**680**	**809**	**952**	**1,195**	**1,239**	**1,323**	**100**	**3.7**	**6.8**	**4.2**
Advanced economies	342	430	469	515	655	685	725	54.8	4.7	5.8	3.7
Emerging economies	189	250	339	437	540	554	597	45.2	2.5	7.9	4.8
By UNWTO regions	**308.5**	**392.9**	**452.7**	**487.7**	**605.1**	**619**	**671.1**	**50.7**	**2.3**	**8.4**	**3.3**
Europe:	36.4	44.8	54.7	56.6	69.8	73.8	77.3	5.8	5.8	4.8	3
Northern Europe	112.2	139.7	141.7	154.4	181.5	181.5	194.6	14.7	0	7.2	2.6
Western Europe	58.9	69.6	95.3	98.6	122.4	126.7	133	10.1	3.5	4.9	2.9
Central/Eastern Europe	100.9	139	161.1	178.1	231.4	237.1	266.2	20.1	2.4	12.3	4.3
Southern/Mediterranean Europe of which EU – 28	271	336.8	367.5	383	478.6	499.8	538.1	40.7	4.4	7.7	3.2
Asian and the Pacific:	**82**	**110.4**	**154.1**	**208.2**	**284.1**	**305.9**	**323.2**	**24.4**	**7.7**	**5.6**	**6.4**
North-East Asia	41.2	58.4	85.9	111.5	142.1	154.3	159.5	12.1	8.6	3.4	5.3
South-East Asia	28.5	36.3	49	70.5	104.2	110.8	120.4	9.1	6.3	8.6	7.8
Oceania	8.1	9.6	10.9	11.5	14.3	15.7	16.6	1.3	9.7	6	3.6
South Asia	4.2	6.1	8.3	14.7	23.5	25.1	26.7	2	7	6.1	10.2
Americas:	**108.9**	**128.2**	**133.3**	**150.4**	**193.7**	**200.7**	**207.3**	**15.7**	**3.6**	**3.3**	**3.8**
North America	80.5	91.5	89.9	99.5	127.5	130.9	133.3	10.1	2.7	1.8	3.4
Caribbean	14	17.1	18.8	19.5	24.1	25.2	26.1	2	4.7	3.4	2.7
Central America	2.6	4.3	6.3	7.8	10.2	10.7	11.2	0.8	4.1	4.7	4.9

(continued)

Table 2.1 (continued)

	International tourist arrivals (million)							Market share (%)	Change (%)		Average annual growth (%)
	1995	2000	2005	2010	2015	2016	2017	2017	16/15	17/16	2005–17
South America	11.7	15.3	18.3	23.6	31.9	33.9	36.7	2.8	6.3	8.4	6
Africa:	**18.7**	**26.2**	**34.8**	**50.4**	**53.6**	**57.8**	**63**	**4.8**	7.9	**9**	**5**
North Africa	7.3	10.2	13.9	19.7	18	18.9	21.7	1.6	5	14.7	3.8
Sub-Saharan Africa	11.5	16	20.9	30.7	35.6	38.9	41.3	3.1	9.3	6.2	5.8
Middle East:	**12.7**	**22.4**	**33.7**	**55.4**	**58.1**	**55.6**	**58.2**	**4.4**	**−4.4**	**4.6**	**4.7**

Source UN World Tourism Organization (2018), *UNWTO tourism highlights*, 30th August

Table 2.2 International tourism receipts (by sub-regions)

	International tourism receipts										
	Change			US$				Euro			
	Local currencies, constant prices (%)		Market share (%)	Receipts per arrival (billion)				(Billion)			Receipts per arrival
	16/15	17/16	2017	2015	2016	2017	2017	2015	2016	2017	2017
World	**2.6**	**4.9**	**100**	**1,221**	**1,245**	**1.34**	**1,010**	**1,101**	**1,124**	**1,186**	**900**
Advanced economies	1.9	4.2	65	799	814	870	1,200	720	735	770	1,060
Emerging economies	3.9	6.2	35	423	431	470	790	381	389	416	700
By UNWTO regions	**1.7**	**8**	**39**	**468**	**668.1**	**519.2**	**770**	**421.8**	**422.9**	**459.6**	690
Europe:	8.5	7.7	7	82	83.2	89.2	1,150	73.9	75.2	79.4	1,020
Northern Europe	−1.2	5.1	13	159.2	157.2	170.5	880	143.5	142.1	150.9	780
Western Europe	6.2	6.6	4	50.4	52.6	59.9	450	45.5	47.5	53	400
Central/Eastern Europe	−0.2	11.1	15	176.3	171.5	199.1	750	158.9	158.2	176.3	660
Southern/Mediterranean Europe of which EU − 28	3.4	7.3	33	390.3	396.9	438.4	820	351.8	358.6	388	720
Asian and the Pacific:	**4.1**	**2.6**	**29**	**355.6**	**370.8**	**389.6**	**1,210**	**320.5**	**335**	**344.8**	**1,070**
North-East Asia	0.1	-5.1	12	167.1	169.5	162.2	1,020	150.6	153.2	143.6	900
South-East Asia	9.1	9.2	10	108.7	116.7	130.7	1,090	98	105.5	115.7	960

(continued)

Table 2.2 (continued)

	International tourism receipts										
	Change			US$				Euro			
	Local currencies, constant prices (%)		Market share (%)	Receipts per arrival (billion)				(Billion)			Receipts per arrival
	16/15	17/16	2017	2015	2016	2017	2017	2015	2016	2017	2017
Oceania	7	6.3	4	47.7	51.2	57.1	3,440	43	46.3	50.5	3,040
South Asia	3.9	12.9	3	32.1	33.3	39.5	1,490	28.9	30.1	35	1,320
Americas:	**2.3**	**1.3**	**24**	**307.3**	**313.7**	**326.2**	**1,560**	**277**	**283.4**	**288.7**	**1,380**
North America	1.7	0.8	19	241.2	244.6	252.4	1,870	217.4	221	223.4	1,660
Caribbean	5.5	4.2	2	28.5	30	31.7	1,220	25.7	27.1	28.1	1,080
Central America	9	3.5	1	11.2	12.2	12.7	1,140	10.1	11	11.3	1,010
South America	1.9	2.2	2	26.3	26.9	29.3	800	23.7	24.3	25.9	710
Africa:	**4.9**	8	3	**32.2**	**33**	**37.3**	600	**29**	**29.8**	**33**	**530**
North Africa	1	10.3	1	8.9	9	10	460	8	8.1	8.9	410
Sub-Saharan Africa	6.4	7.2	2	23.3	24	27.3	670	21	21.7	24.2	590
Middle East:	**1**	**12.8**	**5**	**59**	**59**	**67.7**	**1,160**	**52.3**	**53.3**	**59.9**	**1,030**

Source UN World Tourism Organization (2018), *UNWTO tourism highlights*, 30th August

Table 2.3 Africa: International tourist arrivals and tourism receipts (for selected years)

	International tourist arrivals							International tourist receipts			
	Series				Change (%)		Share (%)				Share
		(1000)						(US$ million)			%
		2010	2016	2017*	16/15	17*/16	2017*	2010	2016	2017*	2017
Africa		**50,426**	**57,747**	**62,722**	**7.8**	**8.6**	**100**	**30,880**	**33,027**	**37,320**	**100**
North Africa		**19,682**	**18,895**	**21,717**	**5.0**	**14.9**	**34.6**	**9,662**	**9,003**	**10,009**	**26.8**
Algeria	VF	2,070	2,039	2,451	19.2	20.2	3.9	220	209	..	..
Morocco	F9	9,288	10,332	11,349	1.5	9.8	18.1	6,703	6,549	7,417	19.9
Sudan	TF	495	800	..	8.0	..	..	94	1,009	1,029	2.8
Tunisia	TF	7,828	5,724	7,052	6.8	23.2	11.2	2,645	1,236	1,299	3.5
Sub-Saharan Africa		**30,743**	**38,853**	**41,005**	**9.2**	**5.5**	**65.4**	**21,218**	**24,024**	**27,311**	**73.2**
Angola	TF	425	397	..	−32.9	..	..	719	623	..	..
Benin	TF	199	267	..	4.7	..	..	149	123	..	..
Botswana	TF	1,973	..	..	..	..	..	510	578	704	1.9
Burkina Faso	THS	274	152	143	−6.7	−5.9	0.2	72	122	..	..
Burundi	TF	142	187	..	42.7	..	..	2	2	..	..
Cameroon	TF	569	..	..	..	..	..	159	505	..	..
Cabo Verde	THS	336	598	668	15.1	11.6	1.1	278	370	436	1.2
Central African Republic	TF	54	..	..	..	..	..	11	..	..	..
Chad	THS	71	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Comoros	TF	15	27	28	13.6	4.5	0	35	..	..	..
Congo	THS	194	211	..	−4.1	..	..	27	..	…	..

(continued)

Table 2.3 (continued)

	International tourist arrivals							International tourist receipts			
	Series				Change (%)		Share (%)				Share
		(1000)						(US$ million)			%
		2010	2016	2017*	16/15	17*/16	2017*	2010	2016	2017*	2017
Côte d'Ivoire	VF	2,521	1,583	1,800	9.9	13.7	2.9	201	379	..	..
Democratic Republic of Congo	TF	81	351	..	−0.8	..	..	11	4.3	..	..
Djibouti	TF	51	..	..	..	..	..	18	33	..	..
Equatorial Guinea		..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Eritrea	VF	84	142	..	24.6	..	…	..	48	..	..
Ethiopia	TF	468	871	..	0.8	..	..	522	346	434	1.2
Gabon	TF	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Gambia	TF	91	161	..	19.3	..	..	74	116	..	..
Ghana	TF	931	..	..	..	..	..	620	846	850	2.3
Guinea	TF	12	60	..	71.4	..	..	2	16	..	..
Guinea-Bissau	TF	22	..	..	..	..	..	13	19	..	..
Kenya	TF	1,470	1,268	1,364	13.8	7.6	2.2	800	824	926	2.5
Lesotho	TF	414	..	..	..	..	..	23	48	23	0.1
Liberia		..	..	..	..	..	..	12	..	..	..
Madagascar	TF	196	293	255	20	−12.9	0.4	309	750	..	..

(continued)

Table 2.3 (continued)

	International tourist arrivals							International tourist receipts			
	Series				Change (%)		Share (%)				Share
		(1000)						(US$ million)			%
		2010	2016	2017*	16/15	17*/16	2017*	2010	2016	2017*	2017
Malawi	TF	746	849	..	5.5	..	..	31	26	31	0.1
Mali	TF	169	173	193	8.8	11.6	0.3	205	200	..	..
Mauritania	TF	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	30	23	0.1
Mauritius	TF	935	1,275	1,342	10.8	5.2	2.1	1,282	1,572	1,748	4.7
Mozambique	TF	1,718	1,639	..	5.6	..	..	108	108	151	0.4
Namibia	TF	984	1,469	..	5.8	..	..	438	307	188	0.5
Niger	TF	74	152	..	13.2	..	..	105	77	..	..
Nigeria	TF	1,555	1,889	..	50.5	..	..	576	1,070	2,549	6.8
Reunion	TF	421	458	508	7.5	10.8	0.8	392	360	401	1.1
Rwanda	TF	504	932	..	−5.6	..	..	202	390	438	1.2
São Tomé and Príncipe	TF	8	29	..	13.3	..	..	11	69	66	0.2
Senegal	TF	900	..	..	..	..	..	453	..	..	..
Seychelles	TF	175	303	350	9.8	15.4	0.6	343	414	483	1.3
Sierra Leone	TF	39	54	..	125.7	..	..	26	41	..	..
Somalia		..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..

(continued)

Table 2.3 (continued)

	International tourist arrivals							International tourist receipts			
	Series				Change (%)		Share (%)				Share
		(1000)						(US$ million)			%
		2010	2016	2017*	16/15	17*/16	2017*	2010	2016	2017*	2017
South Africa	TF	8,074	10,044	10,285	12.8	2.4	16.4	9,070	7,970	8,818	23.6
Swaziland	TF	868	947	921	8.5	−2.7	1.5	51	13	..	..
Tanzania	TF	754	1,233	..	11.7	..	..	1,255	2,132	2,339	6.3
Togo	THS	202	338	496	23.8	46.7	0.8	66	..	..	..
Uganda	TF	946	1,323	..	1.5	..	..	784	1,060	918	2.5
Zambia	TF	815	956	..	2.6	..	..	492	683	653	1
Zimbabwe	VF	2,239	2,168	2,423	5.4	11.8	3.9	634	890	..	..

Source UN World Tourism Organization (2018), *UNWTO tourism highlight*s, 30th August
Series of international tourist arrivals
TF = International tourist arrivals at frontiers (overnight visitors, i.e. excluding same-day visitors)
VF = International visitor arrivals at frontiers (tourists and same-day visitors)
THS = International tourist arrivals at hotel and similar establishments
TCE = International tourist arrivals at collective tourism establishments
TD = Departures of tourists (overnight visitors, i.e. excluding same-day visitors)
VD = Departures of both overnight and same-day visitors
* = Provisional figure or data
.. = Figure or data not (yet) available
I = Change of series
n/a = Not applicable
. = Decimal separator
, = Thousands separator
For individual countries and territories, information reflects data as reported by national or international institutions up until August 2018. For the latest tourism data and trends, please refer to the UNWTO World Tourism Barometer at mkt.unwto.org/barometer. For tourism statistics online and for data on previous years, see the UNWTO e-library at www.e-unwto.org. For main concepts, definitions and classifications for the measurement of tourism, please see *International Recommendations for Tourism Statistics 2008 (IRTS 2008)* at statistics.unwto.org/content/irts-2008

uninterrupted growth in arrivals for eight straight years. This demand characteristic suggests, first, that global tourism is still a high-volume industry and, second, growth in arrivals was echoed by a strong increase in exports generated by tourism, which reached US$ 1.6 trillion in 2017, making tourism the world's third-largest export sector (Busiweek, 2019). UNWTO's long-term perspective put the forecast of 3.8% per year for the period 2010.

It is further shown (Table 2.2) that US$ 1.3 trillion (excluding international fare payments of US$ 240 billion) were generated in global tourism receipts in 2017 (5% higher than 2016). It can be said that global tourism is again a major feature in the world economy. In conclusion, these strong 2017 results were driven by sustained travel demand for destinations across all world regions, including a firm recovery by those that have suffered from security challenges in recent years. Strong outbound demand from virtually all source markets, including rebounds from major emerging economies Brazil and the Russian Federation, benefited both advanced and emerging destinations (Busiweek, 2019).

2.3.2 Regional Context

Regional trends can also be discerned from Tables 2.1 and 2.2. The indication (Table 2.1) is that Africa (9%) led the growth ranking in 2017, followed by Europe (8.4%), while Asia (5.6%), the Middle East (4.6%) and the Americas (3.3%) also recorded sound results. The Middle East led growth in tourism receipts with a 13% increase in 2017, followed by Africa and Europe which both recorded 8% growth. Receipt grew 3% in Asia and the Pacific and 1% in the Americas. Europe recorded the highest growth in absolute terms, with an increase of US$ 60 billion to reach US$ 612 billion, or 38% of the world's international tourism receipts.

2.3.3 African Context

Within Africa, international tourist arrivals in 2017 increased by 9% and tourism receipts at the same level (+8%) (Table 2.3). Results were driven by the continued recovery in North Africa and the solid growth in most destinations that reported data. Tunisia continued to rebound strongly in 2017 with a 23% growth in arrivals, while Morocco also enjoyed better results after weaker demand in the previous year. Growing demand from European source markets and a more stable environment contributed to the sub-region's positive results. In sub-Saharan Africa, strong performance continued in large destinations like Kenya, Côte d'Ivoire, Mauritius and Zimbabwe. The sub-region's top destination, South Africa, reported slower growth in arrivals though a strong increase in receipts. Island destinations Seychelles, Cabo Verde and Reunion, all reported double-digit growth in arrivals, benefiting from increased air connectivity.

2.3.4 Trend Analysis

The preceding trend patterns, as described, form the basis for analysis here, since such trends are a necessary and influencing parameter to analyse African prospects, prompting these reflections. First, the statistics illustrate the nature and scope of international tourism in Africa and the significance of tourism in some countries, which is clearly influenced by the broader nature of economic development. Second, there are considerable variations in the scale of tourism development in Africa, from the dominant (i.e. developed) in theoretical development continuum to the Johnny-come-lately (i.e. least developed or late starters). As seen, some countries in the continent, for example, Kenya in the east, Mauritius and the Seychelles in the Indian Ocean, Morocco and Tunisia in the north, South Africa and Zimbabwe in the south, Ghana and Senegal in the west are well-established, 'successful' tourism destinations. There are others like Nigeria, Cameroon, Eritrea and Sierra Leone, which for a number of reasons have limited tourism development and therefore have not made the table league of major players in tourism and have limited tourism development but considerable potential.

Third, the statistics further highlight possible underlying reasons why there is relatively little tourism in some countries and more in others. The dominance of countries of North Africa, e.g. Morocco, is explained not only by the sub-region's proximity to the major European generating markets but, more importantly, by its long-standing economic, political and other ties with these areas. There was also the suggestion back in 1972 that North Africa is '… simply a natural extension of European resorts, in the path of the inevitable southern push towards the sun and, initially at least, towards less crowded beaches' (Hutchinson, 1972: 45). It is further argued, on a wider scope, with respect to many less developed countries that 'where foreign enterprises were present in a country's tourist industry they would be the most successful …' (Britton, 1982: 340). This might explain why southern and eastern Africa are, in tourism terms, significant, as the case study of Kenya shows: 'pioneer facilities were in place because Kenya had a vigorous expatriate community which sought to advance foreign commercial interests, including tourism' (Dieke, 1993: 13).

In relation to those 'Johnny-come-lately' (or late starter) countries in Africa, some critics might argue, albeit harshly, that the problems in Africa's tourism are closely related to structural imbalances in their overall development pattern. There are no clear strategies for development, in general, or for tourism, in particular, and tourism has not been integrated with other economic sectors. As a consequence, where tourism development in some countries has been insufficient or neglected (as in Cameroon and Nigeria), in others (for example, Kenya) it has been uncontrolled and excessive. Organization of the tourism sector has been inadequate, which has contributed to a lack of profitability in many operations, and promotion prospects are poor, with massive reliance on expatriate staff. Above all, the major setback is inadequate training. For the purposes of this chapter, this profile, in brief, clearly

influenced by the wider nature of economic development (Emeraldinsight, 2019), provides a framework within which to examine other tourism issues in the region.

2.4 Some of Africa's Tourism Issues for Consideration

There are a number of general development issues that can be associated with tourism in Africa, about which so much has been written (Dieke, 2000, 2013). The issues stem from several factors, including: (1) the general disappointment with the economic returns from the tourism sector; (2) insufficient knowledge of the market mix of international tourism; (3) the social and political discontent with tourism and, in particular, the market-driven nature of the sector; (4) the inability of governments, because of their bureaucratic structure, to react to market changes or market signals; (5) the lack of human resource availability and (6) general level of development of the region.

No attempt will be made in this chapter to pursue these issues in detail. Instead, discussion will centre on general factors that influence the global tourism trends noted above. The demand determinants are really of two components: economic and non-economic. Given that tourism is essentially a leisure activity (excluding the important business travel market), these conditions not only influence global tourism trends but also have specific impacts on Africa.

2.4.1 Economic Factors

Tourism is an export leisure activity which is heavily influenced by economic conditions in the main tourist generating regions, which are primarily the United States and Europe. When these economies are buoyant, there is a correlation between disposable per capita income levels and the propensity to travel. In the current circumstances, when the United States and European Union economies are both suffering from economic uncertainty and rising unemployment rates, people are cautious about committing themselves to travel and holiday expenditure. Although there is evidence that consumers give a higher protection to potential travel and holiday expenditure in their annual budgets, economic downturns do affect outbound travel.

2.4.2 Personal Threats

As a general proposition it can be said that perceived threats to tourists will decrease international tourism flows and cause a substitution effect. For example, the terrorism incidents in the United States have not only drastically decreased the number of residents and citizens travelling outside the country (international tourism) but have

caused many not to forgo their holidays but rather to take their holidays within the United States (domestic tourism). Some of these personal threats can be classified as follows.

2.4.3 Security

Tourists will not travel to countries or areas within large countries where they feel threatened. Some relatively recent examples are the 11 September 2001 events in the United States, the bombing in Bali on 12 October 2002 and the Iraq war of March 2003 (and ongoing). When such events occur, there is an immediate and often massive dislocation to country and regional travel.

2.4.4 Health

The outbreak of the SARS virus, the AIDS pandemic and the outbreak of bubonic plague in India some years ago had a major influence on both the volume and direction of international tourism flows.

2.4.5 Natural Disasters

There are many examples, including floods (Central and Eastern Europe in 2002), foot-and-mouth disease in the United Kingdom in 2002 and bird flu in Hong Kong and parts of China in 2002. A combination of economic decline, together with some of the circumstances described will have immediate effects on personal travel plans and business travel. Unfortunately, as tourism is a multi-sector activity, there will be collateral affects. These we can observe in the global airline industry, hotels and in other tourism-related activities. These are very difficult times for tourism businesses and some will not survive the current crisis. However, for those that survive, there is some good news. Historical analysis shows us that tourism crises do not last long. For example, the first Iraq war in 1991 devastated regional travel, but visitor arrivals had generally recovered by 1993. The Asian financial crisis beginning in Thailand in 1997 had serious implications for the region but had bottomed-out by 1999 and tourism in many countries had recovered. The Luxor Temple massacres in Egypt abruptly stopped tourism inflows, but increased security measures and massive advertising restored tourism trends within 2 years. Recovery periods can be quicker but, in general, seem to average around 18 months.

A problem in one country may benefit another, as many tourists do not forgo their holiday but rather substitute a perceived ‘dangerous’ destination for a ‘safe’ one. However, if a region is considered to be politically unstable or threatening in

any way, tourists will tend to avoid it. Over the long term this explains why regions such as Africa, South Asia and the Middle East have received only a small share of international tourist arrivals.

2.4.6 Human Resource Availability

In most developing regional countries, Africa inclusive, there is usually no shortage of people available for work but rather the problem is of the levels of skills available (Jenkins, 1997). Unlike finance which can be borrowed, human resource development is a continuing process and its direction and focus should relate to a country's development objectives. Some of this objective might be general—for example, to increase the proportion of literate people in the country. In other cases, the development of human resources may be related to the needs of a particular sector such as tourism (introduction of hotel and catering schools, tourism industry training for employment in tour operations and travel agencies.) In the short term, a country can overcome these shortages of skills by importing foreign workers, but in the medium term this solution will give rise to repatriation of currency and possibly economic and social problems where foreign workers are seen as filling jobs which locals should be doing (Dieke, 2001). This is a difficult area and it is always advisable to have a specific human resources development plan for the tourism sector because of the wide range of social and other skills required.

Given this brief tour of issues the question now arises: what Africa can do to develop its tourism potential?

2.5 Prospects for Africa's Tourism

In looking to the future, there are a number of factors that will support Africa's international tourism development.

2.5.1 First, the Three 'As'

It is now generally accepted that prerequisites for tourism development are attractions, accommodation and access. Without attractions—either natural (climate, landscapes, coast, mountains) or man-made (historic sites, theme parks, festivals)—tourism cannot develop. A combination of these attractions often put destinations on the tourism map. Las Vegas is the quintessential man-made destination and Egypt is an example of a country that has benefited from its history and culture. When at the site the tourist needs support services, particularly accommodation. Even if both are available, there has to be good access to the destination. Many international tourists

today are described as being 'cash rich and time poor'. Direct access to a destination by road or air is an important factor in development, as it saves time on travelling by indirect routes. In Africa there are many top-quality natural and man-made attractions, high standards of accommodation and infrastructure and a good transportation network; the basics for tourism development are in place and are being added to and improved all the time.

2.5.2 Second, Growing Regional Competition

The many regional countries (including Africa) now entering the international markets are providing a wider range of destination options for tourists. Competition will ensure that standards and value for money will eventually determine which countries and destinations will be most successful. An important consideration here will be how to improve service standards in a world where tourists are becoming more frequent travellers and accumulating tourism experience, which allows them to determine value-for-money destinations and to compare service standards. In the long-term, the availability of trained human resources may be the determining factor between success and failure of tourism investment. At present, much of the labour force in tourism is expatriate. Any programme to facilitate indigenous employment will require careful planning, a change in cultural perceptions and encouragement from the political hierarchy.

2.5.3 Third, Investment Capital

In some of the African countries there is no shortage of investment capital, but perhaps a reluctance to invest in the tourism sector. To a large extent such caution is linked to current experience where growth in tourism has been slowed, and in some cases, stopped by the 'threats' described earlier. However, our trend data has demonstrated that in the medium and long term, tourism is a robust industry and one that has greater sustainability than others. Creating a destination in a highly competitive market is not a short-term objective, it is essentially an incremental activity just like development in general. The strategic vision has to be long term, and the huge investment in infrastructure is a long-term commitment without which tourism will not develop.

2.5.4 Fourth, the Private Sector

Most of the regional infrastructure has been provided by governments. This reflects the fact that infrastructure is capital intensive, fixed and has a long-term payback period in financial terms. These conditions limit the interest of the private sector in

investing in this area. More attention is being given now to public–private partnerships in which the government is building the infrastructure to facilitate the private sector's providing facilities for tourists (and other users). As risk-takers, the private sector companies will only invest in areas where viable returns are expected from the investment. They are in the marketplace and their survival depends on their understanding of the market and, in particular, what the client wants and for what he is prepared to pay. In the region, there are signs that governments are moving to a more supportive and facilitating role in the tourism sector and leaving the development to private companies. This does not mean that governments only have a supportive role in the sector; as representatives of the people, government is the ultimate arbitrator of many of the important considerations in the sustainability of the industry, such as what type of tourism should be developed, where and on what scale (see Jenkins, 1994).

2.5.5 Fifth, the Environment

Environmental quality is a factor that has reached a worldwide audience. It is fundamental not only to the development of tourism but also to the lives of residents. There is some evidence that many tourists are reflecting their concern for the environment in their choice of destinations. Those destinations offering environmental quality can often charge higher or premium prices for services, but it may be that in the longer term, destinations that have deteriorated environments will not be competitive at all. Again, there is evidence in many global regions that environmental management is now regarded as an integral part of development planning.

2.5.6 Sixth, Market Demand

Despite the impressive growth trends in international tourism, the market is very under-developed. Using the UN World Tourism Organization's statistics, only 3.5% of the world's population travels internationally. Even in the United States, one of the richest countries in the world, less than 10% of the population has passports. The longer term potential for greater penetration of this market exists. Of course, to constitute a market, people must have disposable income to afford to travel, but as per capita disposable income increases people to travel more. Initially, travel is domestic, then intra-regional and eventually, long-haul international. Best estimates of all travel show that 80% is domestic and 20% is international. To emphasize the importance of some domestic markets, it is interesting to note that in 2000, the UN World Tourism Organization estimated international tourist arrivals to be 693 million; in China alone, domestic tourism movements were estimated to be in excess of 700 million. The question of what might be the constraints on future demand is

outside the scope of this chapter, but one can safely predict that there is a growing and largely untapped market for tourism.

2.5.7 Seventh, Education and Training

This topic has been mentioned above. Any development of the tourism sector must involve consideration and analysis of the present and future human resources position (Emeraldinsight, 2019). Specific training programmes and human resource development initiatives will be required. To reduce dependence on and eventually minimize reliance on foreign labour require careful planning and focus (Dieke, 2003). In an era where it is now fashionable to talk of 'lifelong learning' and where technology is fast-changing, human resource development is a continuous programme which requires adequate budget allocation. It is important to emphasize, again, the importance of training in a wide range of skills, including management and information technology. This should not be confined to the formal education system. While formal training is obviously important, it may often be more beneficial and more cost-effective, in practice, to focus on informal training, either on-the-job or through programmes carefully tailored to meet defined objectives and targeted at specific types of individuals (Doswell, 2000).

If financial leakages arising from the employment of foreign nationals, especially by transnational corporations (TNCs), are to be minimized, governments and the private sector should collaborate in the formulation of policies and strategies to develop indigenous capabilities. If governments provide appropriate incentives, for example, TNC could develop training programmes for their African staff abroad or organize in-service training for them.

2.6 Conclusion

This chapter has dealt with some aspects of Africa's prospects in the globalized tourism economy, namely, the role that global tourism has played and will play in the continent's development process. The main emphasis has been on the implications of using tourism as a viable development option. There are a number of issues that might threaten such prospects. Unless these challenges are addressed, they might further undermine or erode the progress already made, in general development terms, given that 'development' is not immediate but is incremental. They will further marginalize Africa in the global 'pleasure periphery'. Suggestions have been made as to how some of these challenges might be overcome. Particular reference has been made to areas that appear promising for the effective and sustainable development of the sector, including the need for basic facilitating investment in tourism—attractions, accommodation and access; the importance of respecting and appreciating the relative roles of both the private and public sectors; the need for continued investment

in the sector and the significance of the growing regional competition. If any single idea could guide tourism in Africa to be sustainable, tourism 'must be profitable to the communities to compensate for any dislocation of everyday life; it should gain the acceptance of the communities in relation to the type, scale and location of tourism development and planners should consider the need for protection of certain communities and sites and to meet their acceptable cultural standards'.

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Chapter 3
Plugging the Gaps in Africa's Tourism System: The Need for Tourism Leadership

Adun Okupe

3.1 Introduction

Tourism is a significant contributor to the global economy. The tourism industry contributed 8.27 trillion US dollars to the global economy in 2017, 10.4 per cent of global GDP. Tourism is the world's fastest growing economy, growing at 4.6 per cent per annum (WTTC, 2018) which is higher than the 2017 global economic growth of 3% (World Bank Group, 2018). In addition to its economic contributions, the industry also contributes to social development, providing jobs, livelihoods and contributing to an appreciation of tourism resources: natural endowments, culture, heritage and customs (Cucculelli & Goffi, 2016; Dieke, 2003; Muangasame & Khunon, 2013). However, the contributions of the tourism industry in sub-Saharan Africa remain low when compared to the industry's performance in other parts of the world.

In Africa, the tourism industry contributed 3.3 per cent of GDP in 2017. This is predicted to rise by 4.1 per cent per annum to 2028 (WTTC, 2018). The potential of the African tourism industry has not been fully harnessed which is surprising given its capacity to contribute to the sustainable development of the continent, reduce dependency on extractive industries and international aid (Dieke, 2013). There are 93 UNESCO world heritage sites on the continent, which coupled with the rich culture, history and natural environment among other attractions provide a range of tourist attractions to cater to various interests (UNESCO, 2018). The tourism industry may be the major contributor to sustainable development the African continent needs and has hitherto under-appreciated (Okupe, Ward, & Ogechi, 2018). For the rest of the paper, Africa is used to refer to sub-Saharan Africa, similar to the World Economic Forum Travel and Tourism Competitiveness Index where the North African countries were grouped together with the Middle East and sub-Saharan African countries were referred to as Africa.

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Some African countries are starting to realize the potential of tourism. Angola, Uganda and Mozambique are predicted to be among the 10 fastest growing destinations for leisure travel between 2016 and 2026 (WTTC, 2018), moving from a commodity dependency towards economic diversification. One of the reasons given for the under-development of the tourism industry in Africa is the lack of consistent and concerted political will to develop the industry (Okupe et al., 2018). This paper argues that in addition to the above-identified factor, there are several other factors which impede the sustainable development of tourism in African nations, including the lack of a holistic understanding of the tourism industry. A systems approach may provide more awareness and create a holistic understanding of the dynamic but complex African tourism industry and enable countries to be better able to harness their tourism potential.

3.2 A Systems Approach to Tourism

The tourism industry is complex, with the linkages it has to other sectors of the economy. Several sub-sectors come together to form a whole including local, regional and global organizations. As such, decisions at one level can lead to intended and unintended consequences on tourism activity at one or more destinations. This interdependence and interrelationship, heightened by increasing interconnectivity created by globalization, may be understood by using the lenses of a systems approach to understand the tourism industry in Africa.

There are three main types of systems, simple systems which are linear with few components where cause and effect are predictable; complicated systems that have several components; with cause separated from effect and complex systems which are comprised of many components, with non-linear interactions, yielding non-predictable effects to causes. The complexity of such systems has a dynamic nature and the ability to react to changes in the internal and the external environment. The tourism industry may be conceptualized as a complex system (Carlsen, 1999; Gunn, 1994; Jakulin, 2017) due to the characteristics it displays. For example, the effect of lower oil prices on the global commodities market impacted oil-producing countries such as Nigeria. This led to lower prices in hotels in Lagos, due to the reduction in demand for international business travel, as was experienced in Nigeria during the 2016 recession (Financial Nigeria, 2016). However, the recession contributed to the growth of domestic tourism (Bankole, 2017).

There are other sub-systems in the tourism system that interact among themselves, affected by, as well as influencing their environment, in a non-deterministic way. The environment here refers to the socio-political as well as ecological natural environment. The presence of sub-systems heightens complexity as they also have regular and irregular outcomes (Baggio, 2008; Jakulin, 2017). Technological advancements contribute to this complexity. The tourism system has experienced rapid evolution as a result of disruptive innovations such as Airbnb and social media platforms like Instagram which provide tourists and host communities with instant information and

updates (Guttentag, 2013; Miguéns, Baggio, & Costa, 2008). The rate of change and intensity of change keep rising requiring sophisticated ability to understand, anticipate and manage the causes and effects of any activity on the tourism industry.

A systems approach to understanding tourism contributes to an awareness of the factors that affect the tourism industry, the diverse actors within the industry, as well as the other industries and sub-sectors that have linkages with the industry. The systems approach contributes to an appreciation of the industry. Tourism actors including policymakers, owners of tourism organizations, employees within the organizations, host communities and the tourists themselves all play a role in the industry. Industries such as the transportation industry, the financial industry, the healthcare industry, security industry, communications industry, arts and culture, film industry are sub-sectors linked to tourism. For example, Hollywood has contributed a significant amount to tourism demand in the United States (Spears, Josiam, Pookulangara, & Kinley, 2012).

The tourism system comprises an internal tourism market, where tourism demand and supply equilibrate, and the actors that make the internal tourism market activity possible, who all operate within an external socio-political and natural environment, influencing the activities of the tourism market (Elliot, 1987). According to Gunn (1994), the tourism system is an integrated one made up of demand and supply, where supply refers to the attractions, services, transportation, promotion and information that come together to attract and meet tourism demand. The system functions when all the components are working together in a smooth manner and breaks down when they do not. Tourists are pulled to a region due to the attractions, to include the sites and activities available to tourists in the area. On arrival at these destinations, there are services available to them, from customer service officers to tour guides and hospitality staff. Access to the destination and within the country is also an important component of the tourism system. Within the system, each destination decides how it should promote its offerings, together with how it is branded. Branding is a means to articulate the destination's uniqueness and why tourists should travel to the destination. Information on what is available to do, how to get to a destination and news on the safety and security of a destination are also important components of the tourism system (Gunn, 1994; Saner, Yiu, & Filadoro, 2015).

A functioning tourism system is one where the various components are coordinated in an integrated manner. Such an approach can contribute to effective tourism development in Africa. Using the example of tourism education in Kenya, Mayaka and Akama (2007) argue that a systems approach to tourism in Africa that integrates multiple value propositions and the interests of multiple stakeholders can contribute to the development of tourism. They argue that gaps exist as a result of the lack of coordinated and cohesive efforts from stakeholders. These gaps result in a fragmented tourism industry, as is the case in many countries in Africa. The same is observed by Kasim (2006) lamenting the fragmented nature of the tourism industry in Africa. A systems approach can alleviate some of the fragmentations or gaps in the tourism industry in Africa. While Africa looks to tourism as a tool for sustainable development, the fragmented nature of the industry must be addressed by plugging the gaps to ensure the continent is better able to harness its tourism potential. Where

are these gaps? At every level in the tourism industry in Africa, there are gaps in the tourism system.

3.3 The Gaps in the Tourism System in Africa

While the continent as a whole has not been able to realize its tourism potential, some countries, South Africa, Gambia, Tanzania, Cape Verde and Kenya are ahead of the curve and have been able to harness tourism's contributions to economic and social development. Other countries such as Uganda and Nigeria are embracing tourism as a potential income earner. On the whole, many countries including those mentioned above still address tourism fragmentedly due to a lack of appreciation for and realization of tourism's potential to contribute to their economic and social growth. One may look to the pillars of the Travel and Tourism Competitiveness Index prepared by the World Economic Forum to better understand the systems approach required for tourism development. The pillars of tourism competitiveness are presented under four sub-categories, an enabling environment, travel and tourism policy and enabling conditions, infrastructure and natural and cultural resources (Table 3.1).

Africa (as sub-Saharan Africa is categorized in the TTCI) lags behind in many of the indices (World Economic Forum, 2017) and when examined in detail, the

Table 3.1 Travel and tourism competitiveness index

Pillars	Sub-categories
Enabling environment	• The business environment • Safety and security • Health and hygiene • Human resources and labour market • ICT readiness
Travel and tourism policy and enabling conditions	• Prioritization of travel and tourism • International openness • Price competitiveness • Environmental sustainability
Infrastructure	• Air transport infrastructure • Ground and port infrastructure • Tourist service infrastructure
Natural and cultural resources	• Natural resources • Cultural resources and business travel

same major gaps occur across the sub-regions: in leadership, infrastructure, human resources and the development and management of destinations.

When applied to Gunn's (1994) tourism system, these gaps are identified in each of the components: attractions, services, transportation, promotion and information.

3.4 Plugging the Gaps for Effective Tourism Development in Africa

The main impediment to tourism development in Africa is the lack of political will to do so (Okupe et al., 2018). There is a lack of strategic vision, focus and alignment across the various sectors and sub-systems within the industry. The gaps point to a gap in leadership, from public and private sector tourism organizations required to effectively harness the potential of the industry (Heath, 2002). Further, the lack of implementable tourism master plans contributes to the under-development of the African tourism industry. Saner et al. (2015) comment on the benefits that emerging and developing economies can derive from well-designed and strategic master plans. Swift implementation of such master plans will optimize the utilization of resources and will add value to the tourism industry.

Given the fragmented nature of the tourism industry, the lack of political will to focus on the industry may be understandable though inexcusable. Africa's tourism industry requires the right type of leadership at all levels, in both the public and private sectors. The sustainable development of tourism in Africa requires effective tourism leadership.

3.5 The Need for Tourism Leadership

Africa's tourism industry requires leaders that understand the industry, its complexity and their role within it. Leaders need to have the ability to understand the roles of other organizations in the internal and external tourism environment. Heath (2002) argues that effective leadership from the public as well as private sectors is a major requirement to drive the tourism industry to its true potential. What form may this leadership take, and how can such tourism leadership emerge to plug the gaps in the tourism system and catalyse tourism development in Africa? Leadership is the process of influencing others towards achieving set objectives (Yukl, 2006). Within the current state in Africa, leaders in the industry (at national levels) will need to be aware of and passionate about its potential. To do this, leaders (public and private sectors) need to have detailed understanding of the components of the tourism system, be able to identify the various elements within it and know how these elements are interrelated and interdependent. Leaders need to be able to strategically decide and articulate the tourism vision and objectives for the industry in their countries.

Moving on from the national level, tourism leaders are required at the destination level and regional level. At this level, leaders will need to cooperate and coordinate with one another to jointly innovate, develop and promote their destinations (Centre for Strategy and Evaluation Services, 2013). The tourism system approach can provide the strategic focus needed for decision-making to be carried out in an integrative manner, aware of how one decision impacts on the other components of the system.

The need for effective tourism leadership exists across several levels in both public and private sector organizations, together with the need for leaders who are able to collaborate to enhance tourism development in their countries. Leadership is required to make evidence-based decisions to guide the vision-setting and priority areas for tourism development. Extant literature on leadership studies suggests that leaders require an adaptive capability to lead effectively, remain agile and innovative within a dynamic internal and external environment such as the tourism industry (Evans & Butler, 2011; Hannah, Avolio, Luthans, & Harms, 2008; Olingo, 2018).

3.6 The Role for Policymakers

Public sector leaders have an important part to play given their role as policymakers. In their role of making policies that stimulate the tourism system, policy directives need to be developed together with other stakeholders within the destination country (some countries may have more than one destination) and sub-region. Tourism associations and non-governmental organizations have members who operate within the tourism industry. In many cases, these remain active, despite the challenges they experience due to the fragmented nature of the industry and lack of political will. Such tourism bodies can come together to act as clusters, at a destination or country level and articulate their interests and value propositions. This cooperation will also amplify the role of the tourism bodies and enable them to gain synergies from their shared interests and operate in a spirit of 'competitive collaboration' (Hamel, 1990) and form strong interest groups that can articulate their requirements in a collective way to influence policy decisions. Effective policies made together with tourism bodies can provide a useful way for learning, information and multi-level engagement with private sector tourism providers (GQ). In this way, the approach to tourism becomes integrated, which impacts on the development of the industry (Saner et al., 2015).

Tourism leadership needs to be responsible, visionary and transformational, leadership that is able to understand multiple perspectives, accommodate them and motivate others to transcend their own purpose, by creating a common sense of purpose and providing a strategic focus for a destination and/or country (Bass, 1985; Okupe et al., 2018). Visionary leadership is required to plug the gaps in the tourism system. For example, policymakers when instituting a tax directive should do so with the awareness of the ripple effects from such a policy—how it can influence hotels, tourist attractions, tourism demand as well as the host communities. In the same vein, a hotelier's decision to develop a luxury hotel in a secondary town can be guided

by the awareness of the tourism demand in the town, the attractions within the town and nearby towns and the market segment such a development will attract. This will then influence the decision to develop perhaps a mid-scale hotel or economy scale of hotel, more suited to the environment.

The role of effective public sector leadership in tourism development cannot be over-emphasized. One example of how the public sector can contribute to tourism development through an integrative approach to tourism planning is the case of Qatar. In 2011, Qatar launched its national tourism vision 2030 with the aim of becoming one of the leading sustainable destinations. Its vision was to create sustainable development and diversify its economy. The country prioritized tourism as a sector of focus and the Qatar Tourism Authority (QTA) developed the Qatar National Tourism Sector Strategy (QNTSS) 2030. This framework provided a pathway for the nation to achieve its tourism development goals. In the time since, Qatar has welcomed over 9 million international arrivals. The contribution of the tourism industry to the Qatari GDP grew from 3.3% in 2011 to 5.4% in 2015. In order to build on its success, and as part of the country's continued commitment to tourism development, the QTA reaffirmed its focus on QNTSS as part of the 2017 world tourism day (Qatar Tourism Authority, 2017; UNWTO, 2017).

The UAE is another case study example that demonstrates how strong visionary public leadership can transform the tourism industry. In 1900, the capital city of Dubai had an estimated 10,000 inhabitants (Akhavan, 2017). The tourism industry in the UAE has transformed with Dubai becoming one of the foremost tourist destinations in the world with over 15 million tourist arrivals in 2017 (WTTC, 2018). The impressive growth of the industry particularly in the last decade has been due to strategies set in place by the Dubai Tourism Authority to diversify the Emirati economy from oil-dependency (WTTC, 2018). The Dubai Plan 2021 seeks to diversify the economy and improve the natural environment and the living experience of people in Dubai, as well as the tourist experience. In 2017, the tourism industry contributed 5.1 per cent to the country's GDP while the oil industry contributes about 31 per cent. The contribution of the tourism industry is expected to rise by 4.1 per cent per annum over the next decade (Saadi, 2017; WTTC, 2018).

Closer to home in Ghana, the Ghana Tourism Authority was created in 2011 with a directive to oversee the implementation of government policies in the tourism industry. In 2014, the Ghana Infrastructure Investment Fund (GIIF) was established to provide financial resources for the management and investment of infrastructure projects in Ghana for national development which impacts on the tourism industry. Ghana's tourism sector is growing and focused on culture and ecotourism. The tourism industry ranks sixth place as a foreign exchange earner—a situation the government is focusing on with plans to increase international visitor arrivals and expand the tourism market for the country's economy, and in 2019, Ghana introduced the year of return to attract African Americans to visit Ghana and trace their historical roots.

The above examples demonstrate how policymakers can transform the tourism industry by creating a feasible strategic vision and communicating these clearly, while aligning policy directives with government incentives to stimulate investments

and activity in the industry. Notable also is the long-term nature of these strategic visions, which have been carried out in a consistent and well-coordinated manner (Dubai Sustainable Tourism, 2016; Sharpley, 2008). It is the case in Africa that policy directives are subject to changes in government which limit private sector confidence and impact on long-term investments in the industry (Asiedu, 2006). The successes shared above required private sector participation across the sub-sectors that comprise the tourism industry: aviation, hospitality, entertainment and the arts. The private sector required an enabling environment to enable it facilitate partnerships, build capacities, and develop and harness opportunities available within the industry.

This sets the tone for other levels of leadership to contribute to the tourism vision.

Finally, policymakers when designing tourism policies should provide guidelines for the sustainable growth and development of the sector both for the short term and long term. There are a few policy gaps in the tourism sector that continue to hinder growth in the sector. These areas include but are not limited to visa policy, private–public sector partnerships, promotion of domestic and regional tourism, community involvement in tourism and equity in tourism benefits-sharing. The issue of visa policy has received more attention in recent years as it remains one of the biggest obstacles to domestic tourism. According to the African Development Bank's Africa Visa Openness Report 2017, Africans can only travel to 22 per cent of African countries without visa and can only get visa on arrival in 24 per cent. For 54 per cent of African countries, Africans need visas to travel to them. One of the solutions proffered in the African Union's 2063 agenda is targeting the creation of a single continental African passport by 2020. As part of that effort, The African Union launched the first African Passport at the 27th AU Summit in July 2016. This is a limited edition electronic passport that is currently provided only to Heads of State and Government, Foreign Ministers and other high-level government officials. A plan to incorporate a visa policy that grants African nationals visa on arrival in all African countries for a minimum 30 days stay is in the works for 2018 (African Development Bank Group, 2017). Formulation and implementation of proactive policies like these in the other areas will expedite tourism development on the continent.

3.7 The Role of Leadership in Destination Development and Management

Tourism involves unique and fulfilling experiences. There has been a shift in the types of demand from the traditional relaxation tourism experiences towards more niche, special interest and customized experiences. Tourists have an increasing desire for adventure, to interact with locals and to understand more about the lived experiences of others. The modern tourist is also interested in sustainable and authentic experiences, which are as close to nature as possible. Africa can offer tourists with all of the above, and destinations can be developed on the continent to meet the various forms of tourist demand.

The first step in developing a vibrant tourism industry is to identify the destinations within the country that can be developed to be attractive to tourists. These can be historically important sites and communities, areas of outstanding natural beauty or leisure attractions, events and festivals that are designed to appeal to tourists or a combination of some or all of these. According to the TTCI, Africa has abundant cultural and natural resources although these are not developed or managed well. Tourist destinations within a country need to be identified and evaluated. This will require extensive research to determine the feasibility of various development options that may be available to the destination.

Destination development should be focused on increasing the attractiveness of the destination in a sustainable way. The best tourism destinations know their strengths and capitalize on it. The Caribbean is popular for its beaches, Rome for its religious heritage and Kenya for its safaris. Therefore, it is important for destinations to identify their unique selling points and develop tourism strategies that harness this. In addition, a vibrant tourism system will need to have destinations with other ancillary activities as attractions for tourists contributing to the richness of the tourist experience (Heath, 2002). Many tourist sites in Africa have a single main attraction with little to no leisure and quality hospitality services provided for tourists. Infrastructure will need to be provided for tourists to access the destination. This includes information portals, power, transportation, healthcare and security (World Economic Forum, 2015). The tourist destination once developed need to be managed.

Tourism management is one of the major problems of the African tourism sector. Many tourist destinations have the main attraction which can be a natural or historical site but lack the supporting infrastructure to harness them. Hotels, airports and health centres are generally below standard and in poor conditions, making the overall destination unattractive to tourists. The poor state of power supply and transportation systems also continues to impede the growth of tourism and other industries. Leaders need to show the political will and desire to improve infrastructure in the tourism sector. Additionally, there is an increasing need of partnerships between intergovernmental ministries and the private sector on developmental infrastructural projects (World Economic Forum, 2015). Together with this, strong and independent governance structures to monitor the status of tourism projects are required for investor confidence, which will further increase investments into the tourism industry.

There is evidence to support the need for independent governance structures in the tourism industry in Africa, as portrayed in the table below where countries with independent tourism bodies rank higher on the index than those without. This is due to the slow and bureaucratic nature of decision-making, lack of supervision and prioritization of the tourism industry in countries without independent tourism parastatals. WEF TTCI of 2017 highlights the disparity that exists between the two governance structures in sub-Saharan African countries (Table 3.2).

Independent tourism parastatals are tasked with the goal of driving growth and building the right linkages. Independence aids clarity of purpose and eases collaboration with foreign investors as the branch of government relevant to the investment is easier to identify.

Table 3.2 Comparison of governance structures in the tourism industry in Africa

Sub-Saharan African countries with independent tourism parastatals		Sub-Saharan African countries without independent tourism parastatals	
Country	World position	Country	World position
South Africa	53	Nigeria	129
Mauritius	55	Mauritania	132
Kenya	80	Burundi	134

3.8 The Role of Leadership in Improving Interconnectivity and Openness

Transportation infrastructure remains a key component of the tourism industry, through air, rail, water and land. Inward flow of passengers into Africa is by air, following which there should be feeder transportation channels, linking the destinations to the entry points. However, where these channels exist, they are not well maintained, coordinated and neither is information about how to connect to the destination easily available to tourists. The airline industry has undergone several challenges over the years. The demise of national carriers and the poor interconnectivity for air travel within Africa have affected domestic, regional and international tourism (Adeyeye, 2016). In addition to this, the relatively high ticket prices brought about by lack of competition are additional factors that impact on tourism demand within the continent. A trip from Abidjan to Kampala, two popular destinations in Africa, will need to connect via Istanbul because of the lack of carriers flying that enables connections to be made on the continent. Moreover, 80 per cent of the African market is dominated by foreign carriers although airlines such as Ethiopian Airlines, South African, Kenyan Airways, Air Cote d'Ivoire, Royal Air Maroc and Egypt Air are rising up as intra-Africa carriers and local airlines like Kulula and Fastjet are positioned to offer domestic travel at budget prices (Shea, 2017).

In January 2018, the African Union Initiative known as Single African Air Transport Market (SAATM) was launched. This initiative is for a single air transport market for 23 African countries opening up their air routes along these destinations which will undoubtedly improve intra-Africa travel (African Union, 2018).

3.9 The Role of Leadership in Providing Multi-market Options

The tourism system should cater to various segments of the tourism market. An example is the hospitality industry on the continent which has seen some growth in recent years with many regional and international hotel chains expanding their pipelines on the continent. However, many of these are focussed on the upscale and

luxury ends of the market. For the tourism system to work effectively, offerings across the board in hospitality, transportation and attractions should cater to multiple segments of the market, including the budget, economy and mid-scale segments, in addition to the upscale and luxury segments of the market. This expands the attractiveness of the destinations to a wider range of tourists, stimulating tourism demand. Tourism should be inclusive, while being sustainable although there are considerations of the impacts of mass tourism on the destination and other tourists (Scheyvens & Biddulph, 2017). The average cost of a one-night safari in Kenya was about US$800 to US$1000 dollars in 2009 (Rogers, 2009). In the time since, other economy and mid-scale options were offered to tourists at prices ranging from US$25 to US3000, allowing safari tourism to cater to multiple segments of the market, enabling wider participation in tourism activities (Minnaert, Maitland, & Miller, 2011).

3.10 Human Capital Development

Service quality is an intangible factor in the attractiveness of a destination (Erdly & Kesterson-Townes, 2002) contributing to the guest experience. Even as traveller tastes become more sophisticated, demand for exceptional experiences increases. These experiences are provided by those working in the tourism industry. Yet, the tourism industry is perceived to be a low-paying one employing casual labour with long and variable working hours, poor training culture (Soh, 2008). While this is not only applicable in Africa, as Krenn (2012) explains citing Austria as an example—the reality in Africa is more dire given the precarious nature of work, high level of under-employment and perceptions of the industry as one with little to no career development opportunities and the lack of social safety nets (Deloitte, 2014).

The service quality of destinations in Africa is in need of improvement, and there is a role for tourism leaders to invest in relevant training for capacity building of their staff. In addition, senior managers will need to work with their human resources department (to be created where non-existent) to provide career paths for their employees, to increase job commitment and service quality provided to tourists (Tarlow, 2016). Higher up the scale, supervisory and middle management also need to be equipped with the strategic thinking, leadership and management skills to be better tourism leaders and contribute to the development of the industry. Where training is provided, it is usually done in an ad hoc form by several bodies who are not always accredited and regulated resulting in fragmented tourism education.

Human capital development in the tourism industry is a major gap, as the industry being a service one requires well-trained people to provide a wide array of services that range from tour guides, customer service officers, hotel and restaurant staff, marketing, IT staff and finance professionals. Business schools and enterprise development centres can develop programmes aligned with their country's strategic tourism objectives (Anu Singh, Shalini, & Sona, 2009). The availability of such courses will elevate the profile of tourism jobs and professions, and attract and retain

skilled professionals required to transform the tourism industry in Africa (World Economic Forum, 2015). Training programmes and university courses should be aligned with a country's strategic tourism objectives to ensure the human capital development provided is targeted. This will contribute to a change in perception of work in the industry (Tarlow, 2016; World Economic Forum, 2015).

3.11 Conclusion

The aim of this paper was to demonstrate the role for tourism leadership in the tourism development of Africa. By presenting a systems approach to understanding the tourism industry, it has focused on the key priority areas as focal points to be addressed in order to harness the tourism potential of Africa. A systems approach to tourism has many advantages, it provides understanding of the interconnected and interdependent relationships between the sectors that comprise the tourism industry. This awareness provides an appreciation for the dynamic and adaptable nature of the tourism industry, as well as its resilience. That said, tourism development needs to be carried out in a manner that is respectful of the multiple sectors and sub-systems within it, and one that is mindful of sustainability to ensure a balance within the system.

Tourism leaders should focus on sustainability even as the destinations are developed and managed. The United Nations declared 2017 as the international year for sustainable tourism in recognition of the importance of sustainability mindset to tourism activity. According to the UNWTO, sustainable tourism is a type of tourism development that prioritizes current and future economic, social and environmental impacts, while addressing the needs of visitors, the industry, the environment and host communities (UNEP, 2005). A responsibly managed tourism system can contribute to inclusive growth and sustainable development, through the 'preservation of ecosystems and biodiversity, protection of cultural heritage and promotion of empowerment of local communities' (UNCTAD, 2017: 3). Direct emphasis is placed by the UNWTO on sustainable development goals 8, 12 and 14 to promote sustainable, inclusive and sustainable economic growth full and productive employment and direct work for all, encourage sustainable consumption and production patterns, and conserve and sustainably use the oceans, seas and marine resources for sustainable development.

Policymakers and destinations should prioritize data collection on the number of arrivals and customer feedback on their tourist experience. In 1980, Africa had just 7.3 million international tourist arrivals (Popescu, 2014). This has grown exponentially by 850 per cent to 62 million arrivals in 2017 and is forecast to grow to about 110 million by 2028 (UNWTO, 2017; WTTC, 2018). Due to the lack of reliable data, the figures do not include domestic and regional arrivals, a case that requires more tourism data to be collected (see Okupe et al., 2018 for a discussion on this). Reliable data on tourism arrivals in destinations is important to anticipate and manage this

growth and the responsibility it brings. This will again feed into the tourism system—how policies are made, destinations developed and managed, human capital trained and infrastructure designed to cope with the growth that tourism development is expected to bring.

Researchers may investigate the ways to improve data collection and the impact this will have on the tourism industry. Another suggestion for future research should investigate at a destination and/or country level, the existing relationship between each of the components of the system and how the relationship can be improved to facilitate tourism development. Tourism leadership is an area of research that is under-studied, particularly in Africa. More research can look into the individual sub-sectors: aviation, transportation, tour guides, tour operators, travel agents and hotel managers to understand their leadership challenges. Tourism leadership is required to create the strategic tourism vision for the destinations, as well as for implementation, to ensure the alignment of the tourism development objectives with those of the country. Tourism leadership is required at destination level for the development and management of destinations, as well as within other components of the tourism system (attractions, infrastructure, information, promotion) at the destination and country level. Abstracting this to a higher level, the need for tourism leadership at sub-regional and continental levels becomes even more apparent, even as concerted planning and coordination is carried out for destinations in Africa.

With a 9 per cent growth in 2017, the growth in the African tourism industry shows no sign of abating. Whether this growth is sustained and sustainable hinges upon how tourism leaders navigate the complex tourism system. Tourism leaders can work together to create synergies and facilitate multi-level coordination and cooperation between different stakeholders in the tourism industry of country, as well as contribute to intra-regional and intra-continental partnerships. Indeed, the fragmented nature of the tourism industry in Africa is a challenge, but effective tourism leadership can work to integrate the components of the industry and harness its development to contribute to economic diversification and social development in Africa.

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Chapter 4
Sustainable Tourism Research in South Africa: In Search of a Place for Work and the Workplace

Christian M. Rogerson

4.1 Introduction

In a 'state of the field' overview of scholarship (published in 2012) around the nexus of tourism and development in the region of sub-Saharan Africa it was argued that 'despite enthusiasm for embracing the tourism sector as a catalyst for employment growth, there have been only infrequent scholarly forays into the world of tourism and hospitality work' (Rogerson, 2012a, p. 37). Further, the analysis disclosed that 'beyond a scatter of investigations, the nature of tourism work in sub-Saharan Africa is *terra incognita*' (Rogerson, 2012a, p. 38). Against this backdrop the objective in this discussion is to revisit the current place of employment issues and of tourism work in an examination of research around specifically sustainable tourism. The geographical focus is, however, narrowed with the discussion confined to research on South Africa, one of the Africa's most advanced and mature tourism destinations (Rogerson & Rogerson, 2018).

Methodologically, this is a review article which in many ways represents a reflection and extension of a number of other recent surveys undertaken about tourism research on South Africa, albeit with a specific focus here on questions surrounding sustainable tourism. The task at hand is to provide a synthesis of key themes that emerge in the extant literature on sustainable tourism in South Africa and within that scholarship to identify relevant studies which address employment issues as a whole and the content of work in particular. The time period under scrutiny is the post-2000 years to 2017 during which time arguably there has been accelerating interest in sustainable tourism as part of a surge of tourism writings on South Africa as a whole. Specific attention is given to published articles in academic journals rather than to book chapters or 'grey' literature.

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4.2 Locating Sustainable Tourism Research on South Africa

Under apartheid South Africa was a pariah in the international tourism economy and the actual volume of tourism research was minimal (Rogerson & Visser, 2004). With democratic transition in 1994 and South Africa's re-entry into the international community of nations, tourism's role in the economy and its importance for policymakers were strengthened greatly (Rogerson, 2002a). Correspondingly post-1994 there has been a marked upturn in tourism research in the country such that tourism emerges as one of the 'growth poles' in local social science scholarship (Visser & Hoogendoorn, 2011). Within that expanding body of tourism scholarship, questions pertaining to sustainable tourism have become highly prominent and a mainstream focus for many South African tourism researchers.

As a context and starting point it is useful to reflect on where South African scholarship on sustainable tourism is available. At the outset, by scanning trends in academic publishing on tourism in South Africa across the past two decades it is evident that there are only a handful of research outputs which appear in what are usually viewed as the four blue chip or 'premier league' of international tourism journals. South African scholarship on sustainable tourism has not been represented since 2000 in the *Journal of Travel Research* and only minimally so in *Tourism Management* or *Annals of Tourism Research* (e.g. Frey & George, 2010; Lucrezi, Saayman, & van der Merwe, 2015; Saayman, Krugell, & Saayman, 2016). The only exception among the group of top tier tourism journals is the *Journal of Sustainable Tourism* which has published several important and highly relevant papers concerning sustainable tourism issues in South Africa (e.g. Fairer-Wessels, 2017; Rogerson, 2012b; Saayman & Saayman, 2006; Saayman & Saayman, 2017; Spenceley, 2005).

One has to search outside the leading tourism serials in order to source the mass of writings which interpret and debate sustainable tourism issues in South Africa. For the period 2000–2010, an analysis was undertaken by Rogerson and Rogerson (2011) of the contents of tourism research in the wider region of the Southern African Development Community (SADC). It showed that overwhelmingly most tourism research on the SADC was produced in and about South Africa. In addition, it revealed that the major segment of South African writings appears (at least until recently) in a cluster of interdisciplinary journals as opposed to dedicated tourism journals. The journal *Development Southern Africa,* which was initially found in the 1980s and linked to the Development Bank of Southern Africa (and now published by Taylor & Francis), is a rich source of articles on sustainable tourism particularly concerning the protected areas of rural South Africa (e.g. Mahony & Van Zyl, 2002; Spenceley, 2006; Strickland-Munro, Moore, & Freitag-Ronaldson, 2010). *Development Southern Africa* has produced a number of themed issues about tourism alongside publishing such material in its regular issues since 2000.[1] *Urban Forum,* initially founded in 1989 and published by Witwatersrand University Press (now

[1]Theme issues on tourism in *Development Southern Africa* appeared in 2002, 2007 and 2015.

by Springer), focuses on the challenges of urban development and management in the global South. Sustainability issues around urban tourism in South Africa feature prominently among the themes carried in that journal (e.g. Greenberg & Rogerson, 2015; Kaplan, 2004a; Rogerson & Sims, 2012).[2] Other interdisciplinary journals which are significant sources of published research on sustainable tourism are *Koedoe*, which promotes and contributes to the scientific and conservation practices of protected areas, and *Africa Insight,* an area studies journal with a wide canvas including tourism debates.

Arguably, the above four journals have hosted since 2000 a body of impactful literature on sustainable tourism in South Africa. This said, it should be recorded that a number of valuable themed collections on tourism in South Africa have been carried by a number of lower ranked tourism journals, most notably *Tourism Review International* and *Tourism—An International Interdisciplinary Journal*[3] and by journals which are dedicated to geographical scholarship. In particular, the two serials *GeoJournal* and the *South African Geographical Journal* merit special mention for the impact of the material that they have published on tourism in South Africa as a whole and sustainable tourism issues in particular.[4] Of growing significance also is the *Bulletin of Geography: Socio-Economic Series* which is produced by De Gruyter. Since 2011 this journal has been attracting a stream of useful contributions pertinent to sustainable tourism issues in South Africa (e.g. Giddy, Fitchett, & Hoogendoorn, 2017; Hoogendoorn, Grant, & Fitchett, 2016; McKay, 2014, 2017; Rogerson, 2014a, 2017; Rogerson & Rogerson, 2014). Overall, the special significance of geography journals reflects the enormous weight of the academic contributions made by human geographers to South African tourism studies during the post-2000 period (Visser, 2016a, 2016b; Visser & Hoogendoorn, 2011; Visser & Rogerson, 2004).

Finally, a new trend in the publishing of tourism research on South African has been established since 2010 beyond the period of analysis covered by Rogerson and Rogerson (2011). One observes in recent years for tourism research and sustainable tourism debates on South Africa that the volume of writings and published material has been boosted substantially by the appearance of two new journals. The (oddly titled) *African Journal for Physical, Health Education, Recreation and Dance* (AJPHERD) emerged as a growing outlet for tourism-linked research contributions, particularly since 2010 with the production of a number of dedicated themed tourism issues as well as tourism papers in regular issues (Rogerson & Rogerson, 2013). AJPHERD was re-titled as the *African Journal of Physical Activity and Health Sciences* in 2016 and re-launched under this new brand. Currently, one still finds tourism papers in this serial, albeit with its new branding it has reduced the relative output of tourism papers. Nevertheless, this downturn has been more than counterbalanced by

[2]Theme issues on urban tourism in Africa which contain articles addressing sustainability issues in South Africa appeared in 2004 and 2014.

[3]Theme issues on tourism in South Africa were published by *Tourism Review International* both in 2011 and 2017 and by *Tourism—An Interdisciplinary Journal* in 2016.

[4]Of special note are theme issues on tourism in South Africa published by *GeoJournal* in 2004 and *South African Geographical Journal* in 2015.

the escalating output of papers which are appearing in the *African Journal of Hospitality Tourism and Leisure* (AJHTL). This online journal (with an editor currently at University of Otago, New Zealand) represents a major (albeit low impact) outlet in terms of the volume of material on case study research including about sustainable tourism. Indeed, given that in its four issues (plus occasional special issues) a year AJHTL can publish up to 200 papers, arguably this serial is established now (early 2018) as the most accessible source of a large amount of tourism case study articles published on South Africa, including relevant material on sustainable tourism.

4.3 Themes in Sustainable Tourism Research on South Africa

From the above, it is clear that the flow of published tourism research concerning South Africa since 2000 has been expanding considerably. Useful insight is provided on the directions pursued in South African scholarship by the appearance of a number of 'state-of-the-art' review articles variously on tourism research as a whole or of tourism contributions made by geographers (Hoogendoorn & Rogerson, 2015; Rogerson & Rogerson, 2011; Visser, 2016a, 2016b; Visser & Hoogendoorn, 2011). This section draws upon and extends the findings of these earlier review works on tourism in South Africa by concentrating on the theme of sustainable tourism.[5] The argument is that across the mass of research publications relating to sustainable tourism in South Africa several key knowledge domains or sub-themes of scholarship can be isolated. This said, it is acknowledged that these knowledge domains around sustainable tourism in South Africa are not discreet but instead overlap in terms of their particular content and research foci.

Arguably, eight core knowledge domains are recognizable in terms of South African research which appears since 2000 concerning sustainable tourism (Fig. 4.1). These knowledge domains are focused on responsible tourism, pro-poor tourism, local economic development, small enterprise development, the tourism space economy, infrastructure, climate change, and tourism work. A brief sketch of seven of these knowledge domains now is provided in this section. In the last section, the focus falls on reviewing those studies that interrogate questions of sustainable tourism and work.

Arguably, responsible tourism is one of the largest sub-themes of research in sustainable tourism writings about South Africa. Responsible tourism emerged as an

[5]No comprehensive review of research on sustainable tourism in South Africa currently exists. Based upon a Google Scholar search it is estimated that since 2000 *at least* 300–400 relevant articles have been published which address different dimensions of sustainable tourism in South Africa. The scope of this chapter and space limitations allow here only a selective presentation of this literature to illustrate the nature of various themes which are represented in extant scholarship. The preparation of a comprehensive overview on sustainable tourism research on South Africa is merited.

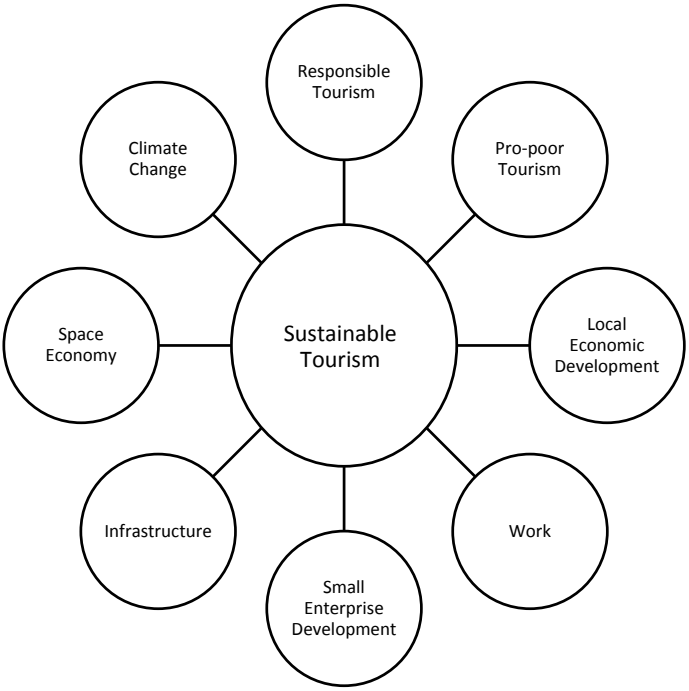

Fig. 4.1 Sustainable tourism research: knowledge domains in South Africa (*Source* Author)

early focus of South African sustainable tourism scholarship following the democratic transition in 1994. Incorporating economic, environmental and social imperatives linked to sustainable tourism debates the concept and aspirations of responsible tourism continue at the core of academic writings particularly concerning the country's protected areas and of nature-based tourism. Indeed, McCool and Spenceley (2014) isolate the challenges and opportunities of tourism development around protected areas as critical issues both for scholars and development practitioners. The growth of a corpus of South African debates and research concerning responsible tourism is inseparable from the development of tourism policy. In 1996, the national White Paper on Tourism, one of the first policy statements of the new democratic government, adopted the concept of responsible tourism as its organizational framework (Republic of South Africa, 1996). Subsequently a set of guidelines for responsible tourism have been produced (Republic of South Africa, 2012). Policy emphasis is on minimizing the adverse impacts of the environment and tourism on host communities, encouraging conservation practices, ensuring that tourism is economically sustainable, and that the social impacts of tourism for local communities are maximized (Frey & George, 2010; Spenceley, 2005, 2008). During the post-2010 period, new insights incorporated into debates about responsible tourism extended to the role of innovation in tourism (Booyens & Rogerson, 2016).

The tourism-poverty nexus has been a prominent theme in international sustainable tourism literature. In particular, South African scholarship was catalysed by the emergence of writings about 'pro-poor tourism' (PPT) which involves maximizing net benefits to the poor from tourism development (Ashley, Boyd, & Goodwin, 2000). During the early 2000s, the burst of PPT debates in South Africa is inseparable from the fact that the country became the international laboratory for testing out the implementation of pro-poor tourism approaches as conceptualized by the United Kingdom Department for International Development and popularized by the writings of Carolyn Ashley, Harold Goodwin and Jonathan Mitchell. Further impetus to South African research on PPT was the 2002 World Summit on Sustainable Development held in Johannesburg and a global platform for the launch of PPT as a critical focus for international development agencies and national policymakers. Undoubtedly, the application of PPT approaches and debates about the extent to which they have exerted positive impacts for local poverty reduction acted as stimulus for an influential stream of sustainable tourism scholarship in South Africa (Hill, Nel, & Trotter, 2006; Pillay & Rogerson, 2013; Rogerson, 2006). Of significance is that while the initial South African writings were anchored upon the application of PPT to nature-based tourism, more recent debates have gravitated to include city environments by interrogating the application of PPT approaches into urban tourism including slum or township tourism (Rogerson, 2008).

In the global context, one of the most distinctive themes in sustainable tourism debates in South Africa concerns issues of local economic development (LED). Since 1998 LED promotion has been an integral part of the 'developmental state' mandate of local governments under the Constitution (Nel, 2001; Nel & Rogerson, 2005). South Africa has been applauded in the context of the global South in terms of its policy encouragement of initiatives for LED both for nurturing local growth and poverty alleviation (Nel & Rogerson, 2016a). In the post-apartheid period, LED has become a critical theme in development debates with responsibility devolved to the local level for the successful implementation of place-based economic development strategies (Rogerson, 2014b). Often local governments are lead actors in LED because of their policy mandate for developmental local government (Nel & Rogerson, 2016a). Within LED planning, as tourism promotion is a major focus for developing sustainable local economies it has galvanized research attention both in urban and rural environments (Nel & Rogerson, 2007; Ramukumba, Mmbengwa, Mwamayi, & Groenewald, 2012; Rogerson, 2002b, 2000c, 2000d, 2007a, 2016a; Rogerson & Rogerson, 2014; Rogerson & van der Merwe, 2016; van der Merwe, 2014; van der Merwe & Rogerson, 2013). Recently, a national audit was undertaken of the sectoral foci of LED strategies used by South African local authorities. It revealed 80 percent of the country's 278 local governments identify and are seeking to encourage tourism as a potential local economic driver (Nel & Rogerson, 2016b). This remarkable finding underscores the critical significance of the nexus of sustainable tourism and LED futures in South Africa. Among several issues raised in the burgeoning literature on LED and small town or rural tourism in the country is the imperative for strengthening local linkages from tourism establishments

through value chain development and support for local producer/suppliers (Mograbi & Rogerson, 2007; Rogerson, 2012b; Rylance & Spenceley, 2013).

Issues concerning the development of tourism infrastructure are at the foundation of building competitive tourism economies allowing destinations to move up the tourism destination pyramid with accompanying positive local impacts (Rogerson & Rogerson, 2018). A range of themes around tourism infrastructure can impact sustainable tourism development in South Africa. Among these are, *inter alia*, air transport access and efficiency, local road transportation for access to tourism assets, the availability of ICT infrastructure, questions of safety, security and health, and the building of an accommodation services sector for competitiveness.[6] In recent scholarship the major dimension of tourism infrastructure for sustainability that has received detailed scholarly attention is the upgrading and diversification of the country's accommodation infrastructure to match international quality standards (see eg Greenberg & Rogerson, 2015; Rogerson, 2010, 2011a, 2011b, 2013a, 2013b, 2013c).

Large corporates massively dominate the commanding heights of the economy of South Africa, including the country's tourism sector (Rogerson, 2005). Since democratic transition, however, a major policy focus from national government has been to support the small, medium and micro-enterprise (SMME) economy—and within that mostly of SMEs rather than micro- or informal enterprises (Rogerson, 2004). New support programmes have been instituted for support of tourism SMME upgrading, in particular, through the activities of the Tourism Enterprise Partnership (Rogerson, 2007b, 2008). The growth of a vibrant SMME economy is seen as a vital element for sustainable tourism in South Africa (Matsiliza, 2017). However, with the domination of the SMME economy—particularly bed and breakfasts, guest houses and backpacker accommodation—by White entrepreneurs much government attention is directed towards incorporating Black South African entrepreneurs into the tourism mainstream (Ramukumba et al., 2012). A suite of government support measures are offered to uplift emerging Black entrepreneurs, particularly in urban townships and rural areas (Ramukumba, 2017; Rogerson, 2008). Upgrading initiatives include business advice and training, (limited) financial support and, most recently, the establishment of business incubators to sustain emerging Black tourism entrepreneurs (Rogerson, 2017a). Rebalancing of South Africa's tourism economy through SMME upgrading and of associated issues concerning the disadvantaged position of Black entrepreneurs is therefore a rising focus of sustainable tourism research in contemporary South Africa.

Another dimension of sustainable tourism literature relates to the geography of tourism. It is evident the benefits of South Africa's tourism economy post-2000 have not been distributed equally in spatial terms (Rogerson, 2014c; Visser, 2007). The geographical unevenness of tourism has been exacerbated by the marketing undertaken by South African Tourism which has done little to redirect international tourism flows to the less well-visited spaces of the country (Rogerson, 2017b; Visser, 2003;

[6]In several analyses, human resource development for the tourism industry is also viewed as a component of tourism infrastructure. In this discussion, the theme of human resource development in tourism is treated as part of the emerging knowledge domain of tourism and work.

Visser & Hoogendoorn, 2012). The tourism space economy evidences a markedly uneven geographical pattern which is problematic for national policymakers concerned to address wider spatial inequalities and under-development in South Africa's economically disadvantaged areas (Rogerson & Nel, 2016). Despite South Africa's links with nature-based tourism and viewing the 'big 5' in rural wilderness surrounds the major benefits of tourism concentrate in the country's major metropolitan hubs with Cape Town and Johannesburg overwhelmingly the leading centres for tourism spend (McKelly, van Huysteen, Maritz, & Ngidi, 2017; Rogerson & Rogerson, 2017). Of greatest concern is the relatively modest developmental impact of tourism for the country's under-developed (mostly rural) and marginalized areas—the distressed regions (Rogerson, 2014c, 2015). Within sustainable tourism debates the stark unevenness of the tourism space economy is a stimulus for academic writing especially by geographers.

The question of climate change is perhaps the most pressing in South African sustainable tourism scholarship. Climate change is a critical factor impacting both the existing and future patterns of beneficiaries of tourism in the country as well as LED futures (Rogerson, 2016b). South Africa is one of the most vulnerable parts of the world in terms of projected climate change with its negative impacts and threats to the country's biodiversity. Currently, the observed temperature changes for this region are higher than those increases indicated for other world regions with projections for a 3.4C increase in annual temperature if comparing the period 1980–1999 with 2080–2099. Over the past 50 years Ziervogel et al. (2014) show mean annual temperatures climbed by at least 1.5 times global average and extreme rainfall events expanded in frequency. Climate scientists project overall drying across the region of southern Africa; increased rainfall variability; a delay in the onset of the rainy season with an early cessation in many areas and increased incidence and/or severity of extreme weather events such as floods, droughts, intense hot spells and fires—all with implications for biodiversity, tourism futures and for greening the accommodation sector (Ismail & Rogerson, 2016; Mbasera, du Plessis, Saayman, & Kruger, 2017; Ramukumba & Ferreira, 2017; Rogerson & Sims, 2012). The impacts of climate change are most dramatically manifest in Cape Town, South Africa's iconic destination for long-haul international travellers. During 2017–2018 the city of Cape Town experienced its worst drought for a century with severe water restrictions, including for the city's accommodation sector, and the terrible prospect of the city running dry of water by April 2018. The implications of climate change for sustainable tourism represent a vital research frontier and a consolidating knowledge domain for South African scholars engaged with sustainable tourism (Hoogendoorn et al., 2016; Pandy, 2017).

4.4 Sustainable Tourism Research: Finding a Place for Work and the Workplace

In international research, the most common focus around tourism and work relates to the employment creation potential of tourism development, most especially under conditions of economic restructuring (Ioannides & Zampoukos, 2018). This observation can be applied equally to describe the state of sustainable tourism research in South Africa. Indeed, it can be argued that in all the above-identified seven knowledge domains surrounding local sustainable tourism scholarship there is an underlying concern for employment issues most especially in respect of job creation or, in some instances, of threats to tourism job creation. This said, while there is an implicit concern for tourism employment in South African sustainable tourism research, at least until very recently there has been little explicit focus on issues of tourism employment and the workplace. The several review papers undertaken on South African tourism research by Visser and Hoogendoorn (2011), Rogerson and Rogerson (2011), Hoogendoorn and Rogerson (2015) and Visser (2016a, b) collectively identify only a handful of works which have tourism employment and work as an explicit focus. For example, in the overview of tourism research in SADC for the period 2000–2010 employment was not identified as one of 24 research themes that were profiled (Rogerson & Rogerson, 2011). Likewise, in Visser and Hoogendoorn's (2011) overview of current paths on South African tourism 184 publications are cited—not one article has the words 'employment' or 'work' in the title.

The absence of a direct focus on employment or the workforce in tourism is thus a striking aspect of South African scholarship on sustainable tourism. Until as late as 2013 the extant literature can best be styled as spotty and includes contributions from a range of disciplines. In two useful works, Kaplan (2004a, 2004b) highlights the importance of skills for the wider PPT impacts of tourism in township areas and the need for capacity building for skilling in tourism work. Maumbe and van Wyk (2008) assessed the employment situation in Cape Town's lodging sector, identifying existing types of jobs and skill requirements, determined the career aspirations of workers and skills development issues for the city's accommodation services sector. Further, Naude, Kruger, and Saayman (2013) investigated in a comparative investigation the quality of life of front office employees at a hotel group and a casino resort to provide insight into the labour force in South Africa's hospitality sector.

Since 2014 there is reflected a small upturn of interest in the context of sustainable tourism and the workplace. Employee skills development in tourism has been investigated by Kokt and Strydom (2014) and by Zwane, Du Plessis, and Slabbert (2014). Employee training for the tourism and hospitality sector of KwaZulu-Natal has come under scrutiny by Mzimela and Chikandiwa (2017). In Cape Town, issues of employee retention in the hotel sector have been examined (Ezeuduji & Mbane, 2017). Questions about decent work in the South African tourism industry are critically explored by De Beer, Rogerson, and Rogerson (2014) for the tour guide sector highlighting long working hours and the contract nature of most work in tour guiding. The absence of decent work and poor working conditions of migrant workers from

Mozambique, Malawi and Zimbabwe engaged in the South African hospitality sector are exposed by two recent studies (Jinnah & Cazarin, 2015; Vettori, 2017). These reveal the extent of casualization, outsourcing and precarious work with over half of hotel staff contracted through independent service providers (Jinnah & Cazarin, 2015). Vettori (2017, p. 1) stresses that despite South Africa's progressive Constitution that provides for rights to fair labour practices as well as progressive labour legislation, migrant workers are severely prejudiced and endure exploitation by unethical employers. Underpinning factors are that migrant workers in the hospitality sector do not qualify as employees in terms of legislation and thus do not enjoy legal protection; the lack of unionization of migrants working in often remote locations; the minimal capacity of South Africa's Department of Labour to enforce workers' rights and the special vulnerability of illegal immigrants vis-à-vis employers (Vettori, 2017).

Finally, the small fly-fishing town of Dullstroom provides the canvas for two relevant studies produced by Butler (2017) and Butler and Rogerson (2016). A total of 46 interviews were undertaken with tourism employees of accommodation lodges to reveal that most employee competencies and skills were gained through informal training by employers. Long periods of employment in tourism were associated not only with improved skills for employment in higher grade tourism jobs but also enhanced linguistic and literary skills. Formally acquired skills were supported by employers for select employees. The growth of tourism in the small town of Dullstroom was associated with capacity building opportunities which were highly valued by local community members (Butler, 2017). The interviews disclosed that economic gains from tourism employment were not necessarily the most important benefits as employees described that for the first time in their lives they considered they were embarking on *careers* as opposed to a succession of limited short-term employment opportunities. This realization fostered an even greater social impact, namely, that of local community empowerment through tourism. Overall, the rich interviews undertaken about tourism work and the workplace in Dullstroom disclose that sustainable tourism can be a vehicle for a pathway of 'inclusive tourism' (Butler & Rogerson, 2016).

4.5 Conclusion

As confirmed recently in international reviews produced by Baum, Kralj, Robinson, and Solnet (2016) and by Ioannides and Zampoukos (2018), issues surrounding tourism and hospitality work and workers have tended to be largely overlooked in mainstream tourism scholarship. In addition, these authors document that the limited research excursions into such issues mainly are focused in the global North. It is against this backdrop that this chapter examined the place of tourism work and the workplace within the mushrooming literature on sustainable tourism in South Africa. It is evident that much research and writing about sustainable tourism in the country have taken its cue from national policies towards, for example, fostering responsible tourism, building local economies and upgrading the status of SMMEs. Arguably,

the extant literature on sustainable tourism can be mapped out in terms of a set of overlapping knowledge domains. Of the eight identified knowledge domains the weakest and most minimally established is that pertaining to tourism work and the workplace. This said, welcome signs of an awakening interest in tourism work can be discerned since 2014 with the emergence of a small trickle of exploratory studies.

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Chapter 5
A View from the Top: Hotel HR Directors' Perspectives of Sustainable HRM in Nigeria

Belinda Nwosu and Kemi Ogunyemi

5.1 Overview

Sub-Saharan Africa remains one of the two largest markets for hotel investments in the world today (W Hospitality Group, 2017). Despite the positive growth indices, there is a consensus among stakeholders of the lack of a human capital pool to grow and develop the industry in a sustainable manner (Nwosu & Ward, 2016). In effect, as it stands today, there is, in terms of numbers and quality, a gap between the demand–supply–retention dynamic of human resources needed to sustain the current hotel developments in any meaningful manner.

Drawing from the Brundtland Report[1] definition, by sustainable, we refer to the long-term outlook that will be of benefit not only to hotel investors but to the people, communities and the environment within which the organization operates. Sustainability and the management of the human resource for hotel developments within a specific sub-Saharan context form the bedrock for the ensuing discussions.

Having worked in developing human capital in the hospitality sector for over 15 years, the authors had observed how HRM played a critical role in shaping the long-term impacts of human resource availability within this sector. The concern to explore these questions from a sustainable HRM perspective became rather pertinent given the recurring imbalances between the quality and number of hotel investments and the quality and number of human resources in the sector.

[1] c.f. The International Institute for Sustainable Development, https://www.iisd.org.

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According to Armstrong (2014), HRM research has historically focused on employee management processes and outcomes, moved on to the study of HR practices and systems on firm-level outcomes, and then with the entry of business strategy into the HRM literature led to the development of HR strategy or strategic human resource management (SHRM). Global HRM literature has addressed the relationship between HRM and a range of outcomes such as financial (e.g. Fulmer & Ployhart, 2013), competitive advantage (e.g. Delery & Roumpi, 2017), manager human capital (e.g. Garavan et al., 2016) and also employee outcomes (e.g. Wright, Dunford, & Snell, 2001). African literature is less easy to find (Okpara &Wynn, 2008) but what little there is has also focused on some of these areas.

With the outbreak of business scandals that greatly affected the society and the environment and had far-reaching consequences across the globe, many people, including human resource management scholars, began to question and reflect on the sustainability of some existing business practices, especially those that focused more on the financial benefits to firms (Kramer, 2014). A new approach to HRM research that goes beyond SHRM emerged as sustainable human resource management (sustainable HRM). HRM practices are now being conceptualized in extant scholarly work not only as optimizing internal organizational profit goals but also as impacting internal stakeholders (employees) and external stakeholders (the society and the environment) (ibid). Thus, HRM practices are considered to affect sustainable development in its three dimensions—the social (people), the economic (profit) and the environmental (planet). A sustainable business is therefore one that will operate profitably while also supporting the well-being, goals and aspirations of its stakeholders both within the organization (employees) and outside the organization (communities). Included in this framework as well is the wider physical environment which business activities impact on in a positive manner.

Thus, the focus of HRM has shifted from that of squeezing as much as possible out of people to that of developing them and enabling them to flourish (Renwick, Redman & Maguire, 2012) while research in sustainable HRM has emerged from the need to understand how HRM contributes to sustainability in its dimensions. This is a discourse that takes on particular relevance when considering hospitality firms that operate in less developed economies with weak public institutions. Bearing in mind the global interest in promoting sustainable development, the authors of this chapter take a look at the Nigerian hospitality sector's HRM practices, and the extent to which they affect the first of the three dimensions of sustainability negatively or positively, while conscious that all three dimensions are interrelated.

5.2 Research Problem

There are two main issues regarding human resource management in the tourism and hospitality sector. The first relates to demand as it concerns what is sought in terms of knowledge, skills and abilities. Service excellence within the tourism and hospitality industry is inextricably linked to the quality of the human resource or people involved

in creating and delivering customer experiences (Moeller, 2010; Schneider & Bowen, 2010). Although several aspects of the consumer's experience have been taken over by technology, people-dependent operations are not easily dispensed with, as is the case with core hospitality, leisure and tourism services that are by definition, rooted in the personalized interaction between the consumer and the provider. To date, the human interaction remains the dominant paradigm (Davidson, McPhail, & Barry, 2011). Therefore, there is a need for people with the requisite knowledge, skills and abilities to deliver high-quality services and for sustainable HRM.

The second issue relates to supply which concerns the issues surrounding the development of these competencies from an organizational perspective in a specific context. Who are the people, what are their aspirations and motivations? What enabling conditions exist to facilitate the development of these competencies? Finally, how sustainable are these 'competency-creating systems' with regard to the people dimension of sustainability? According to Okpara and Wynn, some of the challenges facing the human resource management in Nigeria include 'tribalism, AIDS, bribery and corruption, and resistance to change' (2008, at p. 71). Others include line manager mindsets, organizational culture, talent development, recognition and environmental challenges such as a weak educational system and lack of infrastructure (Ovadje, 2015). To what extent is this reflected in the hospitality industry?

On closer examination of these questions, the issue of sustainability emerges clearly. This in effect means that current stock of knowledge, skills and abilities needs to be built and developed in order to meet the demands of the market. As will be seen in the following sections of this article, achieving this depends to a large extent on the systems in place for building human capital.

5.3 Methodology

This qualitative research was conceived as a preliminary study to obtain insights into the dominant themes that characterize HRM in the hotel sector in Nigeria. According to Creswell (2014), a qualitative study is shaped by the setting in which it takes place where the researcher, playing the dominant role, attempts to provide a meaningful, holistic and reflective account of participants' contributions to the question under study. This involves an inductive process of analysis to arrive at an emergent theme.

The authors' close interactions with hotel HR professionals over the years greatly facilitated access to this group as a source of data. On the part of the HR professionals, there was a tangible need to share experiences not only for the research but also in order to gain greater insight into how these experiences related to colleagues in similar situations. The sensitive nature of the information to be shared necessitated an explicit statement of confidentiality on the part of both the researcher and the participants, something that was facilitated by the long-term relationship that already existed between them.

A phenomenological-constructivist worldview informs this study as the aim was to elicit from participants their understanding of the human resource phenomenon in the hotel sector in Nigeria and to ascribe meanings to these responses. This is a perspective well suited to achieve the specific aims of the research (Bryman, 2015). The interpretations from this study, of what constitutes the human resource phenomenon, are therefore informed and shaped by a first-hand experience of the researcher with human resource concerns in the hotel sector, together with the detailed explanations given by the participants.

For the purpose of this research, the group interview method was adopted as it is considered to be an appropriate means for eliciting participant opinions about the described phenomenon (Creswell, 2014). A purposive sample of international hotel chains in Lagos was drawn. The main reason for choosing these hotels was that, being part of international hotel chains, it would be guaranteed that they would have robust HR departments with the requisite systems, policies and procedures in place, something that would therefore provide the depth of HR knowledge that would be useful to this research. Invitations were sent to seven certified hotel HR professionals in leadership positions, of which four responded positively. On further enquiry, scheduling challenges rather than a lack of interest made it impossible for the others to attend the session.

The interviewees were three HR Directors and one Training Manager. Each of the directors had at least two decades of experience in HR positions in several industries including manufacturing, logistics, breweries and hotels. Only one of them had spent all these years in hotel HR, while the others had 18 to 24 months' experience in hotel HR. The average size of all the participants' hotels is 190 rooms with an average of 300 employees per hotel. The interview was conducted in one of the participating hotels over a period of 3 hours. The interview was unstructured and consisted of a few open-ended questions to start proceedings and to prod or elicit more in-depth discussions on the topics raised. Some of these questions were 'Where are we now with regards to human resources in the hotel sector in Nigeria? 'With regard to sustainable HRM, how do you keep the people with you?' and 'Does middle management have a role to play in all this?'. An audio recording of the interviews was used and notes were also taken during the interview. Due to unforeseen circumstances, one of the HR Directors arrived towards the end of the interview and contributed minimally but concurred with the discussions.

5.4 Results and Discussion

A transcript of the recording was prepared and a first review of the transcript allowed for a general understanding of what the data contained. A second review involved hand coding the data on a spreadsheet by identifying preliminary headings and grouping like ideas under each of these headings. The coded data was then reviewed for a final time and grouped under identified themes. Eight key themes emerged from the data as shown in Table 5.1. A description of each of the themes follows in the subsequent paragraphs.

Table 5.1 Emerging Themes for Sustainable HRM in Nigeria

Hotel HR directors' perspectives of sustainable HRM in Nigeria: Emerging themes
Career/Job
Employment benefits
Training and development
Talent recruitment and retention
Diversity and inclusion
Work–life balance
Organizational climate
Management role

5.5 Career/Job

One of the earliest themes to emerge from the data relates to employees' perceptions of careers in the hotel sector. It is clear that the people entering into the hotel job market do not necessarily do so out of a choice.

> Whenever I carry out interviews with these guys, you realise that hospitality for them is not a first choice career. It is a job. If hospitality comes along, no problem, I will take it. For a whole lot of people, that has been it… what am I going to do with hospitality? *Taiwo, HR Director, Rex Hotel*.

The rate of unemployment in Nigeria currently sits at 18.8 per cent,[2] which means that there is a demand for available jobs. Entry-level positions into hospitality tend to be easier to get into due to the nature of the tasks, and oftentimes due to the need for extra hands to meet immediate operational needs.

> This is one industry where you always have a job. In my 23-year career, I have never been out of a job. There is a lot of job security in this industry. Unlike many other industries. Many of my juniors do not have a job. When a recession strikes, in other industries that means jobs are going to go. But in hospitality, people always need to eat or to travel. Hospitality is a never dying industry. Salaries may fluctuate, but you always have a job. *Adamu, HR Director, Mar Hotel*.

This reinforces the point that employment in the industry, at least at the entry point, is motivated by necessity rather than choice.

> ... a stepping stone to stave off hunger *Taiwo, HR Director, Rex Hotel*.

A person driven by desperation will function at levels different from a person who is not. According to Maslow's hierarchy of needs, the most fundamental of these—a means of sustenance (a job … *any* job)—will take precedence over a person's desire for higher but less essential needs, say building a career. It follows therefore that the concept of career building will be found more in those who have attained a level of fulfilment where the basics have been addressed and who can now aspire to higher

[2]Source: National Bureau of Statistics (NBS) 2017, www.nigerianstat.gov.ng.

goals. As it appears, the transition among employees from a job mindset to a career mindset cannot be assumed. Without knowledge and awareness of the nature, scope and opportunities for building a hospitality career, the status quo will be perpetuated in the minds of people within the industry. This has implications for developing a career mindset, even with people who have worked many years in the industry.

Nonetheless, as hotel developments in Nigeria continue to expand, there is now heightened visibility of hospitality and its potential as an economic sector. The entry by international brands has helped to reinforce this perception. For instance, having a Marriott or Hilton hotel in a country lends legitimacy to an industry that has struggled with poor perception as a result of sub-standard hotel accommodation for a long time.

> But I think that with the recent entry of the big brands into the country, people are beginning to see that they could actually make a career out of hospitality. *Taiwo, HR Director, Rex Hotel*.

5.6 Employee Benefits

Besides improving perceptions of careers in hospitality, the international hotel brands have in turn raised the bar when it comes to employment benefits. For instance, the fact of offering higher salaries and better job security than most industries has not gone unnoticed by employees.

> Our room attendants at entry-level take $138 (N50, 000) for basic and on average another $138 (N50, 000) for service charge every month. *Adamu, HR Director, Mar Hotel*.
>
> I will say that currently, hospitality is one of the highest paying industries in the country, because when you look at what service charge comes with … add that to their salaries, it is becomes quite attractive when you compare it to what other industries are paying graduates. And I can comfortably tell you that salaries of people who occupy roles as stewards, porters, housekeepers, on the average in my hotel are looking at $280–330 (N100k–N300k) monthly as take home. *Taiwo, HR Director, Rex Hotel*.

Apart from pay, other benefits like the provision of employee meals and transportation to and from work are some of the factors that make hospitality attractive to those who know about it. As previously mentioned, even though the entry intention may have influenced the decision to enter the industry, once inside, the reality of receiving employment benefits over and above the norm would be an incentive to remain in this employment. It is a point worthy of mention that this phenomenon is not the norm across industry, it is the international hotel brands that have the financial capabilities to provide these benefits.

5.7 Training and Development Opportunities

Another theme that emerged was that of training and development (T&D) opportunities and the dynamics that play out in this space. Within the context of the international brands, there exist several resources for personal and professional development, from brand-specific trainings to wider developmental interventions. As one director put it, training and development is essential because there is a general lack of skills in the job market, both at the entry level and even for middle management:

> When I came in, I realised it is very difficult to find entry-level staff who are qualified. In other regions, you will find hospitality graduates applying for these jobs and who only require a few weeks of on-the- job training to fit in. So there was a gap here, these people were not to be found. Even with middle management, it was a big challenge finding them…one of the biggest challenges. *Adamu, HR Director, Mar Hotel.*

One interesting point made was the 'hunger for training' that several entry-level employees exhibited when provided with opportunities for self-development.

> It Is almost as if … if I don't get trained, I will not progress. The people want to be trained! Munachi, *Training Manager, Mar Hotel*.
>
> I have found this behaviour very unique in Nigeria. This hunger for training. I have worked in the Middle East for many years with people of different nationalities. There was a lot less enthusiasm for training than what I have experienced here. I don't know, probably because they feel they know everything there is to know, I don't know. But here, they want to be trained. Maybe they see it as a way of travelling abroad and earning more. … probably that the chains could help them grow their knowledge and move elsewhere. *Adamu, HR Director, Mar Hotel*.

In some cases, this enthusiasm for training extends to the point of personal sacrifice on the part of employees. For instance,

> Some of our stewards will work overtime in order to learn new skills in the kitchen. They want to learn and grow and don't mind putting in extra hours without pay. *Adamu, HR Director, Mar Hotel*.
>
> To show you how dedicated they are, some are willing to come in on their off-days and ask for the training. It is getting the HODs to agree with this (that is a challenge). *Munachi, Training Manager, Mar Hotel*.

This desire for knowledge is not limited to the entry-level employees only but also for those in middle management and above. Well-structured development programmes provide an opportunity for career progression, especially in the case of hotel chains. According to one HR director, this has been a pull factor in the recruitment and selection process, offering candidates the possibility of a clearly defined career path during the time in employment. In addition, millennials entering employment expect to see what options are available to them, something that HR needs to bring to the table at the initial stages during the recruitment process.

> Millennials come in here and intend to stay for 2 years only. So, communication is very important … this is the plan we have for you, this is what we want you to do and achieve within the time you are here. Then they are gone! And sometimes they tell you they are leaving via a WhatsApp message! *Munachi, Training Manager, Mar Hotel*.

What is interesting too is the marked difference between the enthusiasm shown for training and development when made available locally than when it is deployed offshore. The possibility of international travel emerges as an important incentive for motivating employees to participate in training and development programmes, rather than the actual content of training.

> There are certain brand specific trainings particularly for middle management, and they find the possibility of going on offshore trainings very attractive. And I use this as one of my selling points when I conduct interviews and negotiate salaries. This is a big catch for many of them. *Taiwo, HR Director, Rex Hotel.*

Despite these positive attitudes towards T&D, a common experience is the lack of employee participation in in-house trainings when made available. As mentioned previously, hotel chains develop (or purchase) cutting-edge training resources that employees can take advantage of while on-the-job. Usually, these are online resources that can be accessed at the employee's convenience and are available on dedicated workstations in designated areas of the hotel. It was observed that one main reason for the poor uptake in the training is 'a lack of time'.

> One of the issues we had was not being able to fulfil our training plans. It got disturbing because we pay for some very expensive software. People were not coming in to take the courses. I am sure, if they all did, we would be running a seamless operation where there would be no issues. *Taiwo, HR Director, Rex Hotel.*
>
> The thing is, they just do not prioritise training because they claim they don't have time and that they are busy! *Munachi, Training Manager, Mar Hotel.*

As a general consensus, this apparent paradox between the level of enthusiasm among employees and actual participation at trainings has its origin in the heads of department (HODs or managers). In one case, this was made apparent by the surge in participation numbers after an enforcement initiative was adopted:

> You know what we did? We slammed them (HODs) with training KPIs. Every month, it is expected that X number of staff must have completed X number of training hours. You should have seen how they chased their staff about to get those training hours logged in. And we noticed a difference in the quality of operations. *Taiwo, HR Director, Rex Hotel.*

According to the managers, and as was highlighted above, the reason for the reluctance to sign off team members for training is the 'lack of time'. No doubt, there is a lot of pressure on managers to meet operational targets and balance the needs of their staff. The question remains how to balance the needs of both. This situation is captured succinctly in what may be described as a catch-22 situation:

> The HODs are concerned about service quality delivery but don't link it to the fact that this person needs to be trained. *Munachi, Training Manager, Mar Hotel.*
>
> And these are HODs who have been in the industry for so many years and who know the value of the training. They were also trained! *Adamu, HR Director, Mar Hotel.*

In some cases, it reaches a point when employees mount pressure on their managers to ensure their names make the shortlist.

> When we put out an announcement for trainings and ask for names from the HODs, the staff come to us (without their HOD's knowledge) and ask if their names could be included, that they want to be in that training. We invariably have to go to the GM to talk to the HODs to put them on the training…there is a limit to how much influence we have over our colleagues' decisions. *Adamu, HR Director, Mar Hotel.*

5.8 Talent Recruitment and Retention

As suggested earlier, finding qualified people presents a significant challenge in the sector. The search for talent is compounded by the fact that a robust system that supplies, grows and develops talent is lacking in this environment. What usually pertains in environments where longer traditions of hotel provision have existed, there is a pool of entry-level people with a modicum of hospitality-related training from which to draw from. These might be from a variety of training centres, trade schools, colleges and even universities that offer related courses. Invariably, as the chain develops, these entry-level employees grow into managerial positions and some on to senior management. This model of talent development is at a very basic stage in Nigeria. The lack of top-quality institutions offering hospitality courses truncates the process of development even before it begins. Employers are forced to develop this talent in-house which adds to the strain of meeting guest needs as these arise.

> But overall, for me, I think that there is a lack of talent within the industry and HR has to start to look how to develop the people in-house. *Taiwo, HR Director, Rex Hotel.*

As part of the effort to contribute to the development of a talent pool, partnerships with existing hospitality institutions through internship opportunities have been developed.

> We have a 'catch them young' strategy through our internship programmes. I think with this in place we will soon start to see hospitality as an industry like other industries. We need to step up to the plate. *Taiwo, HR Director, Rex Hotel.*

What is more, in order to better prepare these interns for a seamless transition into full time employment, there have been initiatives to roll back the partnerships to include the industry-relevant content into the curricula.

> We need a lot more hospitality schools. We are working with a hospitality college to see how to provide opportunities for their students in my property, and also include a lot of branded content into the curriculum. Something that will help prepare them better for a seamless transition into our hotel at the end of their studies…Furthermore, the long-term plan is to get people from these colleges who would eventually be managers. *Adamu, HR Director, Mar Hotel.*

5.9 Diversity and Inclusion

In the area of employment diversity in the international hotel chains studied, there is an imbalance when it comes to locals in general management positions and females in management positions. Out of 40 international brand hotels in Nigeria, there is currently only one local general manager the first in the history of branded hotels in Nigeria. The need for greater diversity and more local development has been recognized.

> We do not have enough African GMs, but how do you get them if you don't catch them young? For instance, my company has a management trainee programme that should begin to include Nigerian trainees (there are none currently). It would be good that KPAs are defined for properties to have one or two sign-ups for this programme. Definitely, you are not going to have people from other countries but Nigerians from local colleges and developed in this very extensive programme. Within 5 years, an entry level trainee on the programme can be a department head. *Adamu, HR Director, Mar Hotel*.

> A lot of hotels are going to look in this direction, having African department heads. Our hotel group was looking to have at least five indigenous GMs by 2017. This has yet to be achieved. I also have a KPA that says I must have three females in my team of department heads, a target for all HR directors in Africa. But unfortunately for me, I have only two. This is a big issue we are facing, with the gender imbalance in the industry. *Taiwo, HR Director, Rex Hotel*.

5.10 Work–Life Balance

The nature of hotel operations normally results in longer working hours on weekends and typical festive seasons. All this has an impact on the ability to effectively balance both personal, social and professional life. This is, however, not only an issue for female employees for whom longer hours make career progression more of a challenge.

> I didn't mind to work long hours at the start of my career. But as I have grown and progressed, now with a family, I need to spend more hours at home. Probably this is why we find less women working in the industry… because of the hours. *Adamu, HR Director, Mar Hotel*.

5.11 Organizational Climate

In the course of the discussion, it became clear that organizational climate is an important contributor to HR outcomes in an organization, as it helps to ascertain what employees feel, their concerns about their supervisors, co-workers, their tasks and the general environment. Climate surveys are considered a very important tool in HR for defining targets for performance improvement especially where aggregate scores are

very low. Emerging sub-themes under organizational climate were intimidation and harassment of employees by managers (climate of intimidation), the prevalence of workplace envy (climate of envy) and the lack of trust between co-workers (climate of distrust).

Intimidation and harassment typically manifest as an abuse of power or in sexual harassment.

> We have a lot of people (shop floor) who are not from hospitality and need to be guided. For them, they are doing their best within the knowledge that they have, then you come and bash them on top of that, it can be demoralising. *Munachi, Training Manager, Mar Hotel.*

There are also trust issues between employees themselves and also between management and employees. These have emerged as a result of the lack of ethical behaviours that are prevalent in the internal and external environment in which organizations operate in Nigeria.

> How do we know you are telling the truth? There are a lot of devious practices which make it difficult when a legitimate problem arises…The drawback to this is that in the bid to curb fraud, both teamwork and the initiative needed to address guest needs are curtailed …. *Taiwo, HR Director, Rex Hotel.*

The need to balance control and trust remains a thorny issue that needs to be addressed.

Workplace envy, another issue identified as the unhealthy concern about the progress of co-workers, is manifested in some employees becoming agitated by the content of what was meant to be a confidential communication.

> As management, we noticed this and developed strategies to deal with it, for example, when we give out letters of promotion, appointment, salary increments, etc.…there is always a clause stating that this review is for you alone and should not be discussed with anyone…you have no reason to look into another person's letter. *Taiwo, HR Director, Rex Hotel.*

The rationale for this behaviour is complex, and as one respondent alluded to 'a certain mentality':

> I think that it is not understanding your own focus, or seeing where you are going. A lot of people don't know where they are going. They are busy looking at what other people are doing. And the lack of self-confidence as well…what do you have to bring to the table? That's another thing. So rather than focusing on their own journey, they look at someone else 's journey and try to sabotage that. Rather than focus on theirs, they lose track. I think that is part of the mentality. *Munachi, Training Manager, Mar Hotel.*

Some remedies were proffered to what appears to be a deeply ingrained workplace attitude. For instance, by defining personal objectives and targets for each employee and remaining in constant communication about the employee's performance while creating a more transparent reward process.

> So if we remind them constantly that they are not meeting up to the goals that they set for themselves, there will be no surprises at the performance appraisal when they see that their colleague has received the promotion … But HR won't have time to deal with this and will have to drive this through the HODs. *Adamu, HR Director, Mar Hotel.*

5.12 Management Role

This brings up the other concern about the role of the managers in achieving people management goals that fall out of their immediate operational goals. It appears that this forms one of the root causes for the miscommunication between employees, managers and HR. Performance goals need to be set, monitored and evaluated, and this requires coaching.

> Managers need to develop in their coaching role. They are with the people and know their needs. They too have an HR role to play which is to develop the people under them. This isn't happening. *Adamu, HR Director, Mar Hotel.*

> Managers need to have a performance plan for each employee … HR should be engaged when it comes to rewards or interventions … But not all managers know what to do about this and we need to develop and guide them in this. *Taiwo, HR Director, Rex Hotel.*

It was suggested that in order to create a culture where managers are willing and ready to develop their team requires an intervention from senior management. A culture of training and development requires a top-down strategy. And unfortunately, the personal characteristics, abilities and attitudes of the managers themselves go a long way in determining whether this culture will consolidate or remain a possibility.

> My GM is very much driven with training and development. That is what I tell my team. We have an amazing person who is driven by developing and growing people. Without this top to bottom approach, it will not work. *Adamu, HR Director, Mar Hotel.*

> A lot depends on the kind of people you have in managerial positions. Our last chef, was a bad chef. Staff hated working with him. The new guy is a people's person ready to train and develop. One of our core principles is developing people from within to fill vacancies should they arise … The last chef during his time with us, never ever recommended anyone for promotion in two years. This new fellow has been here for 6 months and has promoted over ten people. He is moving his stewards to chef positions. Any vacancy, HR does not look outside now. *Taiwo, HR Director, Rex Hotel.*

Finally, the respondents agreed that the role of the HR in shaping the future of human resources in the industry goes beyond the traditional role of 'hire and fire'.

> Sometimes, when the HR appears, people scurry away but I tell them … what is wrong with you guys? Am I not the HR manager? I tell them not to do that. Now, they come to discuss things with me that ordinarily they wouldn't have. I believe when it's about relationship building, rapport. *Taiwo, HR Director, Rex Hotel.*

The changing role of HR in inspiring confidence in employees, in becoming facilitator, confidante and coach.

> You have to be on the shop floor, helping the people … you have the coordinators who do the nitty gritty for you. You have to be on the floor with the people, talking to them *Adamu, HR Director, Mar Hotel.*

What is more, the involvement of HR in the hotel development process has also been suggested. HR input at the design stage is needed if investors are to factor in some of the human issues that are critical for the employee's well-being and productivity.

> There are many issues with staff meals. And we found out that since we don't have a separate kitchen for guests and staff, sometimes operations disrupt things and staff are not given priority …. Now if at the design stage this was considered …. *Munachi, Training Manager, Mar Hotel*.

But for this there is an acknowledgment that not all HR professionals possess the capability to carry out this new strategic role.

> I think it is a general problem in the industry. HR practitioners in the hospitality industry are more operational than strategic. I don't lay the blame squarely at their door alone. I blame the system too because you might not have a supportive GM, or some organisational policies and procedures just get in the way. *Taiwo, HR Director, Rex Hotel*.

5.13 Interrelated Themes

Some of these emerging themes respond to basic justice and fairness concerns while others relate to care and people development and benevolence needs (Ogunyemi, 2014), see Table 5.2. It is clear from the data that the tourism and hospitality sector in Nigeria has gaps to fill at both justice and benevolent development levels and needs to embed care for people all through the system.

The themes at the level of justice are the provision of fair employee benefits, the avoidance of discrimination by ensuring diversity and inclusion, respecting the work–life balance of employees and ensuring that the workplace climate fosters flourishing. These are essential aspects of the responsibility of human resource managers who want to establish a system that is sustainable. However, even greater sustainability is achieved at the levels of care and development, where the HRM professionals, having ensured justice in the system, should be looking beyond that to find more ways to enhance HRM practices within the organization. At these levels, the organization goes beyond what is owed to their employees in strict justice to establish systems that enable them to grow and flourish as human beings. This in turn engenders deeper

Table 5.2 Sustainability Themes in Hotel HRM in Nigeria

Hotel HR directors' perspectives of sustainable HRM in Nigeria: Emerging themes	Concerns/Needs
Career/Job	Development
Employment benefits	Justice
Training and development	Care/Development
Talent recruitment and retention	Development
Diversity and inclusion	Justice
Work–life balance	Justice/Care
Organizational climate	Justice/Care
Management role	Development

levels of commitment from the employees and is therefore more sustainable for both parties.

Justice: When employees experience injustice (real or perceived), it affects their well-being and their engagement with the organization. An employee that believes s/he is not well paid may find it difficult to stay on with the organization or be loyal to it. HRM that seeks to be sustainable must therefore ensure that the remuneration and reward practices of the organization are fair and just. In the Nigerian hospitality industry, it appears that the pay and benefits in the international brands are very good but this is not always in the case in the rest who are the majority. It is to be hoped that this aspect of promoting a sustainable practice in the industry will gradually spread to the rest of the sector.

Attaining sustainability in HRM would also require practitioners to check that there is a healthy workplace climate (free from distrust, bullying, harassment, unsafe conditions, etc.) and that people are not discriminated against in recruitment and promotion. The lack of either of these would be an injustice and would affect the people and eventually the organization negatively. Thus, for example, the respondents indicated that an atmosphere of high control and low trust is bad for the organization. Unless someone has acted in such a way as to merit distrust, it would be unjust to deal with the person without trust since it would imply a slur (untrustworthiness) on the person. Even where someone betrays trust, if the person is to remain in the system and to work well with colleagues, establishing some means to regain a measure of restoration of trust might be beneficial.

Care: HR involvement at the design stage of hotel facilities and operations with a view to making work easier for the employees is a measure of how much interest the company has in its people beyond how much money they can make from them. Granted, some measures of care may lead to more profits as employees benefit from these HRM practices and work better. However, other aspects of care undertaken out of concern for the employees regardless of money-making possibilities balance a suspicion of being carefully exploited and may end up engendering a more sustainable HRM practice.

Development: If staff are not developed for their technical responsibilities or for management roles they occupy, then the ensuing skills gaps make them frustrated in trying to carry out their responsibilities and also creates an avoidable hardship for their subordinates. Development as it refers to the basic skills required for the job description is a matter of justice. Developing the person for higher roles, however, goes beyond justice and leads to greater sustainability in the system. It creates a win–win situation for the organization and its employees as it prepares people to step into roles that they do not occupy yet, helps them to understand their colleagues' roles and therefore work better with them or prepares them for their future careers beyond the organization. The hunger of employees for training, mentioned by our respondents, shows their realization that it is something good for them.

It is particularly important to systematically prepare people who are put in charge of other people. For example, respondents mentioned the need for training in coaching and mentoring skills and in the use of performance plans, etc. Gaps in these aspects of HRM affect the sustainability of the HRM practices of the organization, in general,

as well as the flourishing of the individual employees. This points to the deficiencies in the training and development system in the organization. If the system does not develop people for their roles, whether technical or managerial, the people will be unable to be their best in their jobs. The concern that employees once trained would leave is genuine. However, ensuring justice—fair compensation, etc.—could reduce this type of turnover and positively impact the career and job progress of the employees.

5.14 Conclusion and Future Research Directions

Emergent themes were identified followed by a discussion about the interrelationships among them discussed. Our findings show that issues related to justice and fairness, care and consideration, and people development based on benevolence dominate the practice of HRM in the hotel sector. If progress is to be made in increasing the quality of human capital within the sector, then these issues need to be addressed. By so doing, the sustainability of hotel developments can be enhanced through the impact of just, caring and benevolent practices on the people, on the communities that they live in and on the environment within which the organizations operate.

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Chapter 6
Tourism Innovation and Sustainability: Implications for Skills Development in South Africa

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6.1 Introduction

In view of the 'premature' de-industrialization of sub-Saharan economies in recent decades with manufacturing sector's share of their GDP (Gross Domestic Product) amounting to about 11%, it has been suggested that countries in the region should focus on services in their quest for growth (Joffe, 2017). In South Africa, the service sector has grown steadily since the mid-1990s and become a major generator of employment (Booyens, 2015). Services currently comprise approximately two-thirds of the South African economy, and also of employment, while traditional sectors such as agriculture, mining and manufacturing have contracted during the last few decades (Booyens, 2015; Joffe, 2017). Globally, tourism is a growing service sector which has expanded with international tourist arrivals breaking through the one billion barrier in 2013, and growing to 1.2 billion in 2016 (UNWTO, 2017). The South Africa tourism sector has also been performing well since democratic change in the mid-1990s with international arrivals reaching 10 million in 2016 (UNWTO, 2017). Tourism is recognized a growth sector and catalyst for job creation and poverty alleviation in South Africa as emphasized in the National Development Plan (The Presidency, 2012), among other macro-economic and tourism-specific policy documents. Innovation is pertinent in the South African context where it is observed that the tourism industry is maturing and increasingly becoming more competitive (Booyens & Rogerson, 2017). The global growth of tourism drives innovation in the sector as a result of increased competition due to the opening up of opportunities for new

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tourism products, services and markets (Hjalager, 2015; Zach et al., 2015). In accordance, innovation holds the key not only for the survival of tourism firms, but also for the performance and growth of tourist destinations in highly competitive, globalized tourism sector (Omerzel, 2016; Williams, 2014). Tourism enterprises, therefore, not only need to innovate to achieve economic competitiveness, but also introduce environmentally and socially responsible practices towards achieving sustainability (Baum et al., 2016; Omerzel, 2016; Saarinen, 2014).

This chapter interrogates human resource management *vis-à-vis* workforce competencies for innovation and skills development in tourism and hospitality. In the light of indications by tourism authors that knowledge acquisition, learning and skills development for innovation are generally under-researched in tourism (Baum, 2015; Hjalager, 2015; McPhee et al., 2016; Williams, 2014); the chapter endeavours to enhance the understanding of human capabilities for innovation in tourism and services more broadly. Research on tourism innovation in the Western Cape, one of the premier tourism regions in South Africa, reveals that innovation by tourism firms is widespread with the added caveat being that it is observed to be highly incremental in character (Booyens & Rogerson, 2016a, 2017). Pertinent to this chapter is the finding that innovation forms part of a deliberate strategy for competitiveness by dynamic tourism firms in the Western Cape and their innovation behaviour is closely associated with management competencies which includes leadership, strategic orientation and professionalism (Booyens, 2015) which correspond closely with tourism innovation studies done elsewhere (see Kearney et al., 2014; Martínez-López & Vargas-Sánchez, 2013; Nieves & Segarra-Ciprés, 2015). The Western Cape research underscore that innovation is driven by business owners and top managers who are highly professional in terms of financial management and technical knowledge. This chapter builds on the research outlined above by drawing on a national study in South Africa which investigated human resource issues and skills development in tourism. It responds to the questions: What is the state of human resource development in tourism in South Africa and what are the implications of this for the propensity to innovate. In accordance therefore, what policy prescripts are necessary to support greater innovation in the tourism industry. This study observes there are critical skills gaps in relation to financial, management and soft skills required for innovation. In addition, tourism small and medium enterprises (SMEs) particularly suffer from a lack of managerial-level competencies. These findings unpacked this chapter with an emphasis on analyses of educational levels, career mobility and management competencies of employees in tourism and hospitality firms. Recommendations for policy support pertaining to skills enhancement, considering sustainable human resource management in tourism, are offered accordingly. The chapter is organized as follows. Section two contextualizes drivers of innovation and innovation capabilities *vis-à-vis* the nature of work in tourism. Section three outlines the methods employed. The findings are presented in section four, and recommendations and a conclusion follow in section five.

6.2 Innovation and Work in Tourism

Technology, accompanied by changing patterns of travel and tourist consumption and demand, holds opportunities and poses threats for tourism firms (Baum, 2015; Hjalager, 2015; İplik et al., 2014). The rapid adoption and diffusion of information and communication technologies (ICTs) in tourism in recent decades are often associated with innovation in tourism (Hjalager, 2015; Pikkemaat et al., 2018). Tourism firms increasingly rely on ICTs for information management, reservation, marketing and operational purposes (Hjalager, 2010; Sørensen & Sundbo, 2014). Examples of ICT-based innovations in tourism include the use of various computing applications (or apps) and GPS (global positioning system) technologies for inter alia destination-based information, online accommodation and taxi services such as Airbnb and Uber, respectively sophisticated ICT-based management systems used by large hotel groups and transport providers such as airlines and social media and online booking platforms of various kinds, to name a few. Technological tourism innovation is often driven by technology-push factors whereby tourism firms typically respond to changes in the technological and market environments by adopting new technologies, rather than innovating new technologies themselves (Hjalager, 2010; İplik et al., 2014). In fact, innovation in tourism takes on various forms and is observed to be mostly non-technological as is the case in other service sectors (Booyens and Rogerson, 2016a; Fagerberg, 2013; Hjalager, 2015; Omerzel, 2016). Tourism firms are considered to be innovative with respect to sustainable tourism when they exhibit economically sustainable behaviour by introducing innovations or significant improvements to their products, processes or business practices in order to maintain their competitiveness and/or enhance their socially or environmentally sustainable practices (see Booyens & Rogerson, 2016b). While technical competencies are of critical importance for technological innovation typical in manufacturing firms, non-technological innovation such as organizational (or management) and marketing innovations prevalent in services (Fagerberg, 2013) arguably requires a specific set of skills as outlined below.

While authors point to the importance of networking and collaboration to facilitate learning and access external knowledge for innovation since service firms are often not knowledge-intensive, the significance of human capital with embedded tacit knowledge is underscored as a key input for innovation in tourism (Booyens & Rogerson, 2016a; Divisekera & Nguyen, 2018; Pikkemaat et al., 2018). Baum (2015) stresses that there is a need in tourism for highly skilled and creative persons to drive innovation. Alamu (2016) maintains that good human resource management should develop human capital to drive innovation. Indeed, management competencies emerge as a significant consideration for innovation in tourism (Kearney et al., 2014; Martínez-López & Vargas-Sánchez, 2013; Nieves & Segarra-Ciprés, 2015; Pikkemaat et al., 2018). Jensen (2001) maintains that all the processes through which employees learn need to be considered in order to develop competencies towards enhancing innovation, productivity, quality and competition in the tourism industry. Competence can be understood as an individual's capability to make full use of technical, personal and soft skills, and knowledge gained through qualifications,

in the business context based on the capacity of firms to engage, combine and use individual capabilities in a productive manner (Jensen, 2001). While formal skills can be acquired through education and training, individuals do need tacit (informal) skills and on-the-job experience to make use of the formal skills in the workplace (Jensen, 2001). In the African context, human resource development towards developing capabilities for innovation is pertinent since overall skill levels in tourism are observed to be low (Kaplan, 2004; Kraak, 2005; Maumbe & van Wyk, 2011; Mayaka & Akama, 2007). In particular, authors point to a need for capacity building in tourism on the managerial level in African countries like Kenya and South Africa (Booyens & Rogerson, 2017; Mayaka & Akama, 2007).

In order to innovate, tourism employees and entrepreneurs need to employ a particular strategic outlook and set of competencies. Innovation determinants such as strategic thinking and direction, leadership and entrepreneurial orientation, management capacity and professionalism impact positively on tourism-firm-level innovation performance (Čivre & Omerzel, 2015; Kearney et al., 2014; Martínez-López & Vargas-Sánchez, 2013; McPhee et al., 2016; Nieves & Segarra-Cipres, 2015; Omerzel, 2016; Pikkemaat et al., 2018). Larger tourism firms with extensive networks, foreign ownership and more resources (human and financial) at their disposal tend to have the upper hand in innovation and competitiveness (Booyens & Rogerson, 2017; Divisekera & Nguyen, 2018; Kearney et al., 2014; Pikkemaat et al., 2018). However, the majority of tourism establishments are small to very small—up to 90% of total tourism firms in certain countries (Rogerson, 2005). However, SMEs do not always aspire to grow and often exhibit a perceived lack of entrepreneurial spirit and rigorous professionalism, especially older lifestyle entrepreneurs who regard tourism simply as an additional income (see Baum, 2015; Rogerson, 2005). Younger lifestyle entrepreneurs also often suffer from low levels of entrepreneurial and innovation activity. While they are economically motivated, some are constrained by low levels of business skills and difficulties in accessing capital. It, therefore, is not surprising that Pikkemaat et al. (2018) found in a recent study that a lack of knowledge concerning managerial or business practices was one of the main barriers to innovation by tourism SMEs.

A paradox emerges when considering human resource competencies and innovation in tourism and the nature of the industry. On the one hand, managerial competencies are regarded as essential since innovation is knowledge-intensive and tourism is highly competitive as discussed. Therefore, the level of service excellence, managerial competencies and professionalism are key variables in achieving competitiveness. On the other hand, tourism sector is often regarded as a low knowledge-intensive sector lacking in professionalism, and the nature of work is characterized as low skilled and constrained by structural issues inhibiting upskilling, personal growth and upward career mobility as reiterated in the context of South Africa (Baum, 2015; De Beer et al., 2014; Kaplan, 2004; Kraak, 2005; Maumbe & van Wyk, 2011). This brings to light debates on decent work in tourism. Moreover, Baum (2015) points to sustained levels of unemployment in certain developing countries over the past decade since 2008, the raising under-employment with many market entrants being ‘over-qualified’ for available work, and the rising threat of deskilling in certain

work areas as a result of increased technology substitutions. Baum (2015) further highlights a number of changes in the tourism sector which have implications for work. Pertinent changes include changing consumer behaviour on the part of tourists which entails *inter alia* the impact of social media on decision-making, and a higher prevalence of independent travellers (i.e. not on package tours). This is related to changing patterns in tourism distribution via the use of ICTs, i.e. travel agents are circumvented since travellers can easily book directly with providers. As a result, there is a demand in the workplace for new skills and services in relation to use of ICTs and social media marketing, and language skills to accommodate new source markets. Additional issues are fluctuating economic conditions which lead to 'low-cost' offerings, typically by airlines and some accommodation establishments, and a growing awareness of environmental concerns within tourism (Baum, 2015; Baum et al., 2016; Saarinen, 2014). The changes outlined above result in job losses in tourism and intensified competitiveness which necessitates tourism firms to be innovative by offering new and improved services, more sustainable processes, enhanced organizational practices and creative ways to access markets and accordingly market themselves. Tourism authors point to the prerogative of public policy and role of government in effecting positive change with regard to human resource issues and skills development in tourism, in addition to enhancing sustainability, stimulating innovation and improving employment and working conditions in the sector particularly (Baum & Szivas, 2008; Booyens & Rogerson, 2016b; de Beer et al., 2014; Mayaka & Akama, 2007; Solnet et al., 2014).

6.3 Methods

This chapter draws findings from a Tourism Sector Skills Audit and 10-year Tourism Sector Human Resource Development Strategy for South Africa which was done for the National Department of Tourism. This broad-based research incorporated a variety of stakeholders and comprised a range of research inquiries which included qualitative (i.e. focus group and round table discussions with stakeholder groups, and key informant interviews) and quantitative (i.e. firms level, higher education, school educator and graduate surveys) instruments, in addition to the analysis of available secondary data (see HSRC, 2017a). This chapter presents data from the tourism workforce training needs assessment, i.e. the training needs analysis (TNA), one of the firm-level surveys. The TNA survey essentially was a skills audit of individual employees in a cross-section of tourism and hospitality enterprises. The assessment framework was largely derived from the Organising Framework of Occupations (OFO) as it provided a common basis across business entities in respect of occupations in the industry (DHET, 2012). The data collection mechanism was through an online survey, which produced data at both micro- (employees) and macro-levels (enterprise). A non-random quota-based sampling process was adopted with multi-layered stratification by firm size and sub-sector in the tourism industry. The realized sample was 136 firms with a total employee population of 10,918. A total of

2058 employees completed the skills audit. This sample size was fewer than the targeted 170 enterprises. It did, however, cover 27 critical occupations identified for the tourism industry and met the stratification criteria in terms of firm size and representation of firms in tourism and hospitality sub-sectors.

6.4 Findings

6.4.1 Tourism and Hospitality Workforce Education and Career Mobility

The educational attainment of tourism and hospitality employees is presented in Table 6.1. More than half of the sample (56%) falls within the group who have completed Grade 11 or a post-school diploma. Of employees, 28% have a Grade 10 equivalent or lower and 16% hold a Bachelor's degree or higher.

In addition, a pertinent finding of the broader study is that ABET (Adult Basic Education and Training) levels are particularly low in the tourism workforce, especially in elementary occupations (HSRC, 2017a).

An analysis was done to compare the year in which employees obtained their highest qualification with the year in which they entered the workforce. If the year that they received their qualification is more recent than the year that they entered the workforce, it implies that employees continued their education while working. Table 6.2 shows the proportion of employees, by occupational group, who continued their education after entering the workforce. It is apparent that more skilled occupations, i.e. managers and professionals have a much higher proportion of people who continued their education. A total of 32% of managers and 34% of professionals achieved their highest level of education after entering the workforce. The proportions of employees with continued education drop towards lower level occupations with only 7% of elementary occupations reporting continued education. It is proposed that the limited levels of continued education among tourism industry employees, especially

Table 6.1 Educational attainment of tourism and hospitality employees

Educational level	Number	%
Adult education and training (Up to Grade 8 equivalent)	228	11
NQF[a] 1, 2 (Grade 9–10 or equivalent)	349	17
NQF 3, 4, 5, 6 (Grade 11 to diploma or equivalent)	1,145	56
NQF 7, 8, 9, 10 (Bachelor's degree to doctorate)	335	16
Total	2,058	100

[a]NQF—National qualification framework (South Africa)
Source TNA, 2017

Table 6.2 Continued education by tourism and hospitality occupation

Occupation	Cont. Educ.	Not Cont.	Total	% Cont.
Managers	164	344	508	32
Professionals	92	175	267	34
Technical and associate professionals	34	122	156	22
Clerical support staff	94	404	498	19
Service and sales workers	43	299	342	13
Skilled craft and related trades workers	2	5	7	29
Plant and machine operators	1	12	13	8
Elementary occupations	15	186	201	7
Total	445	1547	1992	22

Source TNA, 2017

in the elementary occupations, are evidence of limitations in terms of career path opportunities.

Workforce experience was measured both in terms of total experience where respondents were asked to indicate the year that they entered the workforce and the years in their current post (Table 6.3). The years in the current post provide an indication of organizational knowledge and experience, and also of how mobile employees

Table 6.3 Tourism and hospitality workforce experience by occupation

Occupation	Number	Years since high. qual.	Experience (years)	Years in post	Experience factor
Managers	508	14.9	15.4	5.8	2.6
Professionals	267	16.4	17.8	10.2	1.7
Technical and associate professionals	156	14.0	13.2	6.7	2.0
Clerical support staff	498	12.4	10.6	5.2	2.0
Service and sales workers	342	19.7	15.0	9.4	1.6
Skilled craft and related trades workers	7	17.6	18.1	8.9	2.0
Plant and machine operators	13	23.5	19.5	6.5	3.0
Elementary occupations	201	22.8	17.5	12.1	1.4
Total	1,992	16.1	14.5	7.6	1.9

Source TNA, 2017

are. It is revealed that employees tend to remain in their posts for a fair amount of time which arguably enhances their experience and also performance. However, from a labour market point of view this points to a static workforce. A striking finding is that persons in lower or elementary, craft or sales occupations remain in their positions much longer than those in more senior positions. For instance, persons in elementary occupations remain 12.1 years in comparison to managers' 5.8 years. Experience factors, taking years of experience into account, were calculated. Higher factors point to higher mobility, while factors closer to 1 are indicative of limited career mobility. The experience factor of 1.4 for elementary occupations suggests that there are few opportunities for upward career mobility from this level.

6.4.2 Competencies of Tourism and Hospitality Managers

The TNA assessed the full sample of 2,058 employees against 20,023 tasks.[1] Overall, the findings indicate that employees are largely competent, but critical skills gaps are experienced in a number of areas in relation to specific tasks. Of all employees, 11% have a least one critical skills gap. These skills gaps are most prevalent in managerial occupations. Table 6.4 shows the identified technical skills gaps for managerial occupations.[2] Finance-related skills are identified as the most pronounced skills gap.

Soft skills were assessed similarly to technical skills. That is, each employee was asked to identify how proficient they were in a given skill, how important it was to their function and whether they required training with supervisors verifying the information provided. From the findings, soft skills emerge as a critical skills need across all sub-sectors and occupations.[3] Average soft skills ratings for managers are presented in Table 6.5. Employees and supervisors consistently rate the importance of soft skills higher than proficiency levels. When considering innovation capabilities, soft skills such as communication, leadership, networking, problem-solving and critical thinking, professionalism, service and customer orientation, and teamwork/collaboration all emerge as high in importance and low in proficiency. This said, it is noted that the average importance of soft skills is 4.1, while the training need is only 0.8. In the case of employee self-reported rates, the pattern is similar.

[1] Of these tasks, employees indicated that 2071 (10.3% of total tasks assessed) were not part of their function.

[2] Reservations and housekeeping managers are not included since their tasks and skills gaps are of a more practical nature and not directly relevant to the discussion in this paper.

[3] All employees were assessed on all skills, and it was up to the respondents to identify which were the important skills for their jobs.

Table 6.4 Identified skills gaps in tourism and hospitality managerial occupations

OFO codes and tasks	Number of respondents who do task	% self-rep[a]	% sup-rev[a]	% train need[b]	Sample: No. of firms
Corporate/General manager					**32**
Controlling expenditure and ensuring the efficient use of resources	29	17,2	0,0	41,4	32
Ensuring compliance with legislation, regulations and standards	27	18,5	7,4	44,4	32
Formulating and administering policy advice, strategic and financial planning	28	17,9	0,0	39,3	32
Overseeing the selection, training and performance of staff	26	15,4	0,0	34,6	32
Preparing budgets and overseeing financial operations	27	18,5	0,0	44,4	32
Office manager					**59**
Controlling administrative operations such as budget planning, report preparation and expenditure	56	16,1	3,6	57,1	59
Preparing, or arranging for the preparation of, reports, budgets and forecasts	53	22,6	5,7	56,6	59
Hotel/Motel manager					**30**
Assessing and reviewing customer satisfaction	27	18,5	3,7	44,4	30

(continued)

Table 6.4 (continued)

OFO codes and tasks	Number of respondents who do task	% self-rep[a]	% sup-rev[a]	% train need[b]	Sample: No. of firms
Controlling selection, training and supervision of staff	25	20,0	0,0	44,0	30
Controlling the selection, training and supervision of staff	26	15,4	0,0	42,3	30
Ensuring compliance with occupational health and safety regulations	27	19,5	3,9	37,7	30
Observing liquor, gaming, and other laws and regulations	18	22,2	5,6	50,0	30
Overseeing accounting and purchasing activities	25	20,0	0,0	44,0	30
Providing guests with local tourism information and arrangements	23	26,1	4,3	43,5	30
Supervising security arrangements, and garden and property maintenance	23	26,1	4,3	47,8	30
Undertaking budgeting for the establishment	24	33,3	12,5	41,7	30
Reception manager					**54**
Ensuring compliance with occupational health and safety regulations	49	26,4	7,8	42,6	54
Overseeing accounting and purchasing activities	37	21,6	5,4	56,8	54

(continued)

Table 6.4 (continued)

OFO codes and tasks	Number of respondents who do task	% self-rep[a]	% sup-rev[a]	% train need[b]	Sample: No. of firms
Undertaking budgeting for the establishment	35	48,6	20,0	62,9	54
Café (Licensed) or restaurant manager					**26**
Arranging the purchasing and pricing of goods according to budget	21	19,0	4,8	61,9	26
Ensuring compliance with occupational health and safety regulations	59	15,3	3,4	35,6	26
Maintaining records of stock levels and financial transactions	19	15,8	5,3	57,9	26
Negotiating arrangements with clients and suppliers	20	20,0	10,0	65,0	26
Planning menus in consultation with chefs and cooks	17	17,6	5,9	47,1	26

[a]Self-reported and supervisor reviewed skills needs are flagged on the basis of 'High Importance' (4/5) and 'Low Proficiency' (1/2)
[b]Identified training needs are based on either the supervisor or employee rating the training need as a 4 or a 5
Source TNA, 2017

Table 6.5 Average soft skill ratings for tourism and hospitality managers

Skills need	Employee			Supervisor		
	Prof.	Imp.	Train	Prof.	Imp.	Train
Accountability	3.0	3.5	0.5	3.5	4.2	0.5
Communication	2.9	3.6	0.9	3.4	4.3	1.0
Computer literacy	2.8	3.4	0.8	3.1	4.0	1.0
Enthusiasm and attitude	2.9	3.5	0.6	3.4	4.1	0.6
Initiative	2.9	3.4	0.6	3.3	4.0	0.7
Leadership	2.8	3.5	1.0	3.1	4.1	1.2
Networking	2.8	3.3	0.8	3.2	3.9	0.9
Problem-solving and critical thinking	2.8	3.5	0.9	3.2	4.2	1.2
Professionalism	3.0	3.6	0.5	3.5	4.2	0.5
Service and customer orientation	2.9	3.5	0.6	3.4	4.2	0.7
Strategic capability	2.8	3.4	0.9	3.2	4.1	1.0
Teamwork/Collaboration	2.9	3.4	0.6	3.4	4.0	0.7
Total	2.9	3.5	0.7	3.3	4.1	0.8

Legend: Prof—proficiency level; Imp—importance of the task; Train—need for training
Source TNA, 2017

6.5 Recommendations and Conclusion

Overall, the findings indicate that managers are largely competent in a range of skills assessed, but have pronounced needs for management, finance and particular soft skills. Even though not discussed in detail in this chapter, it should be pointed out that a secondary analysis of TEP (Tourism Enterprise Programme: a small enterprise development initiative) data, part of the broader study,[4] reveals that tourism SMEs suffer generic and financial management skills shortage (HSRC, 2017b). As a result, poor performance in terms of managing their finances and using various financial management tools is detected among SMEs.

The findings presented in this chapter make an important contribution to the tourism human resource development and management literature by revealing that the skills and management competencies required for innovation purposes are underdeveloped at managerial levels in tourism firms, including tourism SMEs, within the South African context. In addition, with regard to management skills essential in top positions, specific emphasis is on financial management and soft skills associated with innovation capabilities. Learning interventions emphasizing soft skills development are pertinent for tourism, as well as other service firms, to foster innovation. This recommendation corresponds with Baum (2015) who argues for a broad set of

[4]The use of TEP data necessitated by the general paucity of both primary and secondary data for tourism SMEs and because the TNA tended to capture responses from larger tourism firms.

skills in tourism beyond a fixation on technical skills and with authors who point to the need for non-technical or soft skills in the South African tourism and hospitality sector (Maumbe & van Wyk, 2011; Swart et al., 2014). However, the findings of this investigation suggest that soft skills training is undervalued since tourism firms appear to prefer technical skills training over soft skills training despite employees and supervisors alike rating particular soft skills such as communication, leadership, networking, problem-solving and critical thinking, professionalism, service and customer orientation, and teamwork/collaboration as being of high importance. At the same time, the proficiency levels of staff in these areas are regarded as relatively low. While the reason for the low training need for soft skills was not specifically interrogated, it is suggested that even though the importance of soft skills is acknowledged supervisors and employees may not be able to link skills training and management competencies with desired business outcomes such as innovation and competitiveness. In addition, the development of soft skills is typically difficult to achieve and measure or assess (see Swart et al., 2014).

From the perspective of human resource development in tourism, it is demonstrated that the vast majority of tourism and hospitality employers in lower occupations experience knowledge gaps and have low levels of formal education and skills training. It is argued that skills training with an emphasis on financial, management and soft skills is not only needed to ensure that managers enhance their innovation capabilities to drive competitiveness in the tourism industry, but also to upskill tourism and hospitality employees in lower skilled positions towards enhancing human resource development and sustainability in tourism by encouraging upward career mobility and decent jobs in tourism. While career mobility and the assurance of decent work in tourism are at best constrained, it is argued that 'government and its agencies can play a useful role in guiding policy and delivering programmes that act to enhance the quality and productivity of people in the delivery of products and services to guests within tourism' (Baum & Szivas, 2008: 794).

The need for a clear focus on employee development in various scales of tourism enterprises (see Pikkemaat et al., 2018) emerges as a key area for policy intervention. It is argued that targeted skills training, upskilling and linkages to external knowledge sources are important to enhance the learning and accordingly the knowledge base of tourism firms for innovation purposes (Booyens & Rogerson, 2016b). In addition, SMEs particularly need support in order to enhance their innovation performance and enhance their competitiveness since SMEs are important from a job creation perspective particularly in South Africa which relies on the tourism and other service sectors for growth and employment (see Joffe, 2017; Rogerson, 2005, 2018). Three areas for policy intervention are recommended.

1. Soft skills outcomes, embedded in most formal tourism and hospitality education and training programmes offered by universities and colleges and as part of government training interventions, need to be strengthened.
2. The creation of mentorship initiatives to support the enhancement of soft skills, as well as financial and management skills, to upskill and equip candidates with competencies for management positions is further recommended. Skills training

of this nature will typically be on-the-job training of a more informal nature. Tourism and hospitality industry associations are well placed to implement such programmes and place persons in employment after completion of programmes with funding and support from government agencies.

3. In order to enhance financial and management skills for top management positions, funding for persons who are in employment to access postgraduate courses in hospitality and tourism management at universities is proposed. More persons need to be trained and feasible funding models need to be investigated.

In conclusion, while tourism is regarded as a growth sector in South Africa which holds potential for employment creation, the sector is also regarded as one characterized by low-skilled employment and low wages. In order to enhance innovation in tourism, a specific set of skills is needed. This investigation reveals critical skills gaps in relation to financial, management and soft skills required for innovation across tourism and hospitality occupation levels and sub-sectors. In the view of sustainability, it is important to not only develop the financial and soft skills of persons in top management positions towards enhancing tourism innovation, but also of employees in lower occupation levels in order to foster upward career mobility and decent work in tourism.

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Chapter 7
Institutional Frameworks for Sustainable Human Resource Management in Events: A Kenyan Perspective

Lydia Akunja

7.1 Introduction

The importance of sustainable development was recognized with the release of 'Our Common Future', i.e. the Brundtland Report, in 1987, which defined sustainable development as 'development that meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs' (World Commission on Environment and Development 1987). This definition was the foundation for the United Nations Conference on Environment and Development in Rio in 1992, and for the World Summit on Sustainable Development in Johannesburg in 2002.

In January 2016, the sustainable development goals (SDGs) came into effect replacing the millennium development goals (MDGs). The 17 SDGs are set to become the main framework for environmental, economic and social development until 2030 (Lima, Kissinger, Visseren-Hamakers, Varela, & Gupta, 2017). These 17 SDGs are the United Nations 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development (2030 Agenda) intended to enhance sustainable development, globally. Lima et al. (2017) emphasize that the goals are intended to guide the global agenda for prosperity and human well-being until 2030. Similarly, the millennium development goals (MDGs) before them, the SDGs may stimulate global awareness, public pressure, political accountability and align development finance to measurable targets and indicators (Griggs et al., 2014; Poku & Whitman, 2011; Sachs, 2012). Therefore, it is envisaged that the SDGs will function as a scorecard for countries to measure their performance on sustainable development (Griggs et al., 2014; Sachs, 2012).

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7.2 Sustainability in Events, Institutional Frameworks and Human Resources

According to Van Niekerk (2017), fierce competition among destinations has necessitated reconsideration into the ways destinations are managed and promoted with integrated and professional approaches considered necessary if they are to be competitive. Events of all types provide an opportunity for destinations to differentiate themselves. Getz (2008) explains that, events as, 'a spatial temporal phenomenon, and each is unique because of interactions among the setting, people and management system-including design elements and the program'. Getz goes forward to elucidate the interesting side of events, since every event is created for a purpose, all events are diverse and only the attendees delight in the unique experience of the event.

Destinations compete to provide exceptional encounters and high-quality products for their visitors as suggested by Van Niekerk (2017). According to Roxas and Chadee (2013), events and festivals provide opportunities to create value for tourists in new and creative ways. As emphasized by Getz (2013), tourism destinations need to develop tourism portfolios that reinforce their brands and make the destinations appealing. Getz (1997) further comments that 'events are transient, and every event is a unique blending of its duration, setting, management, and people'. An event is an inimitable moment in time celebrated with ceremony and ritual to satisfy specific needs (Goldblatt, 2005a, 2005b).

Events are appreciated as significant tourism products in the fulfilment of strategic goals for businesses both in the long and short terms. This has necessitated emergence of the need of professional event management. Getz (2008) defines event management as an 'applied field of study and area of professional practice devoted to the design, production and management of planned events, encompassing festivals and other celebrations, entertainment, recreation, political and state, scientific, sport and arts events, those in the domain of business and corporate affairs (including meetings, conventions, fairs, and exhibitions), and those in the private domain (including rites of passage such as weddings and parties, and social events for affinity groups)'. It is important to note that sustainability in the management of events has become an increasingly popular area of interest among academics and professionals in recent years (Getz, 2007; Jones, 2010; Raj & Musgrave, 2009).

Sustainable event management is the convergence of sustainability with the project planning process of event management (Katzel, 2007). Stettler (2011) emphasizes that an event that is managed sustainably is one that creates awareness on sustainability dimensions and incorporates those in its design and decision-making throughout the event. Stettler further appreciates the evolving nature of events over the past two decades and its growing recognition in both national and international industries. Event coordinators increasingly seek to improve the sustainability credentials of events, and sustainable event discussion has become popular among the media and public (Laing & Frost, 2010). Sustainability practices are increasingly taking centre stage in all kinds of events. However, according to Stettler (2011) although sustainable event management continues to grow in popularity, achieving the sustainability

is still a work in progress as it is not yet common practice. Therefore, there is a need to identify strategies that will help event practitioners engage and improve sustainable event management nationally, regionally and globally. Nonetheless, and in the particular case of Kenya, it is identified that achieving sustainable event management is likely to be through legal and institutional frameworks.

Getz (2008) considers events to be a unique spatial temporal phenomenon, each time it occurs, given the distinct nature of each event. The interactions among the setting, people and management system including design elements and the programme will always vary as each is fashioned for a purpose. Events are planned for in phases; details depend on the event venue, scale, duration and planned activities. Any event will involve elements of each phase. Institutional frameworks are systems of formal laws, regulations and procedures, and informal conventions, customs and norms that shape socio-economic activities, interactions and behaviour. Strong and efficient institutional frameworks that respond comprehensibly and effectively to current and future challenges and effectively bridge the gaps in implementation of sustainable development are critical. Effective and efficient governance structures at local, subnational, national, regional and global levels that are representative of all are critical for achieving sustainable development.

According to Dyllick and Hockerts (2002), attention on social sustainability has gained increased importance and with the declaration of the Sustainable Development Goals, this importance is emphasized now more than ever. Although it is impossible to achieve sustainability without speaking about human beings, there exists a difference between focusing solely on the impact of human resource practices on an organization's sustainability and an appreciation of the human resources themselves. Individuals' impact on organizations and the achievement of their goals in the long and short terms are also worth considering. This focus is, however, very critical for organizations in the service industry where the human interaction is fundamental to delivery of service like in the case of events. According to the SDGs, the eighth goal emphasizes on the provision of decent work and economic growth. As such, it is expected that in embracing events, these will provide job opportunities and economic growth, which can be used to close the gap of widening inequalities in the growing labour force.

According to Kramar (2014), sustainable HRM are the social and human outcomes that contribute to the continuation of organizations in the long term, leading to sustainable organizations. It has also been viewed as HRM activities which enhance positive environmental social and human outcomes rather than as mediating factors between financial benefits and strategy (Kramar, 2014). Kramer (2014) further mentioned some interchangeable terms of sustainable HRM which comprise sustainable work systems (SWSs; Docherty, Forslin, Shani, & Kira, 2002), HR sustainability (Wirtenberg, Harmon, Russell, Fairfield, & Kent, 2007), sustainable management of HRs (Ehnert, 2006, 2009, 2011, 2012), sustainable leadership (Avery & Bergsteiner, 2010) and sustainable HRM (Mariappanadar 2003, 2012). Further, the term sustainable organization (Dunphy et al., 2007) has also been used. Arman (2017) argues that though these terms contrast in their extent to reconcile the goals of economic competitiveness, positive socio-ecological outcomes, they are all acknowledging either

directly or indirectly human and social outcomes of the organization, that is, the triple bottom line. According to the Ehnert (2006, 2012), a sustainable management viewpoint is necessary as it steers organizations towards an involvement with the environments in which they operate in order to have long-lasting access to competent human. The suggestions are twofold: (a) companies should reduce undesirable side effects of practices and strategies on the targeted resources and (b) establishments should safeguard the survival of their sources for resources of human resources with the competencies and motivations required. Sustainable HRM is economically viable for companies to invest in if the survival of their sources for resources is maintained (Ehnert, 2006). As proposed by Zaugg and Thom, sustainable HRM is viewed as long-term-oriented strategies and activities aimed at a socio-economic responsible and appropriate means of sourcing for staff and selection, human resource development, placement and release of employees. Sustainable HRM is inferred to as a cross-functional activity (Ehnert, 2006). Sustainable HRM could enhance employee self-worth in instances of staff reduction and justifying their employment in the job market (Zaugg & Thom, 2001). These benefits mentioned herein emphasize the need to appreciate human resources if events are to be sustainable in Kenya and globally.

7.3 The Events Industry in Kenya

Tourism is one of the major industries in the Kenyan economy. It is a major foreign exchange earner, creates investment and employment opportunities and enhances Kenya's cultural heritage. The Kenyan tourism industry for a long time has depended largely on natural attractions such as beaches, mountains, forests and scenic landscapes. Wildlife and culture are other main attractions for tourists (Kenya Association of Hotel Keepers and Caterers, KAHC, 2015). During the preparation of Kenya's Vision 2030, tourism was identified as one of the six key growth sectors of the economic pillar, and hence the sector was charged with the responsibility of making Kenya one of the preferred tourism destinations globally. It is on this basis that conference tourism and events were identified as key avenues for expanding Kenya's tourism products. However, the key component in the successful planning and execution of any event, mega or small, is the human resource and is excluded in the tourism blueprint.

In spite of the significant contribution of tourism to the Kenyan economy, the industry still grapples with several challenges including degradation of natural resources and wildlife, over-exploited product offerings in need of improvement and diversification, restrictive business environment with feeble institutional backup and a workforce with inadequate capacity to consistently deliver quality tourism experiences (World Bank, 2010). From the Economic Survey of 2012, Kenya netted KSh 92.9 Billion from the tourism industry in 2011 alone (Kenya National Bureau of Statistics, 2012). However sizable this earning is, it can be amplified and events are an opportunity for this. According to the Kenyan government, a strategy to combat the challenges the sector is facing and increase tourism earnings is the variation of

tourism products to include ecotourism, sports tourism and cultural tourism (GoK, 2008). In addition, entrepreneurs in the tourism industry can diversify their business interests by planning and hosting events (Goldblatt, 2005a, 2005b). Although the meetings, incentives, conventions and exhibitions are an addition to the renowned beach and safari products (GoK, 2007) offered by destination Kenya, socio-cultural events such as weddings, funerals and initiation ceremonies have long been celebrated by many tribes across the country (Sobania, 2003).

It is only in the recent past that professional organization of special events like weddings and funerals has become popular in Kenya. This is consistent with arguments put forth by Noella (2011). Beyond weddings, the Kenyan market today seeks professional planning and execution of funerals, cultural ceremonies like circumcision and traditional engagement ceremonies. Baby showers, bridal showers, birthdays and social family gatherings increasingly attract professional planners even in small scale. Beyond these, venue preparation, setting up of tents, preparation and presentation of foods and beverages, floral and décor services, sound services, lighting and even bakery services all form the already fragmented event sector in Kenya. The one constant variable in these activities is the human resource required to deliver the services and products offered by the various vendors. Marathons for charity and competitions are also popular in Kenya, political rallies as well as musical concerts and networking events are increasingly becoming popular. Examples include Rhino Charge, Rugby 7s, Blankets and Wines, Smirnoff Experience, among others.

7.4 Institutional Frameworks for Events in Kenya

Policy, legal and regulatory framework in relation to a particular industry encompasses the regime of law that regulates the said industry. These refer to the constitution, policies, statutes and regulations made within the statutes and the interrelationships among the documents. Institutions relate in various ways. A given institution might be rooted in a larger institutional framework of overarching principles and norms that encompass many different issue areas. Alternatively, it may be nested, in a tiered relationship, within a higher and usually less specific institution in the same issue area. It may find itself assembled with others in an institutional 'package'. It might overlap on a de facto basis with other institutions that target different issue areas. Or it may operate in contrast to other institutions targeting the same issue area that may have been created distinctly and have no formal relationship but still influence one another (Abbot & Snidal, 2006; Oberthür & Gehring, 2011a, 2011b; Young, 1996; Zelli, Gupta, & van Asselt, 2013). Either way, institutions impact the development and performance of other institutions at various phases of emergence and evolution. Such stages include but are not limited to institutional outputs (rules or other formal signs of compliance), outcomes (changes in human activities) and impacts (tangible changes in environmental quality or other ultimate goals of an institution) (Oberthür & Gehring, 2011a, 2011b; Underdal, 2008).

According to Tourism Regulatory Authority (TRA), the corporation is mandated to regulate tourism in Kenya, and events and entertainment remain an integral part of tourism not only in Kenya but globally. This has been amplified by events and entertainment tourism being a niche in the world today. The dynamic nature of the creative industry and advancement in technology has given rise to numerous forms of events and entertainment that are availed to the consumer. However, currently, the sector lacks documented checks and balances on the quality of events and entertainment on offer (Tourism Regulatory Authority, 2018). In Kenya, regulating the events and entertainment sector wholesomely has been a challenge due to the unique nature of the tourism industry. This has led to fragmented checks and balances. On this premise, the authority has developed the tourism, hospitality events and entertainment guidelines that attempt to amalgamate the scattered regulations stipulated in a raft of legislations for ease of direction, reference in doing business and quality service delivery (Tourism Regulatory Authority, 2018). In Kenya, tourism as an industry is regulated by various ministries and agencies with overlapping roles and institutions that cut across various other industries. For instance, the Constitution of Kenya 2010 that cuts across the board governing the country, Fisheries Act (Cap 378), The Environment Management and Coordination Act (EMCA 1999), Employment Act 2007, among many others.

Events of all types have the potential to create adverse consequences, both positive and negative (Mair, 2014). Therefore, it is necessary to structure guidelines in public and private sectors if the desired objectives of sustainability are to be achieved. Kenya's tourism offerings exhibit varying degrees of output and success. As mentioned, the Kenyan government has embarked on diversifying the product offerings and in this regard introduced ecotourism, sports tourism and the meetings, incentives, conferences and events (MICE) products. These are classified as under-utilized products that are not well marketed (GoK, 2008). This implies that the concept of sustainable event management let along its regulation and legislation is relatively a new area for policymakers and practitioners.

The role of central, county and sub-county governments in Kenya as well as private sector and civil societies further complicates the regulation of the sector. The established guideline which was developed in response to the rising need to regulate the events and entertainment sub-sector with a view to enhance quality of events and entertainment offered, customer satisfaction and ultimately contribute in achieving The Kenya Vision 2030 will go a long way in structuring the sector. In addition, the guidelines aim at streamlining entertainment activities for the sector to meet global events and entertainment standards for competitive advantage. However, it still lacks an appreciation of the human element which is a key component in event. The challenges for managing events sustainably call for an in-depth understanding of the existing frameworks and an interrogation of their level of support towards the sustainability agenda and specifically the human resource perspective. According to Hahn and Figge (2011), societies are not able to achieve sustainable development without organizational support. For further sustainable development, organizations need to adapt business sustainability, which means that corporate success is not defined solely by financial performance, but also in terms of social equity

and environmental integrity (Taylor, Osland & Egri, 2012). Therefore, a need for a clearly regulated event sector to appreciate the unique dynamics of events and their human resource needs is emphasized. As it is, the frameworks that exist offer a wide coverage of issues and are designed for broad applications in various engagement levels. The Employment Act 2007, for instance, spells out employer–employee relationships, rights of employees, conditions of work and regulation of employment of children. However, the role of volunteers and sponsors in events, the periodic nature of events and the unique nature of event service contracts are still not appreciated and yet these are fundamental for the success and sustainability of event businesses.

7.5 Chapter Summary

Beyond Kenya's beautiful beaches, renowned wildlife safaris and her rich cultural heritage, the event sector and meetings, incentives, conferences and conventions specifically have in the recent past offered a substantial contribution to the tourism earnings. Small-scale entrepreneurs have tapped into the sector to offer catering services and various elements associated with events like car hire, tent and chairs for hire, linen and décor services. A variety of events that were not thought much about previously are considered lucrative business at present times, for instance, baby showers and bridal showers, including services offered at funerals. These interactions, whether large, medium or small, require a team put together to execute effectively and therefore the need for a clear defined and sector-specific framework to set out guidelines for these engagements. The newly enacted Tourism Hospitality Events and Entertainment Guidelines will go a long way in providing a structured environment in which to manage events. Disappointingly, regulation of interactions of human resources in the sector has still not been considered. Therefore, this is a step in the right direction for Kenya to join global and regional players towards an almost ideal event sector. This will further build the existing literature on events in Kenya and open up new areas of research for scholars and industry players.

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Chapter 8
Hosting Mega Events in Africa: Fostering Sustainable Employment Initiatives Within the Host Community

Rutendo R. Musikavanhu

8.1 Introduction

This exploration adopts the position that the community of Green Point, located in the city of Cape Town, is made up of a collection of people that live in the same location and share some mutual qualities (Blackshaw, 2013). Green Point was host to the quarter and semi-final soccer games of the FIFA 2010 World Cup, the community mostly relies on tourism-related activities and is home to the Cape Town Stadium that was purpose built for the event (South African Tourism, 2016). Tourism initiatives, including the hosting of events, contribute considerably to local community development and also impart social benefits to the rest of South Africa (Saayman, 2012). As a result, hosting the FIFA 2010 World Cup promised positive social impacts such as employment and human capacity development for the host community of Green Point. According to the United Nations Development Programme (1997), human capacity development is defined as, 'the process by which individuals, groups, organisations, institutions, and societies develop their abilities—both individually and collectively—to set and achieve objectives, perform functions, solve problems and to develop the means and conditions required to enable this process'. In reference to Green Point, human capacity development is the community's ability to attract tourism activities such as mega events that have the capacity to engender beneficial social impacts, retaining and developing upon the positive outcome of employment opportunities amassed from hosting the event. Therefore, by recognizing mega events as tourism vehicles for sustainable development; it remains relevant to explore how the FIFA 2010 World Cup contributed to sustainability through the

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generation of suitable employment activities and skills that have continued to accommodate the different ways the community members of Green Point can support their society.

8.2 Current Considerations of the 17 Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs)

Over the years the United Nations has adopted a variety of approaches to address the issue of sustainability. For example, the United Nations Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) that reached dissolution in 2015, and recently the 17 Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) expected to be realized by 2030. Following the 2030 SDGs, the United Nations General Assembly nominated 2017 as the Year of Sustainable Tourism for Development, providing a space for tourism stakeholders, researchers and community members to come together and further develop legislation, policy regulation and policy administration (United Nations Division for Sustainable Development, 2015). Similarly, researchers have additionally identified a dearth in investigations that explore sustainable employment and human capacity development across tourism, within the African context (e.g. Binns & Nel, 2002; Rogerson, 2006; Saarinen & Rogerson, 2014). The various understandings thus far reveal the need to advance research that explores sustainable employment and human capacity development across tourism within the African context, towards realizing practical policies that fulfil the 2030 SDGs. As a result, prompting the current focus on exploring the capacity for tourism activities to generate lasting employment opportunities and growth in knowledge capability across Africa.

8.3 The Human Resource Management (HRM) Component of Tourism

Human Resource Management/HRM is understood to be the act of handling 'human capital or assets, including employee knowledge, skills, experience, ability, personality, internal and external relationships, attitudes, and behaviours' Kusluvan, Kusluvan, Ilhan, and Buyruk et al. (2010: 172). Baum (2006, 2012), Getz (2008), Lucas and Deery (2004), Nickson (2013), and Nieves and Quintana (2016) comparably claim, HRM takes into consideration policies and practices in the tourism industry to better understand human capacity and performance know-how. Owing to the collective understanding of HRM, there is continued need for application of innovative research methods that contribute towards a better understanding of sustainable HRM, aiming to benefit local African communities that are stakeholders of the tourism industry. Stakeholders are considered any group of people that can effect or be affected by the realization of any organization's strategies (Freeman, 1984; Friedman & Miles,

2002). The community of Green Point is considered a stakeholder of any tourism activities in their locale, in particular, the experience of the FIFA 2010 World Cup.

8.4 Appreciating the Tourism Aspect

Tourism is comprised of short-term movement of people to varied destinations for leisure and recreational intentions (Cruz, 2006). Growing and sustaining businesses in often challenging; however, this chapter acknowledges tourism as a vehicle that can help foster sustainable development practices in communities. Sustainable tourism development largely focuses on social, economic and environmental sustainability (Hall, 2011). The significance of tourism as an industry has over the years greatly contributed to global development and in 2016, surpassed $7.2 trillion global GDP (Kumar, Garg, & Sangaran, 2017). Tourism-related activities embody a huge segment of the world economy that is continuously growing, accounting for roughly 290 million jobs and generating on average 10.2% of Global GDP (World Travel and Tourism Council, 2017). Therefore, tourism can in turn encourage social benefits such as employment opportunities that increase prospects to innovate and nurture local skills towards meeting local development agendas. The continued pursuit of tourism activities in Green Point can secure the productive capacity required to efficiently support community development and meet ongoing growth objectives.

In the 1980s, research began to reflect on the evolving concerns about the negative impacts that tourism activities could engender within host communities, and in response to the concerns; the term sustainable tourism came to the forefront (Butler, 1989; Mowforth & Munt, 2015; Muller, 1994; Pigram & Wahab, 2005). According to Wheeler (2002), the idea of sustainable development remains the deepest of challenges in progressive thinking about tourism activities. This is witnessed in the continued consideration of policy practices to implement and ensure sustainable legacies of tourism activities such as mega events, e.g. the Olympic Movement's Agenda 21 and Agenda 2020 that seek to recognize and place priority on realizing sustainable development of sporting events (Forsyth, 2016; Gold & Gold, 2015; MacAloon, 2016). Despite this, the term sustainable tourism is still widely viewed as complicated and is difficult to define mostly because of the indefinite nature of tourism (Hall, 2012; Hanley, 2000; Hunter, 2012). Be that as it may, the term calls for a review before finding a common ground to inform this exploration's understanding of sustainability. According to the United Nations World Tourism Organisation (2005), sustainable tourism is 'tourism that takes full account of its current and future economic, social and environmental impacts, addressing the needs of visitors, the industry, and the environment and host communities'. In accordance with this view, Sharpley (2000) maintains sustainable tourism ought to be concerned with social development issues such as community well-being, quality of life and growth of the occupational sector and trade innovation. Likewise UNESCO (2010) suggests sustainable tourism takes account of 'tourism that respects both local people and the traveller, cultural heritage and the environment, it seeks to provide people with

an exciting and educational holiday that is also of benefit to the people of the host country'. Therefore, sustainable tourism can harness employment opportunities to develop human capacity within the community, achieving individual and communal advancement; fostering growth that encourages socio-economic activity and engendering equal benefits that can withstand changes to the society's way of life (Buckley 2012).

In view of these definitions, essential features of the term sustainable tourism appear to focus on motivating positive socio-economic, socio-environmental and socio-cultural impacts that foster sustainable development measures, conserving the community culture and the environment; in the long run improving community way of life. Nevertheless, it is important to recognize that sustainable in the context of this exploration is first and foremost defined in terms of the social legacy of mega events. Gratton and Preuss (2008) consider legacy the ability to leverage benefits that remain sustainable beyond the existence of the event. This exploration assumes sustainable tourism can be achieved through the generation of suitable employment initiatives that are maintainable in the present and for future generations, accommodating the different ways that the host community can support themselves; gaining new expertise and improving upon their skill set.

8.5 Context of Mega Events as a Tourism Activity

Mega events are viewed as a tourism activity that generates travel and attracts tourists for recreational and leisure purposes through involvement in festive celebrations (Wang & Pizam, 2011). Mega events are varied in nature and can take the form of sport events such as the FIFA World Cup, Olympic Games and Commonwealth Games; conversely, they are known to also take the form of world fairs, conventions and world expositions (Rose & Spiegel, 2011). Despite the counterclaim that mega events can engender negative social impacts such as short-term employment that causes disruption to social life (Lamberti, Noci, Guo, & Zhu et al., 2011); the effectiveness of mega events can be understood to foster development and create lasting employment opportunities among other social impacts (Mair & Whitford, 2013). Over the years, mega events have grown in popularity and they are increasingly acknowledged for their ability to motivate tourism growth in the host community, promising benefits and contributing towards social progression (Dimanche, 2003; Getz, 2008; Kim, Boo, & Kim et al., 2013). As a result, mega events have become defined by their significance and international appeal; they are known as one-time occurrences that have the capacity to generate lasting positive impacts that can benefit the host community (Roche, 2000). Host communities that seek to host mega events strive to realize employment opportunities that are long term and bring value that would otherwise be difficult to achieve, for instance, jobs that develop community skills and improve quality of life (Deccio & Baloglu, 2002; Malfas, Houlihan, & Theodoraki et al., 2004).

For instance, the Barcelona 1992 Olympics have long since been considered a good example of a host community that experienced positive social impacts. The event resulted in community regeneration that saw Barcelona's ranking change from 11 to 6th best city in Europe, furthermore, the local service industries experienced rehabilitation that witnessed unemployment fall from 127,774 (1986) to 60,885 (1992) of which 20,000 jobs have remained permanent (Taylor, 2012). In consequence, the Barcelona 1992 Olympics effectively developed the community's human capacity through producing lasting employability opportunities in the hospitality and service industry affixed to the local way of life—holiday businesses, beach tourism excursions, restaurant and leisure services (Taylor ibid). Nevertheless, views on sustainable tourism development are continually changing and the delivery of new approaches to address the issue is evidence for the growing importance of sustainability (Mowforth & Munt, 2015). In the context of mega events, the International Olympic Committee in 1996 introduced guidelines recommending sustainable social development processes for host communities to follow; similarly, FIFA introduced a sustainability report that details sustainability strategies (Chappelet, 2012; Hall, 2012). In that regard, this exploration pursues to further unravel and explore sustainable tourism in Africa, using first-hand community stories from the context of the FIFA 2010 World Cup hosted in South Africa.

8.6 South Africa's Ongoing Courting of Mega Events

Mega events have become attractive to developing nations because of their international reach that has the capacity to generate lasting impacts that can benefit the host community (Preuss, 2007). Tourism activities in developing countries offer the unique prospect to trade distinctive products and services that generate further opportunities for growth and diversification of the locale, in particular mega events festivities provide a stage to showcase the local way of life, attracting international audiences and in turn opportunities for development of tourism (Manyara & Jones, 2007; Mendez, 2010). Some developing nations see tourism activities as a development incentive that creates further job opportunities and grows and expands upon existing employment activities (Telfer & Sharpley, 2015). Similarly, South Africa views the chance to host mega events as an opportunity to showcase the distinct local culture and natural world, presenting the prospect of increasing employment avenues and growth in human capacity development (Saayman, 2012). Recent years have observed changes in international trends that influence the tourism sector; in particular the field of mega events has witnessed several mega events hosted in developing countries to attract social benefits and effect job creation (Matheson, 2012). The BRICS nations, a group of developing nations with sizeable populations, resources and growing economies has attempted to harness the potential of mega events for local development (Joy, 2013). Notably, China hosted the 2008 Beijing Olympics, South Africa the FIFA 2010 World Cup, India the 2010 Commonwealth Games, Russia the 2014 Sochi Winter Olympics and Brazil the 2014 FIFA World Cup and

2016 Rio Olympics; and all experienced a wide range of outcomes (Pop, Kanovici, Ghic, & Andrei et al., 2016).

The occasion for South Africa to host the 1995 Rugby World Cup, 2003 Cricket World Cup and FIFA 2010 World Cup was used to drive the progression of different employment opportunities found in tourism activities, encouraging local and international relations and attracting effective development projects to build the local human capacity (Cornelissen & Maennig, 2010). Considering the ascent of South Africa as a developing nation and its quest to host mega events, it remains of importance to understand how in the future, South Africa can harness the ability of mega events to further grow community skills and empower the host communities to meet their immediate and long-term development agendas. Nevertheless, Jago, Dwyer, Lipman, van Lill, and Vorster et al. (2010) identify that a relationship exists between public perception of the local image and the ability to draw effective tourism activities, suggesting a poor image poses a threat to the effectiveness of South Africa's quest to host mega events. Therefore it is noteworthy to acknowledge South Africa's social problems embedded in the racial, social and political segregation of the apartheid era. Apartheid limited South Africa's access to the international community and resulted in the nation being banned from partaking and hosting mega events until the realization of independence (Van Der Merwe, 2007). In the post-apartheid era, the new government launched The Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP) aimed at social redevelopment with use of tourism activities that could attract international exposure, reimage the nation and invite social growth (Dimanche, 2003).

South Africa has since been involved in several bids to host mega events; including the 1995 Rugby World Cup (successful), the 2003 Cricket World Cup (successful), the 2004 Cape Town Olympics (unsuccessful), 2006 FIFA World Cup (unsuccessful), FIFA 2010 World Cup (successful), the 2022 Commonwealth Games (forfeited) and the 2023 Rugby World Cup (unsuccessful) (McGeehan 2017; Megaw, 2017; Ndlovu, 2010). Despite the varied outcomes in the bids, hosting the 1995 Rugby World Cup enabled South Africa to experience a great variety of positive social impacts including international recognition and growth of the tourism sector, enabling social transformation and encouragement of human capacity development (Molloy & Chetty, 2015). As a result, motivating the nation to pursue bidding for the FIFA 2010 World Cup. The FIFA 2010 World Cup became known as 'Africa's time', 'Africa's moment', and 'Africa's turn' (Lebese, 2014). Hosting the 1995 Rugby World Cup, 2003 Cricket World Cup and FIFA 2010 World Cup resulted in significant tourism growth from 3.4 million tourists in 1993 to 13.5 million tourists by 2012, this growth has contributed R84.3 billion to the economy (Brand South Africa, 2017).

This in part influenced the agendas found in the recent National Development Plan (NDP) to be achieved by 2030. The 2030 NDP vision identifies 14 key pillars, among them, pillars 4 and 5 focus on realizing decent employment and a skilled and competent workforce that is equipped to meet the current and future societal needs (National Development Plan, 2016). For these reasons, it is clear tourism remains the most important and influential sector in the growth and development of communities across South Africa. Despite this, questions have long been asked about the sustainability of some of the outcomes, in particular the longevity of job

opportunities (Lamberti et al., 2011). There remains a great need for better practices and the uniform distribution of benefits that is all-inclusive and maintainable. Hosting mega events can ensue in either positive and or negative impacts, as a result there is a continued need to develop measures that ensure a sustainable legacy for the host community (Coakley & Souza, 2013). Therefore it is of great importance to understand and gain insight into how sustainable employment and human capacity development can be fostered across African communities.

8.7 Methodological Overview

This chapter supports the discourse of sustainable HRM for tourism in Africa through the contribution of narrative stories. Past studies similarly found it useful to investigate and uncover patterns in community perceptions; thoughts and opinions towards a deeper understanding into the area of social impacts of mega events (see Giulianotti, Armstrong, Hales, & Hobbs et al., 2015; Hughes, 2013; Sadd, 2012—investigations on the London 2012 Olympic Games). As previously identified, academics across the tourism field have undertaken to identify knowledge limitations and gaps in tourism employment across Africa; conceptualizing ideas to provide HRM best practice policies that encourage advancement in knowledge that is useful, yet sustainable (e.g. Baum et al., 2016; Cornelissen, 2017; Simpson, 2007; Woyo & Woyo, 2017). For instance, Woyo and Woyo (2017) believe sub-Saharan African countries should pursue sustainable tourism prospects that embrace indigenous, traditional and cultural distinctiveness of the community towards attaining social development and achieving global competitiveness within the tourism market. Therefore, it is possible to further realize human capacity development in Green Point and other African communities through hosting effective and worthy mega events that can effect growth of knowledge capabilities, unlocking competitive advantages that could be central to sustainable development.

The source of the sample composition concentrates on the community of Green Point that hosted the FIFA 2010 World Cup. The sample composition of 17 respondents was based on purposive sampling, and each respondent was chosen based on being a longstanding resident of the community with first-hand experience of the event. The stories were collected in Green Point in September 2016 and the discussions were recorded as a source of proof and to provide the researcher the opportunity to revisit data at later stages. To begin conversation, the researcher asked a single open-ended question following the unstructured nature of narratives stories. The broad approach enabled the researcher to ask a single question that encouraged the respondent to narrate stories concerning their subjective experience. The stories were recorded and transcribed. Field notes were made and transcribed as analytic research memos. However, due to the limitations of the chapter, only five accounts are represented and interpreted. This exploration follows narrative analysis to interpret the stories, providing insight into a selected few interpretations of meanings attached to then respondents' experiences of the FIFA 2010 World Cup.

8.7.1 Data Analysis

To understand social behaviour, and interpret meaning in the community members' experiences of the FIFA 2010 World Cup, the researcher followed systematic steps prescribed by Ritchie and Spencer (1994), this also ensured accuracy and trustworthiness of data. The approach helped to reduce, identify and define any major concepts, map data and create typologies by classifying and sorting attitudes, behaviours, and motives to identify key themes and patterns to understand how the FIFA 2010 World Cup as a sustainable tourism activity, influenced lasting employment opportunities and human capacity development for the community of Green Point. This exploration assumed an interpretivist approach because it acknowledges that people form personal and subjective meaning through interacting with the surrounding world. This approach was most suitable to interpret the community experiences of the FIFA 2010 World Cup and its influence towards Green Point realizing sustainable employment initiatives and human capacity development.

8.8 Discussion of Thematic Findings—Meaning of Employment Outcomes: A Green Point Perspective

The findings reveal the theme Meaning of Employment Outcomes: A Green Point Perspective. The findings are organized by this theme to articulate the respondents' perspectives of the employment and human capacity development outcomes individually experienced from the FIFA 2010 World Cup, helping enlighten different understandings of the influence the event had on realizing a legacy of sustainable employment initiatives in Green Point. The Literature discussed South Africa's ongoing pursuit of mega events as sustainable tourism activities that promise lasting employment opportunities, identifying Green Point's reliance on tourism-related activities for community development (Saayman, 2012). To this end, this theme interprets the respondents' viewpoints to understand the extent to which the experience of the FIFA 2010 World Cup engendered beneficial social impacts, retaining and developing upon the positive benefits of employment opportunities amassed. As a result, gaining insight into their subjective understandings of how the event engendered a sense of human capacity development in Green Point.

1. **Timothy's Story**

During the World Cup, Timothy worked for FIFA in the Information, Technology and Telecommunications division; the opportunity enabled him to acquire new skills enabling him to contribute to the community's realization of development goals.

> I was working there as a volunteer for FIFA in the Information, Technology and Telecommunications team… The experience was very good, I got to meet different kinds of people and work in different capacities within the IT sector. **Let's say this experience opened up doors for me, it gave me a certain kind of experience which I now use for my current job** and my previous job as well—Timothy.

Timothy's story suggests evaluative understanding that the FIFA 2010 World Cup presented him with the opportunity to grow in knowledge capability and develop his skill set through exposure and first-hand experience. The United Nations Development Programme (1997) describes human capacity development as the process by which people and or societies communally or individually advance their abilities to meet the relevant developmental agendas; previous research also identifies HRM as concerned with employee performance and the development of skills (Kusluvan et al., 2010; Nickson, 2013; Nieves & Quintana, 2016). Owing to this understanding, it is revealed Timothy felt that the experience of the event was empowering and from this extract, it can be understood the event generated positive social impacts that have contributed towards a legacy of sustainable employment skills. Timothy, a community member was able to develop his abilities to better perform functions, address problems and meet his society's development agendas. In Consequence, providing an effective example where human capacity development has been realized through hosting a mega event. Overall the story effortlessly lends itself to the idea of an effective World Cup.

2. **Mary's Story**

During the World Cup Mary established a private transportation business, and through this function, was able to develop her expertise and contribute service provision that attended to the community's transportation needs.

> After the World Cup, on the economic view it was good because **people got jobs**… **I remember I was running a taxi business during those days and it was good for me because we had extra cash in our pockets**… But um to be honest, **my business stopped after the event because there was a flood in the market because of competition**…The government would support the taxi businesses but we couldn't get much of the resources because of the competition—Mary.

Mary identifies that the event provided her with the opportunity to own a transportation business. Earlier, policies such as The Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP) are discussed, proposing use of tourism initiatives to attract social growth (National Development Plan, 2016). In this story, the experience of socio-economic growth as a result of hosting the World Cup is revealed. In addition to social growth, the RDP identifies the need to cultivate social services throughout the country, and although Mary reveals she was not able to retain her business beyond the duration of the event, she makes known the opportunity she had to contribute to the growth of transport services in her community. Therefore, it is revealed that the society of Green Point developed their abilities—both individually and collectively, attaining a sense of human capacity development and achieving the objective of cultivating the looked-for social services. However, Mary discloses that her new business was short-lived, suggesting it was not a sustainable outcome. Lamberti et al. (2011) identify that mega events can engender negative social impacts such as short-term employment that causes disruption to social life, and this is noted in this story. The revelation shows that a legacy of sustainable employment initiatives was not fully realized in Green Point, underscoring the need for sustainable measures

and policies that assist communities to generate suitable, employment initiatives that are maintainable and accommodate the different ways that they can support themselves. Nevertheless, Mary's story still uncovers that the World Cup had the capacity to develop human capacity, providing opportunities for social regeneration and improvement to quality of life in Green Point.

3. **Karoline's Story**

During the event Karoline established a Bed and Breakfast business; the opportunity created employment and enabled growth in her skill set, contributing to the community's progression in room availability and supply.

> **We never had a big B&B, it had been our house and it was quite a big house so we began to let out rooms** when our daughter moved out… we were just completely booked up in a couple of hours… After the event we carried on but **we also made a decision that it was a really big house… and scaled back, but we still have a spare room in our house and we Air BnB now** … so we still have it in us, that hosting thing, that spirit of hospitality—Karoline.

All through Karoline's narration, convincing themes of positive experiences and a sense of achievement are communicated; she has an unswerving sense of fulfilment that suggests hosting the World Cup was meaningful and brought development that had a significant impact to her quality of life. Sharpley (2000), the United Nations World Tourism Organization (2005) and UNESCO (2010) identify that sustainable tourism is concerned with social development issues such as community well-being, quality of life and growth of the work-related sector and skill innovation to address the needs of visitors, the industry and community. The outcome is demonstrated in this story; Karoline opened up a B&B and demonstrated the capacity to attract beneficial tourism. She reveals the B&B was later adapted to AirBnB accommodation.

Karoline shows the skill of business adaptation to suite the environment, she was able to retain the skills acquired, enabling her to continue to serve the community and enjoy the social benefits. Gratton and Preuss (2008) and Molloy and Chetty (2015) discuss the outcome of positive social impacts and this story illustrates that hosting the World Cup was a worthy initiative for Karoline, she acquired and developed upon her hospitality skills and gained practical experiences that have remained useful. According to Farbrother (2010) and Bialski (2012), the AirBnB model has contributed to expanding tourism, resulting in increased businesspersons as is demonstrated in Karoline's story. The development of AirBnB as part of the tourism sector has been applauded with contributing to the renewal of communities (Sans & Quaglieri 2016). This is shown in this story; emerging from the FIFA 2010 World Cup, Karoline's AirBnB is an example of a sustainable tourism activity that has generated lasting employment opportunities that continue to accommodate the different ways the community members such as Karoline can support themselves and their society.

4. **Brenda's Story**

During the World Cup Brenda setup a Kindergarten to look after children whose parents had secured jobs through the newly developed services around the World Cup activities. It was through this role she was able to perform the function of an educator, growing her skill set and providing needed services in the community.

> For some the World Cup raised the work standards and others continued to get better jobs. It was full of life the event, the trains would be full and the taxis, more buses were introduced and the local bus company especially in the low-density parts… **Business was boosted so much, especially for me**… more parents became employed during this period so that meant more children for me to look after and growth of my daycare due to demand. **The event really boosted my business**—Brenda.

In Brenda's story, the effective harnessing of positive social impacts is observed to increase human capacity development. Brenda's business experienced growth and her crèche created employment opportunities and also provided a place of education and recreation for the community's children. Briedenhann and Wickens (2004) discuss the outcome of positive social impacts, the ability to attract tourism can in turn encourage social benefits such as employment opportunities, increasing prospects to innovate and nurture local skills to meet local development agendas. From this extract, it can be understood that through hosting the World Cup, the community of Green Point effectively developed their public services, nurturing needed social skills as a means to achieve the goal of development and regeneration, thus attaining human capacity development from a collective perspective.

5. **Florence's Story**

Florence was a Waitress at a luxury Hotel located within the surrounding area of the Stadium, it is through this role she was able to grow her range in hospitality service abilities, in turn influencing the service standards offered in the establishment.

> **After the event we could see the boost**, it was very busy at work… So now, **since 2010 up to now there is a great change at work**…the customers now like our area more than before because it looks much nicer. I feel so good and I enjoy my job, **it feels more secure now. It is now ongoing**, and that place is ever busy and **I have security that I won't lose my job anyhow** because the place is always busy—Florence.

Florence reconstructs a setting where she makes sense of the insightful meaning she attached to the experience of hosting the FIFA 2010 World Cup and the social benefits that followed. The sense of Florence's story is organized in a way that uncovers the manner in which the event effected change in her workplace over the seven years since the event concluded. The term sustainable tourism focuses on stimulating positive socio-economic impacts that foster sustainable development measures, in the long run improving community way of life (Buckley, 2012; Forsyth, 2016; Gold & Gold, 2015). Here, Florence makes us know that a sense of social well-being has since been realized, and the work environment has improved, resulting in a sense of job security on a long-term basis. Hosting the World Cup has been a vehicle that has helped foster sustainable employment in Florence's workplace over the past seven years.

It appears the event contributed to sustainability through the generation of suitable employment activities that have continued to accommodate and benefit community members like Florence.

8.9 Conclusion

The stories offer insight into the extent that the FIFA 2010 World Cup realized lasting employment opportunities and growth in knowledge capacity for Green Point community. Storytelling enabled the in-depth exploration of the respondents' feelings and perceptions, narratively telling about their thoughts and the meanings that the experience held in their lives. The opportunity to host the FIFA 2010 World Cup, to a degree, enabled Green Point to build knowledge capacity and expertise that some of the community members have applied to the growth and development of the community, influencing sustainable changes in service provision, and effecting transformation to way of life. Some of the respondents' developed transferable skills that enabled a sustainable shift in community businesses (e.g. the shift to AirnBnB). This observation underscores what Lebese (2014) describes as the expectations for the World Cup—the event represented 'opportunity', it was 'Africa's time', 'Africa's moment', and 'Africa's turn'. The stories demonstrate that it is possible for human capacity development to be realized across African communities through hosting worthy and effective mega events that liberate local communities from relying on external aid. Despite some of the negative experiences, the development of useful, yet sustainable local services improved the community's quality of life and general welfare.

As noted in this case example, worthy mega events can result in a legacy of gainful employment opportunities for community members. Mega events such as the FIFA 2010 World Cup can produce a variety of positive social legacies that positively influence social life within the host community long after the event has concluded. Local governing bodies across South Africa's communities can continue to pursue mega events as developmental tools, and economic catalysts alongside their national policies for nation building and growth in social welfare. However, it remains important for governing bodies to implement best practice measures that can change and adapt to meet community needs over time. In addition, governing bodies need to remain aware of community expectations through engaging the community for their insightful experiences which reveal know-how and the various ways the community can support the event to help realize sustainable outcomes. It is also a matter of importance to distinguish the outcome of negative social impacts such as short-term employment opportunities and seasonality that affected social well-being in Green Point. The development of policies that inform best practice initiatives can help reduce negative outcomes, ensuring sustainable use of local resources and longevity of any beneficial opportunities experienced. In so doing, sustainable tourism practices can also be assimilated into the local way of life and shape all other activities taking place within the host community. In turn, the tourism practices can help inform means

to identify opportunities to grow local skills and prospects to trade local wares such as cultural artefacts that are unique to the community's heritage, in addition increasing exposure for the host destination and tourist footfall to the locations.

8.10 Recommendations

- Encouragement of tourism practices that engage and empower local communities to help identify sustainable employability opportunities that embrace local practices and way of life.
- Encouragement of sustainable tourism practices that stimulate entrepreneurship and better destination governance.
- Encourage raising skill levels among locals through partnerships with community members to best develop the local human capacity to achieve objectives, performing functions and solving community development problems together.

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Chapter 9
Is Grass Always Greener on the Other Side? Under-Employment of Kenyan Hotel Migrant Workers in the UK

Ann Ndiuini

9.1 Overview

There is evidence of increased human movement to both developing and advanced economies over the last few decades (IOM, 2013). Some of these are likely to be individuals who were pursuing sustainable way of life for themselves and their families, while others sought and continue to seek a return on their investment in cultural capital (education, skill and work experience). Labour migration, from a state's perspective is considered a means to solve labour shortage, whereas the migrating workers strive for a higher return on their cultural capital investment, consequently mobilizing their resources to migrate abroad. The workers perceive their mobility a course of action to enhance their livelihood. Countries in the West have an economic advantage over developing countries and as such attracting migrant labour is considered a magnet for the workers. This chapter focuses on one of the fastest-growing industries—the hospitality and in particular the hotel sector in the UK. For many decades the industry has continued to face labour shortages (Baum & Devine, 2007); however, it still experiences rapid growth as demonstrated by British Hospitality Association (2017), being the country's 4th largest industry employer with an estimated 4.5 million. In the past decade, there has been a significant presence of migrant labour, for instance, following the expansion of the EU in 2004, an influx of Eastern European workers (Janta & Ladkin, 2009; McDowell, Batnitzky, & Dyer, 2009) has been evidenced. The years between 2000 and 2008, saw the sponsorship of UK work permits as the primary route for non-EU nationals to the UK (Home Office, 2002), among them were Kenyan trained hotel workers. These hotel professionals are characterized by a distinctive hotel training to meet the labour shortage and skill demand of the hotel sector both locally and internationally. In the UK, the hotel industry is classified under low skills sector, as such one of the many challenges the industry faces is attracting

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well-qualified workers due to its ill-defined career paths and a general negative perception of jobs in the sector. Taking into account the nature of employment within the hotel sector in the UK, professional hotel migrant workers lived experiences are discussed, particularly the notion of under-employment. Therefore, the chapter aims at providing a clearer understanding of the workers socio-economic experiences in a contemporary society.

9.2 Introduction

The globalization of business activity and production systems has seen a rise in the free movement of capital, goods and people, particularly with mobility observed from countries characterized by developing economies to those typified by advanced economies. In recent times, studies have concentrated on the movement of people across borders as their movement has been regarded as a significant aspect of modern day life (Canzler, Kaufmann, & Kesselring, 2008; King & Skeldon, 2010). According to Jordan and Brown (2007), this pattern of human movement stems from the ease with which advanced economies have in attracting migrant labours given the context of labour shortages, ageing population and decreasing fertility rates (Al Ariss & Syed, 2011). This inevitably increases the demand for migrant labour in these countries.

A stronger and stable economy is likely to attract migrant workers in contrast to the weaker economy of a developing country. Nevertheless, scholars of economic migration acknowledge that international migration tends to be seen as a form of geographical mobility that potentially leads to other forms of mobility in wages or occupations (Chiswick, 1978; Borjas & Bratsberg, 1994; van Ham, 2001) and consequently, mostly related to forms of socio-economic advancement. Regularly, employers obtain an upper hand over the migrant workers who in most instances, seek to enhance their socio-economic position. However, instead of advancing their professional careers, migrant workers have often found themselves in the lower echelons on the skills spectrum, regularly demonstrated by de-skilling and the devaluation of their credentials. When skilled migrant workers' level of human capital (relatively higher education qualification alongside their work experience) is often overlooked that they end up in low-end jobs, they arguably experience 'occupational downgrading' (Brandi, 2001; Reitz, 2001; Liversage, 2009).

This chapter draws on a wider study which considered the lived experiences of 32 Kenyan hotel migrant workers in the UK hotel sector. Of the total participants, 16 had returned to their country of origin after a period of living and working in the UK. Modified life history interviews were conducted. Due to the wealth of detail that life histories hold, it was useful to examine the area on labour migration which has been stagnated with the idea of migrants predominantly occupying the low-wage and low-skilled sectors and how this influences their hotel career. The stories from the cohort of skilled Kenyan hotel labour migrants involved in the study reveal fresh insights on migrants' lived experiences in the host country and outcomes of their careers.

9.3 In Pursuit of a Better Way of Life Abroad

Different frameworks such as the push–pull and the Harris–Todaro (Harris & Todaro, 1970) models assume that people migrate because of the potential to earn a higher income in a different country. Dzvimbo (2003) considers the push factors as the unfavourable conditions in the country of origin such as poor wages, unemployment, crime and currency devaluation among others in the home country, all or any of which drive people to leave their country. On the other hand, pull factors relate to the favourable conditions including likely higher salaries, opportunity for employment, safety and a higher standard of living among others that attract individuals to the receiving countries. Van Hear, Bakewell, & Long (2018) also identify mediating factors that enable, facilitate, constrain or accelerate migration. The facilitators are classified as infrastructure, for example, transport, communication and other resources needed for the journey, whereas the constrainers are categorized as those that hinder migration, for instance, the lack of infrastructure and information and other resources required in order to move. The authors note that policies and practices are likely to enable or constrain migration while other mediators are viewed as migrant networks (Bakewell, Oliver, Engbersen, Fonseca, & Horst, 2016).

Through migration, individuals have the opportunities to improve their lives in a myriad of ways, for example, develop careers, access better labour market opportunities, and improve their language skills among many others. According to Bourdieu (1986), an individual may boast of economic, cultural or social capital that he/she would transfer from their origin country to the host country. A vast majority of migrant workers would expect to 'trade' their capital in return for a different resource. Economic migrants presume that they could transfer their cultural capital abroad in exchange for an enhanced lifestyle for themselves and their families, either those who migrate with them or those left behind in the origin country. However, Erel (2010) refutes that cultural capital cannot be assumed to be transferred in a 'rucksack' from one country to another by an actor. Metaphorically, she argues that migrants should not be perceived as individuals who pack their cultural capital from their home country and upon arrival in the host country unpack it for their use. Instead, she metaphorizes their cultural capital using Bourdieusian notions as a treasure box that consists of valuables such as language skills, education qualifications, and work experience among others. Once in the host country, the migrant engages in bargaining activities with employers, or other institutions about the value of their treasures. Frequently though, the value of the migrant's treasure box are undervalued (Anderson, Ruhs, Rogaly, & Spencer, 2006; Datta et al., 2007) hence leading to the systematic exclusion of migrant workers from the upper segment of the labour market (Bauder, 2003).This is not because they are actually worth less but because it takes a period of several years or even generations for migrants to be integrated in the host country (Bauder, 2003). Nevertheless, such individuals could add on new valuables to their treasure box such as new skills or gain personal competences which while they may not be valuable in the host country, will still be considered valuable in the country of origin. Accordingly, the various forms of capital are simply not packed

and unpacked during migration, instead a process of valuation and exchange takes place even well after settlement or even at the point of return to one's home country (Erel, 2010).

According to Sander and Mainbo (2005), people not only migrate to enhance their lives but also the lives of the families they leave behind. In the context of this chapter, the economic models fail to recognize that although there may be potential for migrant workers to earn a higher income abroad, some sectors are generally classified in the low-wage economies. For example, hospitality work, particularly in a European context, has a stigmatized status primarily due to the perceived low-skill and low-wage image (Choi, Woods, & Murrmann, 2000; Szivas, Riley, & Airey, 2003). Therefore, to fill the gap of undesirable hospitality work, job opportunities particularly in the low end of the skills spectrum are reserved for the marginalized individuals in the society, such as migrants given that these workers are driven to accept low wages irrespective of their skill capabilities. Furthermore, the degree of flexibility in terms of working hours offered by the nature of the work in the hotel industry is a pull factor for many migrants seeking quick returns of their human capital investment. This confirms May et al.'s (2007) and Wills et al.'s (2010) findings that it is common for migrants to work long hours and hold two or more jobs, with additional jobs also being in the low sector. Many migrants are psychologically prepared to work the long shifts available at their place of work and where possible request to work extra hours either within their own department or in any other department within the hotel. However, despite the commonly held negative image of the work as described above, other scholars have challenged the undesirable notion of the industry arguing that there is evidence suggesting a high level of hospitality workers are highly educated (Baum, Hearns, & Devine, 2007a, 2007b; Szivas et al., 2003).

9.4 Socio-Economic Experiences of Vulnerable Workers

A study by Rowley and Purcell (2001) indicates that hospitality employers value enthusiasm, commitment, stamina, and responsibility over previous experience and technical skills. These are attributes migrant workers are likely to showcase in an effort to secure employers goodwill which is necessary for continued immigration sponsorship. However, employers regard the workers' compliance as a power relation dynamic geared to dictate to the workers without employers being challenged by the workers. This echoes Lucas and Mansfield (2010) who suggest 'that a good attitude is a lack of willingness to challenge management prerogative and this influences prospective employers' preference for migrant staff'. Following on such views, Anderson and Ruhs (2012) look to ascertain whether the demand for migrant labour depends on what the employers want, in terms of employees' skills and competencies or what the employers think they can get (cheap labour, employees who know little about their working rights). Accordingly, from an employee's perspective, the participants' narratives attempt to shed some light on the precarious employment conditions they encounter.

There is wide acknowledgement that migrants are often excluded from the higher segments of labour markets (Bauder, 2005) thus their remuneration rights to decent pay is a matter likely ignored by employers. In such working conditions, dictated by both structural and institutional factors, the workers are compelled to take on secondary employment to supplement their income. Immigration law dictated that non-EU workers work for the single work permit-sponsoring employer. Therefore, secondary employment of such workers was an illegal practise but given the informal approaches to recruitment associated with hotels as noted by Kelliher and Johnson (1987) the practise appears to have been ignored. This contradicts the skilled migrants' perceptions of career progress whereby their assumption was to be positioned to work in high end large hotel establishments with a likely high income. However, in place of expected career progress, it resulted in workers' multiple employment in order to quickly accumulate cash savings. This is rationalized by the low wages they are exposed to and are willing to accept given expectations to support families left behind in their countries of origin. Consequently, secondary employers also got to reap the benefits of the working ethos of migrant workers.

The notion of career is viewed not only from a work-place perspective, but also from other social aspects that define it. The stage in an individual's family circumstances has a crucial function in determining their stage of their career. Migrant workers are faced with the need to negotiate challenges arising from arriving and having to adjust in a foreign country. At the point of migration included young families with pre-schoolers or young school-going children. At the time, although the UK immigration law would permit married couples to migrate to the country, the law neglected to accommodate the couples' children. As such, family arrangements called for one parent to migrate with and the other left behind to look after the children until the point where the migrating parent obtained citizenship rights.

9.5 Under-Employment

One of the primary economic reasons for individuals seeking to migrate is to seek better prospects of employment and consequently improve their livelihood (Castles, 2010; Chiswick, 2000; De Haan, 1999) given the likely chance of earning relatively higher wages. However, previous studies on labour migration indicate migrant workers are often faced with difficulty in accessing the host labour markets (Castles, 2000, 2011). Generally, this is for the reason that their previous qualifications and work experience are not valued or recognized. DiPrete (1988) recognizes the large and growing body of literature which questions how work has become more routinized and degraded, with less autonomy and responsibility for the worker, resulting in worker de-skilling. This term is used to describe the non-recognition of migrant workers' educational qualifications and work experiences in the host country. It is often the case that, in spite of the migrants' qualifications and previous experience, they have less autonomy at work. Furthermore, the hotel sector is one that is associated with de-skilling of workers (Lindsay & McQuaid, 2004; Talwar, 2002). The

low-skilled sector is perceived as an employer suited primarily to individuals with little or no formal qualifications, arguably due to the nature of tasks performed that require low level of skills and are repetitive in their type. As such, migrant workers with higher educational credentials in employment within the low-skilled sectors inevitably are under-employed given that their 'foreign' career capital is unrecognized (Zikic, Bonache, & Cerdin, 2010) and foreign work experience is discounted (Fang, Zikic, & Novicevic, 2009; King, 2004).

In the case of migrant workers bound by visa regulations, often the workers are faced with restrictive immigration policies that have an impact on their geographical and career mobility. For instance, immigration frameworks may restrict both the labour migrants' geographical and career mobility irrespective of the poor work place conditions encountered by the workers. This often results in migrant workers being in precarious work that is likely to impact negatively on their career progression. Thus, the immediate impact is underutilization of their specialized hotel skills and given that they remain in low- skill employment in the long term, their career progression is constrained. Further, this is consistent with Baum's (1995) and Baum et al.'s (1997) observation that Britain's hotel sector in terms of career choice seems to lack the glamorous and vibrant image of that in other European countries. The most likely reason for this negativity according to Duncan, Scott, and Baum (2013) is the perpetuation of Western context stereotypes of hotel employment that have led to the (mis)conception of a homogenous unskilled hospitality workforce. In addition, the negative perception has further led to hotel graduate under-employment. However, there is disparity in the non-Western contexts particularly with developing countries where a hotel career is popular due to high status linked with international tourism.

An emerging trend within service occupations is the casualization of jobs within the sector that has arisen from economic deregulation (Castles, 2011). This tendency builds on the sector's tradition of relying upon marginalized groups of workers such as women, students and migrant workers (Baum & Devine, 2007) who due to varied reasons including, family commitments such as childcare and immigration status take casual and more flexible employment in order to strike a balance in their work and home life. Thus, despite the sector's poor image, it is seen to benefit some individuals as it provides an employment opportunity regardless of skills and education qualification. This suggests that the sector is predominantly considered as an entry point to the labour market with poorly defined career paths (Alberti, 2014). However, there is a considerable number of individuals for whom the hospitality industry is their chosen career, thus showing high levels of contentment and job satisfaction (Mkono, 2010). For this reason Ituma and Simpson (2007) advise that it is necessary that these workers demonstrate self-perceived attitudes, values, needs and talents that are expected to develop over time in order to guide their career choices. Nonetheless, in the context of UK hotel sector this can be challenging particularly that the cultural outlook of a hotel career appears unfavourable.

McGuire, Polla, and Heidl (2017) identify the hospitality sector as one that has a fast-paced changeable nature thus suggesting a likelihood of an improved perception of the hotel industry as an employer. Increased numbers of migration, particularly in a European context, have resulted in a voluminous EU workforce in some sectors

characterized by hard-to fill jobs, such as the hospitality. An explanation for the significant presence of migrant workers in the sector could be due to the workers having fewer options for alternative employment (McIntosh & Harris, 2012).Yet, according to Baum (2015) hotel career progression is marked significantly by considerable job movement within an organization or among many organizations. Further, Mooney, Harris, and Ryan (2016) highlight that individuals realize their career goals if there is a high degree of vocational mobility but it is dependent on local context, for instance, some countries adopt a traditional organization career progression approach where workers are promoted internally, while in others, career progression is marked by frequent moves between separate organizations. Generally, this suggests the need for mobility either geographically or career wise in order to achieve career advancement. Surprisingly, a study by Mooney et al. (2016) reveals that some workers have a satisfactory long hotel career which does not necessarily translate to career progression. There are workers who have held hotel entry-level positions satisfactorily. Nonetheless, it is worth noting that such workers remained in these positions given that they maintained respect and autonomy, occupational variety and sound working relationships with both management and work colleagues.

9.6 Underutilized and Overstretched Skills

The hotel professional training that the workers received in Kenya was Western based. The workers anticipated employment within high quality luxurious UK hotel establishments equivalent or at least similar to the Kenyan hotel establishments where they had the opportunity to accumulate professional hotel operating standards. The workers had previously held mid-level management roles in the Kenyan hotels they worked in. Furthermore, the work experience obtained from Western-style run hotels in Kenya did not suffice while in the UK as they laboured in lower categories of hotels and within lesser ranks in the hotels in which they worked. The structure of the hotel industry in UK is one characterized by a significant presence of owner-managed hotels that are relatively smaller in size in comparison to bigger chain hotels. In regards to the sector's workforce, Baum (1995) and Batnitzky and McDowell (2013) identify marginalized members of society such as women, students, ethnic minorities and migrants as a common workforce in the hotel given, employers demand for migrant workers. The demand is driven by employers' perception of the worker's good work ethic and willingness to accept lower wages. The Kenyan hotel migrant workers were equipped with skills and professional knowledge that enabled them to acquire employment in the UK. Despite the worker's professionalism and enthusiasm for their hotel careers, their foreign credentials were often undervalued and skills overlooked. The workers reported challenges of work frustrations mainly with reference to the application of their skills where they considered the effort they had put during their hotel training was being unrecognized and unrewarded contributing to their unfulfilled career aspirations.

The significant presence of small-medium sized hotel establishment had a great influence in where the migrant workers were positioned to work. A majority of the Kenyan hotel workers were placed to work in the owner-managed hotels where operation styles are likely to differ from the larger hotel chains. For instance, where training and development is likely a key aspect of employee development, larger hotel establishments may have designated departments to carry out employee development programmes. However, smaller hotel establishments that are family-managed may be inadequately prepared to develop their workers. Empirical evidence showcases an element of migrant workers' skills underutilized, for instance, given their relatively higher level of training and skill, the Kenyan hotel migrant workers were positioned to work as front-line staff yet for a majority of them, they were assigned tasks of training other migrant workers whose language skills and hotel professionalism were inadequate.

Nevertheless, in view of the Kenyan hotel migrant workers who have chosen to remain in the host country, it was assumed that they had acquired permanent residency after completion of their five-year legal working period in the UK. Primary reasons for the decision to remain are categorized into economic and emotional factors. It is important to note the difficulty in separating the two categories taking into account that meeting economic objectives is a likely projection towards emotional satisfaction. The prospects for the workers' socio-economic well-being such as better health and education access for their families, given the effort (emotional and financial) made towards migration is a likely incentive for the individuals to remain in the host country. This is mainly true especially with the cohort of the skilled hotel migrant workers who considered regression in their occupation. The workers perceived a career trade-off for an enhanced lifestyle in the West an apparent outcome of their unfulfilled hotel career.

9.7 Conclusion

In view of a substitute workforce, the migrant workers are considered to provide a constant flow of debatable unskilled labour in the hospitality sector, termed by Borjas (2001, p. 70) as 'greasing the wheels of the UK labour market'. In their quest for a better lifestyle Erel (2010) argues that these workers actively create dynamics to validate their cultural resources which result in new forms of distinction through which the labour shortage gap in the hotel industry is plugged. It is indicative that functional cultural capital is defined within the boundaries of the host country either prior to or post migration given that structural factors inhibit their deployment of cultural capital to enhance their career prospects in a foreign country. Nonetheless, it is in the host country whereby the workers were faced with relatively unattractive hotel career enhancement options. However, despite the effort put towards their geographical mobility and adaptability, the presence of structural factors hindered their career mobility. Their employment in the UK was no longer a career progression opportunity but a job through which they could earn a living abroad, while still

anticipating an enhanced lifestyle for their families in the long term. Faced with unmet career expectations, workers project their hotel occupation as an entry point into the UK labour market and upon obtaining residency they switch to occupations that meet their personal lifestyles. In light of this, given the removal of immigration restrictions, which had previously impeded their migration intentions, the workers considered that they had the opportunity to further accumulate cultural and economic capital, as were their initial objectives.

Thus, labour migration in the UK hotel sector augments the important function conducted by the sector in terms of employment; numerically and by extension as a driver of work place diversity. It should be recognized that both local and international workers possess different qualifications and skills hence contribute to the pool of talents available for the industry. Nevertheless, migrant workers are considered by some to take jobs intended for native workers, yet, the former bring about different working culture that is likely to contribute to the host's working ethos. The cohorts of skilled workers who purpose to work in a sector that may show a disinterest given its apparent poor image. Such working ethos may be envisaged to alter the long-articulated poor image and the disregard of career paths in the sector thereby enhancing the image of hospitality which in turn may become more attractive to local talent. Consequently, the industry continues experiencing labour shortages. Therefore, in recognizing and valuing migrant workers' qualifications, a long-term effect of improving the sector is likely to be achieved. In addition, recognizing the workers credentials may also be a step towards achieving cultural integration where the host communities accept the workers and view them as a cultural benefit to their society.

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Chapter 10
Maternity Protection and the Tunisian Tourism Industry

Heather Louise Jeffrey

10.1 Introduction

The tourism labour force has long been noted as a feminized labour force (Ladkin, 2011), with critical scholars suggesting that perhaps tourism would not survive if it were not for the patriarchal power relations that equate a need for flexible working hours as they struggle to work a double day of paid and unpaid labour (Enloe, 2000; Ferguson, 2011). More recently discourse on women's tourism labour participation has shifted to a belief that as a 'low-skilled' industry with low entry barriers tourism can empower women (UNWTO and UN Women, 2011). Yet women working within tourism, arguably like any other industry, still face horizontal and vertical segregation, they still face a double day and they still face difficult questions when deciding to have a family or when that decision is not entirely theirs to make. In order to create sustainable human resources, we must ensure half of the workforce has the option to stay in the workforce. Moreover, women's labour force participation is linked to both national GDP and poverty alleviation (Süssmuth-Dyckerhoff, Wang, & Chen, 2013).

The International Labour Organization has recognized this problem and summarized it utilizing the term maternity protection (ILO, 2012). Maternity protection is not limited to maternity leave but includes a host of other practices in order to ensure both the health and non-discrimination of mothers at work. While work has been a key theme for investigation by gender and tourism researchers (Ferguson, 2011; Figueroa-Domecq, Pritchard, Segovia-Pérez, Morgan, & Villacé-Molinero, 2015; Pritchard and Morgan, 2000), maternity protection is yet to be fully explored. However, it is vital that maternity protection is both studied and advocated for within the tourism industry, as many tourism jobs are informal outside the boundaries of legal protection. When tourism jobs are formal jobs, employers may believe that high staff

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turnover is expected in the industry and as jobs require few skills they will not face difficulties in replacing employees (Nunez, 2008). This chapter explores the meaning of maternity protection for the tourism industry before focusing on maternity protection in the Tunisian tourism industry. Relying on fictional ethnography (Ladkin, 2011), this chapter presents three short female tourism workers' stories in order to explore the realities of maternity protection in the Tunisian tourism industry.

10.2 Protecting Maternity in Tourism

The International Labour Organization (ILO) evidences its commitment to gender equality through the ILO Maternity Protection Convention, 2000 (No. 183), Maternity Protection Recommendation, 2000 (No. 191) and ILO Workers with Family Responsibilities Convention, 1981 (No. 156). According to the ILO, adequate maternity protection can ensure that work does not impact the health of women or their children while also safeguarding women from discrimination due to their ability to create life (ILO, 2012). As such, maternity protection includes

> Maternity leave around childbirth; health protection at work for pregnant and breastfeeding women; cash and medical benefits; employment protection and non-discrimination; and breastfeeding support after returning to work. It also includes a number of work-family balance policies and practices at the workplace, including a range of flexible working arrangements; paternity and parental leave; and childcare support (Lewis, Stumbitz, Miles, & Rouse, 2014: 1).

The provision of maternity protection undoubtedly varies across sectors and limited resources in developing countries may mean that social security legislation does not apply to all sectors (Addati, Cassirer, & Gilchrist, 2014). Women working in tourism on temporary or without a formalized contract are often ineligible for benefits such as maternity leave (Beddoe, 2004), as regardless of sector protection which is often only for women working in the formal economy (Lewis et al., 2014). In the Caribbean, it has been suggested that female tourism workers enjoy the least benefits due to a lack of concern over low staff retention, and the belief that tourism work is low-skilled work, therefore, workers are replaceable (Nunez, 2008). In a survey of working conditions in Tanzania, less than 40% of tourism workers affirmed that they had a formal contract of employment, and even though more than 80% were aware of their legal entitlements concerning maternity leave less than 70% received this leave (Eurofound, 2012a, 2012b). In Mozambique, less than half of the women surveyed enjoyed maternity leave and again only 47% of tourism workers had a formal employment contract (Eurofound, 2012b).

Within the tourism industry legal protection often means very little in practice. In more extreme cases the biological ability of women can lead to discrimination when there is an absence of maternity protection. In the hospitality industry in Kenya it has been noted that if a female worker takes maternity leave her position will no longer be available when she is ready to return to work, in fact many managers may 'view maternity leave as a waste of company's time and resources since they have to

employ and train casual employees to fill these positions' (Koome, Kiprutto, Kibe, & Kiama, 2013: 53).

Tourism, differs from other sectors; it is characterized by a large body of women washing sheets and serving guests, but lacking access to the highest managerial positions (UNWTO and UN Women, 2011). In a recent study on the gendered discourses of tourism recruitment in Portugal, it was found that at least implicitly recruiters choose an 'ideal worker' who is always available and does not have social reproductive responsibilities (Costa et al., 2017). The desire to employ the 'ideal worker' in tourism links to the industry requiring workers to provide 24/7 services (Deery & Jago, 2009) and assumptions that women will not be able to perform 24/7 can lead to their discrimination (Costa et al., 2017). Therefore, the notion of the 'ideal worker' is underpinned by gender stereotypes. This previous study (Costa et al., 2017) focused on tourism employers rather than workers and how the discourse of the 'ideal worker' may act upon them to potentially create a circuit of self-regulation.

Pregnant women or those women of age to give birth may be perceived as 'faulty' human capital to be discriminated against due to social norms (Lewis et al., 2014). This also has material effects on self-employed women and Brazilian tourism entrepreneurs note how networking may be a barrier to entrepreneurship, as those with fewer social reproductive responsibilities are freer to join in after work drinks or activities (Costa et al., 2016). Examples of good practice in the tourism industry do exist, and one hotel in Mozambique, for example, created a designated breastfeeding room, where both clean water and a refrigerator were made available. The hotel also allows employees to bring their babies to work when no alternative childcare is available (ILO, 2012b). In the Ghanaian tourism industry, Stumbitz, Kyei, Lewis, and Lyon (2017: 69) noted one hotel manager's response to pregnancy:

> Women get pregnant all the time, we are very baby friendly. [How do you manage their absence?]. Existing staff are moved around between different hotels to cover for absences - this allows them to widen their experience and learn. In addition, we use national service staff and interns

The same authors also highlighted the costs of not providing adequate maternity protection in the Ghanaian tourism industry, and how one manager understood these (Stumbitz et al., 2017: 74):

> This employer was providing paid maternity leave in excess of legal requirements, but no family-friendly supports upon the return to work. He complained about his female staff not returning to work after their leaves had ended. As he argued, "human resources are a problem. You try to train them well and then they run away so we have to get new staff. […] I have had 4 pregnant but only 2 have come back. […] If a woman is committed to the work then you want her back"

In the global tourism industry, it has been suggested that the nature of positions—as low skilled, can equate to economic empowerment. However, the industry remains both horizontally and vertically segregated—women continue to do jobs perceived as women's work and find it difficult to attain top managerial positions. In many contexts, the industry is characterized by informal temporary work and the industry that remain outside of the legislative sphere and even when employees are aware of the legal provisions they may not receive them.

10.3 Women and Work in Tunisia

It has been said that Tunisian women still lack one fundamental right: the right to an occupation of one's choosing (Moghadam, 2011). Formal female labour force participation in Tunisia, although increasing from 25.4% in 1995 to 32.9% in 2009 (Sinha, 2011), remains low. It was suggested that in 2011 the female labour force reduced to 26% (Karkkainen, 2011) perhaps due to political instability. The female workforce is constituted of divorced women (41.5%), single women (34.4%) and married women (18%) (Chekir & Arfaoui, 2011). The lower levels of married women in the labour force would tend to highlight that reintegration after childbirth may be an issue in Tunisia. In a report published by the ILO, it was found that Tunisia offers the shortest maternity leave period of 30 days of all of the African countries considered, and globally while most countries offer no paternity leave, in Tunisia fathers are entitled to one day off (Addati et al., 2014).

Social sanctioning often means that Tunisian women choose to work in the public sector, where women form 55% of the workforce as teachers and nurses with maternity rights (Addati et al., 2014; Karkkainen, 2010). One of the most feminized sectors is the textile sector, where 80% of the workers are female and almost 60% of contracts are temporary (ILO, 2011). Tourism activities often equate to demand for textile products, and Bleasdale (2006) has previously warned of the possibility of female exploitation by the textile industry in Tunisia. Women who work in textiles receive no protection in cases of pregnancy (Chekir & Arfaoui, 2011). In contrast to the textile industry, women comprise just 22.5% of hotel workers, a figure lower than the national average of female labour force participation (26%) (Karkkainen, 2011). Legislation preventing women from working night shifts may be a reason why, so few women work in hotels, but working with alcohol is also strictly frowned upon for women (Karrkainen, 2010). At the time of recruitment, women are asked more than men if they are married or have children (Karkkainen, 2011). There may also be a lack of trained women as they comprise just 20% of the student body at the 10 public vocational tourism schools in Tunisia (Karrkainen, 2010). These factors have led to horizontal and vertical segregation within the industry, and approximately 70.4% of the female workforce in hotels can be found in reception and housekeeping (Karrkainen, 2011).

10.4 Methods

The utilization of fictional ethnography is hopefully paramount to the power of this chapter; I want to dwell on the details of fieldwork and of my participants. Fictional ethnography has been described as evocative, powerful and affective (Rinehardt, 1998), which is how I would like these stories to be described. This approach has been utilized by tourism scholars such as Ladkin (2011: 1137) to 'illustrate the complexities of tourism labour' and 'make the labour situations visible' (2011: 1145)

building on the work of Veijola and Jokinen (2008). I want to underscore the importance of the topic in question and the writing is certainly politically motivated. It is for this reason that even though I struggled with deciding between situating myself in the stories (Johnston, 2001) and removing myself and letting the/my stories speak for themselves, I have decided to remove myself as the author. I present three stories from very different areas of female labour within the Tunisian tourism industry, these stories are developed utilizing interview data collected not for the purposes of this chapter (Jeffrey, 2017). I have chosen to tell the stories of Salima a textile worker, Nour a hotel worker, and Salwa a tattooist working informally. I choose these stories purposefully in light of the previous section, and while I could tell the story of public sector workers I have chosen not to, as these workers are often the most privileged in terms of maternity protection in Tunisia.

Salima

Salima is tired, she looks at herself in the mirror and wonders where all the wrinkles came from. Taking her seat again in the carpet shop her granddaughter sprawls across her protectively or in need of attention, it is impossible to tell when they are so young. She wishes her own daughter could be around to take care of her when she's sick, but she understands that financially it would just be impossible. Salima attempts to move the child in order to look somewhat presentable for the tourists who enter the shop. Suddenly and without warning, as he always seems to do, Fahim enters and attempts to cajole the tourists into buying overpriced carpets. The tourists always look scared to Salima, like rabbits caught in the headlights and quite often they leave without buying anything, she wishes Fahim would let her speak to them, but he doesn't and he won't. She knows he won't because she can't read or write, but she thinks that in order to sell a carpet you don't really need to read or write, letting out a little sigh she turns to Fahim's wife Jasmine.

Jasmine seems to hang around the shop for no other reason but to put Salima down. She looks at the child and sniggers, asking where his mother is. Salima knows that this is a loaded question, she simply states that she had to work. Jasmine asks when she'll stop working in the hotel, she adds attempting to be a 'modern' woman under her breath just loudly enough for Salima to hear. Before Salima even has a chance to answer she asks if Mohammed (Salima's husband) has work yet. Salima says he doesn't, but that he keeps going to the coffee shop in the hope that something will pick up. Salima sighs again and wonders how she will look after everyone when the tourists exit the shop scared away by Fahim's bargaining and haggling. After overhearing the conversation Fahim pits in 'Mohammed works when he can Jasmine, you know that!' covering for his friend. The women look to one another, both wondering when the day will arrive that the men who aren't working might take care of the children or just lift a finger around the house.

Salwa

Salwa suddenly hurtles 'get your tattoo, best tattoo in Tunisia, get your tattoo' and a woman approaches, she negotiates the price and sits quietly next to the tattooist as she prepares the henna. Looking at one of the other women, Salwa almost whispers

'look, tourists, go on ask them to come over, you speak tourist'. The other woman yells in English to the girls who hurry by. The women sit as a group right in the heart of the medina and together they take over the small wall. Salwa looks around her, at her mother and her grandmother, she looks at her 15-year-old cousin and takes delight that she is now with them, one of them after dropping out of school. The henna is prepared and she begins applying it expertly to the woman's hand and forearm, asking her if she'd like a special tattoo.

Salwa begins discussing a television programme she saw the night before on her grandmother's television, it was a rare moment Salwa got with the TV all by herself—out of the extended family her grandmother was the only one with a TV. A couple of tourists eventually sit down and Salwa talks in Arabish, she explains what she saw that soon women will no longer need men, they can make a baby without them. She asks the tourists what was the word for it, and one of the girls asks unsure 'artificial insemination'?, Salwa beams, yes that was it. The other women in the group of tattooists look on incredulously—no, it can't be, it isn't possible they say aghast. One of the younger women takes her baby to a nearby restaurant where she knows the owner, she slips in the bathroom. Salwa asks where she went and her mother says matter of factly to breastfeed in the toilet. Salwa wonders about the day she might have to have a child, she thinks back to when she was small with her own mother—how she would let her accompany her to the medina to give tattoos, how she didn't have to go to school.

Nour

Nour arrives at work and has her first coffee, sure there would be many more. She takes up her position at the customer relations desk and as her colleagues drift in they gush over how she looks and ask about the baby. It is Nour's first day back at work after just over a year, she left her baby, Amed, with her mother after much arguing. Looking down at her breasts, stinging with the reminder of her decision to stop breastfeeding she feels a pang of guilt. Nour's mother was the first to point out that she couldn't go back to work, not yet, the baby hadn't finished breastfeeding and there was nowhere to do it in the hotel, she repeated that she should do it for 2 years over and over again until Nour was almost convinced.

Yet, Nour wanted to go back to work, she felt like a real person, not just a mother and Zayed had been so kind to her during her pregnancy. Zayed the hotel general manager had allowed Nour to take off additional maternity leave without pay of course, but now that summer was arriving he needed her back. Nour had spent the last few months feeling guilty for not being at work, but with every colleagues questioning she feels a whole lot worse. She feels that they are talking about her behind her back, criticizing her for working in the hotel when she is now a mother, criticizing her for not taking the 2 years to breastfeed. Nour sees the new female recruits enter, even prettier than last year's and she wonders how long she can keep this up.

10.5 Discussion and Conclusion

From the stories, women working in the Tunisian tourism industry rely heavily on the extended family for childcare, many women may not have access to adequate breastfeeding facilities, and men may play a small role in the upbringing of the children and domestic work. Interestingly, social relations may also play a significant role in women's choices after giving birth and even into grandparenthood. All three stories highlight how choice is potentially limited by those closest to the protagonists: Salwa is limited in choice due to her family relations, Nour is limited by her colleagues and her parents, and Salwa is limited by her social network.

Working in a hotel Nour faced a similar barrier to that identified by Stumbitz et al. (2017), she had received additional unpaid maternity leave, but there was a lack of support when she returned to work. Nour also became riddled with guilt both plagued by the social expectation of breastfeeding and her own desire to be an 'ideal worker' (Costa et al., 2017). Yet, even though maternity protection or a lack of it appears to potentially affect women at all life stages and in both the formal and informal sector in Tunisia. Perhaps the most disadvantaged are women working in the informal sector, women who decide (or have no other option) to bring their children to work with them. This idea contrasts with previous research which suggests bringing children to work might be beneficial for productivity and retention (ILO, 2012b). Informal employment in the tourism industry may lead women to 'bring their child to work' instead of taking them to school, as this may be a source of income or the only viable option when there is little childcare support available. For Salwa, an education might have meant that she did not become the protagonist of one of my stories.

From both Salwa and Salima, it is evident that there might be a lack of support from their husbands. Even though maternity leave is short in Tunisia, paternity leave is even shorter (Addati et al., 2014). The length of paternity leave allowed to father can directly impact discrimination towards women and the reification of gender stereotypes. Paternity leave remains secondary to maternity leave in most contexts and a barrier to paid paternity leave in developing contexts is undoubtedly financial resources, but to step closer to gender equality we must close the parental leave gap. If tourism is to economically empower women, we must seek ways of improving the industry. Here, for example, adequate breastfeeding facilities may have helped Nour to continue breastfeeding and reduce feelings of guilt, it may have helped her to return to work earlier if she so desired. Childcare facilities may have helped all of the protagonists, and indisputably gender equality might have meant that none of these stories were ever told. Maternity protection has not attracted scholarly interest within the field of tourism, but future research is necessary to explore barriers to women's employment and reintegration into the labour force after childbirth. One way to explore these issues may be through narrative methodologies, such as fictional ethnography used in this chapter. Story telling can be a powerful tool which links research and advocacy in an evocative web to bring about change.

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Chapter 11
Local Maasai Women Empowerment Through Employment Opportunity: Lessons from Base Camp Maasai Brand in Maasai Mara, Kenya

George Ariya, Catherine Sempele and Florence Simaloi

11.1 Introduction

Globally, despite various efforts to improve women's rights, women are still more likely than men to be poor; malnourished; illiterate; with less access to medical care, credit, training and employment; property ownership and domestic violence (United Nations Population Fund, 2008). According to United Nations Population Fund (2008), about two-thirds of the illiterate adults in the world are women. Therefore women's empowerment is imperative to sustainable development and the realization of human rights for all. Tourism is seen as a panacea to the achievement of women empowerment through socio-economic, political and educational empowerment. Tourism is also linked to sustainable development and realization of human rights, which is the best interest of women empowerment.

Women make up a majority of the tourism workforce. UNWTO as on 2008 estimates that 60–70% of all people employed in the tourism sector are women, a figure confirmed by Baum (2013) in a study for the ILO. Ecotourism, as sub-set of tourism, is being accepted as a prospective economic saviour by many rural communities (Scheyvens, 2010; Reimer & Walter, 2013) and can empower local communities (Wearing & Larsen, 1996). Ecotourism is regarded as the aspect in which gender inequality issues can play an imperative role (UNWTO, 2006). Ecotourism activities using natural attractions in remote rural areas can be important sources of economic diversification and livelihood opportunity (Ashley, 2001; UNWTO, 2002). Nonetheless, some studies have established that economic benefit from ecotourism is significantly affected by restricted opportunities for the local communities to earn

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decently (Goodwin, 2008), higher leakage of income (Stronza & Gordillo, 2008) and inequitable distribution of income (Coria & Calfucura, 2012).

Empowerment of women in rural areas through ecotourism is absolutely essential in raising their status in society. Tourism industry can contribute in creating socio-economic opportunities especially for disadvantaged women within rural areas. Such opportunities, if well managed, create better quality of life and address social justice for rural women. The Base Camp Maasai Brand (BMB) under Basecamp Explorer in Maasai Mara Kenya has introduced community-based ecotourism programme aimed at enhancing Maasai women's economic empowerment. Basecamp Explorer is a Gold Eco Rated camp and described as a community and conservation-oriented organization with strong commitment to practice sustainable development through capacity building, training and education opportunities for the local community that yields in socio-economic benefits for the local Maasai community. The camp is based on a wildlife conservancy model that includes the participation of 500 Maasai families who leased their land in trust with the main activities focus on community empowerment through enterprise.

On paper, Basecamp Explorer aims at providing sustainable development by transforming local community lives through local community talent and efforts, income generation and education and professional development. BMB programme was established in the year 2003 as a community-based handicraft business with the goal of using traditional beading practices to help local Maasai women improve their financial independence. The programme currently engages 118 Maasai women who are divided into five groups where every group work at the BMB workshop once a week to learn and do bead work while spent the rest of the weekdays at home making beads. The products sold are made from recycled items, local leather and beads and every Maasai woman involved could earn direct cash benefit from the sale of the items. Despite the clear aims of the BMB programme, there is no study on the perception of the Maasai women regarding the project in pursuit of their empowerment. This study advances empowerment framework by partially adopting psycho-economic and social aspects of empowerment to examine the extent to which local Maasai women at Base Camp Masai Brand (BMB) project are empowered or disempowered from the ecotourism venture.

11.2 Ecotourism and Women Empowerment

Tourism development and growth has the potential to advance women economically, socially, as well as politically through direct or indirect employment and entrepreneurial opportunities (Ghodsee, 2005). Politically, tourism could foster women's activism and leadership within the host communities. In developing countries like Africa, women employment in tourism may enhance their economic livelihoods and that of their family members (UNWTO, 2011). Despite being contested by different tourism scholars, available literature suggests that ecotourism is based on the premise of economic development and natural

resources conservation (King, 2010). In this regard, recent definitions of ecotourism are centred on environmental conservation, education, ethics, sustainability, impacts and local benefits as the main variables. For example, Weaver (2005) underscored that ecotourism is a form of tourism that fosters learning experiences and appreciation of the natural environment within its associated cultural context to attain environmentally, economically and socio-culturally sustainable outcomes. Yamada (2011:139) also argues that ecotourism involves a wide range of resources majorly natural and cultural artefacts, events and natural environment, and aims to realize ecologically and socially sustainable development. Ecotourism ventures are believed to generate minimal impact to the environment, local participation, promoting sustainable socio-economic development and women empowerment (Butcher, 2005; Dowling, 2000; Fennell, 2001; Moswete & Lacey, 2015; Walter, 2011).

Different writers posit mix emphasis on the role of ecotourism in supporting local people's well-being. For example, Hvenegaard (1994) supports the potential of ecotourism to improve the livelihood of the local community and their environment. In most of the world's poorest countries, ecotourism is regarded as a panacea for family income and improved livelihoods (Zhang, Ding & Bao, 2008). Likewise, in developing countries like Kenya, ecotourism could lead to better incomes and other trickle down effects like health and education (Fawaa, Rahnama & Stout, 2014). Ecotourism is also regarded as a revenue generator to local women in promoting socio-economic development (Walter, 2011; Moswete & Lacey, 2015). Women associations through tourism also act as a unifying platform for women entrepreneurs where they can acquire appropriate knowledge and competencies as well as extra income and community cohesion (Jamil & Hamzah, 2007).

However, Boo (1990) and Cater and Lowman (1994) caution in accepting ecotourism to be of common good and the magic bullet of mitigating all tourism ills. In business terms, ecotourism ventures may merely be used as marketing tools and outside operators may segregate the local community in terms of benefits (Akama, 1996; Thomlinson & Getz, 1996). Moreover, other studies have established that women employment in tourism is gender biased and encourages women's fiscal and sexual exploitation that abuse precarious workers (Women First, 2010). The industry is perceived to provide 'dirty work' in a precarious working environment, which is demeaning, stressful, physically exhausting, deplorable working conditions, restricted access to mentoring opportunities, low and discriminate wages, sexual harassment and exploitation, human trafficking, stereotyping, limited training as well as career opportunities (Hoel & Einarsen, 2003; Rydsik, Pritchard, Morgan, & Sedgley, 2012; UNWTO, 2011). In some instances, tourism could generate substantial unpaid work for women within family tourism businesses, which makes little contribution to their socio-economic empowerment (UNWTO, 2011). In terms of global tourism higher education, Marcus (2006) augments that women are underrepresented and tenured and senior positions and sometimes suffer a serious pay gap.

11.3 Women Empowerment Framework in Ecotourism

Ecotourism industry can provide entry points for women's direct employment and other small-scale income-generating opportunities thus creating path to poverty reduction and improved standards of living. In the context of ecotourism, empowerment may be regarded as a community developmental process that enables communities to obtain the authority to gather resources in order to meet their needs, make decisions, take actions and achieve social justice (Timothy, 2007). Empowerment through tourism has also been discussed in the integral context of endorsing the significance of community participation and sustainable tourism development in a cause-effect relationship (Perkins, Brown & Taylor, 1996; Zeppel, 2006). Under this context, local people are empowered to mobilize their own capacities, make appropriate decisions, have control of their resources and manage local activities that influence their lives (Sofield, 2003). UNWTO (2008) also augments that positive contribution of tourism to women empowerment can only be established if poverty reduction and the enhancement of women's dignity and their role in work place are effectively addressed.

In the literature of ecotourism, there has been little theoretical engagement of gender issues especially regarding local community livelihood and cultural preservation (Scheyvens 2010, 2007; Swain & Swain, 2004; Weaver & Lawton, 2007). Broadly, Scheyvens (1999) provides an ecotourism empowerment framework as a mechanism for determining the impacts of ecotourism on local community as a way to distinguish between responsible forms of ecotourism and non-responsible ecotourism ventures. The framework provides four perspectives of empowerment including social, political, psychological and economic empowerment (Friedmann, 1992; Scheyvens, 1999). Social empowerment is achieved through the cohesiveness among family members and community to work collectively. Political empowerment is gained through having one's voice heard by other parties. The economic empowerment aspect considers emerging opportunities in terms of formal and informal employment as well as business prospects. This should provide noticeable signs of improvements from cash earned. There could be shortcomings of such ecotourism ventures if the income they provide to the local community are sporadic, irregular, unreliable and inequitable (Scheyvens, 1999). For example, Smith (1996) further explains that power brokers within the society may have considerable influence over who shares in the benefits of tourism projects.

In terms of psychological empowerment, local community has to be optimistic in their future endeavours, be self-reliant, have faith in their abilities and demonstrate pride in their culture and traditions (Scheyvens, 1999). According to Mansperger (1995), in many undeveloped and small-scale societies, preservation of tradition is extremely vital in maintaining the group's sense of self-esteem and well-being. This could be enhanced if the ecotourism venture provides the platform where local community members' self-esteem is enhanced through outside recognition of their cultural uniqueness and value and their traditional knowledge, which propels them to seek out further opportunities in terms of

training and education (Scheyvens, 1999). Employment and cash access by the local community could further lead to increase in status. This study advances empowerment framework by partially adopting psycho-economic and social levels of empowerment to examine the extent to which local Maasai women at Base Camp Masai Brand (BMB) project are empowered or disempowered from the ecotourism venture.

11.4 Study Area and Methodology

The study was conducted at Basecamp Maasai Mara located 2 km east of Talek gate of Maasai Mara National Reserve (MMNR) along river Talek adjacent to MMNR. Basecamp is one of the few Gold Eco Rated camp in Kenya and was established in 1998 under a wildlife conservancy model where about 500 Maasai families leased their land in trust and in return receive income based on the size of their leased land. Under Basecamp is also Basecamp Foundation, which is a community-benefit organization that supports development of sustainable tourism destinations where natural resource conservation and management, wealth creation and community empowerment can be realized. Through these initiatives, the camp has won international recognition in sustainable tourism. For example the 2005 First Choice Responsible Tourism Award for Best Practice in Protected Areas.

Under Basecamp Maasai Mara is the Base Camp Maasai Brand established in 2003 where local Maasai women are engaged in employment opportunity through handicraft business to improve their livelihood. The programme recruited around 118 women of different age groups and Maasai sub-tribes with talent in beadwork. The camp helps in handicraft design and facilitates marketing of the handicraft products both locally and internationally. The women, who have been recruited over time since 2003, are organized in five groups and work in shifts once a week at the BMB workshop. However, the women are individually paid irregularly based on the volume of handicraft each produced and individual sales output. This study focuses on BMB programme and engaged the women to establish their perception towards the programme as regards to psycho-economic and social empowerment aspects.

Therefore, the study adopted mixed method research design where both qualitative and quantitative data were collected through self-administered questionnaires, interviews, focus group discussions and observation. The study's target population were the 118 Maasai women employed at BMB programme within Basecamp Maasai Mara. Out of the 118 women, 95 of the women were available during the study and participated in the study. Self-administered questionnaires were used to attain the socio-demographic attributes of the respondents. Interviews and focus group discussions were employed to elicit responses on their psycho-economic and social empowerment perception gained through BMB programme. To employ observation technique, few randomly selected women were followed to their homes to establish their livelihood changes after joining the programme. However, not all women who were randomly selected and willing to be accompanied home have participated. This was due to long distances and terrain they walked in order to reach the camp

as well as dangers posed by wildlife (mainly elephants) en-route to their homes. During the interview and focus group discussions, the native (*Maa*) language was used and translated to English by one of the researchers who was fluent in *Maa* language. Data collected was organized, labelled, coded and synthesized into themes and finally analyzed descriptively.

11.5 Discussion

11.5.1 Socio-Demographic Characteristics of the Respondents

A total of 95 female respondents formed part of the study. In terms of their age, a majority were (39.2%) aged between 34 and 41 years. This was followed by those above 48 years (21.6%), 26–33 years (17.6%), 34–41 years (17.6%) and 18–25 years (4.1%). Most of the Maasai women who participated in the BMB programme lacked formal education since a majority (97.3%) of the respondents had informal education. Only 2.7% of the respondents had secondary level of education. All the respondents were married.

The study also collected data on the clans of the respondents to establish the level of women participation by different Maasai clans. Even though different Maasai clans were represented under the programme, a majority (33.8%) were from Laiser clan. 21.6% were from Iltarosero clan, 17.6% from Ilmakesen clan, 14.9% from Lukumai clan, 9.5% from Ilmolelian clan and only 1.4% were from Ilmeponi clan and Kasumo clan, respectively. The findings showed that most of the women participants of the beadwork project were from the Laiser clan. The findings of the study could also be interpreted to means that despite the Laiser clan being the most dominant clan within the community surrounding Basecamp, the programme was able to grant women from other clans a chance to participate in the beadwork project. It could further imply that there were little clan-based requirements during the selection of the women participants. Instead, women with talents and abilities to do bead work could have been given a fair chance despite their clan (Table 11.1).

Table 11.1 Table showing percentage women participants by Maasai clans

Maasai clan	% Frequency
Ilmakesen	17.6
Lukumai	14.9
Iltarosero	21.6
Laiser	33.8
Ilmolelian	9.5
Ilmeponi	1.4
Kasumo	1.4

Based on the respondents' selection process to join the project, majority (58.1%) of the women were selected to join the programme through relatives or referrals. 40.5% were recruited at the project inception stage while the rest (1.4%) were by chance. This could mean that the majority of the women participants were recruited as the project continued while most of the founder beadwork participants had maintained their membership with the organization, making it possible for the sustainability of the project. Based on the education level of the women, level of poverty and lack of awareness and accessibility of the market to supply their beadwork products made at home, the women chose the BMB project as an avenue to earn a living and access market for their products.

This argument is supported by the duration of work by respondents at the BMB project. A majority (47.3%) have worked at BMB for 10–15 years, followed by 37.8% who had been engaged at the project for less than 5 years. The rest (14.9%) had been engaged to 5–10 years. Therefore, the project has provided job security to women participants over a long period of time. Focus groups' discussions further established that members of the project with high level of beadwork experience and have been with the organization longer were able to train other new members faster, make new products faster and earn more when their products are sold. To elaborate this, consider Naisiae's (pseudonym) response during the focus group discussion:

> As per our culture and traditions, we as Maasai women always help each other whether it is beading, building huts or wedding preparations.

11.5.2 Maasai Women Engagement at Basecamp Masai Brand (BMB) Project

According to van der Cammen (1997), Maasai women have the distinct knowledge of craft production, which can be related to the development of tourism products and services. Women at BMB project apply this indigenous special knowledge and their traditional artistic skills to produce beads at BMB. However, instead of this indigenous knowledge being applied in beadwork production at BMB, women were trained on the kind of bead products the organizations required them to make. These designs were either suggested by tourists visiting the eco-lodge or downloaded from the Internet by the project manager. In essence, product training forms part of the reason why the women visited the workshop on a weekly basis. Sereya (pseudonym) poses and jokingly comments:

> Traditionally we sit together and come up with different ideas to produce unique bead designs to yield fantastic beadwork products; here we are directed to make this or that…laughs.

After training, the women could make the beads at home and deliver them on the next visiting week. At the workshop, women also had a chance to be trained and use sewing machines to produce beadwork but would also spend eight hours doing beadwork without taking a break or lunch. The eco-lodge did not provide lunch for the

women during their workshop visit nor provided lunch breaks for the women. Once the beadwork products are ready, they were sold at the eco-lodge or internationally through online marketing. After sales, 75% of the earnings were directly paid to every woman based on her sales volume while 25% was retained for purchase of materials. As a result, there was no specific amount paid to individual woman and the earnings were irregular.

11.5.3 Economic Empowerment of the Maasai Women Through BMB Project

Regarding the economic empowerment of the women, the study explored lasting or sustainable economic gains by the respondents, distribution and visible signs of improvement from cash earned as suggested by Scheyvens (1999)'s framework. The findings of the study established that close to 50% of the respondents earned between Ksh 100 and 10,000 after every two months, 28.4% earned between Ksh 10,001 and 20,000, 8.1% earned above Ksh 20,000 over the same period. 13.5% of the respondents were not able to make any income in the period of two months as shown in Fig. 11.1.

The women's earning could be regarded as signs of disempowerment and can be described as 'small with spasmodic gains' (Scheyvens, 1999:247). Under the project, the women are not sure when they would be paid and how much they would be paid. They are also not privy to the market (both local and international) prices

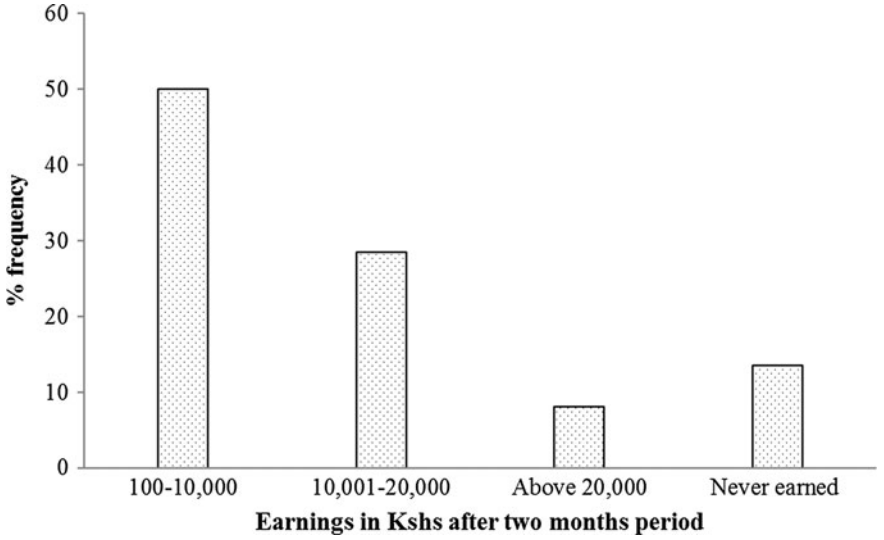

Fig. 11.1 Cash earned by the respondents after two months of work at BMB

of the commodities they produce. In addition, different beadworks produced by the women fetch different prices in the market. Thus, some women may bead products with higher price value compared to others, leading to income discrepancy where some women go for many months without any cash earning. This scenario leads to inequality in the spread of income benefits among the women. The distribution of economic benefits from ecotourism is regarded as just important as the actual amount of benefits a community may receive in determining the success and sustainability of an ecotourism venture (Wilkinson & Pratiwi, 1995).

Moreover, while the project can be considered as a source of income to the Maasai women, the earnings are more sporadic and cannot provide a regular and reliable income. It was also difficult to establish whether there were instances where the power broker, for example the project manager, may favour a group of women or manipulates the prices against the local women. Studies have established that power brokers or local elites have significant influence over who shares in the benefits of tourism projects (Akama, 1996; Smith, 1996). Nasieku (pseudonym) while explaining how change in management has impacted on their earnings argues

> When this project started with a mzungu (a white man), we used to earn regularly and more money…until he (the white man) left, we earn very little and not sure when it will be paid. But we keep hanging on because we don't have any choice.

In terms of visible signs of improvement from cash earned, the study through observation followed randomly selected women to their households and established that some women had improved their lives. However, women who were both members of the BMB and local micro-finance association referred to as *chama* had more visible improvement in their households. This supports previous research on income created from ecotourism ventures and its diversification (Lapeyre, 2010; Stronza, 2007).

11.5.4 Psychological Empowerment of the Maasai Women Through BMB Project

According to Scheyvens, (1999), a local community that is optimistic about the future and demonstrates pride in traditions and culture can be said to be psychologically powerful. Ecotourism ventures which promotes preservation of host community traditions, sensitive to cultural norms and respect for local traditions are imperative in maintaining local's sense of self-esteem and well-being (Mansperger, 1995). The BMB project seemed to have achieved the goal of business opportunity and meeting tourists' demands. In support of this business model, some researchers suggest that rural poverty can only be fought by changing traditional production methods, which would allow peasants to connect with global and/or tourism emerging markets (de Grammont, 2008; Losch, 2004). However, culturally the project model could be promoting commercialization of culture and redefining beadwork as originally enshrined in the Maasai culture where beading patterns portrays symbolic values and social meanings.

The idea of ecotourism ventures should be anchored on sustainable utilization of host community cultures rather than distorting the same culture to meet the ever-changing tourists' desires. It is like tourists saying let the Maasai cultural dance be performed in a certain non-cultural style to satisfy tourists' expectations. While access to employment at BMB and earned cash led to increased status of some women in society; majority still regards themselves to remain in low status in society. Hence, there still existed psychological disempowerment of the majority Maasai women working at the BMB project.

11.5.5 Social Empowerment of the Maasai Women Through BMB Project

In ecotourism context, social empowerment means a situation where local community's sense of cohesion and integrity has been confirmed or strengthened by ecotourism venture (Scheyvens, 1999). Revenue sharing mechanism at BMB rendered some women without earnings over a long period of time. Essentially, if a woman's product was not part of the sales revenue, she would not have any earning; creating a more or less capitalistic society than a cohesive society. This inequality in income distribution can foster social disempowerment through feelings of ill-will and jealousy among the Maasai women. For example, research by Sofield and Birtles (1996) established that one village chief in Federated States of Micronesia who kept all the entrance fee earnings to his village for himself led some community members to feel that money was making people stingy and therefore harming community spirit of cohesion. Among those who have managed to earn from BMB project, some have used their earnings to fund social development projects like purchasing water storage tanks, energy-saving charcoal burners, gas cylinders, solar panels and educating their children thus leading to social empowerment. Taylor (1995) concludes that assuming that communities will share unproblematically in the production and benefits of the ecotourism product may be excessively romantic. Inequalities also exist in all communities and may be worsened by introducing lucrative industry where all local community members may not have access (Scheyvens, 1999).

11.6 Conclusion

Ecotourism enterprises in rural areas have the capability in transforming rural women's life through psycho-economic, social and even political empowerment. Ecotourism can also provide employment opportunity to the less educated rural women by exploiting their cultural talents rather than their formal education to make livelihood. Therefore, BMB project provided employment opportunity to the Maasai women where the women could ache a living by employing their beadwork talent.

The project also provided a marketing platform where the final beadwork products could reach the market. Despite the positive economic, psychological and social benefits that have accrued to the women as a result of the project, great challenges still remain. Sporadic payment of cash earned or working for many months without earnings could lead to poor financial planning among the women. Because of their level of education and similar nature of their work, paying few women more cash than their counterparts could reduce social cohesion among them. Moreover, the fact that the women are ignorant about local and international market prices of their beadwork could lead to few power brokers taking advantage to swindle them. Some women also walk long distances, in dangerous terrains to reach the workstation. For instance, the study established that some women could walk from 4.00 pm after work and reach home at 8.00 pm in the night crossing wildlife dispersal areas with dangerous wild animals. Failure to provide lunch break or lunch or advising the women to carry their packed lunch from home is against Kenya's and international labour laws. As employees of the BMB project, provision of health care services could go a long way in empowering the women. For example, the project owners may take advantage of the current government National Hospital Insurance Fund (NHIF) cover of only Khs 500 (about USD 5) monthly remittance to facilitate the women's health cover.

11.7 Recommendation for Further Research

The study recommends the following areas for further research:

i. A comparative study on women empowerment between ecotourism ventures supporting Maasai women beadwork and local organized Maasai women associations selling beadwork;
ii. A comparative study on the level of empowerment between women working at ecotourism ventures and those doubling at the same ventures and are also members of other local micro-finance programmes;
iii. The influence of commercialization of beadwork as demanded by tourists on the authenticity of the Maasai beadwork;
iv. Effects of Maasai women employment at the ecotourism ventures on household cohesion.

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Chapter 12
The Political Economy of Tourism and Human Capital in the Dukuduku Village Community in South Africa

Phillibert Sibusiso Khuzwayo

12.1 Introduction

South Africa, as in many other sub-Saharan Africa countries, has prioritized tourism as a major economic sector (Krstić, Radivojević, & Stanišić, 2017; Moswete, 2011; Nzama, 2008; Saayman & Saayman, 2006). The government of South Africa identified the sector as one of the six economic pillars. In advancing the sector, the government established a stand-alone tourism ministry in 2009. This ministry has mainstreamed the tourism sector and implemented focussed policies and strategies to drive destination development. Central to this is the transformation agenda that seeks to achieve inclusive tourism development. Inclusive tourism development is critical for South Africa, a country which suffered decades of unequal development induced by exclusionary policies enacted by the Apartheid regime. Community-based tourism development is seen as one of the strategies to economically empower communities. The government of South Africa has also developed a number of strategies meant to promote inclusive tourism growth. However, the government has not done enough to ensure that communities are ready to participate in the tourism industry and its complicated value chain. As such, the implementation of various strategies has not benefitted the communities on the ground. One such case is the Dukuduku community in the KwaZulu-Natal province.

The government intervened in preventing mining in favour of tourism in the Greater St Lucia area, incorporating the Dukuduku community. The Dukuduku community did not have adequate human resources capital to deal with the complexities of the tourism industry. The state has not ensured that community development is accompanied by requisite human resources development to facilitate participation and maximize community benefits. The tourism benefits, therefore, remain a missed opportunity for the Dukuduku community. The political economy of tourism in the

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area excludes local communities who should be benefiting from the local natural and cultural endowments.

12.2 The Plight of Rural Communities in Sub-Saharan Africa

The KwaZulu-Natal province in South Africa is a successful tourism destination, and ecotourism is at the heart of this success. The provincial government is promoting community-based tourism for small, micro and medium size enterprises (SMMEs) at the local level. Saarinen (2009) argues that many sub-Saharan governments have laid substantial emphasis on the development of domestic and intra-regional tourism as means of creating both economic development and employment opportunities as well as of forging new concepts of identity and rights. The community identity and tourism rights are entrenched mainly in their culture and environment. Nepal and Saarinen (2016) posit that local livelihoods and especially community-based approaches have been typical for tourism studies that focus on people–environment relations in tourism development. The observation, however, is that these studies have not explored appropriate community training and human capacity development needs to inform community readiness programmes that stimulate their meaningful participation.

It is important to note that the importance of community rights point to new political economy in which local communities have begun to successfully contest local resource disputes with the state and other outside residents (Irvin & Stansbury, 2004; Neef, Onchan, & Schwarzmeier, 2003). This is not surprising as declining economic activity, restructuring of the agricultural sector, dwindling rural industrialisation and out-migration of higher educated youth from rural areas has meant tourism is adopted by many governments as an alternative development strategy for the economic and social regeneration of rural areas (Dashper, 2014; NDT, 2012; Sharpley & Stone, 2012; Visser & Ferreira, 2013). The similar phenomenon subsists in South Africa in addressing declining employment opportunities, particularly in rural areas.

The government of South Africa considers tourism as the economic sector that will drive economic growth and job creation (Acha-Anyi, 2015a, 2015b; Magi & Nzama, 2009a, 2009b; Nzama, 2008; Rogerson, 2015). As argued by a number of scholars, other less developed countries of sub-Saharan Africa affected by declining rural economies and pressures to enhance economic growth and job creation, governments are looking towards tourism for the economic and cultural well-being of rural communities through the conservation of the environment or the inclusion of local residents in decision-making to promote tourism development (Britton, 1982, 1991; Chen & Prebensen, 2017; Jamal & Robinson, 2009). In most cases, the promise for economic emancipation through tourism is not fully realized in sub-Saharan communities.

12.3 Demystifying the Concept 'Political Economy of Tourism'

Mosedale (2010, 2011, 2014, 2015, 2016) acknowledges that the challenge of writing about political economy as applied in tourism lies in a number of issues. Firstly, political economy means different things to different people; it is far from being a unified concept. It spans various disciplines ranging from economics to anthropology, each entertaining their own interpretations. Economics focusses on individual behaviours and rational choice theory, whereas anthropology is interested in culturally determined inequalities. Secondly, although the critical academic discussions of tourism in the 1970s, such as de Kadt (1979) and Young (1973), and applications of dependency theory (Holden, 2006; Singh, 1992; Sofield, 2015) were influenced by political economy, there has not been a particularly strong tradition of applying political economy approaches to tourism, as Williams (2004) concludes, that fruitful theoretical developments in political economy have largely bypassed tourism. This has resulted in local communities being economic spectators in the tourism industry that booms in their localities. The multinational chain hotels and big tourism operators continue to exploit local tourism opportunities which mainly boost their bottom line at the expense of communities.

Bianchi (2011) argues that the dearth of Marxist theorizing in tourism remains something of a mystery, not least given that it has often been proclaimed that tourism constitutes one of the world's largest industries. In examining and assessing tourism policy formulation, Sofield (2015) suggests that tourism planning and implementation of tourism development highlight the interface between theory and practice with attendant tensions that often produce dissonance rather than harmony. There are two overarching fields with which a practitioner of tourism development must be familiar, namely, the political/governance arena and the socio-cultural system and structure of the country concerned. The first provides political parameters within which policy formulation and development planning will be accepted or rejected and the second provides a value system which will often determine whether a proposal is acceptable or undesirable (even offensive); together both shape the directions that need to be taken for successful implementation. These two fields lack the human resources and human capital development to enable communities to harness the economic benefits of tourism.

This dichotomy forms the crux of political economy of tourism, particularly at Dukuduku village. Community participation in tourism has always been regarded as easy way out of poverty and way of creating employment. Tourism has not been introduced to communities as a complex industry that requires specialized human resources. This has meant that communities lose out on lucrative tourism employment opportunities and deal as their participation is reduced to menial tourism jobs. Consequently, specialized and critical tourism sector skills have to be sourced from outside, particularly from the private sector, to ensure sustainability of community projects. Such employment patterns and business models perpetuate the exclusion of the very same communities that are meant to be empowered.

12.4 Background to the Political Economy of Tourism Dynamics in Dukuduku

The Dukuduku community is located within the Mtubatuba municipality in KwaZulu-Natal province. This municipality was in the news in the late 1980s when mining was foregone by the community in favour of ecotourism development (Sundnes, 2013). In 1989, the part of St Lucia Wetland Park, now Isimangaliso World Heritage Site, falling within the jurisdiction of Mtubatuba Municipality became the subject of a bitterly fought dispute over land use rights when Richards Bay Minerals (RBM), a subsidiary of Rio Tinto Zinc, shocked South Africa environmentalists by applying to dredgemine a twelve kilometre stretch of dunes in the south-eastern corner of Isimangaliso Wetland Park (Harrison, 2001; Nustad, 2015; Sundnes, 2013). These vegetated dunes on the eastern shore of the lake contain rich resources of titanium and other heavy minerals. RBM claimed that the proposed mining would not cause any lasting damage to the ecology of the dunes thus disruption would be minimal, and pointed to its record of environmental reparation work for which it had won an award. It further argued that mining would provide jobs for local people and foreign exchange for the country as a whole (Harrison, 2001).

However, the proposal awakened massive public interest and debate, particularly over possible threats to biodiversity conservation. Overall, 500,000 people, including the then incoming President Nelson Mandela, signed a petition against the proposal. Environmentalists won this battle on the grounds that conservation and ecotourism would be better options than mining to secure development in a district ridden with poverty (Buckley, 2009; Ntombela, 2003; Sundnes, 2013). Despite the political and economic strength of the mining industry in South Africa, the then Natal Parks Board, now Ezemvelo KwaZulu-Natal Wildlife, and a consortium of around 150 environmental groups mounted a sophisticated and high profile campaign against Richards Bay Minerals' application.

The consensus among the established tourism businesses in the neighbouring town of St Lucia was that upmarket tourism would provide far more in terms of employment and general betterment of the area than either mining or ecotourism (Allen & Brennan, 2004). However, the Natal Parks Board proposed, instead, integrated ecotourism projects which, it claimed, would provide more and longer lasting jobs than those generated under RBM's plan and provide employment, casual work for crafters and sustainable access to forest resources for crafts and construction (Harrison, 2001; Zeppel, 2006). In addition, Harrison (2001) points out that the Natal Parks Board argued that the re-vegetation envisaged by RBM after mining was completed was unlikely, given that changes in the soil structure would alter the hydrology of the local ecosystem, and that the loss of income from potential ecotourism receipts would exceed the anticipated but short-term local benefits from dredgemining the dunes. Allen and Brennan (2004: 83) argue that

> to this end, the Dukuduku Development and Tourism Association (DDTA) was formed and a Committee elected. As a result, the Natal Parks Board argued that it was making positive and supportive moves towards settlers who had been relocated, and was introducing members

> of the DDTA to complexities of integrated conservation and development planning…. Subsequently, an ambitious plan for eco-tourism development in the Greater St Lucia Wetland Park, the Gateway Project was optimistically considered by both parties.

12.5 Global and Local Dynamics in Community Tourism Participation

South Africa promotes an open market economy that promotes equal access to economic opportunities. The small tourism businesses owned by the struggling community members compete with large and well-established businesses, including multinational tourism players. These small community businesses have to find their way within the complex tourism industry, with its intricate environmental factors. In assessing the changes related to all dimensions of the external environment, insofar as they impact upon tourism, its workforce and the ways in which organizations marshal their human resources, Baum (2015: 205) states that

> Macro-environmental change has been clearly evident across a broad spectrum of economic, political, sociocultural and technological dimensions during the timeframe in question, a selection of which might include the gradual acceptance by most in the world community of climate change and the potential future scarcity of traditional energy resources; failure to halt the increasing gaps between the 'haves' and 'have nots' both within developed nations and between these countries and their poorer neighbours; gradual but patchy recovery from the global (read European/North American) financial crisis; a rebalancing of global economies in favour of emerging economic powers, in part a response to crisis but reflecting more fundamental, underlying shifts; an escalation of political turbulence at a regional level in key flashpoints around the world; generational and technological change in consumer behaviour and the way in which we execute our choices; the power of social media and its impact on how we communicate with each other, with our brands, with our customers and within the workplace; and the rising power of lifestyle over more overt material career choices in developed economies. Each of these has direct consequences for tourism as a global industry, for work and the workplace and also for the management of people working within the myriad of businesses that go to make up the tourism sector.

The small community tourism businesses are affected by the local and global macro-economic issues the same way as the larger tourism counterparts. The only difference is that the well-established businesses have means and technical expertise to deal with the external factors.

The government interventions at Dukuduku have not taken into consideration the global dynamics. Tourism development in Dukuduku presents a classic example of political economy of tourism at a local level where communities are marginalized. The Dukuduku Community has been immensely affected by government decisions in tourism development. Scholars argue that if social and economic development through tourism means anything at all, it must mean a clear improvement in the conditions of life and livelihood of ordinary people in the local communities (Mann, 2014; Murphy, 2013; Page & Connell, 2008). It is therefore argued that in South Africa, with the historical challenges of poverty, inequality and unemployment,

communities desperate for job creation and economic emancipation will choose any economic opportunity provided by the government which promises manumission from economic hardship. The argument advances that the Dukuduku community has also been given a promise of economic emancipation and better life through tourism development. Nonetheless, the fulfilment of this promise has been hampered by provincial and local government inefficiencies, coupled with poor community training. As argued by many scholars, the poor people often have no choice but to choose immediate economic benefits at the expense of the long-term sustainability of their livelihoods (Page & Connell, 2008; Ryan & Aicken, 2005; Wismer, Babcock, & Nurkin, 2005).

In advancing the political economy of tourism argument, and lost opportunities in Dukuduku, the definition of tourism as propagated by McIntosh, Goeldner, and Richie (1999), tourism is seen as the sum of the phenomena and relationships arising from the interaction of tourists, business suppliers, host governments and host communities in the process of attracting and hosting these tourists and other visitors. The related definition that depicts economic tourism value chain portrays tourism as the sum total of the processes, activities and outcomes arising from the interactions among tourists, tourism suppliers, host governments, host communities, origin governments, universities, community colleges and non-governmental organizations, in the process of attracting, transporting, hosting and managing tourists and other visitors (Weaver & Lawton, 2006). This calls for deliberate programmes to capacitate communities to become active tourism players. Communities must be capacitated to understand the entire tourism value chain. This can only be effectively done if there are skills programmes deliberately designed to empower communities.

To realize the full potential of tourism at a local level, Bertucci (2002) argues that policies concerning the different dimensions of tourist activities seem to benefit when local governance institutions are strengthened. He further states that the need to preserve the environment, to generate and manage financial resources in ways that help develop the best potentials of a community, to manage diversity and to provide an enabling environment for the promotion of local entrepreneurship call for greater involvement of local authorities. Khuzwayo (2016) noted that there is limited academic research on tourism governance, especially at local level, with limited participation of academics at local level structures which leads to poor platforms for knowledge sharing. This is the cause for concern given the active participation of academics at provincial and national level tourism development and marketing governance structures.

Good governance at a local level is important, as Burns and Novelli (2007) argue that given tourism's potential towards small, micro and medium enterprises (SMMEs), and its local location within a context of international competitiveness, the creation of an environment free from relative restriction balanced with human (community) rights should be seen (in an era of corporate social responsibility) as a part of tourism's product development. In concurrence, Kűtting (2010) avers that in many of the world's regions, tourism is firmly anchored in small- and medium-sized enterprises and the relationship between such locally owned tourist facilities and the global political economy is under researched. Contrary to this assertion,

the Dukuduku community and local tourism SMEs have lost out on broad tourism economic opportunities due to political decisions and governance inefficiencies at government level. The private sector has continued to thrive, in the midst of abject poverty experienced by communities.

12.6 The Environmental Protection—Community Livelihood Dichotomy in Dukuduku

Tourism in many sub-Saharan countries in Africa depends on wildlife and environmental management. There are always fundamental pluralist conceptions of power relations with regard to economic development and environmental protection. These always stir conflict between government, environmental protection agencies and communities. The structural economic disparities which are legacies of apartheid in South Africa exacerbate these development antagonisms. This means that despite accepted legal frameworks on environmental management in South Africa, their implicit acceptance must be balanced with economic realities on the ground. The communities should be capacitated on environmental issues. This should not just be environmental awareness programmes meant to foster compliance with environmental regulations. In addition to compliance, communities should be empowered through environmental education programmes to exploit tourism opportunities availed by their immediate environments.

It is now widely accepted that the local interactions of tourism with politics and democracy are increasingly being framed by global realities such as general agreement and tariffs and trade (GATT), general agreement on trade and services (GATS), World Trade Organization and corporate alliances (Burns & Novelli, 2007). In the case of Dukuduku, the World Heritage Convention of 1972, as an international instrument, determines tourism–environment local interactions. The aim of the World Heritage Convention is the identification, protection, conservation, presentation and transmission to future generations of cultural and natural heritage of outstanding universal value (Cameron & Rössler, 2016; Labadi, 2013; Logan, Craith, & Kockel, 2015). Generally, the justification for regional conservation is protection of internationally shared ecosystems (Munthali, 2007), increasing the land size which is seen as necessary for the maintenance of an adequately diverse and sufficient large gene pool, or to encompass the range necessary for large mammals (Hanks, 2003; Sandwith, Shine, Hamilton, & Sheppard, 2001) and to promote natural ecosystem flow (Williamson et al., 2011). The state of the Convention is therefore critical for all the state parties that have declared World Heritage Sites in their jurisdictions. Article 5 of the Convention contains general responsibilities for each State Party regarding the conservation of natural and cultural heritage in general, not just World Heritage, like taking effective and active measures for the protection, conservation and presentation of this heritage situated on its territory (UNESCO, 1972). This places a direct responsibility on the government of South Africa to ensure that the Isimangaliso

World Heritage Site is managed according to principles that ensure good environmental governance. The tourism potential of Dukuduku is engrained on the natural environment that has been declared a World Heritage Site. The dire socio-economic plight of the Dukuduku community is constrained by the global environmental protection protocol at the expense of immediate livelihood basic needs for communities. The strife with the international protocols that govern local activities as espoused by Kűtting (2010) is that while many global governance institutions certainly have a bearing on the interplay between tourism and the environment, they do not really formally address the issue except by setting normative standards in which players and problems are situated.

The challenge is that the South African government has ensured that the Isimangaliso World Heritage Site is protected through the normative standards of the Convention, while the surrounding community's socio-economic welfare has been neglected. The tourism potential of Dukuduku has thus become obsolete due to poor support given to local communities for tourism development to harnesses benefits from their proximity to the World Heritage Site. The challenges of Dukuduku can be addressed through careful analysis of power relations between communities and government. As Visser and Ferreira (2013) provide guidance, any understanding of the potential for changing the framework by which we understand crises (tourism–environment crisis) needs to be grounded in research of the interrelationships between power, values, norms and interests and how they influence selection of policy instruments, indicators and settings within broader frames of governance and change.

Sharpely and Telfer (2014) argue that the political economy of tourism should, therefore, seek to elucidate upon the antagonistic forces and social relations which give rise to and are encompassed within specific modes of tourism development. These modes of tourism development are the specific historical combination of technologies and power relations which underpin the organization of tourism production in any given historical-geographic context. A radical approach to the political economy of tourism thus challenges the realist perspectives which characterize, for example, technical approaches to the tourism policy and planning. In the context of Dukuduku, the government did not adopt any radical approach to tourism development after the decision to forego mining in favour of tourism was taken. Isimangaliso Wetland Park was declared and all the attention was given to nature conservation and less was done for community upliftment. The struggling community tourism entrepreneurs were subjected to tourism market forces and they could not compete with their counterparts in the nearby well-established town of St Lucia.

The plight of communities was left exposed to the market behaviour in isolation from the tourism-conservation ideology peddled by the government. There was, therefore, no consideration of the various interest groups as only conservation took the centre stage. Various attempts have been made by authors (Ardalan, 2016; Sharma, 2004; Sharpley & Telfer, 2014) who have indicated that the free market notion of comparative advantage underplays both the unequal distribution of incomes and power which may result from 'open' competition in the tourism market, as well as the political nature of markets whereby the state has historically conditioned the

activities of economic classes, and furthermore, ignores the uneven consequences of unlimited market competition. There is, therefore, no way the Dukuduku community can compete in the free and open tourism market system without human resources capacitation programmes that allow them to compete for market share of the Isimangaliso World Heritage Site. The funding and management model of Isimangaliso World Heritage Site by the government and competitive tourism businesses in St Lucia town far outclass the community-based operations in Dukuduku. Without interventionist training programmes, the community will remain poor in the land of plenty.

The deferred promise of tourism development and associated economic benefits have thus deprived communities of their regular historical livelihoods. Nustad (2015) argues that before the Dukuduku community was relocated to Khula Village, the forest and the river provided people with fruits, wild animals to hunt, springs of freshwater and fish, as well as firewood, they also served as grazing fields, while the floodplain around the river contained earth so rich that it could be used as fertilizer. This was a livelihood based on natural resources which are now out of reach to communities and this has resulted in poverty and hunger in the community. As alluded by Post (2013), for the more than fifteen thousand residents of Dukuduku's main settlement, Khula Village, the notion of community is defined by a spatial boundary and a common economic interests in the resources of the area. While the concerns of the residents themselves are with the development of community infrastructure, job creation and poverty alleviation, development visions for the region are being significantly shaped by the World Heritage status, which defines human action in terms of preservation imperatives of the natural landscape. The communities are therefore poor in the land that provides myriad tourism opportunities. Post (2013) argues that since the Dukuduku people are extremely poor, their survival appears to depend on their conforming to the visions and requisites defined by external agencies. However, they are well positioned to develop agency through self-representation, which builds upon environmental value and cultural significance. All this calls for human capital development for local communities in the field of tourism.

12.7 Commodifying Culture and Environment as Tourism Economy in Dukuduku

Hall and Tucker (2004: 108) specify that in the province of KwaZulu-Natal (KZN), now branded 'The Kingdom of the Zulu' by the KZN Tourism Authority, monuments celebrating Zulu heritage (e.g. the new 'Spirit of Makhosini monument near Ulundi) and statues to Zulu Kings (especially Shaka), quite obviously cater for the tourists' sense of exoticism, thereby reinforcing stereotypes created by the colonizer. The Zulu culture has been commodified even further with the province extending its marketing by-line from 'The Kingdom of the Zulu' to 'Zulu Kingdom: Exceptional'.

The KwaZulu-Natal Tourism Masterplan (2013) stipulates that all the core experiences in the province, either unique to the destination or significantly different from a similar experience in a competitive destination, are underpinned by the unique Zulu Culture. The Isimangaliso World Heritage Site has also been commodified and is used as one of the major tourist attractions in the province. Challenges in the area have meant that the Dukuduku community has not been able to commodify their culture and their local environmental attributes to leverage on the provincial tourism marketing campaigns underpinned by Zulu culture. This Dukuduku community, in a close proximity to the Isimangaliso World Heritage Site, has missed out on inherent tourism benefits linked to Zulu culture.

The idea of a lost opportunity is confirmed by a number of scholars who argue that tourism initiatives in KwaZulu-Natal capitalize on the global imagination of the Zulu as the quintessential African Warrior Nation, an image that is framed in an idealized, historical moment and perpetuates their representation as authentic, potent and uncontaminated (Post, 2013; Sundnes, 2013; Tomaselli, 2012). In as much as tourism feeds on mediated images of the 'noble savage', so ecotourism trades on the recurrent tropes of the African landscape based on images of an endless, pristine wilderness teaming with wildlife, and into which are inserted 'natural' but soon to vanish cultures. If the Dukuduku community are given empowering training programmes that allow them to commodify their Zulu heritage into local tourist attractions, they can leverage on the tourism potential of their innate talents and cultural lived experiences. George (2005: 1) argues that

> culture may well be a viable asset and provide a competitive advantage of some rural communities when considering tourism as a strategy for revitalisation and sustainability. It is cultural life of rural people represented through distinct and different living patterns and way of life, and expressed through various symbolic traditions, texts, artefacts and other forms, that provide, for many, a contrast to the mundane and stresses of urban life and environments. Thus, through tourism, the rural region can offer a variety of new sites of consumption for travelling tourists who are ever seeking new leisure experiences.

12.8 Community Tourism Participation in Dukuduku Village

There is a glimpse of hope with a few members of the community in Khula Village section of Dukuduku Village who have seized the opportunity and established some form of tourism businesses based on commodification of their culture and the immediate environment. These businesses were self-funded by individual entrepreneurs and are struggling with their operations. All of these facilities do not meet any quality grading criteria set by the Tourism Grading Council of South Africa. The lack of grading indicates that poor quality of services and tourists do not make bookings in the village. This leads to tourists booking at St Lucia and the Khula Village community look in despair at loads of tour busses passing their precinct to St Lucia town and Isimangaliso Wetland Park on daily basis. The types of tourism facilities and

services offered by the community in the area can be classified into four broad categories. Firstly, the Dukuduku community provides accommodation facilities. These are further divided into cultural village accommodation style facilities, backpackers, bed and breakfast establishments and homestays. Secondly, the community has formed tour guides and tour operator services. These include shuttle services, game drives, nature walks, school eco-tours, cultural tours and bird watching. Thirdly, some members of the community have established restaurants. These restaurants cater for tourists, community members, local bed and breakfast facilities, municipality functions, community functions, and there is a tree garden with indigenous trees and herbs. Fourthly, the community has crafters who use their natural talents to make craft artefacts sold as souvenirs and also provide on-site crafting experience for tourists.

The current economic impact of tourism in Khula Village is a total of 120 people who are employed in the sector, with 93 direct jobs and 27 indirect jobs. The jobs emanate from 30 people directly employed and 8 indirectly employed in the accommodation sector; 2 directly employed and also 2 indirectly employed in conference facilities; 18 directly employed and 1 indirectly employed as crafters; 13 directly employed and 8 indirectly employed as tourist guides/and or tour operators and 30 directly employed and 8 indirectly employed by restaurants and/or catering. However, the environment–tourism dynamics in the area have stifled the full potential of the tourism economy for the communities (Khuzwayo, 2017). This is contrary to the prospects to the tourism economy when the area was declared a World Heritage site as Honey (2008: 371) had postulated that tourism development is viewed as a mechanism for poverty alleviation of the region's 160,000 historically disadvantaged people.

12.9 Challenges Faced by Local Businesses

The local businesses in Dukuduku Village are diverse and fall under various tourism sector clusters, and require varied support mechanisms based on their specific challenges. These challenges are experienced across the board by various types of businesses, while others are specific to certain community businesses. The accommodation sector experiences challenges with regard to lack of demand and sales; financial management, marketing skills deficit; transport issues; lack of quality equipment; lack of capital; poor managerial skills and shortage of raw material. The tour operator and tour guides experience challenges with regard to lack of demand; financial management skills; marketing skills; insufficient vehicles; quality equipment; managerial skills and shortage of resources. The restaurants face challenges such as lack of demand; financial control; food safety assurance; marketing skills; transport and logistics; lack of capital; management skills and procurement skills. Challenges experienced by crafters include lack of demand and poor sales; financial control; marketing skills; transport; lack of production and retail space; quality working tools; capital; management skills; storage space and lack raw materials (Khuzwayo, 2017).

The challenges faced by businesses signal a need for human resources and training programmes that should be offered to the Dukuduku Village communities. Communities indicated that they need assistance with business incubation; business planning; business management; financial management; business linkages programmes; arts and craft development programmes; access to finance; hospitality management; marketing; chef training, including African cuisine; food handling; culture guiding; nature guiding; sustainable development/nature conservation; women empowerment programmes and youth empowerment programmes. The challenges experienced by community businesses at Dukuduku Village are not peculiar to them but are characteristic of issues facing small tourism firms. Rogerson (2008) isolates a number of common challenges facing tourism small businesses, including market access and marketing; business management skills; access to ICT and infrastructure; skills and training; finance; regulation and inadequate institutional support. However, this is not just a South African phenomenon or sub-Saharan African countries issue as Mtshali, Mtapuri, and Shamase (2017) clarify that even at international level, studies indicate that some of the challenges faced by SMMEs relate to lack of financing, low productivity, lack of managerial capabilities, poor access to management and technology and heavy regulatory burdens.

12.10 Conclusion

The case study for the Dukuduku community in South Africa reveals that sustainable tourism development will never be achieved unless local communities are part of the value chain within the mainstream industry. The fundamentals for community participation should be the clear community human resource development strategy which must empower communities through enhancing local human capital. This will create human capacity and capable workforce to meaningfully participate in the tourism value chain. This is more important for sub-Saharan countries, particularly South Africa which is still trying to redress the imbalances of the past Apartheid laws that excluded black communities from participating in the tourism economy. Developing countries such as South Africa should follow tenets of a developmental state, and government should play a proactive role in community tourism development. The lack of community empowerment programmes and focussed interventions in the tourism human resource development strategies in South Africa is a cause for concern. Both the 2008 and the revised Tourism Human Resource Development Strategy for South Africa spanning 2016–2026 does not provide for community tourism training programmes.

The constitution of South Africa classifies tourism as a concurrent function, with tourism being the responsibility for all the three spheres of government. It is thus imperative for the government of South Africa, based on the constitutional mandate, to always provide strategies and coordinated planning for tourism destinations, particularly to streamline participation of previously disadvantaged communities. Guidance provided by the national government to all other spheres of government

should ensure mainstreaming of tourism political economy in traditional communities. This must be focused particularly on demand and supply, marketing, quality assurance, business management, sustainable and inclusive tourism development.

In driving meaningful community participation, the government should support community initiatives through identifying Human Resources Development needs of the communities and providing appropriate interventions. In this regard, partnerships with the private sector are pivotal in providing mentorship on requisite skills to emerging tourism entrepreneurs. Inherently, the local municipalities should play an important coordination role in streamlining all available public and private sector support, and facilitate training and skills programmes for local communities.

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Chapter 13
Missionaries' Guesthouses and Skills Development for Community-Based Tourism in West Pokot County, Kenya: A Capacity Building and Employment Analysis

Jonathan Plimo Ng'oriarita

13.1 Introduction

Although Kenya is one of Africa's success stories in terms of tourism development, much of the sector is concentrated in specific geographical areas namely the major urban areas, the coastal region as well as areas with pristine national parks. Therefore it means that most of the trained human resources are absorbed in these areas. The government of Kenya (GoK) in her development plans seeks to empower local communities to develop their own tourism sectors and key to this commitment is the availability of the requisite human resource pool. This is lacking in the rural areas. The government of Kenya (GoK) in its Vision 2030 has an ambitious plan to spread tourism to rural parts of the country which currently are not covered well in the country's tourism map. In terms of providing human capital to the workforce, the main institution training human resources in the country, the Kenya Utalii College by 2016 only graduated 2,664 (KNBS, 2018). This is a drop in the sea for a sector that is rapidly expanding. It is therefore important to deterministically find other ways of innovatively injecting more skills into the industry to bridge the skill deficit in the country.

The tourism industry is one of the world's largest economic sectors with tremendous economic, social, environmental and heritage value (WTTC, 2017). In 2016, the sector contributed a direct GDP growth of 3.1% and generated 292 million jobs an equivalent to 1 in 10 jobs in the global economy (WTTC, 2017). In total, the sector generated US$7.6 trillion (10.2% of global GDP). The sector accounted for 6.6% of total global exports and almost 30% of total global service exports (WTTC,

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2017). The sector generated 11,409,000 jobs directly in 2016 (5.0% of total employment) and this is forecasted to grow by 2.8% in 2017 to 11,730,000 (5.1% of total employment) (WTTC, 2017). This points to the significance of tourism as a vehicle for driving economic agendas of many countries around the world especially the developing ones (Keyser, 2009; Marzuki, 2009; Milne & Alteljevic, 2001; Samimi, Sadeghi & Sadeghi, 2011; Sharpley, 2001; UNWTO, 2016).

In Africa, Kenya is one of the countries which testifies to the significance of tourism, where it contributed about 10% of the GDP, and employed about 9% of the total wage workforce in the country (GoK, 2017). Kenya is therefore regarded as a major force, a success story in the sub-Saharan Africa where it is ranked 5th in terms of travel and tourism competitiveness (World Economic Forum, 2015). Globally, Kenya is ranked 78th. The top ten sub-Saharan countries are South Africa (48), Seychelles (54), Mauritius (56), Namibia (70), Kenya (78), Cape Verde (86), Botswana (88), Tanzania (93), Rwanda (98) and Zambia (107) (World Economic Forum, 2015). However, considering the fact that Kenya has embraced tourism since the colonial times, this position is an under-performance. The country ought to be doing better (World Bank, 2010). One of the major drawbacks cited in Kenya's tourism performance is overreliance on two products, beach and safari (World Bank, 2010). These two products were inherited from the colonial tourism development model; and 54 years on, not much innovation has been introduced. This therefore means that in the post colonial Kenya, tourism has not moved out of the coastal areas with beautiful beaches and areas endowed with wildlife resources. Regions outside these descriptions have not entered into serious tourism despite their endowment with rich cultural resources among other attractions.

Another dimension of this old tourism development model in Kenya is the exclusion of the local communities. Despite Kenya recording huge tourism earnings in the national accounts, poverty levels are high in areas of strong tourism especially the counties in the coastal region (Government of Kenya, 2014). The exclusion of the local communities from the sector is attributed to lack of proper skills, inadequate capacity to develop and manage their tourism sector as well as high domination by multinational companies in the sector. Most decisions affecting the sector are made with little regard to the local communities and most often in the interest of the national government and the investors. Local communities in most cases bear the costs of tourism development thereby leading to the high poverty incidences.

13.2 'Righting' the Imbalance

The uneven tourism development scenario in Kenya that was identified has seen several attempts put in place to 'right' the imbalance. Recent government attempts to empower the local communities so that they can take control of their own tourism sector and to spread out tourism to other areas that are not traditionally tourism areas has been captured in the vision 2030, with a flagship project on certification of 1,000 home-stays to provide cultural tourism in Kenyan homes. This is envisaged to

ensure that tourism is managed and owned by the local communities. However, most rural communities across Kenyan landscape cannot harness this potential adequately due to insufficient tourism-related infrastructure and investments, unskilled tourism workforce, low-capacity tourism administrations, lack of tourism diversification and lack of effective marketing strategies. This has called for a mechanism through which the local community's capacity can be developed so as to manage their tourism sectors.

13.3 Research Questions

(i) To what extent do Missionaries' Guesthouses in West Pokot County, Kenya contribute towards local communities' capacity for tourism development?
(ii) What are the nature of tourism and hospitality skills being developed and utilized at the Missionaries' Guesthouses in West Pokot County, Kenya?
(iii) How do MGHs impart skills to members of local communities with low education levels to offer services that meet the expectations of the guests?
(iv) To what extent do Missionaries' Guesthouses in West Pokot County contribute towards employment creation?
(v) What is the satisfaction level of guests/visitors with the services offered at Missionaries' Guesthouses in West Pokot County, Kenya?

13.4 The Concept of Guesthouse Facilities as Accommodation Segment; The Meaning of Guesthouses

Regarded as a people's sector in all its aspects and dimensions, tourism is a labour-intensive industry making use of both skilled and unskilled workers. Although the sector heavily relies on skilled labour formally trained in tourism and hospitality, the value of the services offered by skill holders who informally acquired their skills has not been examined. In some instances, these skill holders suffer low degree of social recognition hence contributing to their low-status ranking (Hagan, Demonsant, & Chávez, 2014).

According to George (2012: 255), a guesthouse is an existing home, a renovated home or a building that has been specifically designed as a residential dwelling to provide overnight accommodation, together with public areas for the exclusive use of its guests. It must have more than three rooms. A guesthouse therefore is a form of tourism accommodation, and it embraces different types of tourism operations with similar characteristics that offer beverage, food and accommodation in a small family-style environment (Ramugunda & Ferreira, 2016). These kinds of operations could offer relatively the same kind of service offered by small hotels, which would

on average have between twenty to fifty rooms, although the guesthouse includes a more homely environment where tourists may share facilities and meals with the hosts (Ramugunda & Ferreira, 2016). Guesthouses have a long tradition internationally and descriptions of guesthouses differ from country to country. Inns, for example, are ubiquitous in the United States of America, with guesthouses normally found in the upper-market area of a city or town, most often near tourist attractions and easily reachable by car, taxi or bus service (Page, 2009: 273; Ramugunda & Ferreira, 2016).

In Germany, the *Gasthaus* is famous, while in the United Kingdom, small and family run properties with fewer than 12 rooms dominate the B and B/small hotel sector (Henning, 2004: 8). In Spain, the *paradores* dominate and have up to ten rooms with occupancy rates as high as 100% on a day to day basis (Ramugunda & Ferreira, 2016). In France, guesthouses are known as '*hotels du charme*' or 'boutique hotels', while '*Gîtes*' provides self-catering accommodation in or near small villages (Lyons, 2013; Ramugunda & Ferreira, 2016). The '*Gîte*' itself may be a small cottage, village house or a flat in the owner's house. Over and above the presence of guesthouses in New Zealand, another form of serviced accommodation found in that country is the so-called 'home-stay' concept (Ramugunda & Ferreira, 2016). Here the visitor stays in a house on a farm with a family who act as hosts and allow the visitor to experience the local way of living. This also enables rural farmers to supplement their income (Page, 2009: 273; Ramugunda & Ferreira, 2016). In South Africa, the term guesthouse indicated that the establishment must consist of four or more bedrooms. Each bedroom must have an en suite bathroom or the guesthouse must have a private bathroom for the exclusive use of clients (Ramugunda & Ferreira, 2016). Furthermore, the establishment must have public areas that are exclusively for the use of the clients (Henning, 2004: 43; Ramugunda & Ferreira, 2016). Major international events such as conferences and sport tournaments depend on the standard of accommodation provided in the host country for its success, including guesthouses (Ramugunda & Ferreira, 2016).

Guesthouses are classified under accommodation, which is one of the sub-sectors of the tourism industry. Callon, Miles, and Muniesa (2007: 21; Ramukumba, 2016) assert that the 'accommodation sector is one of the most key sectors of the tourism industry'. In fact, accommodation, or lodging, is by far the largest and ubiquitous subsector within the tourism industry. Accommodation is a fundamental element of the tourism product and not only it is the largest and most ubiquitous sub-sector within the tourism economy (Cooper, Fletcher, Gilbert, & Wanhill, 1998: 313; Ramukumba, 2016) it is also typically accounting for around one-third of total trip expenditure (Cooper et al., 1998; Ramukumba, 2016). At the same time, however, the growth and development of the accommodation sector in particular are also intimately related to the overall development and success of tourism destinations in general (Ramukumba, 2016). Similarly, the physical location, density and quality of accommodation, and the extent to which it is balanced with the broader development of infrastructure and tourism-related facilities, is an important element in the overall tone or attraction of tourism destinations (Ramukumba, 2016). Therefore, the success of tourism destinations is largely dependent upon the appropriate development of the accommodation sector (Ramukumba, 2016). The choice of accommodation reflects, by and large,

the needs and expectations of the tourist and, as a result, both the quantitative and qualitative characteristics of the supply of accommodation services directly influence the type of tourism/tourists attracted to destination areas. This means that accommodation is an essential support facility in the destination regions (Ramukumba, 2016).

13.5 Guesthouses in West Pokot County

Tourism is one of the main earning sources for Kenya and tourism activities are contributing positively to the country's economy by earning foreign exchanges and employment creation (Bhuiyan, Siwar, Ismail, & Islam, 2011; Bhuiyan, Siwar, & Ismail, 2013). West Pokot County, the study area for this study is one of the counties in the North Rift Economic Bloc (NOREB) of Kenya. There are some socio-economic challenges in this county as well as the other arid and semi-arid counties of Kenya. Among these challenges are poor incomes, high levels of unemployment, poverty, lack of tourism accommodation facilities, low urbanization, lack of local capacity to develop the tourism sector, limited investment and poor infrastructure development, poor image, insecurity, persistent drought and famine are among others. But this county is full of natural and mineral resources, mountains, cultural attractions, panoramic landscapes and wildlife among other attractions. Although both the national and county governments have given emphasis on tourism development, the same have not fully taken off in the county. Missionaries' guesthouses may be a significant boost for tourism development in the county and may also create opportunities for the community to benefit from tourism in their localities.

This model of accommodation gives focus on Christian values in tourism sector because they are owned and managed by the churches. They also offer the opportunity for tourists to interact with the local communities and enjoy traditional lifestyle, local culture and customs to attract domestic and foreign tourists. This missionaries' guest housing concept programme can create commitment and genuine interest among the local people especially the local youth and women. The local communities can ensure their socio-economic enhancement by actively participating in missionaries' guesthouses. This study therefore seeks to examine the economic potentialities of missionaries' guesthouses to the local communities and the operators. Missionaries' guesthouses in this study are those executive homes that belonged to former missionaries who worked and lived in the rural areas but left upon the completion of their missionary work. Located deep in rural areas, these facilities were turned into income-generating units (IGUs) giving accommodation to country-side travellers. Visitors to these rural communities become a major watershed for community-based rural tourism. The host communities have to treat the tourists as partners in development and as important stakeholders in their development. The tourists experience and learn the lifestyles of the local community as well as experience the local cultures. Different countries have different concepts of home-stays/guesthouses. For the purpose of this study, the missionaries' guesthouses are those buildings/residential

houses that were once used by church missionaries' that had settled in rural parts of West Pokot. Upon the expiry of their missionary works, these houses were handed over to the local community through the parent church to be run as an income-generating unit for the church. These guesthouses together with the employees who were sourced from the local communities by the missionaries and trained them are now supporting tourism in these remote parts of the country.

The tourism literature identifies a direct relationship between tourism development capacity for local communities and the benefit entitlement from the sector. Lack of entrepreneurial capacity to benefit from tourism business opportunities, inadequate understanding of tourism markets and limited community awareness of tourism and its impacts are responsible for the exclusion of the local communities (Mascardo, 2008). Community capacity refers to the levels of competence, ability and skills necessary to set and achieve relevant goals. It includes community capacity on knowledge and the ability to define and suggest solutions for problems, the ability to critically evaluate proposed projects and activities, local leadership and entrepreneurship, specific technical and managerial skills in target areas, networks and community cohesiveness and equitable partnerships with external organizations (Mascardo, 2008; Woodhouse, 2006) (Table 13.1).

13.6 Community-Based Tourism

Community-Based tourism (CBT) is a tourism that is planned, developed, owned and managed by the community for the community, guided by collective decision-making, responsibility, access, ownership and benefits. It is envisioned as a win-win exchange between hosts and guests. Guests gain enjoyment and satisfaction from discovering natural and cultural heritage and wisdom of the destination people whereas the hosts gain heightened awareness and pride as their natural and cultural heritage and wisdom function as a source of economic and social well-being (World Bank, 2010).

CBT was originally conceptualized as a means of economic development for under-developed localities, its target groups' descriptors naturally include remote, rural, impoverished, marginalized, economically depressed, undeveloped, poor, indigenous, ethnic minority, and people in small towns (Tasci, Croes, & Jorge, 2014).

Calls in support of CBTs intensified with the realization of the many shortcomings associated with top-down tourism development approach where tourism is initiated, planned and executed by authorities without the input of the local communities. This has been found to result in unforeseen and undesired results or side-effects (Aronsson, 2000; Tasci et al., 2014). CBTs are viewed as a more holistic and comprehensive approach since there is high involvement of the locals. Community-Based Tourism (CBT) became popular in the mid-1990s, reversing the development approach to bottom-up, in an effort to provide real and all-inclusive community participation at all levels of the development (Asker, Boronyak, Carrard, & Paddon, 2010).

Table 13.1 Church-owned tourist accommodation, conference and training facilities in West Pokot County

Sub-county (District)	Mission owned tourist facility	Approximate accommodation capacity	Approximate conference capacity
Kacheliba Sub-County	Catholic Guesthouse, Amakuriat	20	200
	Baptist Guesthouse and conference centre, Kiwawa	30	150
	Catholic Guesthouse and Conference centre, Cherangan	50	100
	AIC, Kameris Guesthouse	20	100
	ELCK, Kaduna conference centre	8	250
	ELCK, Krokogh Guesthouse and conference centre	10	100
Sigor Sub-County	ELCK, Chesta Guesthouse and Conference centre	100	500
	Marich Pass Reformed Church of east Africa guesthouse and conference centre (MP-RCEA)	50	300
	Catholic Guesthouse and conference centre, Sigor	30	200
South Pokot Sub-County	ELCK, Guesthouse and Conference centre, Propoi	15	300
	Mercy Vocational training centre, Chepareria	100	500
	Catholic Guesthouse, Kabichbich	10	200
Kapenguria Sub-County	ELCK Guesthouse and conference centre, Kapenguria	200	1,000
	Catholic Guesthouse and conference centre, Chepnyal-Sook	100	500
	AGC conference centre, Chepnyal, Sook	20	200

Source Field Survey, 2017

The major Principles of CBT include

(i) High degree of local participation and control (inclusive of marginal groups) in all stages starting from the planning stage.
(ii) Responsiveness to the priorities of the communities.
(iii) Power structure in the population (if positive and conducive to productivity) to be put to use for all.
(iv) Educational system is critical to train and educate locals and re-construct the power structure and increase knowledge and formal competence.
(v) Equity in distribution of income and wealth, avoiding losers and winners (winners usually outsiders, exploiters).
(vi) Private market forces may overlook equity, thus public authorities to structure government intervention (policy framework reforms) to stimulate more desirable outcomes.
(vii) Tourism as a complementing industry rather than the only industry, implying heavy dependence on tourism and potential crippling on the economy when tourism is halted.

13.7 Community-Based Tourism Projects in Kenya

Tourism Literature identifies several community-based tourism projects in Kenya. These projects are community-owned, and communities are fully involved in their development and management, and also they are the main beneficiaries. They include the following among others: Il Ngwesi, Tasia Koiyaki Lemek, Wasini Women's Group, Lumo and Mwaluganje Elephant Sanctuary (Tasci et al., 2014). However, studies on Kenya CBTEs reveal that these enterprises face significant capacity challenges, including deficiencies in vision and leadership for tourism product development and marketing, entrepreneurial skills, business management skills and access to credit facilities or the mobilization of resources (Manyara & Jones, 2010).

13.8 Methodology

13.8.1 The Study Area

West Pokot County is one of the 47 counties in Kenya and one of the 14 counties in the Rift Valley region. It is situated in the North Rift along Kenya's Western boundary with Uganda. It borders Turkana County to the north and north east, Trans Nzoia County to the south, Elgeyo Marakwet County and Baringo County to the south east and east, respectively. The county lies within longitudes 34° 47′ and 35° 49′ east and latitude 1° and 2° north and is 9,169.4 km^2 in size (County Government of

West Pokot, 2014). The county is characterized by a variety of topographic features. On the orthern and north-eastern parts are the dry plains, with an altitude of less than 900 m above sea level. On the south-eastern part are Cherangani Hills with an altitude of 3,370 m above sea level. Landscapes associated with this range of altitude include spectacular escarpments of more than 700 m. The high altitude areas have high agricultural potentials while medium altitude areas lie between 1,500 and 2,100 m above sea level and receive low rainfall in addition to being predominantly pastoral land. The low altitude areas include Alale, Kacheliba, Kongelai, Masol and parts of Sigor. The main rivers in the county are Suam, Kerio, Weiwei and Muruny. Cherangani Hills are the main source of Muruny and Weiwei Rivers, while Mt Elgon is the main source of river Suam. River Muruny, Kerio and Weiwei drain northwards into Lake Turkana, while other small rivers join and drain into river Nzoia which in turn drains into Lake Victoria. River Suam drains into Turkwel dam that generates hydro-electric power. The county has a bimodal type of rainfall. The long rains fall between April and August while the short rains fall between October and February. There is, however, great variation in the total amount and distribution of the rainfall received in the county. The lowlands receive 600 mm per annum while the highlands receive 1,600 mm per annum (County Government of West Pokot, 2014).

The county also experiences great variations in temperature with the lowlands experiencing temperatures of up to 30 °C and the highlands experiencing moderate temperatures of 15 °C. These high temperatures in the lowlands cause high evapo-transpiration which is unfavourable for crop production. The high altitude areas with moderate temperatures experience high rainfall and low evapo-transpiration hence suitable for crop production. The latest population projections (2013) put the county's total population of 631,231 persons out of which 313,746 are males and 317,484 are females giving a sex ratio of 100:101 (County Government of West Pokot, 2014). The county's intercensual growth rate is 5.2% which is higher as compared with the national average of 3.0% (KNBS, 2018). The economic viability of the county is limited by the arid and semi-arid conditions, with many economic activities such as pastoralism, tourism, wildlife among others recording low returns. In addition, prevalence of insecurity in parts of the county, particularly in areas rich in wildlife resources has inhibited the harnessing of tourism potentialities of the county.

West Pokot County had very few other livelihood options besides pastoralism and subsistence agriculture, with mining taking place along the river banks. Poor road network makes it difficult to traverse most parts of West Pokot with most areas being accessible using four-wheel drive vehicles. The church missionaries settled in the study villages in the 1980s at a time when these villages were totally remote and had nothing to offer in terms of tourism. The missionaries settled to offer humanitarian aid in forming healthcare provision, building of schools and evangelism. Most missionaries were so dedicated to their assignments that some settled in these areas with their families and hence they established permanent residential building. To get workers, these missionaries trained their own employees from members of the local communities imparting them with vocational skills that directly support tourism and

hospitality that were learned on-the-job or 'learning by-doing'. To prepare the communities for self-reliance early converts were engaged in some income-generating ventures under the supervision of the church.

This study was conducted in West Pokot County, Kenya. The county covers an area of 9,169.4 km^2 (County Government of West Pokot, 2014) (Plate 13.1).

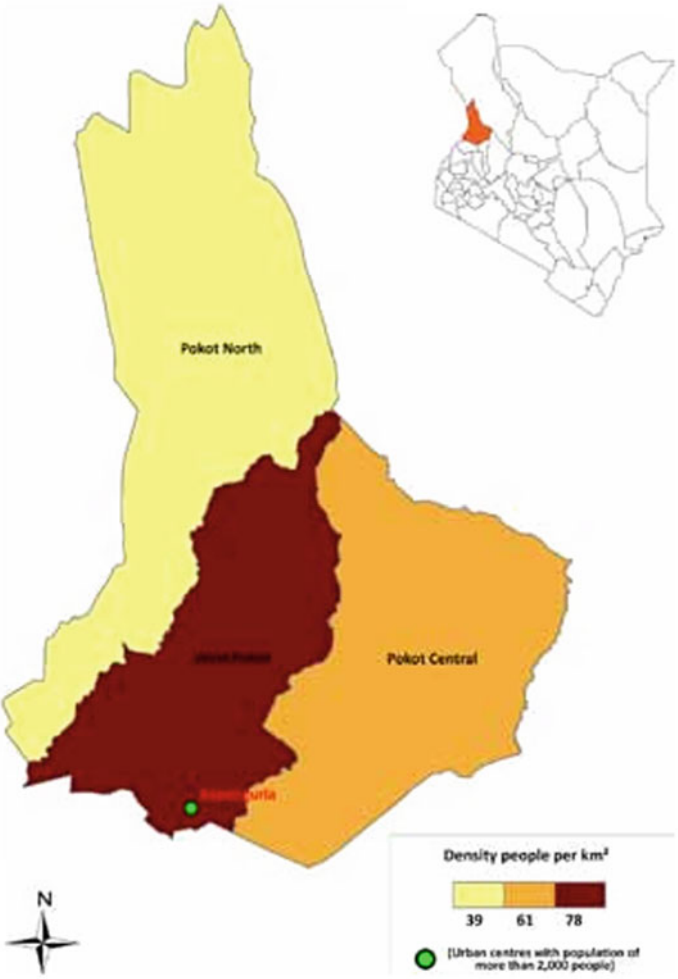

Plate 13.1 Map of West Pokot County showing the sub-counties. *Source* http://www.crakenya.org/county/west-pokot/

Table 13.2 Respondents for the study and sampling technique employed

Category of respondents total population (N)	Sample surveyed (n)	Sampling technique employed
MGH staffs/Employees 80	67	Simple random
MGH guest/visitors 120	90	Simple random
Total 200	157	

Source Survey data, 2017

13.8.2 Research Materials and Methods

The study employed descriptive research and a mixed methods approach was used where semi-structured interviews were conducted among guesthouse employees and guesthouse guests (visitors). A total of 67 staff and 90 guests were interviewed across eleven guesthouses. In addition, participant observation was also used in data collection. Employees were observed as they offer services at the facilities. Eleven (11) missionaries' guesthouses were surveyed. The data was analyzed mainly using descriptive statistics mixed methods (QUAL-quant weighting) which was employed for this study (Table 13.2).

13.9 Findings

13.9.1 Employees/Staffs of the MGHs

The study finding revealed that 63.3% of the employees working in different sections of the missionaries' guesthouse have primary level education, 29.7% have secondary level education while 8% have tertiary college education and 2% never went to school. Surprisingly, there is no employee with a University level education working in any of the guesthouses (Table 13.3). The employees acquired their hospitality skills and experience while working for the missionaries' and had never went to any hospitality classroom (On-the-job training). The employees are sourced from members of the local communities. Over time, the employees have learned different hospitality skills that are beneficial to the tourism sector including basic Norwegian language (for Norwegian and other foreign languages). The staffs have acquired knowledge on how to use/operate different hospitality equipment so as to enhance service delivery. The staff have also learned basic aspects of costing and budgeting.

Table 13.3 Demographic characteristics of the respondents (Missionaries' guesthouse employees/Staffs)

Characteristic	Percentage (%)
Gender (n = 67)	
Male	41.8
Female	58.2
Age bracket (in years) (n = 67)	
20–29	14.1
30–39	31.2
40–49	37.5
50–59	11.4
60 and above	5.8
Education level attainment (n = 67)	
Primary	60.3
Secondary	29.7
Tertiary college (Post secondary)	8
University	0
Never went to school	2
Duration of service at the MGH	
<5 years	2
5–10 years	34.6
10 years and above	49.8

Source Survey data, 2017

13.9.2 Guests/Visitors of the MGHs

Regarding the study findings on the guests/visitors to the misisonaries' guesthoues, the study established that majority of the guests were university graduates (53.5%), and that NGO's/CBO's employees (36.2%) and civil servants (31.4) were the main guests seeking accommodation in these missionaries' guesthouses in the rural areas (Table 13.4).

The guests/visitors to the missionaries' guesthouses expressed satisfaction on different aspects of services provided at the MGH (Table 13.5). Majority of the guests said the services they received exceeded their expectation.

> ..I didn't expect to get such a place with such amazing and knowledgeable employees in this rural area. This is the same services that we pay a lot for in Urban areas.-Guest, GH 4

Employee/Staff's attributes identified as responsible for guest satisfaction.

Staffs/Employees ability and availability during the time of need, staffs ability to instil confidence in guests, staffs promptness and punctuality, staffs–guest interaction, employee neatness and punctuality.

Table 13.4 Demographic characteristics of the respondents (Guesthouse visitors/Tourists)

Characteristic	Percentage (%)
Gender (n = 90)	
Male	71.7
Female	28.3
Age bracket (in years) (n = 90)	
20–30	10.4
30–40	33.2
40–50	44.5
50–60	8.4
Above 60	3.5
Education level attainment (n = 90)	
Primary	3
Secondary	7.2
Tertiary college (Post primary)	36.3
University	53.5
Length of stay in the area (n = 90)	
<5 days	66.2
5–10 days	25
10 days and above	8.8
Occupation/employment (n = 90)	
Civil servants	31.4
Students	2
Evangelical service	10.4
NGO's/CBO's employees	36.2
Business	20

Source Survey data, 2017

13.10 Conclusion

This paper adds a new dimension on the development of human resources for the tourism and hospitality sector by bringing in the aspect of informally acquired skills. These informally acquired skills are significant in bridging the sector skill gap usage especially in a rural setting such as West Pokot County, Kenya. From the study findings, the paper makes the following conclusions.

The missionaries' guesthouses contribute towards building tourism capacity for the destination (organizational capacity, technical capacity, community capacity and infrastructure capacity). The existence of MGHs has improved the local communities' tourism skills and knowledge, community leadership of tourism (management committee elected from the local community members), which has boosted the overall local communities' participation in tourism development.

Table 13.5 Guests'/Visitors rating of services received at the MGHs, (n = 90) (%)

Variable	Excellent 5	Very good 4	Good 3	Fair 2	Bad 1
Quality of accommodation facilities	58.1	23.4	11.0	6.5	1.0
Meals served in the guesthouses	69.0	24.2	3.0	1.0	2.8
Employees friendliness	64.2	15.6	9.8	3.0	7.4
Hospitality of the local communities	66.1	22.5	6.4	4.0	1.0
Quality of entertainments	71.4	11.2	4.1	1.8	11.5
Accessibility to the guesthouses and attractions	36.1	10.9	5.6	23.1	24.3
Quality of camping grounds	61.2	24.3	4.0	7.3	3.2
Quality and quantity of water supply	47.3	18.8	8.8	11.0	14.1
Quality of conference facilities (Chairs, tables)	34.0	23.6	10.8	15.5	16.1
Awareness of the employees to their roles	27.1	9.9	11.2	21.2	30.6
Cultural and heritage products	31.2	22.4	30.4	7.1	8.9

5 = Excellent, 4 = Very Good, 3 = Good, 2 = Fair, 1 = Bad
Source Survey data, 2017

The missionaries' guesthouses in rural parts of Kenya, being the only major tourist flagship projects in these rural areas place a significant role in building the local communities' capacity to develop and manage their tourism sectors. These guesthouses attract visitors to these rural villages, create avenues for the local communities to meet and interact with these guests and in the end, they come to understand what tourism is all about.

That missionaries' guesthouses in rural parts of Kenya develop human resources with skills that support the tourism sector especially in their localities. These skills are acquired informally while on-the-job and they go along in bridging the human resource deficit that characterizes the sector in most rural places. Missionaries' guesthouse therefore bridges the skill deficit in the tourism and hospitality sector by injecting in more skilled workforce which have acquired their skills in the facility.

That the employees who acquired their hospitality skills informally through on-the-job offer services that satisfy the guests/visitors. Satisfied guests mean that the services they received is of good standards. Hence, the missionaries' guesthouse trained employees are competent staff just like those who acquired their hospitality skills in learning institutions.

That Missionaries' Guesthouses in West Pokot County offer employment opportunities to members of the local communities whom they impart them with skills, then give them opportunities to practice by working at the guesthouses.

As Kenya's rural areas such as West Pokot County transit from the traditional industries (that are now facing serious decline), and enter into tourism (as captured in their plans), the place where informally acquired skills are very important. These skills will be laying the foundation stone for tourism in these rural parts of Kenya.

Employees, if well equipped with the requisite skills even if the skills are informally acquired will deliver services that meet and exceed the satisfaction of the guests/visitors.

13.11 Recommendations

The County governments in the rural of the country should partner with the missionaries' guesthouses in their regions so as to build their tourism skill base and hence spur tourism development in the areas.

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Chapter 14
Insight Into Adventure Tourism Employment in South Africa

Julia Kathryn Giddy

14.1 Introduction

As tourism continues to grow globally, it is becoming increasingly important to examine the dynamics of tourism employment (UNWTO, 2017). Outdoor adventure tourism, in particular, has become an increasingly significant sub-sector (Adventure Travel Trade Association, 2015). Once small and specialized, adventure tourism has now grown to a point that it is increasingly overlapping with mass tourism (Buckley, McDonald, Duan, Sun, & Chen, 2014). Rather than engaging in passive appreciation of natural landscapes, tourists are increasingly seeking unique ways of actively engaging with nature (Bell & Lyall, 2002). This has given rise to commercial adventure tourism. Due to this growth, as well as the nature of adventure tourism, it is crucial that the dynamics of adventure tourism employment be examined.

Adventure tourism has unique challenges with regards to employment. As a result of increasing commercialization and the growth of adventure tourism to laymen, the role of adventure tourism operators, and particularly the guides becomes increasingly important (Mu & Nepal, 2016). This is of particular concern due to the real risk involved in adventure tourism and the need for qualified and specialized guides. As the number of inexperienced participants increases, the importance of the guides in ensuring safety also increases. In addition to safety concerns, adventure tourism typically takes place in unique and often fragile natural environments (Pomfret, 2006). Therefore, the environmental behaviours of operators are also of significance. Promoting sustainable human resource management then becomes crucial to ensuring the safety of participants, the prosperity of the industry and the protection of the environment in which these activities operate. This chapter, therefore, seeks to highlight

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some of the nuances of adventure tourism employment. This is done by first examining literature on adventure tourism employment and discussing it in the context of sustainable human resource management. Next, preliminary data is included to highlight some of the trends with regard to adventure tourism employment in South Africa.

14.2 Adventure Tourism and Employment

Employment issues are of concern in any industry, but in the tourism and hospitality industries, there are unique dynamics which deserve attention. Some of these dynamics include casual employment, human capital resources, training and qualifications, client–guide relationships, employee remuneration, the influence of technology, the role of leadership, as well as many more (Baum, Kralj, Robinson, & Solnet, 2016). As tourism and hospitality continue to grow on a global scale, it is important to evaluate the circumstances under which individuals are employed. Most of the research on employment in the tourism and hospitality industries have focused on the hospitality sector, largely within the hotel industry (Baum, 2002; Kim, Murrmann, & Lee, 2009; Kusluvan, Kusluvan, Ilhan, & Buyruk, 2010; Lucas, 1993; Purcell, 1996; Sparrowe & Iverson, 1999). However, with the rapid growth of tourism and the emergence of different tourism sub-sectors, it is incredibly important to understand some of the issues related to tourism and its sub-sectors more specifically (Kusluvan et al., 2010).

One of the biggest concerns, which has been noted by many scholars, is the temporality in which tourism employees work, as the industry is often seasonal in many parts of the world (Baum & Lundtorp, 2001; Jolliffe & Farnsworth, 2003). The issue of casual employment is widely studied and can have detrimental impacts on both the individual and communities (Baum & Lundtorp, 2001). In addition, as the use of tourism as a development strategy continues to grow in developing countries, it is crucial that consideration be made of the local communities which have emerged as tourism destinations (Ferreira, 2007; Halseth & Meiklejohn, 2009; Ramukumba, Mmbengwa, Mwamayi, & Groenewald, 2012; Visser & Rogerson, 2004). Casual employment and seasonality is one major factor to consider when developing economic upliftment strategies, particularly in poor communities (Jolliffe & Farnsworth, 2003). Another important issue in the context of tourism is human capital development, namely the qualifications and training of tourism operators and employees (Hjalager & Andersen, 2001). One of the strategies for enhancing the prospect of local economic development and the upliftment of poor communities is for policy on tourism development to include aspects of sustainable human capital development (Baum, 2006).

In order to address these concerns, many researchers and policymakers alike have called for the implementation of sustainable human resource management practices to be applied to the tourism industry. Mazur (2014, p. 158) defines corporate sustainability as ‘a company’s ability to achieve its business goals and to increase long-term

shareholder value by integrating economic, environmental and social opportunities into its business strategies'. Broad corporate sustainability is closely linked to sustainable human resource management (Ehnert & Harry, 2012). Therefore, some understandings of sustainable human resource management have been discussed in terms of corporate success, the idea that in order to retain employment, the company must be economically successful in the long term (Gollan, 2005). One of these aspects that has been emphasized, particularly in the human resource management context, is the attraction and recruitment by companies of highly qualified people (Müller-Christ & Remer, 1999). However, more recent research has emphasized the need to incorporate a number of other elements for the goal of real sustainability to be achieved (Ehnert, 2009; Mazur, 2014). Mazur (2014) discusses the need for a more holistic approach to sustainable human resource management which includes the treatment and perceived value of employees as well as the incorporation of employees in overall company corporate social responsibility practices. These latter concepts are crucial to the tourism industry if sustainable development is to be achieved, in addition to other concerns, such as the seasonality, the temporary nature of employment, as well as the difficulty in retaining employees in ensuring sustainable human resource practices (Baum, 2006). These concerns go hand in hand with corporate social responsbility (CSR), particularly in the developing world, where there are major concerns over the impact of tourism on the environment and local communities.

In the context of this chapter, adventure tourism refers to touristic activities, which involve some level of risk and typically take place in outdoor environments (Hall, 1992). The focus here is primarily on commercialized adventure tourism, due to the prominent employment concerns associated with this form of tourism (Beedie, 2001). Adventure tourism employees are susceptible to the same concerns of all tourism employees which are outlined above, however, they are also susceptible to a number of other concerns specific to the adventure tourism sub-sector. One of the most significant aspects, with respect to adventure tourism employees, is the role of the guide in ensuring the safety and security of participants (Mu & Nepal, 2016). Unlike many other forms of tourism, adventure tourism employees are responsible for the safety of participants who are placed in situations with serious safety concerns. Inherent in the definition of adventure tourism, is the existence of risk (Swarbrooke, Beard, Leckie, & Pomfret, 2003). In the commercial adventure tourism sector, the responsibility for minimizing the risk involved falls on the adventure guide where the locus of control moves from the individual, as is the case in traditional adventure recreation, to the guide (Ewert & Hollenhorst, 1989; Pomfret, 2006). In addition, they are also placing themselves in risky situations. Therefore, adventure tourism employees are taking on a significant burden on a daily basis.

One way of ensuring employees are equipped with the necessary skills to manage the safety of participants, and themselves, is through specialized training (Rokenes et al., 2015). Although some standards do exist for adventure guide qualifications in certain parts of the world, in developing countries, where adventure tourism is being increasingly popular, there is often a lack of strict guidelines or governing bodies overseeing the skill sets of adventure guides (McKay, 2013a). In most cases, some first aid qualifications may be required; however, the majority of training is often

done in-house. This can become problematic when no regulation or enforcement exists ensuring that companies are adequately training their guides for the dangerous situations that may arise during participation.

14.3 Adventure Guides

As is the case with many forms of tourism, there has been very little work done on employment in adventure tourism. However, a number of studies have examined the role of adventure guides, primarily in the experiences of participants. Guides have been shown to have a significant impact on visitor experiences and the overall satisfaction of participants in adventure tourism (Mackenzie & Kerr, 2012). The existing research on adventure guides has been primarily conducted within the framework of the commodification of adventure tourism. It focuses on the role of guides in creating 'manufactured' experiences for commercial adventure tourism participants (Cater & Cloke, 2007; Holyfield, 1999; Kane & Tucker, 2004).

Adventure guides play an incredibly important role in the success of an adventure tourism operation. First, as mentioned above, they are responsible for the safety of participants, and therefore the viability of the tourism product (Bentley & Page, 2008). If major injuries or potential fatalities occur, it is unlikely that an adventure company would succeed. In addition, some research has documented the influence of guides' demeanour and personality on the experiences of participants (Mackenzie & Kerr, 2012). One way, Holyfield (1999) found, of ensuring visitor safety while at the same time creating positive and memorable experiences is through manufactured mechanisms created by operators which guides are required to utilize throughout the duration of the activities. One mechanism that has been noted is the use of humour to convey safety measures while at the same time creating a relaxed and light-hearted environment (Holyfield, 1999).

This 'manufacturing' of experiences in commercial adventure tourism has been an important topic for research and has been growing in recent years. Some authors have criticized the growth of commercial adventure tourism as it has led to the commodification, both of the environment in which activities take place and also the concept of 'adventure' itself (Beedie, 2001; Kane & Tucker, 2004; Varley, 2006). This is partially due to the transference of the locus of control, and therefore the actual risk involved in the activity, from the participant to the guide (Lee, Tseng, & Jan, 2015). The discussion has also, however, involved the means by which companies and guides 'perform' to create experiences which tourists expect and elicit specific emotions (Cater & Cloke, 2007). Although some have praised this method for creating unique and memorable tourism experiences, others criticize it for the way in which it has dissolved the meaning of 'true' adventure (Varley, 2006). Either way, it is clear that on top of specialized skills required by adventure guides to ensure visitor safety, it is also becoming increasingly important for guides to create some kind of 'performance' to ensure that meaningful experiences are created by eliciting specific emotions from participants.

14.4 Adventure Tourism in South Africa

As the importance of tourism increases in the South African national economy, it has become increasingly important to advance specific sub-sectors to ensure sustainable development in the future. Commercial adventure tourism in South Africa now forms one of the most significant tourism sub-sectors in the country (Giddy, 2017). Although some literature is now emerging, there is still a plethora of research that needs to be conducted in this specific context. Existing research has focused primarily on two components: the first being overall sectoral assessments of the industry in South Africa, the second being human–environment interaction in adventure tourism.

Broad pictures of the industry have been highlighted in a number of studies (McKay, 2013a, 2014a, 2016; Rogerson, 2007). This research demonstrates that adventure tourism is somewhat unevenly distributed throughout South Africa, with the majority of operations in the Western Cape and KwaZulu Natal (McKay, 2016). Research has also looked at some specific sub-sectors, such as white water tourism, SCUBA diving tourism and urban adventure tourism (Giddy, Fitchett, & Hoogendoorn, 2017; Giddy & Rogerson, 2018; McKay, 2013b, 2014b). In addition, a few studies have highlighted the challenges surrounding the evolution of adventure tourism in South Africa (Giddy, 2016a; McKay, 2013a; Rogerson, 2007). Several of the concerns that emerged are related to staff members, such as sustainable development, standardization and regulation of the industry and its use in economic upliftment of poor communities (Rogerson, 2007).

Other research has examined environmental issues related to adventure tourism. The majority has looked at human–environment interaction in adventure tourism with a focus on the influence of environmental factors on the motivations and experiences of adventure tourists (Giddy, 2015; 2018; Giddy & Webb, 2016a, b, 2017). The results have shown that the natural setting in which these activities occur has an important impact on both the motivations of individuals to engage in the activities, but also in their overall levels of satisfaction (Giddy & Webb, 2016a). Furthermore, Giddy (2016b) analyzed the environmental values and behaviours of adventure tourism employees in relation to the environmental ethos of adventure tourism companies. This study found that although the environmental values of respondents were relatively low in contrast to other such studies, employees were concerned with protecting the natural environment and actively do so through a set of environmentally friendly practices. However, there does not seem to be a significant link between the overall environmental ethos of the company and the specific value systems or the environmental behaviours of individual employees.

14.5 Methods

A number of sources were used to provide insight into the dynamics of adventure tourism employment in South Africa. Aside from the analysis of previous literature, primary data included in this study were drawn from three sources. The first two were collected through fieldwork on adventure tourism operations in the Tsitsikamma region of South Africa, namely interviews with owners/managers of adventure operations as well as questionnaires distributed to employees of these operations. In addition, some of the insight provided in the study is based on participant observations discussed in detail below.

Five companies that operate out of the Tsitsikamma region of South Africa were the focus of this research. The Tsitsikamma forms part of the Garden Route, a popular tourist destination along the southern coast of South Africa, which spans between the Eastern Cape and Western Cape (Tsitsikamma Tourism Association, 2013). The companies include one zip lining activity, one canopy tour, two white-water tubing activities and a bungee jump. Semi-structured interviews were conducted with owners and/or managers of each operation. The results included below focus on some basic characteristics of employment and training noted by the interviewees. In addition, questionnaires were distributed to employees of all five operations. The data discussed below from these surveys includes basic demographic characteristics of employees, experience in adventure tourism, as well as some notable aspects of their current employment situation. All questions were fixed response, some nominal and some ordinal.

A total of five interviews were conducted, one with an owner/manager of each company. Interviews were recorded and transcribed by the author after which interviews were coded and themes were extracted. Analysis of the similarities and differences between owner/manager attitude towards employees, staffing characteristics and training was conducted and is the focus of the discussion below. Questionnaires were distributed to all employees of these operations wherever possible. One noticeable limitation was distributing the questionnaire to seasonal and temporary staff members, though an attempt was made by the author to do so wherever possible. However, the majority of respondents included in the analysis below are permanent employees. A total of 42 usable questionnaires were obtained, which represents 35% of the population, according to the number of employees provided by the operators. As the questions utilized were fixed response, simple counts and percentages were calculated.

The author has conducted research with 13 different adventure companies throughout the country and has participated in countless adventure activities. Therefore, two forms of ethnographic research were utilized. The first was participant observation employed while conducting other research. Using calculated methods of participant observation, she was able to extract additional information and observe additional trends emerging in the industry. Therefore, these observations supplement the results and themes elicited from the abovementioned literature review, interviews and questionnaires. The observations were conducted through engagement in survey

collection over four periods from 2012 to 2015, during summer and winter tourism seasons. The author engaged with had informal conversations and observed some of the employee dynamics. Notes were taken at several points throughout this period. In addition, the author participated in all 13 activities that formed a part of larger research projects as well as a number of additional activities for leisure. In addition, ethnographic techniques were employed while participating in a wide range of adventure tourism activities throughout South Africa. The author noted and recorded observations of employee–client interactions, throughout the duration of the activities as well as observation of employee/manager and intra-employee dynamics.

14.6 Employment Characteristics in Tsitsikamma Adventure Tourism

The owner or manager of all operations was asked about their staffing as well as the qualifications/training of their guides. As demonstrated in Table 14.1, staffing varies significantly between different operations. The bungee jump and canopy tours have a relatively large number of permanent staff, with a few additional seasonal staff brought in during high season. Both tubing companies have relatively small permanent staff, while none of the guides from either operations is permanent.

As mentioned above, there is no required qualification for adventure guides, on a national level. Therefore, it was important to elicit information on the training and qualifications of guides in these various activities. The qualifications and training of guides are particularly important in adventure tourism due to the risk involved in many activities. All activities included in this analysis involve notable risk associated with participation.

As noted in Table 14.1, it is positive to see that the guides from nearly all operations are required to do some kind of first aid training. This is very important due to the significant safety concerns present in adventure tourism, as well as the relatively low level of skills required by participants to engage in commercial adventure activities. Furthermore, in many cases, additional training and qualifications are required by the individual operators. As is the case with many tourism operations, it is not surprising that some in-house training exists. This is likely to be particularly true in the case of adventure tourism, as many of the activities are relatively unique and would require specific training and skills. Some operators have required their employees to obtain other qualifications as well. Of particular note are the APA certification required by Tubing 1 and FGASA qualification required by the Canopy Tours. This is leaning towards qualifications that could become part of a standard implemented by adventure tourism associations or the South African National Department of Tourism in the future. APA certification should be a requirement for all companies operating water-based activities, as guides should be qualified to implement strategies in these very unique and often dangerous situations. Furthermore, requiring FGASA qualifications among adventure guides could be the first step in regulating adventure

Table 14.1 Profile of adventure tourism employment characteristics in the Tsitsikamma

	Permanent staff	Number of guides	Seasonal staff	Qualifications	Training	First aid
Bungee	45	31	10 to 12	First aid, Rope access course	In-house	Yes
Canopy	50	Multi-skilling	Varies	Fair Trade in Tourism sustainability course, Qualified Field Guides Association of Southern Africa (FGASA)	Additional In-house training	Yes—Part of FGASA
Zipline	14	10	20	Medical Phase 2, language proficiency	In-house	Yes
Tubing 1	3	4	All seasonal, paid per trip	(African Paddle Association) APA certification	In-house and APA training	N/A
Tubing 2	7	Varies	All guides are seasonal	Level 3 first aid, swift water rescue	Swift water rescue and in-house	Yes

tourism employment. FGASA qualification is already required in many tourism sectors in South Africa, particularly broad tour guiding (Nemasetoni & Rogerson, 2005). It would, therefore, be natural, in creating standardized qualifications for adventure guides, that the FGASA be required. This would also ensure that all guides have some formalized training, on top of in-house training required by individual operators.

Using the data collected through questionnaires distributed to employees, a profile of respondents was formulated. In addition, data was collected from employees at all activities and those in different roles within the organization. All but two employees included in this analysis are permanent with the exception of river tubing guides. In terms of demographics, there was an even split between men and women who worked in these companies. This is interesting, as adventure tourism has traditionally been seen as a male dominated industry (Giddy, 2017; Sung, Morrison, & O'Leary, 2000). Most employees in this set of data were from the local area, the Tsitsikamma, and those who were not were primarily from the regions surrounding the Tsitsikamma in the Eastern Cape and Western Cape. None of the employees were international, which means that operators tend to employ South Africans, contributing to the South African job market. As has been the trend in tourism employment more broadly, but

particularly in adventure tourism, the majority of guides were relatively young, with 32 (n = 47) under the age of 30. A few (10, n = 42) were in the range of 30–39, while none were above this age bracket.

Respondents were also asked about their experience in adventure tourism and with the company they currently work for, to determine whether or not trends exist with regard to employment. The results show that while nine (n = 42) of the respondents had only been working in adventure tourism for less than one year, almost half of all respondents (20) have worked in the industry for more than four years. This is significant, due to the demographics of respondents, most of whom are relatively young. This demonstrates that, at least in the case of the Tsitsikamma, many of those who begin working in adventure tourism tend to stay working within the sector for an extended period of time. Furthermore, many employees appear to have some loyalty to the companies for which they currently work, with 17 respondents indicating that they have been with their current employer for more than 4 years. This result, in particular, has positive implications for employment in Tsitsikamma adventure tourism and is in contrast to much literature discussing the high turnover rates of tourism employment (Hjalager & Andersen, 2001). Due to the high rate of unemployment in the region and an increasingly competitive tourism sector, it is encouraging to see some sense of job stability that appears to be present in this case.

14.7 Observations and Discussion of Adventure Tourism Employment Trends in South Africa

Through calculated observations made by the author, some notable trends emerged in regards to employment in adventure tourism in South Africa. One of the most significant challenges is that South Africa lacks standardization of adventure tourism operators and guide requirements are minimal to non-existent on a national level. Some individual sub-sectors have created their own programmes and requirements, but these are often privately run and incredibly niche (e.g. African Paddle Association). In tourism, more broadly, there are some requirements with regard to tour guiding which required accreditation with the Field Guide Association of South Africa. However, in the case of adventure guides, operators are given the freedom to determine, individually, the necessary qualifications and the training requirements of their employees. In addition, even when standardization or regulations do exist, there is little to no enforcement of these regulations. This is incredibly concerning due to the high risk involved in adventure tourism and the dependence of participants on guides for their safety.

Along with the need for standardization of the requirements for adventure guides is the implementation of mechanisms for training these guides. As adventure tourism requires specific skills, there is a dire need for an increase in training programmes and organizations, particularly those outside of individual operations. This will ensure that adequate training is being delivered and specific standards are being met. The

development of such training programmes would also allow for a new mechanism for job creation to emerge. Those who have experience in adventure tourism could pass down knowledge to incoming potential employees while developing their careers. This would also allow older adventure tourism employees to continue to work in the field, particularly in cases where their physical abilities might limit them.

There is a constant discussion of the ability of tourism (including adventure tourism) to assist in poverty alleviation and economic upliftment, particularly in terms of job creation (Rogerson, 2012; Williams & Shaw, 1988). Aside from a few isolated cases, this has not been fully realized in South Africa's adventure tourism industry (Binns & Nel, 2002). The focus needs to be on creating permanent employment and developing career paths, rather than focusing on the number of jobs created. In addition, youth in communities could be utilized during peak seasons when additional staff is needed. This would allow the younger generation access and some experience in the field, while also allowing companies to create a smaller number of permanent jobs for employees throughout the year and at the same time meeting their staff requirements in-season. This has been adopted by one company (Storms River Adventures) with success. It creates an inward flow of staff, who have some experience in field (Storms River Adventures, 2017). This would constitute a mechanism for implementing sustainable human resource management as it would ensure a constant inward flow of qualified employees and meet certain CSR requirements (Ehnert, 2009).

Employee characteristics appear to differ depending on the size of the company and the nature of the operation. Smaller companies tended to have a very small number of permanent staff while the majority were seasonal. Permanent staff tended to be in administrative positions while specialized guides were contracted. Furthermore, some qualified guides in a small area, such as the Tsitsikamma, appeared to work for more than one adventure tourism company, in a freelance position. This, however, could become problematic as the issue of job security arises for these individuals. In addition, it seems counterintuitive that the more highly qualified employees struggle to find permanent employment.

With regard to employee demographics, one trend that was apparent was that most owners/managers of these operations were white. Furthermore, white guides either tended to be very temporary, or they would move into management positions relatively quickly. One example of this would be in the case of a canyoning company. The author observed a number of guides, of which two were young white men, two were young coloured men and two were young black men during the first round of fieldwork. Upon returning to the same operation a year and a half later, the author observed that one of white men was no longer there and had moved on to a different industry and the other had moved into a management position. One of the young coloured men and one of the young black men were still at the company but in the same positions, while the other two no longer worked for the company. Although this is just one example, it gives some insight into racial dynamics of adventure tourism employment in South Africa.

However, if specialized skills, with specific qualifications, were required, there tended to be more white guides. A couple of examples of this are shark cage

diving, which required some kind of qualification in marine sciences, skydiving, which required sky dive instructor certification, and scuba diving, which required an instructor's qualification and a dive master qualification. All of these qualifications, particularly the latter two, are incredibly expensive to obtain which could account for the lower number of guides of colour. These operations were also found to be lucrative as they had very high participation fees. This is an employment issue that needs to be addressed and is of particular concern in the New South Africa where promises of transformation are emphasized (Binns & Nel, 2002). Either the operators or the government need to provide opportunities for previously disadvantaged communities to obtain such qualifications, which would allow them to move into better positions within the adventure tourism industry. Furthermore, in terms of gender dynamics, very few women worked as guides. Women tended to work as administrators or shop managers. In the few companies in which women did work as guides, they tended to be white women.

One of the challenges that has been observed in the case of the Tsitsikamma, specifically, but is also apparent in other parts of the country, is the increase in similar activities within a specific location. Small and specialized operations emerge in a location and once others observe the popularity and success of such operations, other companies develop similar products or take over some of the smaller companies (A. Wentworth, personal communication, 2013). This can be disconcerting for the individuals involved with the company, as it could mean a loss of jobs and revenue. However, it is also important to focus on the subsequent impact it could, potentially, have on local communities. During fieldwork, the author observed that the smaller, locally run operators tended to have stronger ties to the local community. There was a sense of real commitment to better and uplifting the community, both socially and environmentally (A. Wentworth, personal communication, 2013; B. Haines, personal communication 2012).

Another important challenge is that of sustainability. Economic sustainability is crucial, not only in terms of the company or operation, but also in terms of individual employment (Gollan, 2005). The economic viability of a tourism product will influence the ability of operators to create more permanent and sustainable jobs for employees. It has been demonstrated that guides can become mediators between tourists and local communities and environments which can increase sustainable tourism development (Jensen, 2010). In the unique case of adventure tourism, environmental sustainability is of great importance. The natural environment has been shown to be one of the most significant aspects of adventure tourism motivations and experiences (Giddy, 2018; Giddy & Webb, 2016a). Therefore, it is important that the companies and employees seek to ensure that their operations minimally impact the unique environment in which they operate. This means that operators should have a strict environmental ethos that they adhere to and specific guidelines for employees, particularly the guides operating in these environments. It is also up to operators, and again guides, to ensure that visitors behave appropriately within these environments. This is linked to incorporating employees in larger company CSR practices (Mazur, 2014). Furthermore, companies could benefit from programmes that create an ethos of environmental concern among communities in and around adventure

tourism hotspots. This would help ensure the sustainability of the environment and subsequently these tourism enterprises which depend on natural environments.

One unique trend that appears to be emerging in the case of adventure tourism in South Africa is the increase in the number of tourists from the Indian subcontinent. This has been documented in other adventure tourism destinations, such as New Zealand (Sharda & Pearce, 2006). These visitors tend to travel in large groups, on pre-packaged adventure holidays. These packages tend to bring clients to a number of shorter, highly commercialized activities in order to allow them to participate in the highest number of activities within a relatively short timeframe. Furthermore, the requirements for these clients can change the way some of these companies operate, as was noted by two of the managers of companies the author worked with. First, there are often strict dietary requirements which could require companies contracting out special caterers. In addition, women guides are often necessary for many of the activities, due to religious beliefs. For example, one such group required a skydiving company that employed a female tandem skydive master, to allow female clients to participate in the activity. Another interesting comment, made by one of the tour guides of one of these groups, was that they often requested South African tour guides of Indian descent (Anonymous Tour Guide, personal communication, 2014). This emerging market is interesting and might have important implications for employment in the future as more specialized requirements emerge among tourists.

One very concerning observation that was made is the recent influx of 'voluntourists'. Voluntourists are defined as experiences 'a form of tourism where the tourists volunteer in local communities as part of his or her travel' (Sin, 2009, p. 480). In the case of South Africa, these tend to be young relatively wealthy foreigners from the developed world, who come to South Africa for an extended holiday (Alexander, 2012). They pay relatively high fees to do low level work at many of the tourist attractions throughout South Africa. Many work in animal-related fields or in low-income communities. However, they are often doing work that might have been done by low-skilled South Africans. The negative consequences of voluntourism have been documented, including a disruption to local economies (Guttentag, 2009). Companies would, naturally, rather be paid and have these low-level jobs taken care of, rather than pay someone a salary. This could have severe consequences for unskilled labourers in many of these areas who, in the past, have relied on this type of work as an income source. Although these observations have been made in previous research, the issue is particularly problematic in the case of the small towns in South Africa, as many people in these areas depend almost entirely on employment in the tourism sector.

14.8 Conclusion

Sustainable human resource management in the context of tourism in the developing world needs to emphasize the treatment and dignity of employees, long-term permanent employment, upskilling of locals as well as employees and incorporating

employees in company CSR practices, particularly ecological and social responsibility. In the adventure tourism context, training and permanent employment are crucial issues that need to be addressed, both at an individual operator level and at a national level through policy.

As demonstrated in the above discussions, there are a number of challenges that the South African adventure tourism industry faces in terms of human resource management. From literature, it is clear that the only way for tourism businesses to succeed in the long term is to adopt sustainable human resource management practices and policies (Baum, 2006). In the case of adventure tourism more specifically, there are specialized skills that are needed due to the unique circumstance of inherent risk involved in the activities (Swarbrooke et al., 2003). Furthermore, it is well documented that adventure guides play an incredibly important role in not only ensuring visitor safety, but also balancing the narrative to ensure that specific, expected, emotions are elicited during adventure tourism activities (Holyfield, 1999; Mackenzie & Kerr, 2012).

One of the first steps that should be taken in order to ensure the sustainability of adventure tourism in South Africa is to standardize the skills required for adventure guides. Although in-house training is necessary, due to the diversity of activities considered as adventure tourism, some skills should be required industry-wide due to the real physical risk involved and the increasing dependence of participants on the guides to ensure their safety (Cater, 2006; Giddy, 2017). However, as mentioned above, it requires specialized training. Training programmes should therefore emerge in conjunction with the development of industry standards. Attention also needs to be made in terms of the demographics of the workforce and mechanisms set in place for allowing advancement among those from previously disadvantaged groups. Furthermore, involvement of local communities is crucial for the success of the business, both as an opportunity for developing a pool of potential employees, but also in ensuring environmental sustainability. In addition, although volunteer programmes might be beneficial in some circumstances, they need to be looked at very carefully and should not account for the majority of low-skilled labour requirements among companies.

One thing that is abundantly clear from the discussion in this chapter is that a great deal of additional research is needed on the employment dynamics of adventure tourism in South Africa. Some aspects that would, particularly, benefit from future research are the use of a more rigorous quantitative approach to determine broad employment patterns of adventure tourism operations (e.g. size, number of permanent and temporary, etc.); the training received by the operator and external training of adventure guides; guide qualification requirements for employment; aspects of performance of adventure guides, as mentioned in the literature above; job satisfaction and sustainability within the adventure tourism sector including high employee turnover rates and issues of seasonal employment; and finally, the environmental values and behaviours of adventure tourism employees. It would be useful to apply a number of different research approaches to not only obtain broad information about employment in adventure tourism but also to determine the nuances of being an employee in this industry. There is great potential to develop adventure tourism in

South Africa, and other parts of Southern Africa, but this must be done in a way that ensures the development of sustainable employment and the viability of the industry in the long term.

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Chapter 15
Contribution of Facilities Management Towards Hotel Sustainability

Joselyn Goopio

15.1 Introduction

If green is the trend, let the rains descend and PEOPLE ascend.

Green and sustainability issues have been a concern of the past and the present, but more so of the future. With increasing issues of global warming and climate change the world is facing, there has been an aggressive campaign to save the environment and conserve energy. Companies and organizations are encouraged to embark on policy implementation to reduce their carbon footprint. Hotels are not exempt from this move and they are increasingly finding ways to effectively implement the 3R's of waste management—reduce, reuse and recycle. Green buildings are constructed to conform to environmental standards and specifications in saving and conserving energy and reducing consumption of water, electricity and fuel. In addition, the growth of green consumerism and the emergence of green tourists lead to the increasing demand for effective implementation of environmental and energy management systems in hotels. The concept of green hotel and how it implements the sustainability principle of the triple bottom line—planet, people and profit—has been the trend in the hospitality and tourism industry. Several certification bodies have come up to rate the hotel's sustainability such as the international Green Globe, Energy Star and LEED certifications. Some countries have also established local environmental certification bodies, such as the Ecorating system conducted by Ecotourism Kenya, a parastatal association of sustainable hotels and ecolodges in Kenya.

However, sustainable hotels mostly focus their effort on the tangible aspect of conserving the environment and reducing energy consumption. This is a valid concern because hotels consume substantial amount of energy as well as water and fuel due to the nature of its business. Their energy and water consumption are highly

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affected by guest occupancy, that is, number of rooms sold per night. The hotel's main concern is to increase revenue through increasing occupancy rate resulting in an increase in energy and water consumption. Therefore, to increase the third bottom line (profit), the hotel has to implement energy and water conservation measures which also contribute to the first bottom line (environment). While the first and third bottom lines are constantly addressed, the second bottom line—the people—lags behind. Hotels still believe that the corporate social responsibility (CSR) approach is a way to reduce energy consumption and waste generation and thus save on costs. Community involvement mainly focuses on buying local products and allowing the community to sell their wares and handicrafts to tourists and hotel guests.

Much as sustainable principles focus on the community where the business resides, little consideration is given to the employees who work in that business. Yet, the attitude of hotel managers and employees towards environmental awareness has a strong impact on their willingness to act on environmental concerns and implement energy conservation measures. More focus is also given on the consumption of resources—water, fuel and electricity—and less on the effective operation of facilities that contribute to efficient use of these resources. The role of facilities is little understood nor appreciated in the hotel industry yet facilities form part of the product package sold to guests. Maintenance of facilities is given least priority and the maintenance department is viewed as a cost centre rather than a profit centre. However, studies show that effective and efficient management of facilities contributes to guest satisfaction and consequently an increase in hotel revenue because happy guests are repeat guests (Barrett & Baldry, 2003).

15.2 Role of Facilities in Hotels

Hotels are one of the main pillars in the tourism sector and highly unique among commercial buildings. They are among the most dynamic, complex, costly and challenging buildings to manage, operate and maintain (Chan, Lee, & Burnett, 2001). The diverse use of space with different schedules and utilization such as guestrooms, restaurants, kitchen, laundry, function rooms, swimming pool and health spa require a variety of engineering systems that operate 24 hours all year round (Chan, 2008).

Hotel facilities, therefore, play critical and varied roles in business operation and a major role in guest satisfaction. They contribute to the pleasurable experience of guests by providing a visual environment that creates the ambiance and by properly controlling non-visual environment (air quality, appropriate thermal and water temperature) to suit the guest's comfort (Losekoot, Wezel, & Wood, 2001). In the case of resorts, theme parks and theme restaurants, facilities themselves are the attraction as well as defining the brand image and company identity that attract customers to visit the facility. Facilities, which include the building fabric and its components, equipment, furniture and fixtures, also play an important role in the provision of services and delivery of products in the different departments of the hotel. As well as providing guest comfort, facilities also provide an efficient, comfortable and safe workplace

for employees thereby enhancing workforce productivity (Stipanuk, 2015). Therefore, hotel facilities contribute to the amount of revenue generated at the property since it is part of the package sold to guests. The operation and maintenance of hotel facilities are also influenced by resource use of employees and guests.

15.3 Understanding Facilities Management

The concept of facilities management (FM) is constantly developing and evolving with myriads of definitions that mostly refer to organizational effectiveness. Several authors defined FM in various ways each one highlighting certain aspects of FM. Hassanein and Dale (2013) compiled 15 definitions of FM from various authors for the period from 1988 to 2013. They classified the range of definitions into two main groups: (1) conceptual definitions that attempt to explain the essential nature of FM and (2) technical definitions to designate tools or functions used in the activity. They also attempted to extract from these definitions certain dimensions that gave a clearer picture of the nature and scope of FM. Incorporating the FM dimensions as summarized by Hassanein and Dale (2013), the author formulates a comprehensive definition of FM as follows:

> Facilities management is a multi-disciplinary field that requires various management and technical skills and competencies to ensure functionality of the built environment through integration of people, process, place and technology to support the organization in improving the performance of its core business and achieve its operational, tactical and strategic objectives in changing conditions.

FM is seen as a multi-disciplinary field which serves as an umbrella that covers different functions such as engineering, architecture, design and construction, and several management areas such as environmental management, property management, asset management, operations management, business administration, strategic management, project management and change management. This implies the need for management skills such as planning, organizing, implementing, evaluating, monitoring, controlling and coordinating. Technical skills are also required to ensure that facilities are effectively maintained in order to continue serving their original function. This involves technical skills in electrical and mechanical systems, plumbing and building maintenance. FM, as a support function, also encompasses security, safety, housekeeping and space management. This multi-disciplinary function of FM is effectively carried out through proper integration of people, process and place, commonly termed as the 3P of FM. In the past, management and maintenance of facilities were seen only as operational and reactive practice where activity was carried out when facilities break down. The management of facilities was initially considered to be a property-based discipline which was a reactive, operational aspect of property management, services and maintenance. Since then FM has evolved to include tactical and strategic functions which use a proactive approach where measures are put in place before facilities break down. It also incorporates design of

property and work environment therefore encompassing a broader area of non-core activities (Hassanein & Dale, 2013).

The author presents a framework based on the author's definition of FM. Figure 15.1 shows the 3P of FM harmoniously integrating to address the operational, tactical and strategic objectives of the organization. The Process, as explained above, is multi-dimensional which encompasses different fields of management discipline, the People equipped with management and technical skills and competencies that include the stakeholders (customers and staff) and shareholders (owners and investors) and the Place includes everything within the built environment, such as the building fabric and its components, furniture, fixtures and equipment (FF&E), parking and grounds, as well as the workplace.

One of the outcomes of effective FM is the management of property and other physical assets that is in line with organizational objectives, and thus improves or adds value to the organization in terms of its impact on the people and processes. The assets of the hotel include the hotel premises, building facilities and utilities, fixtures and fittings, plus furniture and added amenities. All these contribute towards the success of the units: the location, building design, vistas, interior design, décor and so on—that provide the ambiance and the right kind of experience expected by guests (Jones & Lockwood, 2006). Facilities management therefore is an important aspect in hotel operations that would considerably contribute to its sustainability (Baharum & Pitt, 2009).

Fig. 15.1 Facilities management framework

15.4 Integrating FM into Sustainable Development

Sustainable development (SD) is commonly defined as 'development that meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs'. This definition, which remains widely used today, was first coined in 1987 by the World Commission on Environment and Development in their Brundtland Report (WCED, 1987). Environmental issues have always been associated with care of the natural environment with focus on issues of global warming, climate change, pollution, degradation and depletion of natural resources, and management of waste. The concept of sustainability then came up, which embraces not only environmental concerns but also includes the economic and social benefits both to the business and the community.

Sustainability principles present the need to balance the environmental (planet), social (people) and economic (profit) concerns. This is commonly referred to as the triple bottom line (3BL) of sustainability.

Figure 15.2 shows the author's interpretation of the sustainability framework, with the purpose of portraying a similarity with the FM framework (Fig. 15.1). Figure 15.3 shows the summary of FM framework focusing on the 3P of FM, while Fig. 15.4 shows the 3P of sustainability. The author then combines both Figs. 15.3 and 15.4 into Fig. 15.5 which shows the similarity between FM components and the 3BL of sustainability with a focus on the people as the common factor. The FM model fits into the SD model centred on people as the common ground.

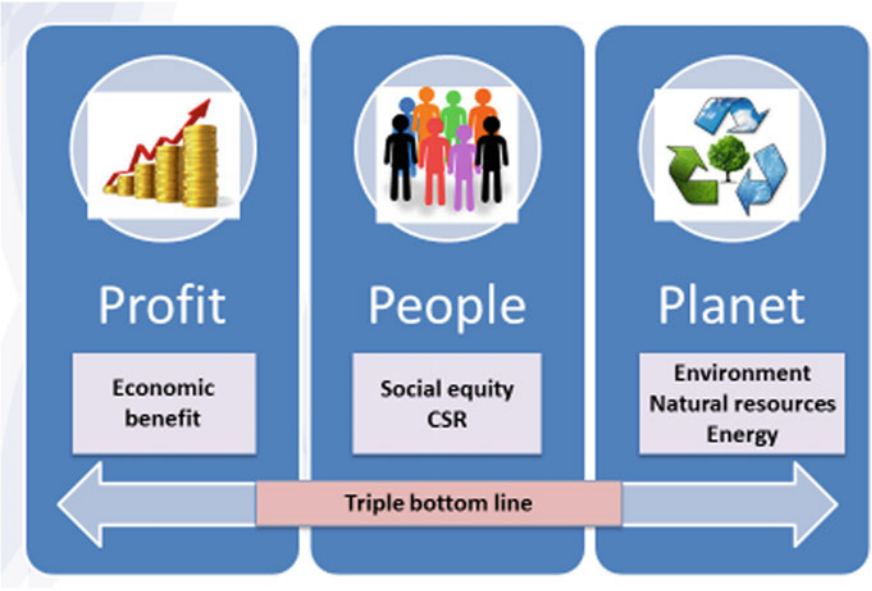

Fig. 15.2 Sustainability framework

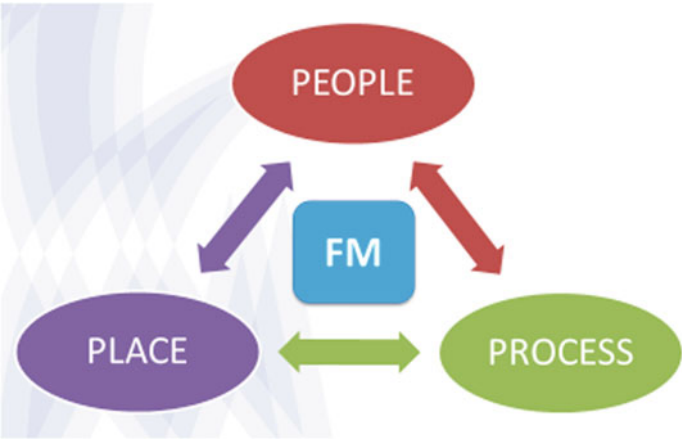

Fig. 15.3 The 3P's of facilities management (FM)

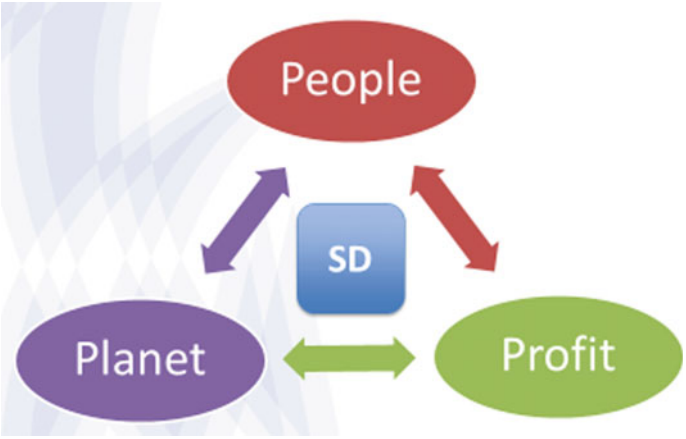

Fig. 15.4 The 3P's of sustainable development (SD)

Figure 15.5 graphically highlights the integration of FM into SD through the people factor. Most literature show emphasis of sustainable FM on the physical aspect as well as the FM process and little is mentioned on the people. To focus on the people both from the FM and SD perspective brings in the aspect of intellectual human capital.

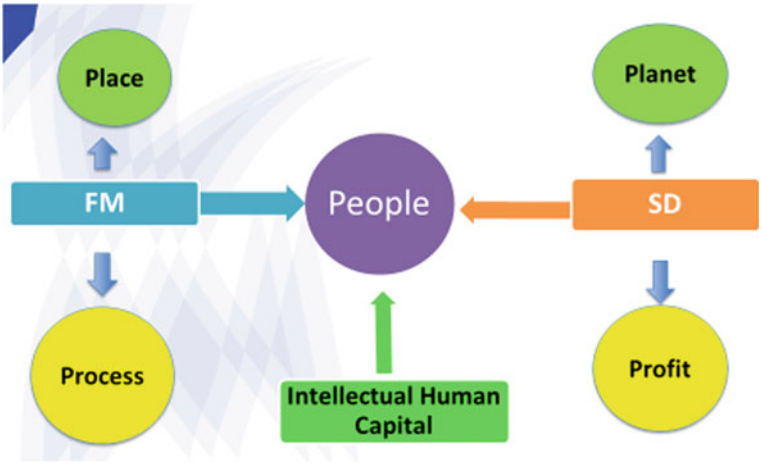

Fig. 15.5 Integration of FM and SD

15.5 Contribution of FM to Hotel Sustainability

Figure 15.6 summarizes FM's contribution to the triple bottom line of sustainability. On the economic dimension, there is energy-saving measures and installation of energy-saving devices which is a proper function of FM that contributes to savings on utility and energy cost. The social dimension is to manage diversity of human resources from the engineers, technicians and mechanics to the housekeepers, gardeners and security officers. The environmental dimension is an FM function that encompasses environmental management, waste management, energy management and energy-efficient design and operation. FM proactively addresses environmental issues and participates in formulating green practices within the environmental management framework (Baharum & Pitt, 2009).

The choice of FM as part of hotel sustainability is justified because FM is a support function to improve the performance of core business. In the case of hotels, management and maintenance of facilities is essential for smooth business operation. The nature of hotel business relies heavily on the use of facilities both by staff and guests. In addition, the essential aspect of FM includes maintenance management and

Triple Bottom Line	FM Role
Economic (profit)	Energy savings
Social (people)	Manage diversity of human resources
Environment (planet)	Environmental management system, waste management, energy management and energy-efficient design and operation

Fig. 15.6 Contribution of FM to 3BL

environmental management, both aspects go hand in hand in the management and operation of green hotels. If machines and equipment are not properly maintained, their efficiency in performing the desired function decreases. Less efficient machines mean greater energy consumption. It is also known that managing property is the 'hard' FM while managing people is the 'soft' FM. FM hard issues (machines, facilities, buildings) and soft issues (managing people) are key in providing knowledge and skills for effective management of facilities (Atkin & Brookes, 2000). Hotels rely on the combination of both hard and soft FM functions. FM is a multi-disciplinary field that involves various functions which basically cover almost all departments in a hotel. It is observed that construction of sustainable hotels requires a holistic and multi-dimensional vision (Jabbour & Santos, 2008).

15.6 Linking FM with Human Resource Management

Nutt (2000) explored four types of resource that are basic to FM function, which he termed as FM 'trails'. These are the financial resource trail (business), the human resource trail (people), the physical resource trail (property) and the knowledge resource trail (information). He predicted the future of these trails in response to the changing conditions. Figure 15.7 shows a schematic representation of the four trails.

Almost 20 years down the line, Nutt's forecast is yet to be accomplished. Of the four trails, he posited that the human resource trail 'promises to be the most radical route to the future' (p. 126). However, he concluded that the contribution of FM to human resource management will be indirect because the main objective of FM on the HR trail is to support the effective functioning of the workforce. FM has no

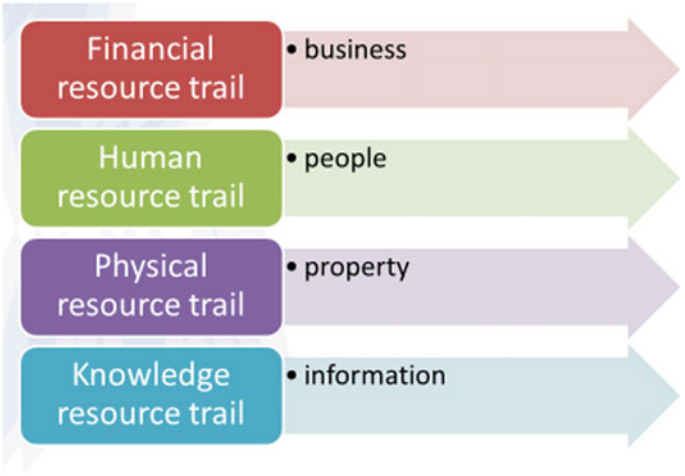

Fig. 15.7 Four trails of FM. *Source* Nutt (2000)

capacity to manage human resource directly although it can enhance the productivity, performance and well-being of the employees. FM can also contribute to effective HR management by providing effective workplace such as executive office, computer workstation and diverse range of working venues especially in hotels where kitchen workstation is distinct from laundry or front office.

Therefore, it can safely be said that FM strategy could become an essential part of HR strategy and FM effectively becomes people-based rather than property-based. FM was initially considered a property-based discipline which was a reactive way of managing and operating the facilities. This means that FM only used to provide the physical workstation, equipment and maintenance and operation of machines. This has now developed into people-based FM which takes on a proactive, strategic role incorporating not only the design of property and work environment but also on monitoring the impacts of such facilities on people and their operations, and evaluating the effect of facilities on work output and staff satisfaction (Hassanein & Dale, 2013; Nutt, 2000).

15.7 Intellectual Capital Framework for Hotel Sustainability

The current trend of a proactive, strategic, people-based FM requires such focus on human resource from the perspective of facilities-related functions. From the aspect of environmental management and sustainability, there is also a shift in focus from the installation of energy-efficient devices and energy-saving equipment to the education and training of employees to adapt energy-saving measures. Research shows that although FM plays a key role for a sustainable organization, the lack of training, and lack of knowledge and environmental awareness of the employees are among the barriers that have been identified (Ikediashi, Ogunlana, Oladokun, & Adewuyi, 2013). It is important, therefore, to consider investing in people through provision of knowledge creation by continuous training of staff (Wilkinson, Hill, & Gollan, 2001).

Intellectual capital is the knowledge, experience and ideas of employees (Wilkinson et al., 2001). Numerous studies in knowledge management generally classify intellectual capital into three components: customer capital, human capital and structural capital (Baharum & Pitt, 2009). Figure 15.8 summarizes the three components of intellectual capital.

Human capital is the primary source of innovation and organizational competitiveness. It is a mixture of employees' skills, experience, education, attitude and intellectual agility to satisfy organizational objectives. Therefore, when an organization educates its employees, the human capital value increases (Baharum & Pitt, 2009). There has been no study investigating whether FM intellectual human capital directly relates to sustainability and whether FM knowledge perspective lead to improvement in green practices (Baharum & Pitt, 2009). However, it is observed

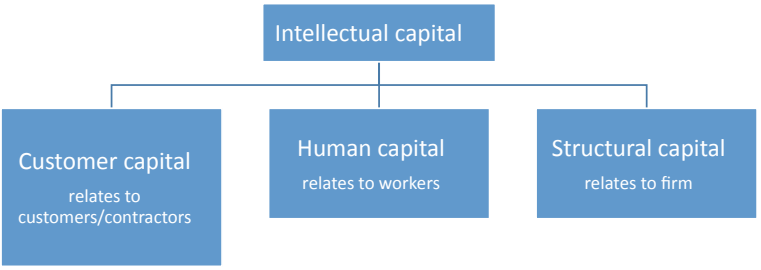

Fig. 15.8 Intellectual capital framework. *Source* Baharum and Pitt (2009)

that achieving sustainability will require not only attention to technical details and scientific processes but also to consider the human element (Daily & Huang, 2001). It is important to raise the awareness of employees and help them develop a positive attitude towards sustainability, to enhance their values, skills and competencies so they can contribute to the triple bottom line (Garavan & McGuire, 2010). Training should be provided to employees at all levels so that they acquire the knowledge and skills to achieve the objectives of hotel sustainability. Studies showed that the employees feel they are not sufficiently informed about environmental issues and that they lack management support (Daily & Huang, 2001). It is seen that employees have been the greatest hindrance in the effective practice of environmental management and consequently they are the main protagonists in the way sustainability dimensions are achieved (Jabbour & Santos, 2008; Rothenberg, 2003).

15.8 Conclusion

Facilities management has evolved from a property-based to a people-based function. The FM framework fits well into the sustainability framework. The integrated model presented in this chapter requires further development. It is recommended that close examination of the human resource capital within the context of FM and hotel sustainability be further investigated using the organizational citizenship behaviour. The model also needs to be tested in a case study of various ecolodges within the African context.

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Chapter 16
Sustainable Human Resource Management in the Context of Sustainable Tourism and Sustainable Development in Africa: Problems and Prospects

Chibuzo Ejiogu, Amanze Ejiogu and Adeniyi Asiyanbi

16.1 Introduction

There is recent and growing interest among academic researchers, policy circles and practitioners in relation to the concepts of sustainable human resource management (SustHRM) and sustainable tourism. However, both concepts have developed in parallel, overlooking their intersectionality and the ways in which issues pertaining to sustainable employment, workforces and workplaces may contribute to sustainable tourism. The rare studies that have attempted to explore this intersectionality (Baum, 2018; Baum et al., 2016) have sought to extend the concept of sustainable tourism by incorporating a SustHRM perspective in simplistic and unproblematic ways without regard to theoretical weakness within current conceptualizations of SustHRM. This chapter adopts an alternative approach by seeking to problematize current SustHRM theorization with a view of enhancing its theoretical rigour and intersection with sustainable tourism.

The aim of this chapter is critical analysis and theory building in relation to SustHRM theory and its synthesis with sustainable tourism theory. This theoretical analysis will be undertaken within the context of tourism and sustainable development in Africa to highlight important features of the African context and its contribu-

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tion to theory building in relation to SustHRM and sustainable tourism. Three major problems are identified based on a review of current clusters of SustHRM theorization (Kramar, 2014, 2017) and prospects for theoretical development and expansion are outlined. First, at the organizational level, current SustHRM theorization is limited to making superficial and moderate changes to organizations and their HRM systems. Drawing on organizational learning theory, this chapter makes an original contribution by classifying current efforts as single and double-loop SustHRM focused on changes to organizational practices and underlying norms and operating procedures, while making a case for more radical change to underpinning organizational strategies, structures, business models and paradigms through triple-loop SustHRM. Second, at the level of interfirm collaborations, this chapter highlights the potential for SustHRM across organizational supply chains and global value chains (GVC) and extends current SustHRM theorization to incorporate as sensitivity towards power inequalities and relations within supply chains and GVCs. Post-colonial theory is drawn upon to highlight how such power relations and inequalities are pertinent in the context of sustainable tourism in Africa. Third, at the national level, current SustHRM theorization is critiqued for its instrumental approach which makes the promotion of ecological and social sustainability within the wider society subservient to, and directed at, promoting the organization's economic sustainability. Current SustHRM theorization is also critiqued for its Western-centricity and narrow approach which confines SustHRM practices and outcomes to the traditional jurisdiction of non-state actors outside the sphere of promoting public policy and providing public services. In contrast, this chapter expands SustHRM theorization to incorporate a more assertive, ethically grounded and broader role in promoting sustainability in the wider society. This is relevant in the African context where an 'institutional void' (Mamman, Kamoche, Zakaria, & Agbebi, 2018) may create the need and scope for organizations to take on some of the roles traditionally associated with the state in the provision of services, policy formulation and implementation.

The chapter is organized as follows: after this introduction, the next section reviews the conceptual links between sustainability, sustainable development and sustainable tourism. In section three, the state of current SustHRM theorization is reviewed focusing on three 'clusters' of SustHRM theories. Section four identifies major limitations of current SustHRM theoretical clusters at the level of organizations, interfirm collaborations and national institutional contexts and suggests theoretical developments to address these limitations. The final section concludes and proffers suggestions for future research.

16.2 Sustainability, Sustainable Development and Sustainable Tourism

The United Nations' World Commission on Environment and Development (also known as The Brundtland Commission) published its influential report, *Our Common Future*, in 1987 which popularized the concept of sustainability in society and many business organizations (Dyllick & Hockerts, 2002). The Brundtland Commission extended previous conceptions of sustainability and development by linking both concepts and recognizing that the environment is a broader context of which the ecology was only a sub-part. Brundtland argued that 'the "environment" is where we live; and "development" is what we all do in attempting to improve our lot within that abode. The two are inseparable'. (WCED, 1987: xi). The Commission's report provided the now famous definition of sustainable development as 'development that meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs' (WCED, 1987: 43). Sustainability and sustainable development are contested concepts; (Waas et al., 2014), however, most conceptualizations identify economic growth, environmental protection and social equality as the three pillars of sustainability and sustainable development. This is most commonly applied to organizations in the form of the triple bottom line (TBL) accounting framework comprising 'people, planet and profit' used to evaluate organizational performance (Elkington, 1994; Elkington & Rowlands, 1997). According to Kramar (2017), the notion of responsibility to future generations advocated by The Brundtland Commission is sometimes considered a fourth pillar of sustainable development and the basis for the quadruple bottom line (QBL) which recognizes long-term outcomes in organizations.

The discourse on sustainable tourism has focused on managing the natural, built and socio-cultural resources of host communities (Briassoulis, 2002). According to Miller, Rathouse, Scarles, Holmes, and Tribe (2010), the emergence of sustainable tourism as a concept can be linked to the growth of tourism, political discourses and agendas that have become more environmentally focused and a growing awareness of the principles of sustainability enumerated in The Brundtland Commission's report. Tourism researchers began to pay attention to social and environmental issues in the 1970s and 1980s (Allen, Long, Perdue, & Kieselbach, 1988; Brougham & Butler, 1981; Cater, 1987; Cohen, 1978; Farrell & McLellan, 1987; Liu & Var, 1986; Smith, 1977; Turner & Ash, 1975; Young, 1973). However, it was in the early 1990s that the specific term sustainable tourism emerged as an academic concept (May, 1991; Nash & Butler, 1990). Sustainability has since become embedded as a dominant theme in contemporary tourism discourse, as noted by Weaver (2011: 5) 'since the mid-1990s, discourses about the tourism sector have become increasingly dominated, at least rhetorically, by the ideas and ideals of sustainability'. The definition of sustainable tourism by the United Nations World Tourism Organization (UNWTO) has proved influential in academic research, policy circles and among practitioners, according to the UNWTO sustainable tourism can be defined as: 'Tourism that takes full account of its current and future economic, social and environmental impacts, addressing the

needs of visitors, the industry, the environment and host communities' (UNEP and UNWTO, 2005: 11–12). The UNWTO argues that sustainable tourism practices are applicable to all forms of tourism in all types of destinations, including mass tourism and the various niche tourism segments, and that sustainable tourism should:

(1) Make optimal use of environmental resources that constitute a key element in tourism development, maintaining essential ecological processes and helping to conserve natural heritage and biodiversity.
(2) Respect the socio-cultural authenticity of host communities, conserve their built and living cultural heritage and traditional values and contribute to intercultural understanding and tolerance.
(3) Ensure viable, long-term economic operations, providing socio-economic benefits to all stakeholders that are fairly distributed, including stable employment and income-earning opportunities and social services to host communities and contributing to poverty alleviation.

Although the UNWTO conceptualizes sustainable tourism as seeking a suitable balance between long-term ecological, social and economic sustainability as shown above, in practice not all pillars of sustainability have been emphasized in the contemporary narrative of sustainable tourism. According to Baum (2018: 881), the contemporary tourism narrative on sustainability has been 'hijacked' by concerns over the ecological pillar (natural environment) and as a result, employment and workforce issues have been largely side-lined. Academic research has tended to focus on finding 'solutions' to managerial and operational problems, rather than seeking or providing broader contextual understanding or explanations for the social and economic drivers that underpin challenges related to work and employment. A 10-year review of leading academic journals in tourism and hospitality highlights the serious neglect of workforce issues in tourism research including sustainable tourism (Baum, Kralj, Robinson, & Solnet, 2016). Similarly, a wide-ranging review of the academic literature on sustainable tourism by Buckley (2012) largely ignores workforce and employment issues while focusing on five themes which are considered key components of sustainability to tourism: population, peace, prosperity, pollution and protection. Academic researchers are not alone in overlooking the sustainability of workers, workplaces and workforces when it comes to sustainable tourism as Baum (2018) points to similar failings among policymakers and practitioners alike. The study by Solnet, Nickson, Robinson, Kralj, and Baum (2014) is probably the only attempt to systematically evaluate work, employment and labour market issues in policy-focused public documents over a longitudinal time frame or on a comparative basis across countries. This study compared workforces and issues in tourism policy and planning in Australia and Scotland over 12 years (2002–2012) and highlighted the failure of policy development in this area. It concluded that the issues identified did not change over the timeframe and that the proposed remedies remained static.

Sustainable tourism has been closely linked to national sustainable development and 2017 was declared the International Year of Sustainable Tourism for Development by the United Nations (UN) General Assembly to emphasize the role of sustainable tourism towards meeting the UN Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs).

Tourism has continued to experience growth and increased diversification over the previous decades and is considered one of the fastest growing economic sectors globally (UNWTO, 2013). For developing countries in Africa in particular, sustainable tourism can be a major source of wealth creation and a route to socio-economic development through the creation of jobs, international trade, poverty eradication, gender equality and protection of natural and cultural heritage. The importance of sustainable tourism to national development strategies and policies as well as the global development agenda has led to the UN identifying tourism as one of ten sectors to drive change towards a 'Green Economy' and it was recognized in the Rio + 20 Outcome Document as one of the sectors capable of making a significant contribution to the three pillars of sustainable development, closely linked to other sectors, and capable of creating decent jobs and generating trade opportunities. These dynamics have turned it into a key driver for socio-economic progress in nations worldwide (UNWTO, 2013: 8).

Tourism is a diverse industry incorporating a range of sub-sectors such as transport, accommodation, food service, retail, attractions, events and facilitation. It is therefore difficult to generalize about employment issues and the workforce across the industry's sub-sectors (Baum et al., 2016). The polarization between high-skill, high-income jobs on the one hand and low-skill, low-income jobs on the other hand has been noted with few jobs being in the middle of these two extremes (Nickson, 2013). This was highlighted by Baum (1995: 151):

> In some geographical and sub-sector areas, tourism and hospitality provides an attractive, high-status working environment with competitive pay and conditions, which is in high demand in the labour force and benefits from low staff turnover… The other side of the coin is one of poor conditions, low pay, high staff turnover, problems recruiting skills in a number of key areas, a high level of labour drawn from socially disadvantaged groups, poor status and the virtual absence of professionalism.

Therefore, there is a growing recognition of issues of job quality and labour standards in policy formulation and planning processes for sustainable tourism such as the recognition of employment, decent work and human capital as one of the key dimensions and themes of sustainable tourism in the UNWTO Sustainable Tourism for Development Guidebook (UNWTO, 2013). In particular, there has been some recognition of the International Labour Organization's (ILO) notion of decent work as well as the UN's 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development (United Nations, 2015) as important components of sustainable tourism. Thus, key authors such as Baum (2018) and Baum et al. (2016) have identified SustHRM as an important theoretical resource to aid the incorporation, development and elaboration of employment and workforce issues within sustainable tourism research, policy and practice. However, SustHRm has been incorporated in a largely uncritical manner by these authors with scant attention paid to the theoretical adequacy and rigour of current conceptualizations of SustHRM and its application to sustainable tourism. The next section provides an overview of current SustHRM theorization and this is followed by sections critically analyzing its theoretical shortcomings and elaborating theoretical developments to overcome such limitations while seeking to apply these theoretical perspectives to sustainable tourism in the African context.

16.3 A Review of Sustainable HRM Theoretical 'Clusters'

HRM is a contested concept that broadly refers to how organizations seek to manage their employees in the pursuit of organizational success, and this includes methods to recruit, deploy, develop, reward and motivate staff within tourism sub-sectors (Nickson, 2013). The evolution of HRM from an administrative to a strategic function, marked by the change in nomenclature from personnel management to HRM (Ejiogu & Ejiogu, 2018; Guest, 1987), highlights the important role of HRM in supporting organizational strategic objectives and achieving competitive advantage, and this has recently been extended to include supporting the implementation of corporate social responsibility (CSR) and sustainability initiatives encapsulated in the concept of SustHRM (Ehnert, Harry, & Zink, 2014a, 2014b). SustHRM deals broadly with attempts to link HRM to the concept of sustainability and the role of HRM in promoting and balancing long-term ecological, social and economic sustainability (Ehnert, 2009a, 2009b).

SustHRM is contested and there are divergent views regarding its definition, scope and key dimensions. Jabbour and Santos (2008) focus on what they consider to be the major contributions of HRM to the economic, social and environmental performance of sustainable organizations. They identify enhancing innovation among employees as HRM's major contribution to economic sustainability and promoting and managing diversity as HRM's contribution to social sustainability. The authors argue that HRM can enhance environmental sustainability by embedding ecological issues within HRM practices such as recruiting and training environmentally conscious staff, performance management and reward systems that support environmental conservation behaviours among employees as well as supporting teamwork, corporate cultures, continuous improvement programmes and employee innovation directed at environmental sustainability. In contrast to the approach by Jabbour and Santos (2008) focusing the sustainability of organizations through work practices, Ybema, van Vuuren, and van Dam (2017) focus on the extent to which workers are able and willing to remain working now and, in the future, (sustainable employability or sustainable labour participation). Ybema et al. (2017) identify employability, work motivation and health as three components of sustainable employability. Employability refers to the ability of employees to adequately fulfil work in their current and future jobs, work motivation encompasses internal and external energetic forces that direct, energize and regulate work-related behaviour, while health relates to the state of complete physical, mental and social well-being, and not merely as the absence of disease or infirmity.

The contrast above merely highlights how diverse and contested SustHRM theorization has become as it has evolved. 'Sustainable HRM' is an umbrella term 'coined and developed by several sources independently from each other' (Ehnert, Harry, & Zink, 2014a: 19) that broadly covers attempts to identify a relationship between sustainability or sustainable development (at the macro level), as popularized by the Brundtland Commission, and HRM (at the organizational level). This includes theories with a variety of labels such as 'Socially Responsible HRM' (Cohen, 2010;

Cohen, Taylor, & Muller-Carmen, 2012; Hartog & Muller-Carmen, 2008), 'Sustainable Work Systems' (Docherty, Kira, & Shani, 2009; Fischer & Zink, 2012; Kira & Lifvergren, 2014; Zink, 2014), 'Green HRM' (Bratton & Bratton, 2015; Jabbour and Santos, 2008; Jackson, Renwick, Jabbour, & Muller-Camen, 2011; Renwick, Redman, & Maguire, 2008, 2016) and attempts to link HRM and CSR (Ejiogu, 2013; Ejiogu, Ozoh, & Ejiogu, 2013) or HRM and corporate sustainability (Boudreau & Ramstad, 2005; Lawler & Worley, 2012). In her comprehensive review of the SustHRM literature, Kramar (2014: 1075) notes that:

> The term sustainable HRM has been used for more than a decade. The literature is piecemeal, diverse and fraught with difficulties. There is no one precise definition of the term and it has been used in a variety of ways. The writings on sustainable HRM differ in terms of the emphasis given to particular internal and external outcomes.

In an attempt to make sense of the diversity and tensions in defining and theorizing SustHRM, Kramar (2014, 2017) categorized SustHRM theories propounded by different authors into three groups. Common to all three groups or clusters is an understanding of sustainability as involving long-term and durable outcomes, these clusters serve as a means to chart the development of SustHRM theorization. Although Kramar refers to 'groups', this chapter refers to these categories as loose theoretical 'clusters' as there is significant divergence even within each 'cluster', therefore these clusters are not mutually exclusive and may overlap.

The first cluster, 'Capability Reproduction', focuses on internal outcomes by theorizing ways in which organizations and their internal HRM systems may become more sustainable (Browning & Delahaye, 2011; Clarke, 2011; Ehnert, 2009a; Wells, 2011). The goal is to develop long-term sustainability and 'sustainable competitive advantage' through the development of human and social capability (Kramar, 2017). A strong current in this cluster is the idea of renewal, regeneration and reproduction of the HRM system and resource base faster than resources are 'consumed' to avoid 'unsustainable HRM' characterized by burnout through individual stress, other forms of illness or high levels of attrition. Human and social capabilities are 'consumed' when employee knowledge, skills and abilities are not developed, therefore the focus is on developing employees' capabilities sustainably. This category developed explicitly as an extension of strategic HRM (SHRM) theorization and some of the literature in this cluster is similar to that of high-performance work systems (HPWS), although in contrast to the short-term economic (shareholder value) focus of SHRM, this cluster focuses on the economic and social pillars of sustainability as well as long-term outcomes. Theorization in this cluster is limited to traditional HRM practices that contribute to promoting SustHRM such as work–life balance and well-being (Docherty, Forslin, & Shani, 2002), employee participation and direct communication (Donnelly & Proctor-Thomson, 2011), work roles and performance management (Wells, 2011) and collaborative HR development (Browning & Delahaye, 2011).

The second cluster, 'Promoting Social and Environmental Health', emphasizes the relationship between HRM, sustainability and external outcomes (Branco & Rodrigues, 2006; Collison, Cobb, Power, & Stevenson, 2008; Mariappanadar, 2003,

2012a, 2012b; Orlitzky, Schmidt, & Rynes, 2003). These theories draw on notions of CSR and TBL and recognize all three pillars of sustainability, although social and environmental outcomes are viewed as mediating factors for financial outcomes rather than ends in themselves. Greater recognition is given to ecological (environmental) outcomes than in the Capability Reproduction cluster. The focus is on traditional HRM practices that promote sustainability often by reducing the 'externalities' (negative impact) of HRM practices on external parties such as family and community well-being, employee health, government policy and expenditure. These 'unsustainable HRM' practices include work intensification, temporary employment, excessive performance standards and ambiguous job roles. The focus in this cluster is on HRM's role in promoting CSR (e.g. through improved pay and working conditions) and TBL (e.g. through rewarding ecologically friendly employee behaviours such as reducing employee and organizational carbon footprints) to obtain a favourable reputation among external stakeholders on which the organization is dependent for its long-term sustainability.

The third cluster is labelled 'Connections' and it differs from other clusters by combining traditional HRM practices (employee development, reward, performance management, etc.) with broader organizational practices such as leadership, organizational culture, flexible organizational structures, strong corporate values, trust between the organization and employees, and employee involvement and participation. Not only are connections established between HRM and organizational practices, these theories also view internal and external outcomes as interrelated and contributing to organizational sustainability. Thus, there is an acknowledgement of the role of national institutional and social contexts on organizational sustainability such as the influence of the stakeholder approach on sustainable leadership observed in European countries adopting the Rhineland approach to economic theory (Avery, 2005; Avery & Bergsteiner, 2010) and the influence of the Swiss tradition of harmonious coexistence between employees, corporations and society on SustHRM practices (Zaugg, Blum, & Thom, 2001). There is a strong moral and ethical underpinning to theories in this cluster. Thus, SustHRM in this cluster would emphasize the role of HRM in managing organizational culture, developing leadership capabilities and corporate values to enhance organizational sustainability. Although social, environmental and economic sustainability generally tend to be included in these theories (Dunphy, Griffiths, & Benn, 2007), some approaches, such as Green HRM, may focus on only one (environmental) outcome. We extend Kramar's theoretical mapping of SustHRM by synthesizing and summarizing the clusters in Table 16.1 overleaf.

This overview of SustHRM theoretical clusters provides a systematic approach to reviewing and evaluating this body of theory. It also enables a critical analysis of theoretical weaknesses within this body of theory and opportunities to further develop its theoretical adequacy and rigour in the context of sustainable tourism in Africa, these are addressed in the next section.

Table 16.1 Current theorization in relation to sustainable HRM: first to third 'Clusters' of theory

Sustainable HRM theory	Practices	Outcomes
Capability reproduction	HRM practices	Internal
Promoting social and environmental health	HRM practices	External
Connections	HRM and organizational practices	Internal and external

Source own elaboration (based on Kramar, 2014, 2017)

16.4 Sustainable HRM Theorization for Sustainable Tourism and Development in Africa: Problems and Prospects

Reviewing the clusters of SustHRM theorization enables the identification of three major weaknesses within this corpus of literature and provides opportunities to develop SustHRM theory in the context of sustainable tourism in Africa. First, at the organizational level, all three clusters of SustHRM theories can be criticized for focusing on superficial and moderate outcomes rather than more radical organizational change. Second, at the level of organizational supply chains and intra-firm linkages, SustHRM has been largely silent on the role of HRM in enhancing more sustainable supply chains and GVCs. The few studies that have addressed the issue of GVC sustainability have ignored important dimensions of power relations between multinational corporations (MNC), the state and other actors despite the potential for powerful MNCs to dominate weaker actors from developing nations. Third, at the national level, current SustHRM theoretical clusters have a narrow and instrumental view of SustHRM practices and outcomes in relation to external stakeholders and the wider society while overlooking the potential for a broader, more assertive and ethically inspired role for HRM in promoting sustainability within the wider society. These three 'problems' with the state of current SustHRM theorization will be elaborated upon below and prospects for theoretical developments to overcome these limitations will be evaluated in the context of sustainable tourism in Africa.

The first problem identified above at the organizational level is that across all three clusters, a common theme is the assumption that SustHRM is a force for change within organizations and their HRM systems. Nevertheless, this is limited to moderate or superficial improvements to the sustainability of organizational practices and its workforce with little scope for more radical change to underlying organizational strategies, structures and business models. The Capability Reproduction cluster emphasizes internal outcomes of SustHRM conceived as changes to improve the sustainability of workers capabilities (knowledge, skills, abilities, motivation, collaboration, etc.). The Promoting Social and Environmental Health cluster focuses

on external outcomes such as improving the organization's reputation and goodwill among external stakeholders through CSR activities and TBL reporting e.g. by encouraging more ecologically friendly behaviours by employees and philanthropic donations by the organization to local communities. Neither of these outcomes is aimed at fundamentally challenging and changing the core principles underpinning the way organizations are run. The Connections cluster goes beyond a superficial focus on outcomes targeted at workforce capabilities, CSR activities and organizational reputation to begin to address some underpinning organizational values and norms such as corporate values, culture and leadership. Nevertheless, the Connections cluster provides only moderate change to underlying organizational behaviour as it seeks to address 'softer' and intangible organizational dimensions (culture, leadership, etc.) leaving 'harder' and more tangible organizational structures and business processes relatively untouched. Given HRM's relative subservience to financial and organizational strategy and processes in many organizations (Ejiogu & Ejiogu, 2018; Legge, 2004), questions arise regarding what role (if any) SustHRM may play in shaping organizational strategy, structure and business models towards more sustainable outcomes. An organizational learning perspective can help answer these questions and assess the depth of change SustHRM may engender within organizations.

This chapter draws on organizational learning theory (Argyris & Schon, 1978; Romme & Van Witteloostuijn, 1999) to build upon current SustHRM theorization regarding the outcomes and nature of organizational change resulting from SustHRM practices. Several authors have highlighted the importance of feedback loops as part of SustHRM theoretical models across all three clusters (Cohen, Taylor, & Muller-Carmen, 2012; De Prins, Van Beirendonck, De Vos, & Segers, 2014; Ehnert, 2009a; Ehnert, Harry & Zink, 2014b; Gollan & Xu, 2014; Kramar, 2017; Savaneviciene & Stankeviciute, 2014; Zaugg et al., 2001). These feedback loops are presented by these authors as processes of change between the inputs, HRM practices and outcomes which constitute SustHRM. Although none of these authors have incorporated organizational learning perspective into SustHRM, organizational learning theory is useful in understanding processes of change through feedback loops which may be understood as modes of learning. The seminal work by Argyris and Schon (1978) on single and double-loop learning helps shed light on how learning, in the form of feedback loops within organizational systems, may result in different types of organizational change.

According to Argyris (1999: 68), single-loop learning occurs 'whenever an error is detected and corrected without questioning or altering the underlying values of the system', while double-loop learning takes place 'when mismatches are corrected by first examining and altering the governing variables and then the actions'. Single-loop learning involves the role of learning in identifying and rectifying 'errors' within existing organizational practices, policies and norms of behaviour. Applying this to SustHRM therefore, the Capability Reproduction cluster could be viewed as 'single-loop SustHRM' because this cluster of theories brings about changes in organizational (and HRM) practices by promoting sustainability within existing organizational business models, strategies and structures.

In contrast, double-loop learning involves using learning to challenge the appropriateness of the organization's underlying norms, values, policies and operating procedures that create the 'errors' in the first place. Applying this insight therefore, SustHRM theories that fall within the Promoting Social and Environmental Health and Connections clusters may be viewed as 'double-loop SustHRM' because they attempt to challenge and change organizational values, culture or leadership to incorporate sustainability. They tend to be SustHRM theories underpinned by corporate sustainability theories, stakeholder theory and some strategic forms of CSR theories, these include writings on Socially Responsible HRM (Cohen, 2010; Cohen et al., 2012; Hartog & Muller-Carmen, 2008), Sustainable Leadership (Avery, 2005; Avery & Bergsteiner, 2010), a stakeholder perspective for SustHRM (Guerci, 2011; Guerci, Shani (Rami), & Solari, 2014), and developing a sustainability culture in organizations (Sroufe, Liebowitz, & Sivasubramaniam, 2010). A close reading reveals that these theories do not emphasize radical transformation of the organization system and only proffer a 'weak' role for incorporating stakeholder views (e.g. informing and consulting stakeholders) rather than a 'strong' role for stakeholders in strategic decision-making and may focus solely on either social or environmental sustainability.

It is in relation to the concept of triple-loop learning that the problems and prospects of engendering more radical organizational change becomes clearer. Several authors (Flood and Romm, 1996; Isaacs, 1993; Romme & Van Witteloostuijn, 1999; Snell & Chak, 1998; Swieringa & Wierdsma, 1992; Yuthas, Dillard, & Rogers, 2004) have conceptualized 'triple-loop' learning as an extension to Argyris and Schon's (1978) theory of single and double-loop learning. There are different and competing conceptualizations of triple-loop learning (Tosey, Visser, & Saunders, 2011). This chapter draws on the stream of literature that conceptualizes triple-loop learning as concerned with underlying purposes, principles or paradigms (Hawkins, 1991; Isaacs, 1993; Romme & Van Witteloostuijn, 1999). While double-loop learning is concerned with the correction of governing variable responsible for 'errors', triple-loop learning is concerned with change in whatever governs those governing variables i.e. even deeper underpinning variables, structures, strategies and mental models. This could refer to organizational paradigm (Isaacs, 1993), strategy (Hawkins, 1991), essential principles on which the organization is founded (Swieringa & Wierdsma, 1992: 41, 42), the overarching role or mission of the organization (Lassey, 1998) or the strategies, structures and overall learning infrastructure (Romme & Van Witteloostuijn, 1999).

It is in regard to triple-loop learning that the limits of current SustHRM become apparent, this involves the use of learning to question the underpinning organizational paradigm, strategy, structure or business model and, in light of this, radically transforming it. This is differentiated from double-loop learning by the systemic and radical nature of the transformation. Therefore, from the perspective of organizational learning theory, 'triple-loop SustHRM' would involve challenging and changing the very organization itself in a holistic and radical sense, its business model, the very line of business it undertakes and how it does so, the process of value creation, its operational processes and the way work is organized. It also involves questioning the

sustainability of the employment paradigm and labour process which the organization subscribes to.

Furthermore, it may involve challenging assumptions about the organization's responsibility in relation to business models and underpinning paradigms in the tourism industry, for instance in the context of sustainable tourism, as elaborated by the McDonaldization Thesis (Ritzer, 1998) which highlights how Taylorist and Fordist principles of efficiency, calculability, predictability and increased control through technology may be applied with negative effects on a range of internal and external stakeholders by organizations involved in providing hospitality and tourism services. Another important organizational paradigm in the context of tourism is Disneyization which is capable of being challenged and changed by triple-loop SustHRM. Bryman's Disneyization thesis (Bryman, 1999) problematizes consumption and service delivery by highlighting processes of theming, hybrid consumption, merchandising and performative labour. HRM may be implicated in the 'dark side' of consumption by managing the performative aspects of labour such as management of emotional labour (Hochschild, 1983) as well as aesthetic and sexualized labour (Warhurst & Nickson, 2009) which may result in negative workforce and societal outcomes. Triple-loop SustHRM thus has the potential to engender more radical organizational sustainability and change by addressing organizational paradigms and business models in ways not conceptualized by current SustHRM theoretical clusters.

The second problem identified in the discussion above is that at the level of interfirm collaboration, current SustHRM theorization can be criticized for focusing on sustainability of organizations and their HRM systems, while overlooking the potential role of SustHRM to promote sustainability within organizational supply chains and GVCs. Both the Capability Reproduction and Connections clusters are largely silent as regards SustHRM practices across GVCs. The Promoting Social Environmental Health cluster had not addressed this shortcoming until a few recent and tentative attempts at theorizing SustHRM across GVCs (Hobelsberger, 2014), focusing on governance mechanism such as codes of conduct in promoting SustHRM within international supply chains. Nevertheless, not even this emerging attempt at conceptualizing SustHRM across GVCs has explicitly addressed the issue of power relations between MNCs, nation states and other actors. This is particularly relevant in the context of developing nations within Africa, where weak institutions and poverty may allow MNCs dominate indigenous organizations and even governments (Martinez Lucio, 2014).

Furthermore, post-colonial theory (Ionnrachtaigh, 2013; Loomba, 2015; Nkomo, 2011; Said, 1978; Westwood, 2006) directs our attention to the 'dark side' of sustainable development which may be a mere extension of legacies of colonial and imperial domination and exploitation. As noted by Novelli and Burns (2010) and Novelli (2015), tourism in sub-Saharan Africa is marked by the complexities created by the co-presence of 'hosts' and 'guests' of significantly varying wealth levels in the same physical places, making tourism an embodiment of the unequal relationship between the developing world and the more affluent tourist-generating countries.

Therefore, to overcome these weaknesses, SustHRM theorization needs to incorporate a greater sensitivity to power inequalities and relations and draw on post-colonial and other theories which could provide greater explanatory power in relation to these issues.

The third problem identified in the preceding discussion is that at the national level, all SustHRM theoretical clusters are limited by an instrumental and narrow approach in relation to external stakeholders and wider society. The Capability Reproduction cluster is internally focused on the organization and its HRM system and does not conceive of SustHRM practices and outcomes benefiting the wider society. Both the Promoting Social and Environmental Health and the Connections cluster recognize a role for SustHRM practices to produce beneficial outcomes for the wider society and external stakeholders. However, this is characterized by a very instrumental approach which views ecological and social outcomes as a means of achieving economic outcomes for the organization. Thus, SustHRM practices, which promote ecological and social benefits within the wider society (e.g. supporting vocational training and reducing the organizational carbon footprint), are undertaken with a view to improve the organization's image and reputation among external stakeholders in order to produce long-term economic benefits for the organization. This instrumental approach can be criticized for making the ecological and social pillars subservient to the economic pillar of sustainability.

Another criticism of current SustHRM theorization is that it adopts a narrow view of HRM practices and outcomes aimed at external stakeholders and the wider society. Thus, HRM and organizational practices are confined to the traditional areas of jurisdiction (such as vocational training provided to develop the skill base from which the organization recruits) as well as the traditional role of organizations supporting state institutions (such as providing apprenticeships within state vocational educational systems). Baum (2018) further identifies the role SustHRM can play in sustainable tourism policy formulation and practice where organizations and national level policymakers jointly develop and implement policy in relation to the sustainable employment capacity (SEC), sustainable delivery capacity (SDC) and sustainable quality capacity (SQC). These relate to how policy, planning, decision-making, implementation and monitoring of social responsibility and ILO decent work standards (SEC), and workforce capacity (SDC) and capability (SQC) can be done by a combination of key stakeholders (the state, private sector organizations, educational institutions, etc.) to promote sustainable tourism development. The combined effect of an instrumental and narrow approach is that current SustHRM theorization overlooks the potential for a broader, more assertive and ethically inspired role for HRM in promoting sustainability within the wider society. This becomes even more pertinent in the context of Africa which is characterized by an 'institutional void' at its socio-economic and political core (Bakuwa & Mamman 2012; Mamman & Bakuwa 2012; Mamman, Kamoche, & Bakuwa 2012). It has been argued that Africa's weak institutions provide the context for the role of professions to be redefined including encroaching on the provision of social services typically within the jurisdiction of the state in the west (Easterly & Levine, 1997; Nsouli, 2000; Wohlgemuth, Carlsson, & Kifle, 1998).

According to Mamman et al. (2018), the HR profession can and sometimes does play a role in filling the 'institutional void' in Africa although this is not widely reported, researched, formally recognized nor actively pursued within SustHRM and other theoretical and policy-making circles despite their potential to contribute to Africa's sustainable development. These authors identify examples of HRM's role in Africa's sustainable development and filling its 'institutional void', such as HR practitioners championing and implementing international and national HIV/AIDS policies at the organizational and societal level, community development, health and safety and environmental protection services, provided by organizational HRM departments in the absence of state provided public services and the provision of diversity programmes aimed at wider social integration and interethnic harmony. It should be emphasized that these social and ecological sustainability initiatives are not necessarily done instrumentally to promote the economic sustainability of organizations, rather these authors stress social needs, ethical objectives and a balanced approach to pursuing all three pillars of sustainable development.

The narrow and instrumental approach to SustHRM theorization, and failure to recognize the potential for a broader and more assertive role may stem from the Western-centricity of much of the academic literature on SustHRM. This was most clearly identified by Ehnert and colleagues, who are leading researchers in SustHRM globally. Ehnert and colleagues identified a gap in research on SustHRM from an African perspective, after failing to get a single contribution from an African researcher for their groundbreaking book on cross-national SustHRM. They stated: 'We tried hard to have contributing authors from Africa and more within Asia but it seems that the focus of academic and practitioner writers in these regions are much more engaged in how to deal with survival and, for the more fortunate, with growth and rapid change' (Ehnert, Harry, & Zink, 2014c: 432).

It is possible that an African perspective on SustHRM has existed all along but could not be identified or recognized by Ehnert and colleagues, perhaps due more to the narrowness and immaturity of SustHRM theorization at that point in time than immaturity in theorizing the relationship between HRM and sustainable development in Africa. Specifically, we point to the well-established stream of research which explores the relationship between HRM and (un)sustainable forms of development in Africa. This research stream has investigated the largely negative effects of the World Bank's structural adjustment program (SAP) on HRM in Africa (Horwitz, 2009; Matanmi, 2000), a 'development' program that seemed to do much to underdevelop Africa and its HRM institutional context (union membership decline, lower formal employment, increase in precarious work, etc.). The relationship between sustainable development, work and employment in relation to Africa and its workforce includes research on the implications of HIV/AIDS and HRM responses (Ankomah & Debrah, 2001; Bakuwa & Mamman, 2013; Kamoche, Debrah, Horwitz, & Muuka, 2004), the relationship between sustainability, HRM, CSR, corporate governance and human rights (Ejiogu 2013; Ejiogu et al., 2013), the role of African skilled migrants in resisting and reproducing precarious work (Ejiogu, 2018), the social processes implicated in practices of transparency, accountability and (anti)corruption in African industries and regulatory agencies (Ejiogu, Ejiogu, & Ambituuni, 2018),

and the role of HRM in developing human capital in Africa (Mamman et al., 2018). Current SustHRM theorization is largely uncritical of, and disengaged from, the way sustainable development has been conceptualized and practiced in much of the less industrially developed world. A focus on the African sustainable development context and the way it has been theorized within the field of HRM opens up the prospect and potential for a more assertive, ethically grounded and broader approach to SustHRM theorization and practice.

16.5 Conclusion and Directions for Future Research

There has been a significant and growing interest in sustainable tourism among academic researchers, policymakers and practitioners. However, employment and work-related issues have been largely overlooked in the area of sustainable tourism. This is despite a notable polarization between high-skilled, high-paid jobs on the one hand, and low-skilled, low-paid jobs on the other, within tourism job sectors. Recent and tentative attempts have been made to integrate the ILO's notion of decent work and the concept of SustHRM, into sustainable tourism, theory, policy and practice (Baum, 2018; Baum et al., 2016). However, this integration has been undertaken in a relatively simplistic manner, without regard to problematizing current SustHRM theorization, and evaluating its theoretical adequacy. This chapter reviewed current SustHRM theories grouped into three theoretical clusters developed by Kramar (2014; 2017) and identified three major problems as well as prospects for developing a more robust SustHRM theorization. This theoretical analysis was undertaken within the context of tourism and sustainable development in Africa, to highlight important features of the African context and its contribution to theory building in relation to SustHRM and sustainable tourism.

First, at the organizational level, current SustHRM theorization is limited by the focus on moderate and superficial outcomes, to the neglect of more radical organizational change. Drawing on organizational learning theory (Argyris & Schon, 1978; Romme & Van Witteloostuijn, 1999), SustHRM was viewed as a process of organizational learning to bring about change in terms of improved sustainability. One theoretical contribution this chapter makes to SustHRM theory building was the identification that current SustHRM clusters are limited to single and double-loop learning, and the expansion of SustHRM to include triple-loop learning. Single-loop SustHRM is based on single-loop learning, and it is aimed at detecting and rectifying errors that cause economic, social and ecological unsustainability (superficial change outcomes). Double-loop SustHRM, utilizing double-loop learning processes, occurs when the underlying norms, values, policies and operating procedures which cause the errors in the first place, are the targets of improvement to sustainability (moderate change outcomes). This chapter argues for the expansion of theory to include triple-loop SustHRM, focused on more radical change outcomes to deeper underpinning organizational strategy, structure and paradigms in order to promote sustainability.

Second, at the level of interfirm collaborations and supply chains, current SustHRM theorization has largely ignored sustainability within supply chains and GVCs. The recent and tentative effort to address this shortcoming have ignored power inequalities and relations such as between large dominant MNCs and weaker, poorer state agencies, regulatory bodies, private companies and non-governmental organizations (NGOs), found in many developing African countries. This chapter draws on post-colonial theory (Ionnrachtaigh, 2013; Loomba, 2015; Nkomo, 2011; Said, 1978; Westwood, 2006), to develop a greater sensitivity to issues of power inequalities and relations, especially between actors in developed and developing nations. Relationships across supply chains and GVCs are at once sites for (un)sustainable practices which may be influenced by power relations.

Third, at the national level, all three SustHRM theoretical clusters are currently limited by a narrow and instrumental approach possibly stemming from a Western-centric bias in SustHRM theorization. This instrumental approach conceptualizes efforts to promote ecological and social sustainability as subservient to, and only justified by, their contribution to promoting the economic sustainability of organizations. Current SustHRM theorization confines SustHRM practices and outcomes to the narrow and traditional jurisdiction of non-state actors outside this sphere of promoting public policy and providing public services. In contrast, this chapter argues for the expansion of SustHRM theorization to incorporate a more assertive, ethically grounded and broader role in promoting sustainability in the wider society. This is particularly pertinent in the African context characterized by an 'institutional void' (Mamman et al., 2018), where there is greater need and scope for organizations to take on some of the roles traditionally associated with the state in the provision of services, policy formulation and implementation.

SustHRM is a relatively new and evolving body of knowledge. It would require future research to improve its theoretical adequacy, rigour and robustness. It is recommended such future research focuses on conceptualizing the complex, multilateral and contingent relationships between sustainable tourism, SustHRM and sustainable development, and the development of theoretical frameworks and models in this regard. There's also a shortage of good quality empirical research in this emerging area. Important areas of future research include empirical comparative studies across countries, studies focusing on the relationship between the tourist experience, and workforce experiences in tourism sub-sectors, research on precarious work and decent work, and organizational and policy responses to these, aimed at promoting sustainability. Furthermore, the concepts developed and identified in this chapter such as triple-loop SustHRM, power relations across GVCs and supply chains, and a broader role for SustHRM beyond instrumental and narrow jurisdictional limitations can serve as topics for further theoretical development and empirical research.

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