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Human Resources Development and Planning for Tourism: Case Studies from PR China and Malaysia

by

Abby Y. Liu

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Presented to the University of Waterloo
in fulfillment of the
thesis requirement for the degree of
Doctor of Philosophy
in
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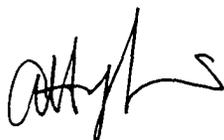
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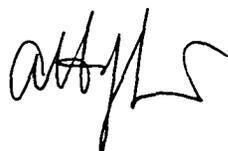
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Abstract

This study is primarily concerned with developing countries' tourism human capital issues within the context of planning and policy formation. The main purpose is to investigate the hosts' capacity to take part in tourism development and to examine the adequacy of attention to tourism's human resources as elucidated in tourism plans. It is questioned whether the tourism policies and plans have given enough prominence to tourism's labour requirements, while aggressively and consistently pursuing tourism growth.

A review of literature provides a discussion on appropriate tourism planning approaches, identifies the extent to which tourism plans consider the role of human resources and addresses problems associated with a chronic shortage of skilled workforce in developing countries that hinders tourism growth. Contested views concerning tourism and the relative merits of tourism employment in a developing economy are also discussed.

Based on the literature, conceptual considerations concerning human resources development for tourism are arranged in a policy-industry-locality schema, involving: (1) broad tourism policy issues and tourism plan priorities; (2) the associated common tourism employment concerns pertaining to a developing economy and the nature of the locals' participation; and (3) the nature and availability of tourism education and training opportunities. An understanding of developing nations' tourism human resources is pursued through an exploration of the locals' involvement in tourism from multiple perspectives (e.g., political-economy, culture and ethnicity). Illustrations are drawn from case studies conducted in Hainan Province, PR China and Kedah State, Malaysia to exemplify some of the complex facets of tourism as a development strategy and to provide examples of mechanisms employed by the governments to mitigate daunting demands for tourism personnel.

Results indicate that, given the dynamisms of tourism, tourism employment should be placed in a broader context embracing issues of culture, religion, ethnicity, and ideology. Research findings indicate there is a need to give more adequate attention to tourism's human resources issues. Human resources development is often addressed inadequately in tourism policies and plans. It is found that limitations of local benefits from tourism arise due to human resource shortages. Skill deficits and even unfamiliarity with tourism are common obstacles preventing the locals from participating in and benefiting from tourism. It is also revealed that, while tourism has been integrated into national social and economic plans, the efforts in human resources development for tourism have been generally limited to cultivating personnel for hospitality needs and superficial in nature, situated in a narrow aim of "meeting tourist's satisfaction". Accumulation of tourism human capital is constrained by attempts to services standards and professionalism without sensitivity and an adequate adaptation to a local societal and cultural compatibility. To enhance developing countries' human resources development strategies for tourism, a more appropriate approach, catering to the quantity and variety of the required tourism workforce with an integrated continuum of employment progression opportunities for tourism workers, is outlined. **Keywords:** tourism policy and planning, employment, education and training, human resources, China, Malaysia.

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List of Abbreviations

WTO	World Tourism Organization	3
WTTC	World Travel and Tourism Council	3
PR China	People's Republic of China	10
TOPs	Tourism-oriented products	15
ROPs	Resident-oriented products	15
UNEP	United National Environment Program	21
SATT	State Administration for Travel and Tourism	28
NTP	National Tourism Policy	29
SICs	Standard Industrial Codes	31
ISCOs	International Standard Classifications of Occupations	31
SOCs	Standard Occupational Classifications	31
CIDA	Canadian International Development Agency	57
SEZ	Special Economic Zone	57
CNTA	China National Tourism Administration	62
HPTA	Hainan Provincial Tourism Administration	62
SPSS	The Statistical Package for the Social Sciences	67
ROC	Republic of China	76
CITS	China International Travel Services	76
CPC	Communist Party of China	78
NDP	National Development Policy	128
NEP	New Economic Policy	131
UDA	Urban Development Authority	132
PNB	National Equity Corporation	132
SEDCs	State Economic Development Corporations	132
TDC	Tourist Development Corporation	140
BCIC	Bumiputra Commercial and Industrial Community	140
ASEAN	Association of Southeast Asian Nations	141
MICE	Meetings, Incentives, Conferences and Exhibitions	148
MARA	Majlis Amanah Rakyat Institute of Technology	150
NPC	National Productivity Centre	150
NTHRDC	National Tourism Human Resources Development Council	151

NOSS	National Occupational Skills Standards _____	151
NVTC	National Vocational Training Council _____	152
HIAS	Hotel Industry Apprenticeship Scheme _____	152
HRDF	Human Resources Development Fund _____	152
HRDC	Human Resource Development Council _____	152
HRDA	Human Resources Development Act _____	152
MOCAT	Ministry of Culture, Arts and Tourism, Malaysia _____	154

Chapter 1

Introduction

1.1 Synopsis

Increasing visitation occurring worldwide gives tourism an overriding ascendance as a promising income and job generator. Many countries, regardless of the level of development, promote tourism and eagerly integrate tourism as a part of their social and economic development strategies with intensified institutional support. However, in the context of a developing economy exhibiting characteristics of a low income and productivity, unsophisticated human resources, a low level of industrialization and limited economic diversification, tourism is a highly contested strategy and the adoption of tourism as a chief sector for the developing countries' economic hardships has been challenged.

It is frequently alleged that the poor population in destination areas falls prey to tourism development, because their minimal share of economic benefits is often realized at the cost of environmental deterioration, cultural disruption and social tensions. Thus, the impact of tourism is often expressed in pejorative terms. It appears that criticisms, which have proliferated in recent years, often focus upon the amelioration of the tensions and frictions created by tourism. Many studies advocate the preservation of traditions and environment and often assume that the host population is likely to resent the alterations to their lifestyles caused by tourism, and are reluctant to accept the trade-offs involved. The fact that the

immediate and major impact of tourism is the generation of jobs and the opportunities for higher remuneration is often ignored.

Tourism is often the only remunerative employment alternative in poor and peripheral regions where other options are not available to help improve their marginal economic status. The major problem, however, is that local people lack the necessary skill levels and knowledge to participate effectively in the economic opportunities provided by tourism. The lack of understanding of the extent to which tourism employment influences the locals' lifestyles, has hampered the development of a more comprehensive approach to tourism planning. Limited attention has been paid to human dimensions of tourism planning. It is paradoxical that tourism planning initiatives are typically being jeopardized by investment and political decisions - - A voluminous literature on what the tourism planning ought to be is not matched by the analysis of what it actually is.

The argument here, which requires deeper examination, is that debates or admonitions abound concerning tourism impacts. However, they are academic, unless greater prominence is given to enable local autonomy and to increase the competence of the hosts. This is stated based on the recognition of the reality that, in the developing economies, many people depend on tourism for their livelihood. Unfortunately, in an attempt to build up destination competitiveness, the quest for so-called international services standards has diverted human resource development initiatives from giving substance to the most advocated community-driven paradigm for planning tourism. It is optimistically assumed that the accumulation of a set of manipulative skills is the ultimate goal, but operational competence is merely one facet of a broad tourism education and training need. This simplistic approach is not only counterproductive in stimulating indigenous tourism growth, but also further aggravates the perpetuation of subservience culture.

The slow recognition of this by government agencies and a narrow range of education

and training initiatives adopted by the tourism educators are the main reasons underpinning the prevalent view of hosts as victims in tourism's North-South encounters. An articulation of current approaches to tourism planning is presented with a view to enhancing the inclusion of human resources development as an integral part of tourism initiatives - - an oversight that tourism planners have often been guilty of.

1.2 Background to Research Problem

The origin of tourism is derived from people's desires and needs to be temporarily away from their normally inhabited places. In contemporary societies, increased mobility and changing lifestyles further encourage the prevalence of tourism activities. The expansion of tourism in response to changes in the social, cultural, economic, political and ecological dimensions of the global environment has become evident (Edgell 1990, Gartner 1996). The phenomenal changes induced by tourism have drawn substantial academic attention and, thus, tourism has increasingly emerged as a field of investigation (Jafari and Aaser 1988).

According to the World Tourism Organization (WTO), in 1998, 635 million people traveled to a foreign country which created global receipts of USD 439 billion. Projections by the World Travel and Tourism Council (WTTC) suggest that, by the year 2005, tourism will generate approximately 348 million jobs in direct and indirect employment; about one-tenth of the global labour force. As claimed by Gartner (1996), the ascendancy of tourism to the world's largest industry has been rapid.

As such, political, societal, governmental and educational goals have inevitably been geared to the promotion of tourism. These initiatives primarily seek to foster economic development. This phenomenon is particularly apparent in many developing countries in which tourism has been used as an effective means to overcome hardships and, ultimately, to help improve and diversify the economic base. However, in the tourism planning process,

emphasis is often given to “the creation of the tourism industry”. The role of the public tourism-related agencies is generally supply-oriented. To many national, state and local tourism organizations, the goal of tourism planning is directed towards “meeting the needs of the tourists” which is typically centered on the improvement of the infrastructure, design of service facilities and development of marketing strategies. Many tourism planners view themselves mainly as being the issuer of the development permits (Pearce 1989, McKercher and Ritchie 1997). In the tourism development and planning process, the issue of human resources needed to deliver the tourism services properly and effectively has often been given a lower priority and, in some cases, has been totally neglected (Echtner 1995). This has resulted in serious staffing problems in the tourism industry and, more importantly, has precluded the host populations’ participation in the economic activities generated by the tourism development.

Tourism, as a service-orientated economy, has been traditionally seen as unproductive and with less value-added than other components of a nation’s economy. Poon (1993) refers to this inferior treatment of the service economy in economic research as ‘stepchild’ discrimination. Consequently, tourism as an agent for a wider quest to achieve economic prosperity raises substantial debates, particularly in the context of a developing economy. Tourism often becomes a subsidized economy due to heavy reliance on the financial injections from outsiders and, thereby, the large/foreign firms, such as the airlines, tour operators and hotel chains, dominate the majority of the tourism income. Furthermore, tourism contributes very little in producing intersectoral economic linkages with the primary and secondary industries such as agriculture, fisheries and manufacturing, because most luxury tourism establishments favour imported goods over local products. As a result, economic leakage is another common problem facing many developing countries that are keen on tourism development. This has led to some arguments challenging the positive economic myth of

tourism:

..... the chief beneficiaries of tourism development in the Third World are foreign capitalists and, secondly, the local economic and political elite. Tourists from abroad benefit from comparatively low prices in Third World tourist destinations, while the local population is left with modest employment opportunities, the loss of economic and political decision-making, and predominantly negative socio-cultural effects from institutionalized tourism (Bachmann 1988:96, in de Kadt 1992:54).

What emerges from an examination of tourism development is that it is an important job generator but the jobs typically have a poor image. This stems from the seasonal and volatile nature of the tourism industry and, to a larger degree, the low-level positions with low pay scales involved. As such, it has been contended that tourism-related employment makes little contribution to local development. This is primarily due to the very limited extent that tourism helps people enhance their productive skills to contribute to the development of the local economy to generate more income (Farver 1984).

Nevertheless, tourism employment has more vibrant effects in the developing countries than their industrialized counterparts, as tourism offers job alternatives in the service-related economic sectors where few other such opportunities may exist. The employment opportunities in tourism are regarded as “a port in a storm” and serve as a refuge during economic transition, because of such characteristics as high labour mobility, accessibility and absorption that exist in the tourism industry (Szivas and Riley 1999). However, in some cases, the major problem is that local people lack the necessary experience or skills, credits, contacts and entrepreneurial flair to seize the business opportunities created by tourism development (Bird, in Conlin and Baum 1994).

Koscak (1998:85) notes that, for poorer areas, the key to success lies in the education

opportunities provided by the public sector to those “who live, work and have rural roots, and whose offspring will remain in these areas”. A sound human capital base could support the tourism sector, further enhancing intersectoral linkages between tourism and the other major or traditional economic sectors, such as agriculture, fisheries and manufacturing. As such, the growing recognition of the importance of empowering local people contributes to the idea of an urgent need for moving away from the conventional economic/business centered or enterprise dominated tourism development to address the equitable distribution of tourism benefits within host population (de Kadt 1992).

The emerging trend of “globalization” has been the impetus that makes more countries invest in the development of a “knowledge-based” economy. A well-educated labour force is essential for the creation of wealth in a contemporary economy. However, while development exercises are still extensively adopted as a means to improve the standard of living in many developing countries, good human resource development policies are rarely to be seen. This is also very obvious in the tourism-related policies. Bécherel and Westlake (2000a) point out that the major obstacles impeding the successful development and management of tourism human resources can be attributed to the responsibilities of the public sector. These obstacles include:

1. lack of understanding of the tourism industry as a sector, its importance, its structure and the relationships within it;
2. scant statistical information about employment in the tourism sector;
3. lack of co-ordination between the different bodies concerned with tourism human resources;
4. conflicts between different public sector departments and agencies arising from ownership of responsibility;
5. legislation introduced by the public sector that affects employment and worker conditions and deters employers from recruiting or job seekers from considering tourism as a career; and

6. in countries experiencing economic and/or political structural shifts, the lack of necessary laws and safeguards to cope with the rapid expansion of the tourism industry.

One of the most detailed explanations as to why greater attention should be given to the hosts' participation in tourism employment, and education and training needs for the tourism sector, was presented by Cohen who lamented:

In more developed and more incorporated Phuket (Thailand), powerful urban elites have taken possession of the beaches long before the locals, for whom they had been of only marginal economic significance, realized their future potential.the future prospects of "craft" (small scale) tourism is dim because tourism planning in Thailand is oriented toward the maximization of gross foreign exchange income, thus, large industrial tourism is encouraged. Tourism authorities discourage the further development of "craft" tourism and encourage instead extensive investments by metropolitan and foreign entrepreneurs in industrial touristic enterprises. The villages on the beaches are completely bypassed in planning, since, according to the planners, they are too poor to be able to play a role in touristic development. Their leaders were apparently not even consulted in the preparation of the master plan for tourism on Phuket (Cohen 1982: 222-225).

Since the Moken [a nomadic coastal hunter-gatherer people, formerly sea gypsies but now established in permanent settlements on the islands and the coasts of the Andaman Sea, who have become a cultural attraction to tourists] settlement on Rawai Beach attracts tourists in significant numbers, a row of shops catering to the visitors, selling souvenirs, tourist art and shells has sprung up on the road leading to the settlement. While the shells may be collected by the Moken, the shops are owned exclusively by Thais or Chinese, who derive the principal benefits from their sale. The fact that others profit from the touristic attractiveness of the Moken, while the Moken themselves do not derive any meaningful benefit from it, further aggravates their sense of deprivation (Cohen 1996:244).

Cohen's observations indicate that the availability of human capital and its associated employment issues appear to be undifferentiated in many tourism plans which, in turn,

hampers the elimination of the skill deficits which need to be removed to help people find their niche and gain better access to the tourist dollars. As a result, the benefits of tourism, such as higher income and living standards for those who are directly or indirectly involved in the tourism economic activities, cannot be fully realized. This study attempts a better understanding of developing countries' tourism human resources issues and questions whether the tourism policies and plans have given due and adequate attention to the cultivation of tourism's human capital.

1.3 Study Scope and Methodology

This study is primarily concerned with tourism's human resource dimension within the context of planning and policy formation. Human resource concerns relating to tourism, as pointed out by Baum (1994), have not received due attention from academic analysis within a policy framework. Even though they have been acknowledged in a general sense, the studies conducted on the subject are limited in their scope and lack elucidation of the implications for human resources issues.

The main purpose of the study is to address the configuration of tourism training and education imperatives within the tourism planning, policy formation and political-economy realms, and the implications for the development of tourism training and education infrastructure. Tourism dynamics, employment mobility and the hosts' vulnerability (as broadly perceived in the academic work) are the main areas of investigation in which the research is based. The following objectives are set at the outset to guide the research:

1. provide an holistic understanding of tourism through the identification of its characteristics and employment magnitude, and its role as an integral part of an economic development strategy;
2. identify to what extent tourism planning addresses tourism's human capital needs and the implications of this for the structure of the tourism industry (and vice versa);

3. investigate the nature of the tourism labour market in relation to labour origins, labour mobility and some of the factors affecting tourism's job status as a career;
4. examine the extent to which tourism training and education initiatives adequately address the demand for, and supply of, workforce requirements by the tourism industry; and
5. apply results from empirical studies to develop a useful human resources development framework that caters to the hosts' education and training needs at all skill levels and helps to increase the locals' entry into the different employment opportunities of the tourism sector.

The task of establishing a better understanding of human resource issues is tackled in phases. The approach employed here is in four phases which involve:

- examination of the nature of tourism policy, and problems and prospects associated with adopting tourism as a tool for economic development;
- classifying the availability of tourism training and education opportunities;
- locating the broad employment patterns and relative salience of tourism jobs as perceived by both current workers and prospective participants; and
- analyzing the policy implications and possible progression to refine the place of human dimensions in the tourism planning and policy formation process.

The study provides new empirical elements concerning the concept of integrated tourism employment. The study design uses a bottom-up approach, involving the identification of the host community's response to an increasingly sophisticated tourism planning system, followed by the examination of the interrelationships that exist between the public planning agencies, the tourism industry and the host communities. This approach also allows for a cross-examination between the political and community agendas, the supply of and demand for the tourism workforce, and the industry's expectations and education approaches to the development of the tourism workforce.

Data were acquired through field (workplace) observations; questionnaire surveys of

existing and prospective tourism workers and employers; in-depth interviews with tourism workers, employers, planners and educators; as well as an assessment of the tourism plans to determine the human resource planning needs for tourism in developing countries. Examples are drawn from field studies completed in two different political and cultural settings, Hainan Province of People's Republic of China (PR China) in the Summer of 1999 and Kedah State of Malaysia in the Summer of 2001. In both countries, tourism has emerged as an important economic sector but, in both cases, vigilant attitudes exist towards perceived exogenous influences induced by international tourism.

PR China is a communist country, essentially a single-party system and a centrally-planned economy. It has a relatively high level of ethnic homogenization. In contrast, Malaysia operates in a democratic system and is comprised of a number of ethnic groups. Thus, the issues examined are diverse. They provide a preliminary basis for formatting adequate tourism training mechanisms and to reveal the sensitivities required to differentiate the training needs that best address local concerns. This divergent approach permits the research to move from a generalization of the tourism milieu in the context of developing economies to more detailed evaluation of differentiating policy implications that impinge on the institutionalization of tourism workforce development and the structure of tourism employment.

1.4 Organization of the Dissertation

The dissertation is comprised of the following seven chapters:

Chapter 1 provides an overview of the research background and arguments arising from oversight of the human resource imperatives revealed from the academic work and tourism planning practices. Research scope and objectives are also outlined along with the methods employed in data acquisition.

Chapter 2 contains a literature review relating to the conception of tourism, its structure and employment effects, and theoretical approaches to tourism planning that underline the research focus of examining the human resource factor as defined by tourism plans and exploring an adequate approach for devising tourism training and education mechanisms.

Chapter 3 elucidates the development of a research conceptual framework and the design of the research project including the development of research questions and methods, and information sources employed as well as the research ethical considerations involved. Some of the difficulties and constraints encountered during the site visits to Hainan Province of China and Kedah State of Malaysia are also discussed.

Chapter 4 presents a wide range of tourism's human resource issues and the evolution of the tourism workforce development strategies in a central-dominant planning system in China. The remnants of China's persistent ideological concerns and its attendant social doctrines that still vividly affect tourism training and education, are illustrated from a case study of Hainan Province.

Chapter 5 expands the research horizon into a multi-ethnic setting in Malaysia, identifying the background of, and the reasons behind, Malaysia's tourism initiatives that warrant government support for an ethnic-driven approach to the accumulation of tourism human capital. Policy implications and issues of culture, religion and ethnicity affecting tourism employment are further examined through a case study conducted in Kedah state.

Chapter 6 seeks to situate the Chinese and Malaysian tourism experiences with human resources development in a broad systematic manner, generalizing particular determinants within a developing economy context to assist policy and strategic decisions. Finally, Chapter 7 summarizes the principal research findings and recommendations for human resources development for tourism.

Chapter 2

Tourism, Employment and Human Resources Planning: A Review of the Literature

2.1 Introduction

This chapter undertakes a detailed examination of the theoretical construction of tourism concepts and draws together the strands of tourism employment narratives. As a leading industry representing promising income and job creation potential, tourism has received widespread attention. Policy-makers and business investors have embraced tourism approvingly for its potential economic implications. However, in the academic world there is no consensus on what tourism is and what it brings. As a result, the literature overflows with ambivalent views and a developed/developing dichotomy further aggravates the ambiguities.

There needs to be a common context in which to understand the tourism concepts and to develop appropriate planning approaches. Thus, this chapter begins with the documentation of the development and evolution of tourism concepts to explain and clarify the theoretical foundation of tourism. Contested planning motivations and policy implications affecting the tourism development patterns and trends are then examined to identify deficiencies so that better planning decisions can be made to beget positive effects to the hosts. The nature of tourism employment is also discussed in the areas of job sources, structure, characteristics and training needs to comprehend and clarify reasons that give rise to polarized interpretations.

2.2 Defining Tourism

Tourism, which is largely conceived to be associated with leisure needs, rest and relaxation, did not receive serious attention worthy of business endeavour or academic study until World War II when it started to become a major socioeconomic activity (Cooper *et al.* 1993, Inskip 1991, Jafari 1990). “What is tourism?” has been a question that has concerned many tourism researchers, governmental agencies and tourism associations. The major development of various definitions for tourism from different perspectives occurred between 1936 and 1993 (Theobald 1994). Attempts made so far to conceptualize tourism in a systematic manner have contributed not only to the accumulation of a credible body of tourism knowledge, but also to the reduction of the lack of comparability in gathering and utilizing tourist statistics, and has helped to chronicle tourist data more accurately (Theobald 1994).

Nevertheless, to date, “there is no consensus on what tourism is and what it can do” (Jafari 1990:33); definitions given often reflect users’ own perceptions and interests (Smith 1988). To the public sector, tourism represents a lucrative form of economic activities; to the private sector, tourism brings commercial potential; to the community (the tourist receiving region), tourism is a powerful agent for change that influences the inhabitants’ lifestyle; to the individual, tourism means interesting activities that motivate people to be temporarily away from home.

Leiper (1979) suggests that the definitions of tourism, on the basis of their manifest content, can be categorized into three groups: economic, technical and holistic. As can be seen from a set of definitions extracted from the literature (Table 2-1), tourism is generally termed as being synonymous with the temporary movement of people from their usual habitat and is conceptualized as a system comprised of people, places, businesses and activities, rather than a single industry (Leiper 1979, Jafari 1977 and 1981, Mathieson and Wall 1982). Smith’s (1988) observation, however, points out that, although many tourism definitions meet adopter’s stated goals, the substance of all definitions is weak. All of the definitions have not

adequately reflected the business nature or industrial facet of tourism.

Table 2-1: Tourism Definitions

Author	Definition
Lieper 1979	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. As a system: ... the system involving the discretionary travel and temporary stay of persons away from their usual place of residence for one or more nights, excepting tours made for the primary purpose of earning remuneration from points <i>en route</i>. The elements of the system are tourists, generating regions, transit routes, destination regions, and a tourist industry (p.403). 2. The tourist industry: the tourist industry consists of all those firms, organizations and facilities which are intended to serve the specific needs and wants of tourists (p. 400).
Jafari 1977	Tourism is the study of man away from his usual habitat, of the industry which responds to his needs, and of the impacts that both he and the industry have on the host's socio-cultural, economic, and physical environments (p.6).
Mathieson and Wall 1982	Tourism is the temporary movement of people to destinations outside their normal places of work and residence, the activities undertaken during their stay in those destinations, and the facilities created to cater to their needs (p.1).
McIntosh, Goeldner and Ritchie 1995	Tourism may be defined 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 (p. 10).
Smith 1988	Tourism is the aggregate of all business that directly provide goods or services to facilitate business, pleasure, and leisure activities away from the home environment (p. 183).
WTO 1981	Any person residing within a country, irrespective of nationality, travelling to a place within this country other than his usual place of residence for a period of not less than 24 hours or one night for a purpose other than the exercise of a remunerated activity in the place visited. The motives for such travel may be (1) leisure (recreation, holidays, health, studies, religion, sports); (2) business, family, mission, meeting (in Smith 1988:180).

Absence of explicit definition for tourism can be explained by the amalgamated nature of the tourism activities for which there is no sectoral classification in standard industrial

classifications and also to “the fact that it is difficult to differentiate which tourism-related industries are serving tourists only and which are serving local residents and other markets in addition to tourists” (Cooper *et al.* 1993:32). Specifically, the principal definitions of tourism by academics, which vary in their contents and purposes, are derivations of an “action” or a “process”. This kind of conceptualization underpins the meticulous propriety of the scholars whose intentions are to fledge tourism as a study area worthy of serious academic consideration. On the other hand, this also partly explains the lack of identification of the supply-side of tourism which arises from the resistance of the academics referring to tourism as an industry which might sabotage tourism’s scholarly credentials. Hence, the supply-side definition of tourism generally rests on a sectorally-based structure to illuminate the composite within the travel trade.

A commonly used approach to describe the supply side of tourism is based on the services and goods required by the tourists. Gunn (1994), for the purpose of planning, classifies the supply side of tourism into five major functional units - - attractions, accommodation, transportation, marketing and information-direction that are interdependent and integrated, to provide a variety of developments and services to satisfy the market demand (Figure 2-1). It is generally accepted to view tourist product as a composite product - - an amalgam of attractions, transport, accommodation and entertainment which can be combined in a large number of ways to create individual tourist products. Jafari (1994) refers to this as the “touristic apparatus and networks” in a tourism apparatus model - - a market basket that is full of goods and services to attract, receive, accommodate and serve the tourist and is comprised of tourism-oriented products and resident-oriented products (TOPs and ROPs) that are used by a mix of tourists and residents (Figure 2-2).

It is in this highly “materialized tourism” concept that the human dimension typically goes undifferentiated during the development of tourism, both conceptually and physically. Even though tourism is well recognized as a people-oriented industry, the human factors are

often subdued with little or no consideration at all by tourism planners when compared to their attention to shrewdly evolved development ideas. This underlines a need for more attention to be placed on human issues in tourism.

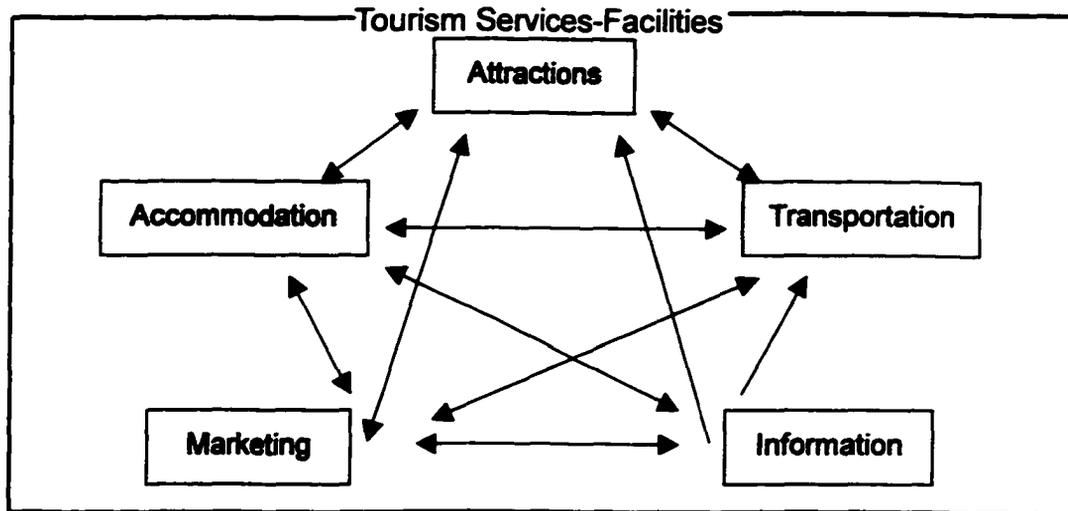
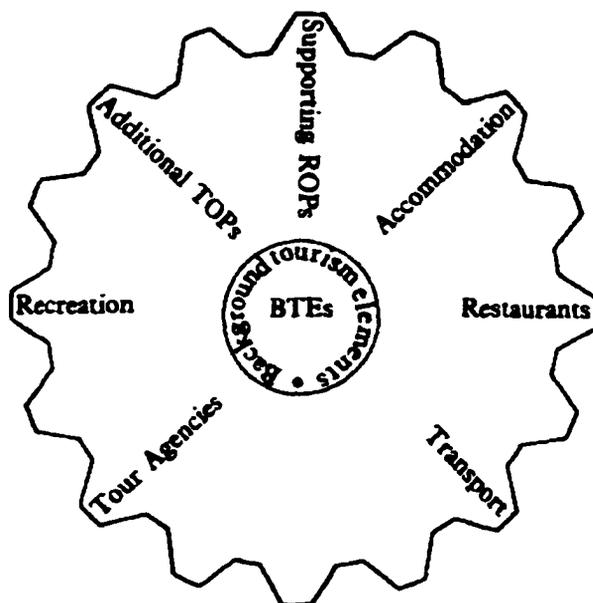


Figure 2-1: Functioning Tourism Components of Supply Side
Source: After Gunn (1994)



TOPs = tourism-oriented products
ROPs = resident-oriented products

Figure 2-2: A Tourist Apparatus Model
Source: Jafari (1994:4)

2.3 Approaches to Tourism Planning

2.3.1 Theoretical Perspectives

In the last two decades or so, tourism has been one of the few remaining growth industries as evidenced by a continuously rising demand. As such, with the strong manifestation of economic prospects, tourism planning is inevitably motivated by commercial success. Tourism planning exercises have been oriented towards economic gains. Hence, planning for tourism has largely been business-dominant, concentrating on the development of “tourism-oriented products” that encompass all the goods and services that are the ingredients making up the tourism industry. Incentives, product development, feasibility studies and promotion pervade in most tourism planning practices. To many, tourism planning is, then, seen as a simple process of matching the tourist market with the products.

With the emphasis on marketing as an effective tool for sustaining competitiveness of a destination, Mill and Morrison (1992:10) state that tourism planning simply involves “an identification of the procedures that the destination area should follow to research, plan, regulate, develop and service tourism activity”. Tourism planning is defined as a process for selecting alternatives for the destination area, to achieve the following objectives:

- identify alternative approaches to marketing, development, industry organization, tourism awareness, and support services;
- adapt to the unexpected in the environment;
- maintain the uniqueness of the destination area;
- create desirable conditions for marketing, organization and other tasks so as to avoid the undesirable.

Gunn (1994:5) views tourism planning as property development: “an agglomeration of land development and programs designed to meet the needs of travelers”. The first edition of “Tourism Planning: Basics, Concepts, Cases” published in 1979, defined tourism planning as a physical exercise, including implementation of policies and strategies by governments and

private enterprises, to meet the following three goals:

- satisfy the users;
- reward the owners; and
- protect the environmental resources.

In the third edition published in 1994, Gunn recognizes that tourism planning has much greater social and cultural scope than originally considered. Hence, according to Gunn (1994), tourism planning is concerned with the implementation of policies and strategies by the business sector, nonprofit sector and governmental sector to meet the following four major planning goals:

- enhance visitor satisfaction;
- improve economic and business success;
- protect resources; and
- integrate the community.

Murphy (1985) offers another perspective concerning the local residents who must live with the cumulative outcome of tourism developments which typically commercialize the characteristics/traditions of the local communities as touristic events. Hence, Murphy (1985:156) has a more cautious approach to tourism planning: "Planning is concerned with anticipating and regulating change in a system, to promote orderly development so as to increase the social, economic, and environmental benefits of the development process".

Getz (1987:6) advocates that tourism can be a tool in the development of communities, but it can also be an agent for disruption and destruction. In fact, in a review of over 150 models pertaining to tourism, Getz (1986) concludes that, because of the absence of a link between development, planning and systematic research/modeling, tourism planning is often practiced within the scope of "boosterism"; that is predominantly project and development

orientated. In this regard, Getz (1987:4, 2001) emphasizes the link between research and planning, and promotes the following definition for tourism planning: “a process, based on research and evaluation, which seeks to optimize the potential contribution of tourism to human welfare and environmental quality”.

The objectives of tourism planning have gradually evolved to make the process comprehensive to take into account all concerns on issues such as the natural resources, economics and social environment. As Gunn (1994:16) observes, “the majority of planning goals for legal planning agencies have been directed toward the citizenry, not visitors”. To confront the negative impacts associated with the tourism development, McIntosh (1977) advocates some form of local control and direction to be placed on the business-oriented approach to tourism planning. However, the capacity of the host community is still often neglected. Within a community context, McIntosh (1977) and Murphy (1985) suggest that the goals of tourism development should be to:

- provide a framework for improving the living standards of the local people;
- develop the infrastructure and provide recreation facilities for both the visitors and local residents;
- ensure that the types of tourism development within the visitor centres and resorts are appropriate for the purposes of those areas; and
- establish a development program that is consistent with the cultural, social and economic philosophies of the government and people of the host area.

In recent years, the capacity of the local community has started to receive due attention as tourism became a powerful force and created unexpected pressures in the receiving communities (Murphy 1985, Getz 1987). It has been identified that “tourism can generate various problems such as the loss of potential economic benefits and local economic distortions, environmental degradation, the loss of cultural identity and integrity, and cross-cultural misunderstandings as well as reinforced prejudices” (Inskeep 1991:15-16).

As identified by Gunn (1994:29), “experience has demonstrated that planning can and should be directed towards the goals of visitor satisfaction, protection of resources and community and area integration as well as the more commonly accepted goals of improving the economic and business success”. Tourism planning needs to be more concerned with the capability and capacity of the host communities to respond adequately to the cumulative changes resulting from tourism, so that the tourism development is properly integrated into the host region while the overall effect of the tourism development is optimized.

Murphy (1985) indicates that a community approach to tourism planning appears to be the most beneficial way to cater to the wants and needs of the host communities. As such, “a community-based tourism destination may be viewed by adopting an ecosystem approach, where visitors interact with local living (host, services) and non-living features (land, sunshine) to experience a tourism product” (Jamal and Getz 1994:188, Murphy 1985). This approach ensures that the economic well being of the community is maintained while enhancing the sustainability of the development within the local ecological capacity and socio-cultural context.

2.3.2 Evolutionary Views of Tourism:

Tourism Impacts Re-appraised

Acknowledgement of the economic contribution of tourism is not new in the literature. Relatively positive and supportive views of tourism can be found in many publications of the 1950s and 1960s (Jafari 1990), crediting tourism for the reduction of deficits, diversification of the host destination’s economic base and improvement of regional disparities. More recently, as unprecedented numbers of travelers appeared in many destinations, more cautious observations of tourism have been on the rise, suggesting that a thorough evaluation of the consequences of tourism development is required.

Many studies conducted, particularly from the hosts' perspective, have not been in favour of tourism, especially when specific issues such as cultural homogenization, social tensions and environmental deterioration are taken into account. For example, Hall (1996:159) uses "two-edged sword" as a metaphor to illustrate the tourism dilemma faced by the host population: "people seek the economic and employment benefits of tourism but they are concerned about the negative impact it may have on their culture and many seek to control access to their environment". Scholars have been concerned regarding the costs and benefits of tourism. The effects of tourism development are often questioned with respect to the following (Doğan 1989, Guthunz and Krosigk 1996, Madrigal 1993, Mansfeld and Ginosar 1994, Nickerson 1996, UNEP 1996):

- decision making in tourism development is predominately based on interventions between the large tourism firms and government agencies;
- deterioration in the physical environment;
- loss of local identity and the emergence of commercialization of customs and traditions;
- economic leakage due to reliance on imports to meet the material demands of the tourism industry;
- subsidized tourism economy due to reliance on financial injections from outsiders which, in turn, results in the drain of tourism revenue to outsiders;
- prevalence of feelings of deprivation and resentment due to financial gaps between local residents and tourists;
- social deterioration leading to crime, prostitution and child begging;
- manpower drain from the traditional economic sectors;
- the tourist industry's poor image as an employer and the low status of tourism jobs; and
- upheaval of the community's status quo with the instability of seasonal tourism.

A transformation of views on tourism has occurred in what Jafari (1990) terms four platforms: advocacy, cautionary, adaptancy and knowledge-based. Through an analysis of the individual opinions and research findings expressed in the scholarly writing, Jafari (1990) states that, the views and knowledge on tourism have evolved from "advocacy" in the 1960s,

to “cautionary” in the 1970s, “adaptancy” in the 1980s and recently to a “knowledge-base” platform (Table 2-2). However, the platforms overlap and parts of the earlier platforms can still be found today. These views represent shifts in the search for appropriate modes of tourism development. Emphasis was originally given to the economic significance of tourism (advocacy) followed by the pressures that tourism exerts on the culture and environment (cautionary) and, later, to the development of a sensitive alternative to the subsidized, mass, highly commercialized and hard forms of tourism (adaptancy).

The emergence of knowledge-based tourism is based on a scientific foundation that maintains links with other platforms and “contributes to a holistic treatment of tourism, not just its impacts or forms, but tourism as a whole” (Jafari 1990:35). The evolution of tourism can be further elaborated by generalizing Weaver’s (1999) categorization of the adequacy of tourism development types, Din’s (1997a) observations on the terminology used in government documents and Getz’s (1987) critique of orthodox planning approaches (Table 2-2).

Table 2-2: Evolution of Tourism

Decades	Platform	Ideal types	Focus of public sector	Planning approach
1960s	Advocacy	Sustained mass tourism	Foreign exchange earnings	Physical development
1970s	Cautionary	Unsustainable mass tourism	Employment and promotion	Marketing and promotion
1980s	Adaptancy	Deliberate alternative tourism	Economic multiplier	Community approach
1990s	Knowledge-based	Sustainable mass tourism/ circumstantial alternative tourism	Sustainable development	Integrative approach
	Jafari (1990)	Weaver (1999)	Din (1997a)	Getz (1987)

Source: Compiled from Getz (1987), Jafari (1990), Din (1997a) and Weaver (1999)

An explicit implication of these four-staged tourism platforms is that a smaller-scale, locally controlled development model is increasingly idealized as being the most beneficial to the host communities. The main idea is to promote resident-responsive types of development that ultimately give primacy to the preservation of the macro physical and cultural environment. However, the main limitation of such a community-driven paradigm is the locals' capability to energize growth. Pearce (1990), for example, notes that the community based approach only addresses local concerns without giving much emphasis to how communities can effectively market their products to the wider world and the ways that they can better manage their resources to achieve the maximum benefits from tourism development. Likewise, Din (1986:6) points out that the local involvement perspective in tourism development is "somewhat wishful, if one considers the human resources of the local area". To be capable of springing up spontaneously, the locals need to "be preadapted, in terms of motivation, awareness and experiences, to the market culture" (*ibid*).

Furthermore, academic treatment of tourism is innately skeptical and is becoming a little cynical about the excesses and consequences occasioned by tourism development, despite the articulations of tourism research. Commonly-cited perspectives in the literature of tourism impact are associated with unfulfilled promises to the host community, pointing to the locals' acquiescence in and their tolerance of tourism encroachment that are rewarded with rather insignificant reparations. It becomes virtually impossible to appraise the economic significance of tourism without pointing to the alleged meagerness of anticipated benefits, e.g. inequality of benefit distribution and high social and environmental costs. As observed by Doğan (1989), a majority of publications on this subject point out that the consequences of tourism have been negative.

Tourism, as an alternative development strategy, has proven to be effective in improving the sagging economies in remote and underprivileged regions where their economic base is

driven by agriculture and light industry and is product-oriented (Allen *et al.* 1988). Often overlooked is the “last resort” tourism that is not necessarily a derivative of the capitalist class, but occurs where peripherality and backwardness have been manipulated locally as tourism attractions. Tourism, then, is a possible course of action for affecting changes in the creation and distribution of income. In terms of comparative advantages of tourism in income and employment generation, Archer (1996), in view of some countries’ inability to develop alternative uses for their resources, has given prominence to tourism. Archer (1996) stands for continued tourism growth and development in the underprivileged regions to reduce poverty and to enhance the way of life of the resident population.

Certainly, the pursuit of economic prosperity should not be a solitary goal to determine in which way tourism is planned, developed and managed. It is also important to recognize the adverse effects brought by the tourism on environmental, economic and social issues, realizing that trade-offs are unavoidable in the tourism and planning process (Mathieson and Wall 1982). Tourism exploitation has emerged in many destinations as a process-orientated approach in search for socio-economic change and its continuation is contingent upon local response and support, although initially a local definition of tourism might not have been established.

The immediate challenge, according to Hall (1996), is the degree to which host communities demand control over the development and themselves assume entrepreneurial roles in the tourism industry. This demands substantial new directions in validating tourism impact studies. This is precisely the rationale that Wall (1997, 2001) uses to define sustainable development in the context of tourism as environmentally sensitive and culturally appropriate types of development, while noting that economic viability is essential to maintain a healthy and sound tourism system.

2.4 Tourism Policies and Plans' Priorities:

A Brief Review

Edgell (1990:1) states that, "the highest purpose of tourism policy is to integrate the economic, political, cultural, intellectual, and environmental benefits of tourism cohesively with people, destinations, and countries in order to improve the global quality of life and provide a foundation for peace and prosperity". The goals of tourism policies are generally altruistic in nature with a veneer facade which echoes the status of tourism development in a particular country.

For example, when the open-door policy was initiated in 1978, the benefits of tourism put forth by the Government of the People's Republic of China (PR China) were:

- enhancing communication and cultural exchange between China and other countries;
- generating needed foreign exchange to support the country's modernization; and
- furthering international relations by using tourism as an extension of diplomacy (Choy and Gee 1983:85).

In 1982, a new prospect for China's tourism was then re-defined by the State Administration for Travel and Tourism (SATT). The primary goal was to enable China to be "one of the advanced tourist countries in the world" with the expectation of increasing the number of overseas tourists and tourism earnings by 3 percent and 7 percent per annum, respectively (Zhang 1985).

Similarly, in 1958, Randall, Special Assistant to the US President, identified some of the policy implications of international tourism and stated:

..... tourism has deep significance for the people of the modern world, and that the benefits of travel can contribute to the cause of peace through improvement not only in terms of economic advancement but with respect to our political, cultural, and social relationships as well.....
(in Edgell 1990:10).

When the large deficit in tourism trade came to the attention of the US Government, a number of major policy changes to the Tourism Policy and Export Promotion Act of 1989 were designed to “assist in the growth of international travel and tourism in the United States, and for other purposes” (Edgell 1990:11).

Many tourism policies embody diplomatic interest, cultural exchange, social improvement and even world peace as mainstream purposes. Despite this altruistic nature of the tourism policy, the driving force for pursuing tourism development is primarily the expectation of the positive economic contributions of tourism. This observation is supported by the most common tourism objectives defined in many tourism plans, as identified by Wanhill (1994) and presented in Table 2-3.

Table 2-3: Strategic Tourism Policy Objectives

-
- Develop a tourism which, in all aspects and at all levels, is of high quality, though not necessarily of high cost;
 - Encourage the use of tourism for both cultural and economic exchange;
 - Distribute the economic benefits of tourism, both direct and indirect, as widely and to as many of the host community as feasible;
 - Preserve cultural and natural resources as part of tourism development;
 - Facilitate this through architectural and landscape designs which reflect local traditions;
 - Appeal to a broad cross-sector of international and domestic tourists through policies and programmes of site and facility development;
 - Maximize foreign exchange earnings to ensure a sound balance of payment;
 - Attract high spending, ‘up-market’ tourists;
 - Increase employment; and
 - Aid peripheral regions by raising incomes and employment, thus slowing down or halting emigration.
-

Source: Wanhill (1994:293)

Recognition of the importance and value of tourism is reflected in the number of tourism plans produced in the last two to three decades; in 1980 WTO was able to establish an

inventory of over 1,600 assorted tourism plans (Pearce 1989). However, when one examines the background of tourism plans, it becomes even more evident that tourism practitioners tend to work in a self-imposed partition and consequently fail to give a thorough consideration to address all areas of concerns affecting tourism. It is common to find that tourism is primarily defined as a development tool in many tourism plans and, often, is treated in isolation without catering to the overall social and economic development circumstances. "There appears to be a built-in tendency characterizing many feasibility and planning studies that treats tourism as a discrete subject, rather than recognizing its true position as part of a complex development whole" (Lea 1996:123). As is the case in UK cited by Godfrey (1998:213), good tourism planning is associated with the stimulation of the growth of the tourism industry and the major responsibility of the local tourism authorities is simply "to speed applications for development of tourism projects".

The well-known employment effects of tourism are generally a critical theme addressed in the tourism plans, but its significance is usually only acknowledged in quantitative terms. The quality or qualification requirements for the tourism workforce tend to occupy at best a few lines. Seldom is there a mention of any possible measures to cultivate the needed tourism human capital. This is presumably due to the fact that "the goals and objectives of tourism planning are typically not clearly articulated and the tourism planners have little guidance as to what overall goals should be pursued through the development of tourism" (Pearce 1989:250).

Consequently, while tourism plans have recognized that community involvement in tourism is essential and intend to bring direct benefits to the communities, useful techniques and mechanisms to achieve such objectives are rarely to be found. Din (1982, 1997) points out that the tourism master plan in Malaysia makes no specific suggestions regarding possible measures to encourage the locals or *bumiputras* (the autochthonous population including

Malays, aborigines of Peninsular Malaysia, native groups of Sabah and Sarawak (Din 1997:158)) to participate in tourism. This reflects a general tendency in the tourism plans - - the culture and the indigenous way of life have become part of product development: they are much more attractions than beneficiaries of tourism (Din 1982, Cohen 1996).

Another common problem with respect to the development of tourism human resources is that tourism plans tend to rest simply on the philosophy of "the provision of quality service" - - meeting the international standards and increasingly sophisticated market demands. For example, the State of Hawaii Strategic Tourism Plan (1995-1999) defined the primary objective for the provision of education and training opportunities as to "develop a well-trained and highly motivated workforce to provide a high-level of service to our visitors". Similarly, in the 18-year program (1982-2000) prepared by the State Administration for Travel and Tourism (SATT) in China, one of the eight measures related to the cultivation of tourism workforce was aimed to "improve the calibre of the industry personnel in order to improve the image of China's tourism" (Zhang 1985).

Human resources planning and training needs were incorporated into the national tourism plan for Oman prepared in 1991, aiming to induce Omanis to select tourism as a career and ultimately to achieve "Omanization" of the workforce in the tourism sector (WTO 1994). The review of the labour supply and demand in the plan was centered on the employment in the hotel sector only. Given the fact that the Omanis are reluctant to work in the tourism industry for cultural reasons (i.e., employment opportunities in the government agencies have greater appeal) and that the private hotels prefer employing expatriates because they more readily accept the jobs with lower wages than the Omanis, various government initiatives were introduced to augment the Omanization efforts in the tourism workforce, including:

- undertaking a public awareness programme to educate the general population about the benefits of tourism as an economic activity and as a career;
- providing proper training of Omanis in tourism skills and English language, with structured periods of industry exposure as part of the training;
- developing standards of compensation and work conditions that compare favourably with government posts;
- requiring hoteliers to employ and train Omani staff, but giving them the right to select candidates and to discharge them on reasonable grounds; and
- giving preference to hotels which encourage Omanization in allocating the sizable amount of government use of accommodation (WTO 1994:188-189).

More adequately, Mexico's 1989-1994 Tourism Plan considered education and tourism training as important strategic elements of the plan to "develop tourism as an integral part of the services component, which requires a work force adequately prepared to serve the needs of this industry" (Casado 1997:47). Efforts were made to "develop students' vocational, professional, and research skills" to create "the scientific and technological knowledge necessary to increase the level of efficiency and productivity of the industry and to place the country on the cutting edge of international competition in this field" (*ibid*).

One tourism policy that explicitly embodies the need to facilitate participation of the indigenous communities and individuals in various forms of development is the National Tourism Policy (NTP) promulgated by the Solomon Islands between 1987 and 1989. The policy, and the subsequent strategies developed, acknowledged that "developments should include both international standard resorts and small-scale indigenous tourism businesses" (Sofield 1993:733). The National Government made the commitment to "provide indigenous tourism small business entrepreneurs with counseling services related to the feasibility of proposals, potential sources of finance, marketing, and training" to assist Solomon Islanders who wish to venture into tourism (Sofield 1993:733). One of the tools that impinges upon indigenous participation in the tourism sector was the introduction of tourism education and training programs. As documented by Sofield (1993:734):

In its (the NTP of Solomon) Education and Training Guidelines, numbers 1, 2, and 3, the NTP states that “The National Government, in conjunction with the Provincial Governments, will institute a continuing public awareness programme directed towards understanding the nature of the tourism industry, its advantages, and disadvantages”; that “Tourism studies will be introduced to Solomon Islands’ schools, beginning at Standard Six”, and that “the National Government, in conjunction with the Provincial Governments, will undertake a full study of the manpower requirements needed to implement its tourism development plan and to specify the on-going training needs to ensure that the maximum number of jobs in the tourism industry are filled by Solomon Islanders (Solomon Islands Government (1989:10)¹).

Although the shortage of human resources has been acknowledged to some degree as a factor that limits the growth of tourism, the underlying concept in many tourism plans is predominately associated with the geographical distribution of attractions, market demands, provision of facilities and services, marketing and promotion, and so forth. In a book entitled “National and Regional Tourism Planning: Methodologies and Case Studies” by WTO (1994), among an extensive review of 25 tourism plans prepared for the developing countries, discussion on the human resources planning for the tourism sector is found to be scant. These plans usually devoted a section or two to the issues related to human resource supply and demand with a focus on planned expansion of the hotel sector. Such plans inevitably fail to capitalize on the possible potential of augmenting the tourism employment opportunities to the locals. It is obvious that human resource planning as a core element in the tourism plans is in its infancy and needs more attention in order to be understood, supported and eventually nurtured.

¹ Unfortunately, the National Tourism Policy of Solomon Islands has not been implemented because “the policies and action plans exist in a legislative and regulatory environment that, in effect, negates much of their positive intent” (Sofield 1993:734). This issue is beyond the scope of the study, therefore the causes of the implementation failure are not discussed here.

2.5 Status of Tourism Employment

2.5.1 Difficulties in Measuring Tourism Employment

In the 1970s, some governments began to recognize tourism as a significant economic sector (Chadwick 1994). However, several attempts to use the Standard Industrial Codes (SICs) to identify those segments applicable to tourism and travel were not successful. According to Chadwick (1994:72), “for any selection of tourism-related SICs, however carefully made, there are two major challenges: producing a relevant and accurate data source and identifying a realistic tourism component or ratio”. Similarly, the existing standard job classifications (i.e. International Standard Classifications of Occupations (ISCOs) and Standard Occupational Classifications (SOCs)) provide limited information on the categorization of tourism jobs (Baum 1993).

This task becomes even more difficult when one considers the direct (primary), indirect (secondary) and induced (tertiary) effects produced by the circulation of tourist dollars in a destination’s economic system, which is termed as “a cascading effect” throughout the host economy by Cooper *et al.* (1993:114). The direct effect is the inflows of tourist expenditure less the outflows coming from the imports necessary to supply tourist consumptions (goods and services). The indirect effect, which refers to the permeation of tourist spending throughout the rest of the economy, arises from circulated subsequent rounds of economic activity within the goods and services provision chains of tourism. The induced effect is a continued process of consumption spending through the direct and indirect rounds of tourism-related outlays. It gradually accrues to local residents or proprietors a gross increase in the form of income, wages, business receipts, interest and rent (Cooper *et al.* 1993:114, Frechtling 1994:360, Lea 1997:168, Milne 1990:19).

In many cases, such diffusing processes magnify the impacts of tourism but, to some

extent, dim recognition of the economic significance of tourism. “Attempts to study the impact of tourism on regional economies are hampered by the fact that tourism is not a well-defined industry” (Ellerbrock and Hite 1980:26). As a result, there has been an ongoing debate and myths surrounding tourism when one tries to estimate or quantify its economic scale. Tourism-related statistics have long-standing problems, in part due to the complex nature and fragmented structure of tourism and in part due to the absence of widely recognized measures.

Lieper (1999) states that the estimates of tourism jobs are commonly being exaggerated because of misinterpretation of the definition of “tourism”. Buam (1993) discerns that it is essential to recognize that there is no single centre of production in the tourism field. Tourists consume a variety of goods and services, therefore tourism is made up of a great diversity of many elements and involves a wide variety of industrial sectors. The diverse and fragmented nature of tourism significantly adds to the complexity of estimating the types of employment and number of people employed in the tourism sector. Another challenge also arises due to the difficulties in distinguishing the nature of the business sectors involved in the tourism-related activities; those which totally depend on the tourist spending to support their operations, those that also serve the local residents and other markets and those who work outside the formal economic system. “The nature of employment in the tourism industry together with the diverse range of linkages between tourism sectors and other sectors of the economy also compound the problem of attempting to make realistic estimates concerning the magnitude of the industry” (Cooper *et al.* 1993).

Wide variations in the tourism-related statistics and the tourism-related figures are often hidden in statistics related to the other sectors (Bécherel and Westlake 2000b, Cooper *et al.* 1993). Information on tourism employment is often incomplete and lacks accuracy.

Hansen and Jensen's (1996) study of Danish tourism employment examples states that total tourism employment in Denmark varies between 63,500 and 94,400 (authors' calculation) as opposed to the 290,000 estimated by the Danish Tourist Board and WTTC. These large discrepancies come from "understandable and detectable differences in delimitations and definitions of tourism" (*ibid*: 283).

The introduction of Tourism Satellite Account, which is a relatively new practice promoted by WTO and WTTC and adopted by some countries, provides "a framework for analyzing tourism expenditures in a systematic and consistent way that links tourism demand expenditures to the industries that produce tourism goods and services" (Goeldner *et al.* 2000:416). At the same time, there are some useful approaches developed to quantify the magnitude of tourism employment, as discussed in the following section.

2.5.2 Tourism Employment's Structure and Characteristics

Tourism generates a very diverse range of tourism-related jobs across the primary, secondary and tertiary sectors. As a result, the effects of tourism on employment are dispersed across a wide range of industries and activities (Parsons 1987). The structure of the tourism industry is directly related to the distribution of tourist expenditures. Wanhill (1992) states that tracing the impact of tourist expenditure on the economy is the only way to calculate the total employment effects (Figure 2-3). Positioning tourism basically as a retail service industry, Smith (1988, 1995) uses a "2-tier" approach to classify the commodities consumed by the travelers. Tier 1 commodities are related to "pure tourism" whereas tier 2 contains "mixed" commodities serving both tourists and residents (Figure 2-4). This approach reinforces consistency with other industrial sectors and permits the measurement of the magnitude of the industry using SICs.

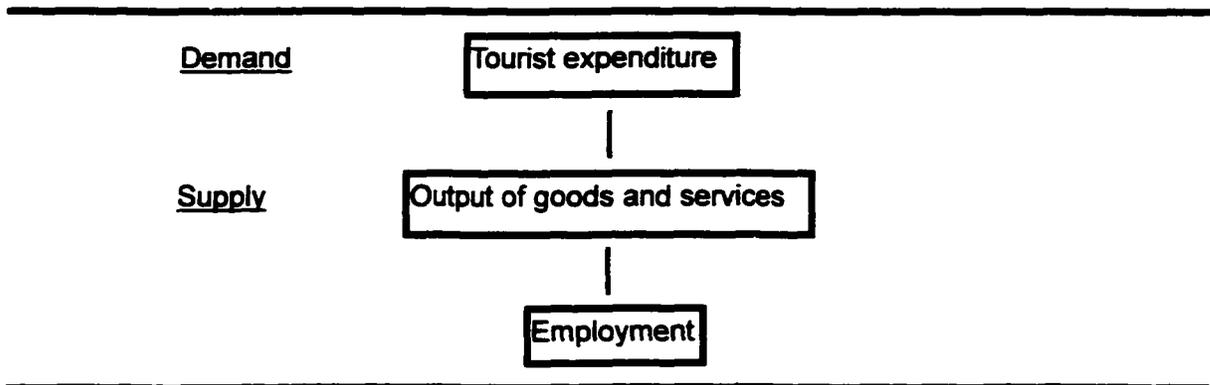


Figure 2-3: Employment Impact of Tourism

Source: Wanhill (1994:92)

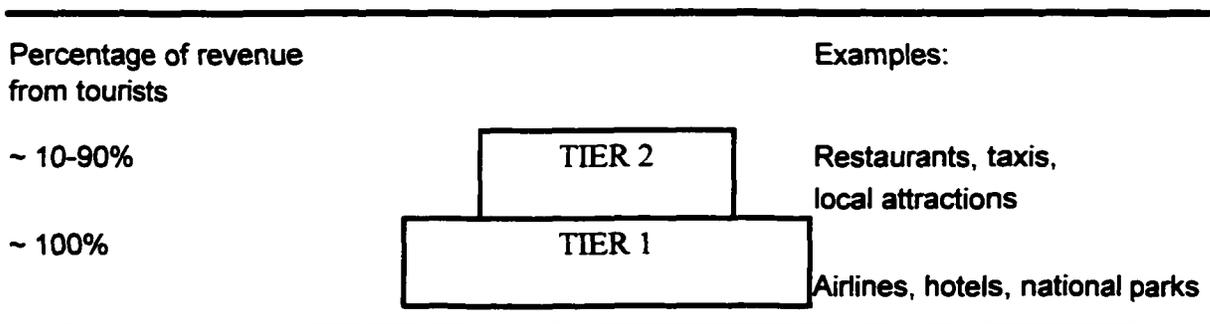


Figure 2-4: Supply-side Definition of the Tourism Industry

Source: Smith (1989)

A commonly used technique in estimating the employment impact of tourism is the input-output table, which maps out the distribution of full-time workers in accordance with anticipated tourist expenditures and/or the number of arrivals. Using this approach, Yzewyn and De Brabander (1992:168) report that, in the Province of Antwerp, Belgium, “about 83 percent of direct and 76 percent of direct plus indirect employment is generated in three sectors: hotel and catering, trade and services”. Using the same approach in the Scottish setting, Baster (1980) provides a more detailed sectoral breakdown of employment directly or indirectly created by tourist spending: hotels and catering (52.3 percent) are the two largest employers, followed by distribution (14.0 percent) and manufacturing (11.6 percent), as illustrated in Figure 2-5.

Factors such as the economic level, labour costs and productivity also determine the employment effects of tourism. Figure 2-6 shows that, in a developing economy, using examples from the hotel sector, tourism tends to produce higher employment rates and is more labour-intensive, but with lower labour productivity.

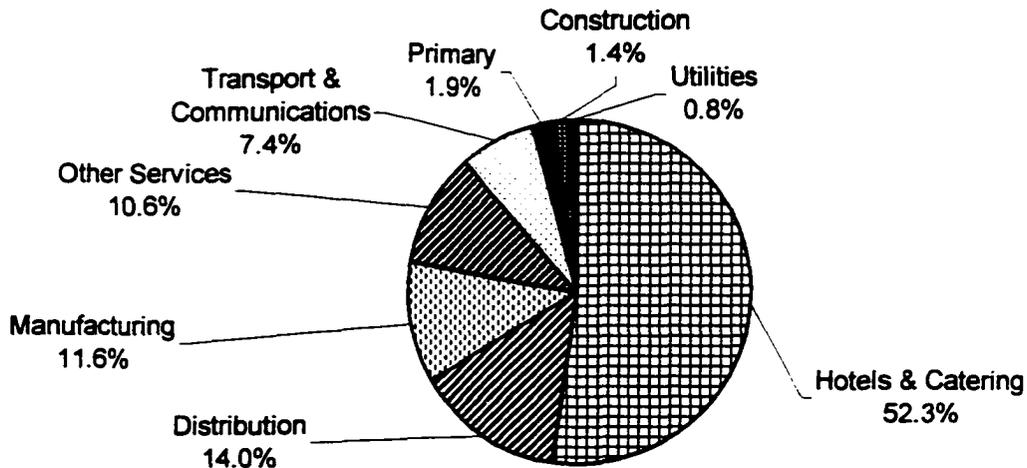


Figure 2-5: Sectoral Breakdown of Employment Generated by Visitor Spending
Source: Baster (1980:106)

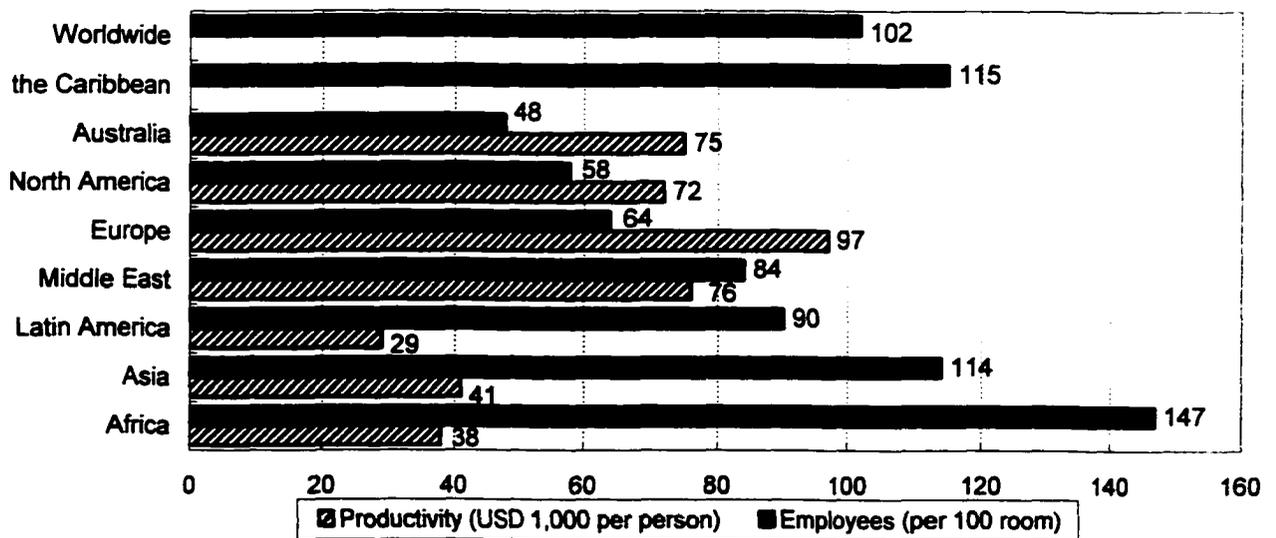


Figure: 2-6: Labour Intensity and Productivity in the Hotel Sector
Source: Data compiled from Baroncini 1982, Liu 1998 and UNEP 1996

There is also a large number of studies that have attempted to use multiplier effects to explain the magnitude of tourism employment. For instance, in Jamaica, for every new full-time employee directly employed as a result of an increase in tourist expenditure, a further 4.61 full-time equivalent jobs are created in the Jamaican economy. The employment multipliers are 3.76, 3.02 and 2.58 in Bermuda, Mauritius and Solomon Islands, respectively. Similarly, the employment multiplier is 1.99 in Malta and 1.67 in the Republic of Palau (Cooper *et al.* 1993). The results of these studies point out that the multiplier values vary depending upon the nature and size of the local economy: the more developed the local economy, the higher the multiplier (Cooper *et al.* 1993, Liu 1998, Pearce 1989, Milne 1990). This correlation indicates that the nature of the tourism employment multiplier is proportionate to the industry's inter-sectoral linkages with other economic sectors and lower propensities to import (Cooper *et al.* 1993, Liu 1998).

Nevertheless, no matter how carefully the level of employment is estimated, it is likely to be substantially less than the true employment level generated by the tourist expenditures. This is due to the fact that employment benefits of tourism are typically measured by the number of people working in large-scale establishments/service providers (hotels, tour operators and carriers, etc.) omitting the fact that small businesses often dominate the travel and tourism industry. For example, it was documented that, of the 1.4 million travel-related business firms in the United States, 98 percent are classified as small businesses (Edgell 1990). Tourism employment figures in many studies are weak in relation to the part-time workers, and relatives and friends who work in the informal tourism establishments (Baster 1980). An example can be found in a study conducted in Indonesia by Wall and Long (1996): of the 24 surveyed home-stays operated by resident families, half were operated only by family members, seven hired helpers and the rest was operated by family with help from hired workers.

It appears that many studies have underestimated the overall employment effects of tourism in the destination areas. This is particularly true in the developing countries due to the fact that tourism also supports a substantial amount of employment outside of the formal economic sector (Cukier 1996b, Farver 1984). As claimed by Cukier (1996b), the informal tourism sector may be a more cost-effective means of job generation, since it requires only minimal capital investment. Liu and Var (1982) and Milne (1990) also point out that small and informal tourism establishments tend to produce larger multiplier effects than the large, central, and the affiliated, externally owned ones because the latter have weaker linkages in the local economy.

However, efforts to investigate the nature of the informal wage sector in the tourism field remain scattered and insubstantial. This has created a weak climate for policy-making as tourism authorities typically do not have sufficient information on which to base decisions. As reported by Hudson and Townsend (1992:50), a large proportion of all local authorities in UK “openly admit that they lack an adequate information base on the economic impact and employment potential of tourism”.

2.5.3 Tourism Employment Paradox in the Literature

In the enthusiasm for promoting tourism, it is frequently cited that the tourism industry, which is labour-intensive, can economically and effectively create high rates of employment (e.g. Edgell 1990, Smith 1995). Smith (1995:7) claims that “a given level of revenue or capital investment creates many more jobs in tourism than the same level of revenue or investment would in agriculture, automobile manufacturing or petrochemicals”. Similarly, Williams and Shaw (1988:81) also note that tourism is an advantageous strategy of job generation for central government because it “requires substantially less grant aid to generate jobs in tourism than in manufacturing or agriculture”.

Tourism, with its very diverse nature, serves as an ideal vehicle for economic development in a wide variety of countries, regions or communities (Theobald 1994). The contribution tourism makes to the generation of employment is the most apparent and direct economic benefit to the host population. As asserted by de Kadt, "the most obvious and immediate benefit of tourism is the creation of jobs and the opportunity for people to increase their income and standard of living" (in Farver 1984:250).

Tourism, as a labour-intensive industry, is both criticized and complimented for its impact on employment. Some give credit to the tourism industry for its contribution to the rapid increase of employment as well as the alleviation of human resource problems. Others question the value of the jobs created by the tourism industry with respect to their income and skill levels. Some of the typical questions often asked include: "Are jobs in tourism real jobs?"; "Do people want the types of jobs offered by tourism?"; "How does tourism compare with other activities in creating employment?" (Vaughan and Long 1982:27).

One reason for the diverse views on tourism jobs may be related to the highly fragmented nature of tourism which adds difficulties to the quantification and categorization of the employment effects of tourism. The effects of tourism employment are often studied concentrating on a few sectors that can be readily identified. "Most assessments of jobs created by tourism make reference only to direct employment" (Mathieson and Wall 1982:77). Other constraints, such as the lack of disaggregated statistics or misinterpretation of tourism terminology, have undoubtedly contributed to the widespread criticism of tourism jobs.

In general, tourism employment is largely regarded as comprising a very high incidence of part-time, seasonal and female employment (Hennessey 1997). Promoting tourism is believed to be advantageous to the US economy because it provides the traditionally disadvantaged - - blacks, Hispanic-Americans and women - - with a substantial amount of

employment in the “hard-to-employ, lower-skilled occupation” (Edgell 1990). For example, in 1987, approximately 970,000 jobs were provided by this industry to blacks (11.2 percent of total tourism employment, compared to 10.1 percent nationally); 765,000 jobs for Hispanic-Americans (8.8 percent versus 6.9 nationwide); and nearly 4.6 million jobs for women (52.9 percent versus 44.8 percent of total U.S. employment).

Thus, a typical generalization of tourism jobs is that “countries that have relatively full employment are less interested in the employment potential of expansion of tourism than those that have substantial unemployment” (UNEP 1996). However, regardless of the level of unemployment or development in any given region or country, it is virtually impossible to overlook the employment significance of tourism when considering the relatively high positive elasticity of demand, fuelled by increased disposable income and leisure time.

What has been documented so far regarding the status of tourism employment is full of ambivalence. In many developing countries tourism appears to attract labour from the land and is regarded as being more lucrative than other types of employment. Conversely, in the developed countries, participation in tourism often carries negative views that are associated with the demanding nature, low social status and unsociable work schedules of tourism jobs. There is, however, some evidence that sharply contrasts with this general belief. The example of Hawaiian tourism shows that, despite the highly variable wages in the tourism sector, the level of job satisfaction and the quality of tourism jobs are generally regarded more highly by the tourism workers themselves than those outside the industry (Choy 1995).

In Hawaii, tourism employment was recommended, in the long run, to be used as a “catalyst to increase the number of career advancement opportunities and level of wages for residents working in the industry” (Choy 1995:129). A study of Canadian tourism labour by Haywood and Pickworth (1993:137) also reveals that, although the outsiders characterize the

Canadian tourism industry as “a less-than-ideal place to work, those employed in the industry like the work environment”. Farver (1984), however, in reference to Gambians’ participation in tourism, found that the idea of using tourism as a catalyst for economic development has been misleading because tourism only provides poorly paid and unskilled jobs which do not facilitate a fair and reasonable distribution of wealth. This indicates that the level of economic development in a given host destination is insufficient to explain the employment effects of tourism and the general perception of tourism jobs.

Moreover, while tourism is credited with the power of generating job opportunities, the possibility of structural unemployment induced by the completion of tourism projects is another concern. As well, the migration of labour could cause an opportunity cost (also referred to as displacement effect) which is often ignored in the calculation of the economic impact of tourism (Mathieson and Wall 1982, Cooper *et al.* 1993). UNEP (1996) found that tourism might distort the labour structure:

The creation of low-paying jobs in the tourism sector in countries with relatively high rates of employment is the result of the strong pull factor of the relatively less physically demanding jobs in the tourism sector from more arduous jobs in the primary sector. This process exerts pressure on producers in the primary sector to modernize and increase capital intensity so as to permit a rising level of real wages; otherwise, the sector will lose its labour force and dwindle. This could marginalize important productive activities such as agriculture and fishing, and weaken the linkages of other sectors with tourism reducing the benefits derived from the tourism industry.

On the other hand, Liu (1998) ascertains that the weak inter-sectoral linkages of tourism are due to the dual economic characteristic of the developing countries in which tourism and other modern industry develop side by side with traditional sectors. In contrast, in the

developed economy, tourism exists with other modernized industrial sectors. Thus, the intensity and productivity of labour in the tourism sector may not be comparably favoured as an instrument of economic growth, particularly when taking into account the costs of generating tourism jobs.

Although the merits of tourism employment are commonly debated, it is fairly true that tourism employment represents more vibrant effects in the developing countries than in their industrialized counterparts, as tourism offers job alternatives in the service-related economic sectors. A peripheral economic benefit of tourism - - generating self-employment opportunities in the informal sector - - is also vital for indigenous people. The lower capital and skill requirements and time flexibility make such tourism opportunities readily accessible for the marginalized. Connelly-Kirch (1982) notes that part-time handicraft sellers in cruise ships in Tonga are able to support their families to meet everyday demands with very limited economic options. In fact, job opportunities in the informal sector may provide a channel for the low skilled and under-educated people to gain access to employment in the formal sector (Cukier-Snow and Wall 1993). Encouraging locally owned tourism establishments not only provides stronger income and employment generation qualities but also allows the indigenous population to play a greater role in the ownership structure of the industry (Milne 1990). As well, as pointed out by Szivas and Riley (1999:751): “mobility into tourism employment is beneficial for the economy if it is the excess labour which moves or when the labour is more productive in tourism than it was in the previous employment”.

Lea (1997) notes that the studies of tourism employment have dealt with a number of basic issues only, such as the effect of tourist expenditures on employment generation. But little is know about “the skills required and the returns and benefits expected; the geographical distribution of employment; the overall contribution to national, regional and local economies

and the future significance of the travel industry as an employment generator” (Lea 1997:169). There is also an omission on the understanding of the locals’ attitudes towards tourism jobs and their preferred forms for participating in the tourism-related economic activities. Hall notes (1996:157), “the extent of Pakeha [European or Outsider] control over the New Zealand tourism industry has led to substantial resentment from many Maori people who believe that they have failed to gain appropriate economic and employment returns from tourism”. Another common deficiency in the tourism employment literature is the obscurity of jobs generated by smaller tourism settlements and/or those in the informal economic sector.

In order to gain a thorough understanding of the relationships between tourism and employment, McCloy (1975) has suggested the following research questions:

1. How many people are employed as a result of the travel industry?
2. What types of job opportunities are available in the tourism industry?
3. What skills do people require and what returns and benefits can be expected from their employment?
4. What is the geographical distribution of this employment?
5. What capital investment is required to create this employment?
6. What is the overall economic contribution to national, regional and local economies of this employment?
7. What will be the future significance of the travel industry as a generator of employment (in Mathieson and Wall 1982:76-77)?

In the context of a less developed economy, Wu (1982:322) notes that, when evaluating the effects of tourism employment on the local population, it is important to examine:

- the ways the locals respond to the opportunities offered by the tourism industry;
- whether a tourism industry can contribute to the alleviation of poverty in the host societies; and
- whether the industry can offer significant opportunities to individual indigenous entrepreneurs.

2.6 Identifying Education and Training Needs for Tourism in Developing Countries

While tourism generates considerable job opportunities, both directly and indirectly, lack of skills and knowledge of tourism have been the major determinants that dilute the positive economic benefits of tourism in a developing economy. Often, the magnitude of employment generation is reduced due to the fact that upper-echelon positions require skills and expertise that the locals lack, necessitating the use of expatriate staff (Milne 1990). As Gartner (1996:66) ascertains, “compounding the leakage problem is the provision of quality service, which is a function of the host country’s educational system”. The dilemma that many developing countries are facing is that they do not have the technical expertise or education and training programs in place to cultivate their citizenry who wish to be involved in the tourism industry (Gartner 1996). The growth of tourism is severely limited due to the lack of adequately trained personnel.

The sub-Saharan African study by Ankomah (1991) indicates that the shortage of skilled labour is responsible for the dismal performance of the industry. Lipscomb (1998:189) points out the scarce human resources to market the Solomons as a destination and lack of training and expertise among indigenous operators as being the major tourism liabilities and constraints. There is also a concern about a potential imbalance between the demand for, and supply of, skilled tourism staff as an inhibiting factor to sustain good growth prospects in Turkish tourism (Brotherton *et al.* 1994).

Many countries in the Asia Pacific region, in spite of its economic dependence on tourism, are faced with a shortage of the required skilled labour (Sinclair and Vokes 1993, Hitchcock 1993). In China, “the lack of experience of tourism personnel in dealing with foreign tour operators and managing tourism facilities has made the development process difficult” (Choy and Gee 1983:90). Hitchcock (1993:313) notes that the growth of tourism

has been a mixed blessing in the Komodo Islands, Indonesia, because “ [tourism employment] is overlooked by the authorities and lacking the appropriate skills and education, the islanders have been unable to participate in the new development”. One of the factors that hinders the capacity of tourism in the Philippines is “the lack of trained human resources at the required standard and quantity” (WTO 1994:139). A similar dilemma is also observed in Thailand: “Thailand has an ample manpower supply, but experiences the difficulty and shortage of trained personnel to fill the jobs for different skills, capabilities and levels of professionalism” (Esichaikul and Baum 1998:361).

Such a chronic shortage of trained local individuals has led to an unfavourable situation: managerial and other senior positions are filled by expatriates and the low, unskilled and correspondingly lower paying positions are left to the locals (Echtner 1995). As commonly applied elsewhere, expatriate managers, although very expensive to hire, are brought into the host destinations, exacerbating the drainage of tourist expenditures. For instance, the expatriates working in the hotel sector in China enjoy much higher remuneration and are compensated with hardship allowances of 30 percent to 70 percent of the base salary (Li and Tse 1998). In a joint-venture of foreign and local ownership, this compensation is equally shared by the foreign and Chinese partners (*ibid*).

It should also not be forgotten that tourism, with its dependency on value-added personal service, creates the conditions for a range of petty entrepreneurs outside the commercial interest or competitive capacity of dominant sector firms (Burns 2000:85, Britton 1982, Connelly-Kirch 1982). The fundamental issue here is whether or not the host population has a position of strength to intervene in the tourism development process or negotiate for meaningful involvement. Thus, the significance of human resources planning for tourism has profound consequences not only for the tourism’s corporate business interests but also for the host communities (Conlin and Baum 1994).

Planning, in its broadest sense, “involves the mobilization of resources in order to bring about desired economic and social outcomes” (Abegaz 1994). A human resource planning strategy for a tourism workforce is, therefore, the totality of arrangements designed to cultivate prospective practitioners to be aware of all the potential diversified effects of tourism development. However, some negative images attached to tourism have deferred the public and private sectors’ willingness to invest in the cultivation of tourism human resources. Among these, the main challenges are perhaps the lack of articulation of tourism employment patterns and insensitivity to local involvement.

At the micro-scale, the fact that the quality of tourism offerings relies on the human factor makes it essential to consider ways of upgrading the skills of the tourism workforce. However, this approach is somewhat servility-driven and woefully limits the planning of human resources to the establishment of professionalism that is tailor-designed to meet the needs of the industry. This has resulted in the prevalence of speculations associated with low-level remuneration, cultural adjustment, ethnic conflicts and accusations of discrimination that are commonly found in the studies of hosts’ participation in tourism employment. Moreover, this industrial bias is also exhibited in tourism human resources literature, which is mostly devoted to the understanding of the relationships between service quality and organizational performance, skill levels and productivity.

According to Echtner (1995:121), “there is an increasingly urgent need for local individuals possessing a holistic background”. Echtner advocates a “three-pronged” approach (professional education, vocational skills and entrepreneurial development) to tourism education in developing countries. This approach not only meets the needs for a qualified workforce at the managerial/ supervisory and craft/operative levels required by the larger-scale tourism enterprises but also contributes to the development of entrepreneurship to facilitate the establishment of the indigenous economy. In so doing, it provides a climate for

domestic capacity to grow to allow the local residents to play a significant role in the tourism development.

2.7 Summary

An examination of tourism literature indicates that insufficient attention has been given to the human dimension in the tourism planning process. The evolution of tourism paradigms, although helping to reinforce tourism's role as a comprehensive development strategy, complicates the examination of issues in and approaches to the development of appropriate tourism and practical applications. It appears that the orthodox model of tourism planning and development, as commonly conceptualized, has estranged itself from the inherent positive economic objectives.

Underlying the notion of tourism impact is the question of who should be the chief beneficiary? When one takes into account the immediate impact of tourism, as summarized by Greewood (1976, in Farver 1984) in one word - - jobs - - should undoubtedly have high priority in the tourism planning process. Tourism's employment issues, however, are often treated superficially by the planners (Baum 1994, Hitchcock 1993). At most, the planners' efforts are generally geared towards benefiting the tourists and, at best, the involvement of the locals is encouraged for consistency of services provision rather than to meet their own needs.

This literature review, by bringing together different tourism perspectives and interpretations, issues and deficiencies serves as a foundation to build a research framework that draws attention to a refined variant of tourism planning that demonstrates sensitivity to employment and human resource issues. On the basis of the existing literature, a conceptual framework for the research project, which embraces the multiple dimensions of tourism employment, is outlined in Chapter 3, along with a research strategy for investigating associated human resource issues in developing countries.

Chapter 3

Conceptualization and Methodology

3.1 Introduction

The preparation of human capital is an imperative facet of tourism planning to reinforce the viability of indigenous involvement and to support greater local representation in tourism commerce. A review of the tourism literature, however, reveals abundant studies of tourism development approaches, both theoretical and practical, but no consolidation on which useful recommendations can be drawn to situate the human dimension as an integral part of a comprehensive planning framework for tourism. A reflection of this has been put very strongly by Go (1994) who finds fault in the tourism field's failure to capitalize on the rapid expansion of tourism activities. This is due to the fact that "it [the tourism field] has relatively few innovative thinkers, leaders and high quality education and training courses and programs to cultivate the talent required to deal with critical issues and thereby to ensure the long-term prosperity of tourism as a part of the broader society" (*ibid*: 344). With special references to the tourism characteristics in a developing economy, the review of issues related to tourism planning approaches and employment generation, as discussed earlier, particularly justifies the pressing needs to cultivate the human capital and to integrate it as a tourism planning priority.

In the context of the importance of tourism human resources, this Chapter identifies the major research issues and practical needs required to better address the human resource issues

with the main objective of enhancing the current tourism planning approaches that are adopted in many developing countries. The focus is on describing some of the fundamental conceptual considerations involved in studying tourism's human resource requirements and to develop a research framework reflecting determinants that impinge upon developing countries' approaches to human resources development for tourism. A research plan and strategies are outlined, and methods employed to explore human capital and employment issues in a broader context of tourism planning are addressed.

3.2 Conceptualization: A Framework for Studying Human Resource Issues of Tourism

In a planning environment characterized by physical structures and spatial distribution, tourism human resources studies (or merely tourism employment impact assessments) are generally a reflection of the manifestation of tourism as a major industrial sector for economic growth. Human resources research in tourism has been undertaken from two broad perspectives: human resources requirements (industry's staffing needs) and employment impact studies (Elkin and Roberts 1994). However, as observed by Baum (1994:259), "the position of human resource concerns within the process of tourism policy formulation and implementation has not been subjected to widespread academic analysis". Researchers primarily seek to document employment effects of tourism development. Their information is used to elicit financial aid from government agencies and to solicit the support of destination communities and residents. Although the examples extracted are often quantitative in nature, on many occasions, they distort the true tourism employment effects, since only a narrow range of job spectrums is analyzed.

The common view concerning the economic viability of tourism to a given destination area (i.e. economic benefits of tourism can be realized and retained locally) revealed in the

mainstream literature is that nurturing of local capacity is indispensable. The provision of tourism education and training is frequently stressed as being vital not only to give the hosts the knowledge and skills to have a meaningful role in all stages of the tourism development but also to alleviate some of the adverse effects of tourism. Human resources development for tourism is an especially important prerequisite at the initial stages of tourism development as advocated by many tourism experts. However, often little or virtually no attention is given to the development of the tourism workforce needed during the preparation of the tourism plans.

In considering the reasons why the tourism human capital accumulation remains an undifferentiated area in the tourism development processes, one is immediately confronted by a predominant physical development orientation. As well, given a faulty industry-driven endeavour in satisfying human resources requirements from large-scale operators, education and training approaches for tourism are essentially rooted in the pursuit of services quality and mastery of technical skills. As a result, the anticipated community involvement often becomes a luxury. The major drawback of much human resources development (as commonly cited in most tourism plans) is superficiality: it does not reflect the practicality and varied needs which tourism imposes on a destination community. At the same time, an apprehensive attitude towards tourism and its associated employment effects have become pervasive mainly because of questionable remuneration levels and enormous social and cultural implications. If these concerns are acknowledged, what subsequent measures might be taken for improvement and how do the hosts evaluate tourism employment?

Tourism practiced in a developed country is, in principle, the consumption of leisure, whereas the developing countries' participation in tourism is largely an economic endeavour and a path to development (Jenkins 1980). Employment opportunities are one of the main

impacts on the hosts' ways of living and changes imposed by tourism development affect their environment. de Kadt (1979) claims that the immediate and major impact of tourism is the creation of jobs and the opportunity for host population to increase their income and to improve their standard of living. There is also substantial evidence indicating that the hospitality sector (i.e. accommodation and catering services) has grown more rapidly than the total employment in tourism or the other components of the service sector (Mathieson and Wall 1982). However, as noted earlier, tourism planning typically accentuates the physical development with the foremost consideration being given to commercial success. Very little emphasis is often placed on the human dimension. This has made tourism's human resources development seemingly less important than other issues, such as marketing, promotion and product development, which are typically the main concerns for most tourism administrations.

This phenomenon is particularly evident in developing countries as there tourism is inherently a government-led development exercise and is highly politicized to meet their own social and economic agendas (Richter 1993). Tourism development depicted by tourism planners has often been led by a biased belief that only large-scale development is effective in income and employment generation. Tourism planners' common disinclination, in general, and meagre understanding, in particular, of the nature of tourism employment, have hampered the development of a more comprehensive approach to tourism planning.

The various planning approaches, as ascertained by Theuns and Rasheed (1983), have significant implications for the mechanisms adopted by the public sector to plan tourism human capital. These human resource requirements, in turn, have consequences for the choice of type and content of tourism programs. Thus, the general approach to tourism education and training has been typically concerned with "creating the human resources needed to work for others" (Echtner 1995:121), when large-scale and capital-intensive types of

development predominate in the tourism plans. This is due to the reluctance of tourism planners and educators to devise appropriate measures for human resources planning to cater to the employment needs of all sizes of enterprises ranging from the large multi-national corporations, through medium-size firms to small indigenous business units.

In a developing economy, deficiencies in human capital, albeit with a labour surplus with low skills and qualifications and the lack of tourism expertise, have been a major obstacle that prevents the host population from participating effectively in the tourism employment opportunities. There is a need to increase the awareness of local people of the commercial potential that exists in tourism. Ultimately, they need to be equipped with the necessary skills, experience and entrepreneurial flair to venture into tourism-related employment or business opportunities.

These observations underpin research needs to address employment generation and projections of the number and skills of the employees both needed and available for future industry expansion. They also prompt attention to the impediments that thwart the spill-over of tourism employment effects across different scales of tourism economies. Thus, it is essential that the complex and dynamic relationships that exist between the tourism policies and their effects on the structure and distribution of employment and the status of tourism jobs, all be evaluated and considered in the human resources planning process for the tourism sector. Benefits and hidden costs of tourism policies favouring large-scale developments should be further investigated to address the opportunities and challenges that the indigenous people face. This research is intended to bridge some of these gaps through examination of tourism planning approaches and policy implications for better integration of human resources development into planning initiatives.

The research is an attempt to come to terms with the breadth of approaches that have

been employed in studying tourism human resource issues. This is done through an examination of the interrelationships between tourism policy objectives and employment structure, the views of the host population with respect to tourism and the nature of indigenous involvement in the tourism job opportunities. The following questions are taken into account in developing a framework for the research, which examines tourism policies and plans to determine the extent to which the human resource issues are considered:

- What is the relative importance of tourism in the economies of the host destination?
- What types of experience and knowledge/skills are required for tourism workers?
- What are the challenges/barriers that preclude them from the pursuit of career advancement?
- To what extent are human resource requirements addressed in the tourism plans, including their implications for the patterns of tourism employment?
- How do the public tourism agencies view their responsibilities for the development of tourism human capital *vis-à-vis* the tourism industry?
- What should be the extent of institutional involvement of the tourism agencies in the development of the tourism workforce?
- What types of tourism and training opportunities are required and how effective can they be to enable prospective participants to find their niche in the tourism job market?

To develop a solid framework on which to base the examination of a variety of research issues and the direction of the research, the conceptualization of the research problems involves three main aspects: (1) broad tourism policy issues that directly affect the planning approaches for tourism human capital; (2) the associated common tourism employment concerns pertaining to a developing economy; and (3) the extent to which the locals are aware of and are responding to the various employment opportunities created by tourism. A conceptual framework for analysis of tourism employment and human resources development is given in Figure 3-1.

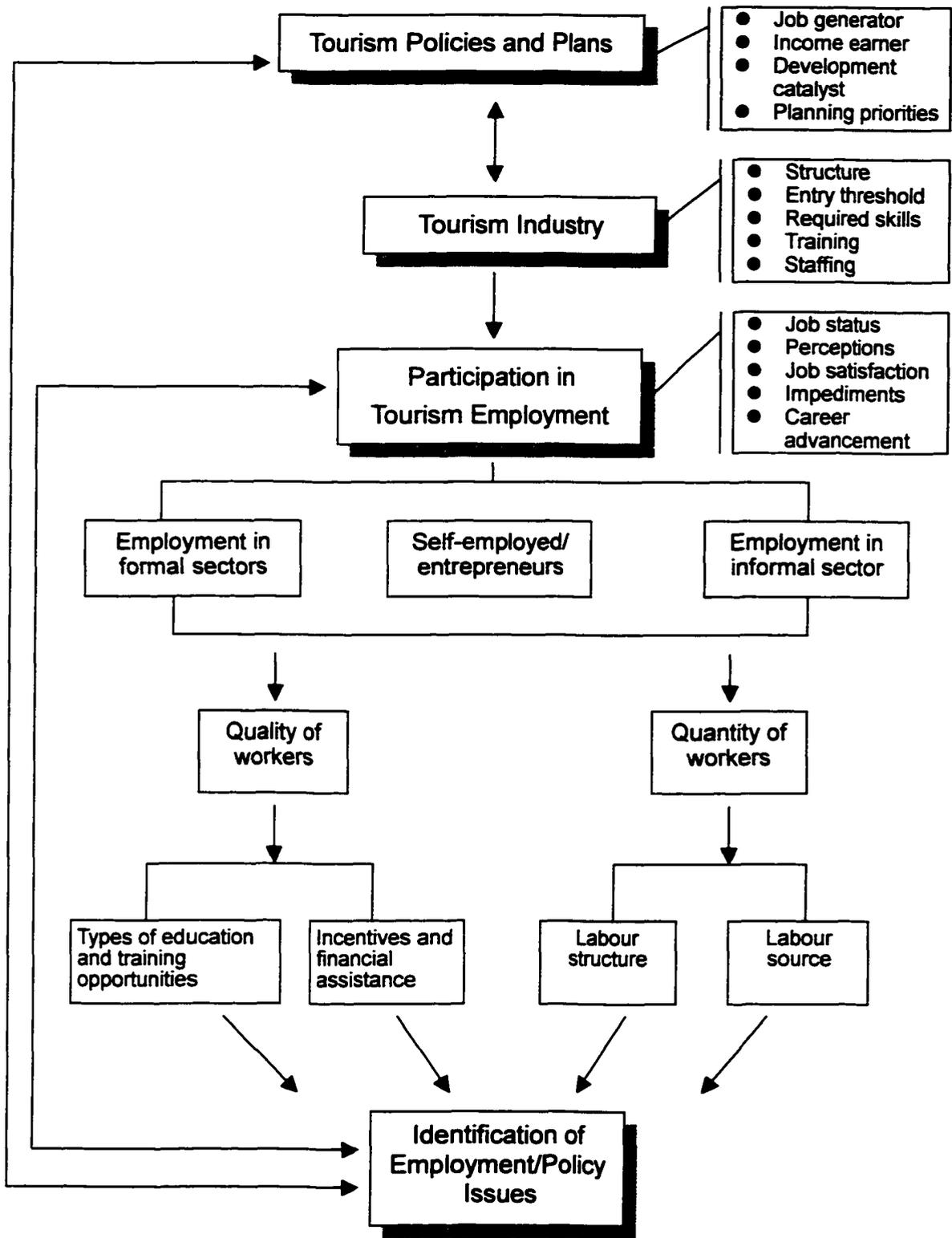


Figure 3-1: Conceptual Framework for Evaluation of Tourism Human Capital and Employment Issues

The framework presented is different from a conventional industry-orientated approach used by many tourism employment studies. Tourism human resources studies are more than the collection and analysis of data about the interactions between employees' competence and tourism firms' performance. Rather, prominent components of a broader approach to this subject are local capacity considerations that take into account local desires and capabilities as well as the quantity and quality of labour that various tourism operations require. In other words, the fundamental issue pointed out here is inclusion of local awareness and capacity in the conceptualization of tourism employment and human resources development.

As a conceptual framework for analyzing tourism human resource issues in developing countries, Figure 3-1 integrates the main components relevant to the development of tourism human capital. It brings to the forefront the issues concerning the accumulation of tourism human capital as an integral component of tourism planning. It identifies the key tourism policy and planning issues to be considered in studying the status of tourism employment as well as concerns related to strategies and education programs for the development of human resources.

As illustrated in Figure 3-1, the framework posits tourism policies and plans as a primary determinant in the interaction of tourism employment and human resource issues. The conceptual framework begins with the identification of the objectives of tourism policies and evaluation of the tourism plans prepared by the public tourism planning agencies from the viewpoint of local human resource issues, including the human resource needs (quantity and quality) and the capacity of the local workforce to satisfy the tourism industry's employment demands. Associated with the fragmented nature of tourism, employment opportunities are typically scattered through a wide spectrum of industrial sectors. Policy documents are dissected to determine policy preferences for tourism development and employment patterns. Attention is given to categorization of the job characteristics of and challenges confronted by

tourism establishments of all sizes, including both large corporate and craft level operators.

The tourism industry's human resource requirements are then compared with the availability (including social and cultural factors) and abilities (knowledge and skill requirements) of the local workforce. Deliberately evading the most commonly used industrial typologies (e.g. hotel, tour operator, attraction and carrier) used in tourism employment studies, this research framework uses "business proprietorship" as a criterion to classify jobs (i.e. formal, informal and self-employed sectors) encompassed by the tourism industry. With this classification, it is possible to determine the influences of policy directives on the configuration of tourism employment.

The next step is to examine determinants of the development of tourism human capital, e.g. the structure of the local labour force, sources of labour, incentives and financial assistance programs provided by the public and/or private sectors, as well as the education and training opportunities. The employment and policy issues that are expected to contribute to a better appreciation of the weaknesses and strengths of tourism as a development strategy. The use of this information should lead to better planning decisions.

3.3 Application of the Conceptual Framework

Based on the conceptual considerations outlined above, developing countries' approaches to the creation of human capital for their tourism operations is studied within an interrelated policy-industry-locality framework. The main research activities involved concentrate upon the connectivity and interaction among the following areas:

1. factors that impinge upon tourism policy and development strategies and the extent to which such factors affect the structure of tourism employment and the approaches to human resources development;
2. impediments that preclude indigenous people from participating in tourism-related

economic activities; and

3. with the results generated, development of a methodology that facilitates locals' entry and job advancement in the tourism sector, using training and education as tools.

In this study, the selection of PR China and Malaysia as study sites was based on their economic status and employment demands as well as their commitment to tourism development. Concentration on these two Asian nations as the focus for this study may appear to impose contextualization to the Asian domain. However, in practice, it mirrors tourism phenomena in general. This is a rationale raised by Teo and Chang (1999:119-120), who state that the Asia-Pacific region, "with its diverse mix of cultures, political regimes and environmental attributes", provides "a rich laboratory to interrogate issues arising from the intersection of global/regional tourism and local cultural politics". At the same time, as one of the fastest growing tourist-receiving regions, the impacts of tourism on the Asian nations (specifically the Pacific and South-east regions) have been immense, agitating their physical, ethnic and socio-cultural bases. These circumstances provide an ideal research environment to draw the various economic, cultural and environmental issues and evolving trends together.

Nevertheless, it is essential to provide a sound base for the research which involves a wide range of actors and complex issues. It is virtually impossible to study all the issues involved, given the resource and time constraints. A sensible application of the conceptual framework, therefore, requires genuine reflection upon and effective concentration upon problem areas most critical to the research objectives. The framework was firstly applied to the specific situations to identify local particularities and to define the research needs. Research priorities were then identified for allocation of the limited resources available.

China and Malaysia both feature a growing tourism trend and their central governments' ambitions for tourism as a major development facilitator are similarly aggressive. However, tourism-induced phenomena and issues in these two countries vary due to a significantly

different set of objectives defined by their national tourism policies and development agendas. The areas of investigation for the research were determined primarily based upon their tourism as identified by their governments. Specific issues for the research were then chosen to reflect their extremely different political, cultural and social attributes. In principle, the study scope, the level of aggregation and the degree of comprehensiveness of the research results were anticipated to further elaborate general notions of tourism's human capital and employment issues.

The first case study was conducted in Hainan Province of China in the Summer of 1999. It was supported by the Canadian International Development Agency (CIDA), as a part of a project entitled Environmental Training for Integrated Monitoring and Management in the Coastal Zone of Hainan Province, China. Hainan, with its Special Economic Zone (SEZ) status, has greatest flexibility in policy spheres compared with other provinces on the Chinese mainland. However, as one of the designated national tourist destinations, the Hainan situation not only mirrors general trends in tourism policy directions elsewhere in China, but also exhibits interesting tourism complexity characterized by its historical backwardness, island peripherality, and the SEZ status. The Hainan study was conducted at a fairly early stage of the research during the conceptualization of the research framework. At that time, conceptualization of tourism employment and human resource issues within the Hainan realm were embedded primarily in an economic transformation context.

In the context of the conceptual framework outlined in the preceding section, in Hainan, the following issues were examined:

- the regional tourism development initiatives;
- the magnitude of the tourism industry;
- the provincial tourism agency's measures and the industry's response to human resource requirements; and
- the nature of the locals' participation both in the formal and informal sectors.

In Hainan, the self-employment or entrepreneur group was not covered because of its limited involvement in the tourism trade. This is because entrepreneurship still lacks supports in China. In fact, it is deterred to some extent by the public sector.

The study approach was then further strengthened by demonstrating the linkages that exist between each component of the research framework at the macro (national) level. This was done through an examination of the issues (i.e. large service personnel requirements, rising unemployment, conflicts between tourism culture and socialist doctrines) that have emerged in the employment structure and labour market, and the public sector's measures versus the host population's reactions to these issues.

The conceptual framework was further elaborated through a second case study in Kedah State, Malaysia, in the Summer of 2001. The application of the research framework in Malaysia, through a wider and more in-depth understanding of the complex local tourism attributes, was intended to add new perspectives and to integrate research findings so that more valid conclusions could be drawn.

In a somewhat similar manner to the Hainan study, the research began with an analysis of Malaysia's policy priorities at the national level. Considering Malaysia's ethnicity-driven and rural-prioritized policy making environment, the study focused on the following areas to determine the nature of different ethnic groups' involvement in tourism and the appropriateness of the current approaches to tourism human resources development:

- tourism development initiatives;
- tourism as a social engineering drive to achieve desired employment equality;
- ethnic and cultural determinants of human resource development strategies; and
- the role of human resources development in rural tourism.

The role of the informal sector in Malaysian tourism was not studied, because the research was primarily on tourism in rural and peripheral areas where the informal sector is

typically less active. Examples extracted from Kedah State, therefore, were concerned with different ethnic groups' perceptions of and employment in tourism, entrepreneurship development in rural tourism and the employment dilemma confronting the resorts in peripheral areas. The Malaysian study also investigates the pivotal role for tourism policies in addressing tourism employment and human resources planning issues.

These two case studies were pursued with the objective of eliminating the common weakness in tourism studies of being site-specific, which typically limits the universal applicability of the results. The advantage of the conceptual framework (Figure 3-1) proposed here is that it caters to the integration of information from both horizontal (in-depth analysis of inter-relationships between factors; i.e., the two-way relationship between tourism policies, the structure of tourism industry and the nature of the local involvement in tourism) and vertical facets (identification of a variety of issues; i.e., three main categories of tourism employment and their respective characteristics). It allows flexibility and a broad analysis of determinants affecting tourism. This approach not only permits the identification of the different tourism milieus exemplified by destinations with their diverse characteristics but also the synthesis of tourism studies undertaken from a variety of perspectives.

For example, the investigation of Hainan's tourism human resource issues emphasized the areas of political-economy, employment transition and implications of a centrally-dominant system. In Malaysia, reconceptualization of the key investigation areas was required (e.g. political-economy (communism) versus culture politics (Islamism), employment transition versus employment equity, and a centrally-dominant system versus an ethnicity-led system). Acknowledging these differences in emphases, the same research framework could be applied to the Malaysian tourism studies. This approach permits the demonstration of diverse tourism milieus rather than superimposing tourism employment stereotypes.

3.4 Data Acquisition

The study requires a wide range of data to facilitate a thorough examination of the complex issues involved. As identified in Table 3-1, four categories of data are required: tourism policy properties, perceptions of tourism jobs, job status, and education and training needs. Data were derived from a variety of sources, including both primary (e.g. survey and key informant interviews) and secondary (e.g. government plans and statistics and published materials), as shown in Table 3-1. Careful planning was needed to ensure that all of the local data necessary to meet the overall research objectives was collected effectively and efficiently. Several factors that govern the approach adopted and influence the choice of methods, have been taken into account, as follows:

1. the complex and fragmented nature of tourism;
2. the completeness and accuracy of information related to tourism;
3. the confidentiality involved in the information sources;
4. the reality of bureaucracy and “red tape” in developing countries;
5. multi-cultural ethnic groups that were foreseen to be involved in the study;
6. the response time needed to approach some elite level research participants; and
7. enthusiasm of the research participants.

Data were successfully collected through the employment of a combination of methods, involving both quantitative and qualitative approaches. The range of information-gathering techniques employed included: (1) utilization of existing information: e.g. published and unpublished research data and government statistics; (2) qualitative methods: participant observation, informal and in-depth interviews; and (3) questionnaire-based surveys: face-to-face and site surveys. Some informal discussions were also helpful to further explore aspects that might not have been identified at the outset of research planning. Participants in the research project included: (1) tourism employers; (2) tourism workers; (3) students enrolled in tourism programs; and (4) agencies responsible for tourism planning.

Table 3-1: Data Requirements, Data Sources, and Analysis Techniques

Data Categorization	Data Sources				Analysis	
	Primary Data		Secondary Data		Quantitative analysis	Qualitative analysis
	Survey	Key informants	Government reports and statistics	Published material		
Tourism policy properties						
▪ Identification of the role of tourism		x		x		x
▪ Planning priorities		x	x	x		x
▪ Stakeholders		x		x		x
▪ Industry structure		x	x	x		x
▪ Human capital needs		x	x	x	x	x
▪ Government involvement		x		x		x
▪ Availability of education and training opportunities		x	x	x	x	x
Perceptions of tourism jobs						
▪ Motivation	x				x	
▪ Desirability	x				x	
▪ Work environment	x				x	
▪ Job Prospects	x				x	
▪ Social status	x				x	
Tourism job status						
▪ Labour source		x	x	x	x	x
▪ Labour structure		x	x	x	x	x
▪ Job satisfaction	x				x	
▪ Wage level	x		x		x	
▪ Work hour	x				x	
▪ Career development	x	x			x	x
▪ Social status	x	x			x	x
▪ Stability	x	x			x	
Education and training needs						
▪ Required skills(skill deficiencies)	x	x		x	x	x
▪ Education/training opportunities	x	x			x	x
▪ Resources allocation		x	x	x		x
▪ Accessibility	x	x		x	x	x
▪ Partnership	x	x	x	x	x	x

The following is a description of the specific data types, sources and collection methods employed in acquiring the data necessary for each major step involved in applying the conceptual framework of Figure 3-1.

Concerning the accessibility of *tourism policy documents and plans*, in Hainan, China, the national-level tourism policies and plans (primarily China's sixth to ninth 5-year plans 1981-2000) were acquired electronically using on-line sources (mainly web sites www.cnta.gov.cn of the China National Tourism Administration (CNTA) and some Chinese press). An electronic copy of "Five Decades of Chinese Tourist Industry" (accessible on line, www.cnta.gov.cn/ziliao/lujjyi/50.asp) edited by He Kuangwei, Director of CNTA, was extraordinarily helpful in that it provided a thorough review of the tourism development history in the past five decades and future courses of action to be attempted by the Chinese government. Some limited supplementary information was also obtained from existing literature in Canada. At the regional level, the only available official tourism development guideline was "An Outline of the Planning of Hainan Provincial Tourist Development" released in 1993 by the Hainan Provincial Tourism Administration (HPTA).

In Malaysia, the first national tourism master plan entitled "Malaysia Tourism Development Plan" by the Ministry of Trade and Industry was reviewed. Evaluation of Malaysia's tourism goals and objectives were also done through a review of a series of 5-year Malaysia Plans (from 1971 to 2005) and the report, "The Study on a Comprehensive National Tourism Development in Malaysia: Guidelines for National Tourism Development", prepared by Japan International Cooperation Agency. A national rural tourism master plan study was underway during the research period (Summer of 2001), but the results were not readily available. Similarly, the regional tourism master plan for Kedah was still in the preparation process, but several useful discussions were held with tourism planners of Kedah State regarding the plan.

The information related to the *tourism industry*, in both Hainan and Kedah case studies, were gathered from three sources: government statistics, published materials and empirical data. At the initial stages of the field studies, field observations which serve as “a primary technique for collecting data on nonverbal behaviour processes in natural settings” (Pizam 1994:99), were conducted to gain acquaintance with the local conditions and the ways that people operate in a tourism environment. Interviews, as an effective medium enabling the researcher to “find out about things that cannot be seen or heard such as the interviewee’s inner state – the reasoning behind their actions and their feelings” (Seale 1998:202), were then conducted with the tourism planners to dissect the tourism policy priorities. The interview technique provided the opportunity to probe more authentic, perceptive and insightful accounts of experience and visions than the other methods (*ibid*).

Multiple sub-studies were conducted to reveal the complex nature of *locals’ participation in tourism*, including employers’ requirements, workers’ perception and their capabilities to respond to tourism employment opportunities as well as tourism students’ views regarding tourism jobs. Discussions with the academics involved in tourism education also provided valuable information about the local tourism human resource issues.

In general, informal discussions and interviews with the tourism workers and employers were firstly conducted to gain insight into their operational patterns and to explore the common issues that they encounter in their tourism employment. The questionnaire survey approach, as an effective and efficient way to “measure what a person knows (knowledge or information), what a person likes and dislikes (values and preferences) and, what a person thinks (attitudes and beliefs)” (Tuckman 1988:213), was also employed to increase numbers of research subjects. Questionnaires of the kind presented in Appendix A were designed to acquire the following information from the existing and prospective tourism workers:

- demographic characteristics and origins;
- skill and education levels and job positions;
- motivation and desirability of tourism jobs;
- level of satisfaction (wage, work environment, stability and social status, etc.);
- prospects for career development; and
- training needs.

Table 3-2 shows the interview and questionnaire sample sizes as well as research object categories (research participants) included within each case study. Sampling target groups for questionnaire surveys was not done randomly, but purposively. Purposive sampling, or judgmental sampling, by definition, is “a sampling procedure in which the researcher uses “expert” judgment as to which respondents to choose, and picks only those who meet the purpose of the study” (Pizam 1994:102). In some cases, sampling is fraught with the difficulties of getting target groups’ commitments, enthusiasms and trust (e.g. vendors’ survey in Hainan) as well as the small sample frame available in the defined geographic area in a case study design (e.g. students’ and home-stay operators’ surveys in Kedah).

Table 3-2: Research Object Categories and Sample Sizes

Research object categories	Hainan, PR China		Kedah, Malaysia	
	Interview	Questionnaire	Interview	Questionnaire
Formal sector				
Employers/Managers	4	38	9	
Employees	9		16	
Informal sector				
Beach vendors		61		
Entrepreneurs				
Home-stay operators			16	
Education circle				
Educators	7		3	
Students	4	134	11	67
		Response rate: 83.8 percent		Response rate 83.8 percent

Note: Sample sizes in the Table refer to the usable responses. Response rates are given where applicable.

In the Hainan study, for example, students enrolled in the tourism program at Hainan University were purposively selected as representatives who reflect the general trends of the tourism student population. It was the researcher's judgment that the tourism students at Hainan University were typical population elements that reflect the shared community characteristics. This judgment was made on the basis of the Hainan University's seniority and specialization in tourism education and its relatively large tourism student population.

3.5 Data Analysis

In this study, the exploration of the human resource issues is underpinned by both "hard" (statistical) and "soft" (interpretations) data elements. A two-pronged approach has been used to analyze these quantitative and qualitative data sets. The secondary data collected from the governmental reports and academic literature were first summarized to generate a consolidated and substantive background to highlight problem areas and to generate methodological inspirations so that specific issues could be tackled. Generalizations concerning tourism policies and planning approaches established in this way, were then used to guide the interpretation of the data. The study developed taxonomies for understanding tourism within the overall policy environment at the macro-level at which it operates, e.g. development imperative, ideological values, planning theories and practices, and decision-making process. A scaled-down case study technique that defined key research components in a smaller geographical domain, was also used to dissect phenomena (human capital requirements) and to identify factors governing the choice of tourism (tourism employment impacts analysis).

One of the major challenges encountered in the analysis of secondary data is the adequacy and credibility of the statistics. This is particularly a problem in processing information or statistics related to Chinese tourism; as identified by Xu (1999:14), information

and statistics relating to Chinese tourism are “poor”, “scant” and “inconsistent”. Often, the statistics are misleading because of the lack of understanding of the nature of tourism and the tendency to manipulate the numbers to show growth for propaganda purposes. For example, while China claims that the inbound tourists have grown substantially, the majority has been those from Hong Kong, Macao and Taiwan, who in fact, are not entirely tourists *per se*, but people commuting for remuneration or reuniting with their Chinese compatriots. In some cases, the data do not exist at all. The earliest statistics related to Chinese tourism which have some degree of reliability appeared in 1965, but statistics from its provinces, autonomous regions and municipalities were not available until 1981.

Problems of tourism statistics’ validity, reliability, and precision are less evident in Malaysia. Malaysia has adopted universally recognized terminology and techniques in establishing its tourism database. However, minor statistical discrepancies still exist because of the adoption of up-to-date definitions or techniques that adjust tourism-related statistics simultaneously. Thus, the secondary data extracted from both China and Malaysia were employed with extra care and sensitivity and using multiple sources to ensure validity and reliability.

Primary sources of data involve both qualitative and quantitative categories. Qualitative data gathered from observations, interviews and personal discussions were under ongoing review to help “the researcher’s evolving understanding of the phenomenon being studied”, as per the qualitative research guidelines suggested by Veal (1992:140). In the process, interim conclusions were also drawn to classify and flag the information. Safeguards were implemented to secure objective interpretation of the interviewees’ experience, knowledge and perspectives. In this regard, recording and quotation were used in storing and presenting messages conveyed by the interviewees.

The quantitative data derived from the questionnaire surveys were largely based on

participants' responses on the basis of Likert scales (1 being strong negative and 5 being strongly supportive). These ratings were then given weights for analytical purposes. The data were processed using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) program.

3.6 Ethical Considerations

This study poses “minimal risk” to those who were involved in the study. The study meets the Tri-Council Policy Statement on “Ethical Conduct for Research Involving Humans”: “potential subjects can reasonably be expected to regard the probability and magnitude of possible harms implied by participation in the research to be no greater than those encountered by the subject in those aspects of his or her everyday life that relate to the research” (SSHRC web site). The study is based exclusively on publicly available information, documents, publications, archival materials and interviews with living individuals in open public areas or their workplaces.

The participation of the interviewee(s) was voluntary. No prize or compensation was provided for participation in the study. At the outset of the surveys, the people involved in the study were made well aware of the nature of the study, the way they would be involved and how the information gathered would be used. In order to help the interviewees make an informed choice for their involvement, a study information letter, a consent letter and a reference letter prepared by the research advisor, were provided along with a verbal introduction/explanation (Table 3-3 and Appendix B) prior to the commencement of the interviews. The study information letter indicates that anonymity of participants and confidentiality of data would be secured throughout the research period and in the release of findings. The research project has been reviewed by, and received ethics clearance, through the Office of Research Ethics at the University of Waterloo.

Table 3-3: Information Elements Contained in Study Information Letter and Consent Letter

Check Box	Element
✓	Heading: "University of Waterloo, Study Information Letter"
✓	Title of the project and purpose of the study
✓	Institutional affiliation and collaborated organization(s)
✓	Expected duration of research participation
✓	Use of information collected
✓	Security of confidentiality of information sources and personal identification
✓	Options to decline answering any questions the participants prefer not to answer and to withdraw from the study at any time without penalty
✓	A statement inquires the acknowledgement of understanding of the study and agreement to participate in the study
✓	Inquiry of interest in receiving the study report

3.7 A Review of Methodology: Limitations and Challenges

Use of a combination of methodological approaches allowed greater flexibilities in terms of time, resources and, most beneficially, the evolving of research ideas to maturity in the research process. This approach is termed by Veal (1992:131) as a recursive approach that is characterized by "a more fluid relationship between the various elements of the research". Similarly, the various data collection techniques have not only been complementary to one another, but also very effective in filling the gaps found in the data collected.

The major methodological weakness, however, arises from the employment of questionnaire-based surveys. Sampling was an issue as representativeness is a major criterion in determining the validity, reliability and usefulness of the research results. The research was constrained by rather small samples studied in a relatively limited geographic area. Limited sample size inevitably hampers the development of relationships between the dependent and independent variables; for example, the employment inclination (dependent)

and ethnicity variables (independent) in the surveys of Malaysian students, as ethnicity is hypothesized as being influential in the students' choice of the type of tourism jobs.

The nature of the tourism workers' occupations also limited the sampling choice. For example, with the workers in the informal wage sector, only a small portion of the respondents were willing to give their views on their job status, creating problems of representation and coherence. It was impossible to gather a representative sample among the vendors because of the nature of their jobs and their reluctance to be interviewed.

Qualitative techniques, which involved fewer participants at the elite level for in-depth interviews, were more manageable and controllable and yielded rich information. For example, in Malaysia, the interviews with elite informants permitted greater depth of exploration of up-to-date information and, combined with the follow-up discussions, valuable and quality data were easily obtained. Foreignness to local language was a major weakness that hampered the data collection process. In Malaysia where Bahasa Malaysia (Malay language) is not only the principal lingua franca but also the national language, local research assistants were required to assist with the interviews. However, these research assistants contaminated some of the initial data, sometimes by their personal biases and misinterpretation and, sometimes with their over enthusiasm to satisfy the purpose of empirical testing. This was later prevented by recording the key interview conversations for a second interpretation to verify the information gathered.

In China, unlike the case with the Malaysian studies, securing interviews/meetings was difficult. Even when the arrangements were made, efforts to locate information on Chinese tourism were often, as has been experienced by other researchers, rewarded with the ubiquitous answer: "not available" (see Richter 1983, Oakes 1997). It was difficult to cope with the rigid formalities of the very bureaucratic Chinese system, particularly for a researcher of Chinese ethnic origin from Taiwan. Interview opportunities were made possible through

contacts and recommendations of a local elite. The Chinese officials, academics and even the industry leaders were generally suspicious of the goals and objectives of the research which affected their willingness to cooperate. Those who cooperated tended to give the standard responses that the “system” expects from them. As a result, certain types of statements that are deeply implanted in their minds were cited repeatedly in the interviews.

Methodologically, this study has been safeguarded with a carefully planned research approach. The main challenge encountered during the field studies conducted in two politically and culturally diverse countries was, in fact, the mastery of communication competence, in terms of linguistic understandings and marketing skills. The former could help improve the accuracy of the data and enhance the accuracy of interpretation. The latter could facilitate accessibility to elite informants who, by definition, are highly inaccessible and extremely busy. Unfortunately, while there is substantial amount of literature devoted to the refinement of research methodologies, very few, if any, offer useful advice on how to approach and successfully motivate interviewees.

In summary, it is recognized that the results obtained through non-probability sampling cannot fully claim the level of representativeness and precision to reflect the general trends of the overall population. The major weakness of the study is sampling, since purposively selected samples do not support the representativeness of the results. It is admitted that, a little more sophistication with the sample selection and statistical techniques would have greatly elaborated the value and rigour of the analysis. At the same time, a data set that caters to depth rather than breadth would have enabled the study to explore more fully many of the correlations (e.g. ethnicity versus choice of tourism employment) and mutual connections (policy trends versus the role of tourism human capital) that the gathered information revealed. In some cases, the researcher’s foreignness to local languages and unfamiliarity with local bureaucratic systems, to some extent, hampered a thorough

appreciation of the local characteristics and historical background. However, in the process of analyzing empirical data, literature reviews were once again conducted to explore further the issues identified in the field studies and to assist in the validation of research findings.

Chapter 4

Planning Tourism Personnel in a Centrally-dominant System: The Government's Role and Implications from Hainan, PR China

4.1 Introduction

As a result of the introduction of market-oriented reforms by the Deng Xiaoping Administration in 1978, the social and economic changes in PR China have since been phenomenal. Tourism in China, which has gradually developed to a massive scale, was a direct product of this economic reform era (Chow 1988). In the last two decades, tourism has been widely adopted as a major economic strategy to facilitate a move from the Soviet-style heavy industry driven economy to a complex amalgam of a services based economy. Tourism posted economic gains with steadily increasing job numbers but, at the same time, compelled the acceptance of the encroachment of “tourism culture” by the Chinese community. Today, tourism growth in China continues to be robust. However, in China's collectivist framework operating under the state's hegemony, the Chinese's participation in tourism has been sluggish. Furthermore, failure of the tourism cadres to respond effectively to employment structural shifts induced by tourism and to transform proactively the Chinese to adapt to tourism jobs, has hampered the continued expansion of the tourism industry in China.

This Chapter discusses China's tourism policy and strategies and their implications for the

development of an education and training infrastructure for tourism. An historical background of tourism development in the last 5 decades, along with China's approach to planning the tourism workforce, are reviewed. The emergence of the tourism industry and its associated employment effects during the transition from a centrally-planned to a market-oriented economy, are also examined. The results of a case study conducted in Hainan Province (Figure 4-1) are also included to examine the nature of the locals' participation in tourism employment, education and training needs, and to consider whether such needs have been properly addressed and adequately responded to by the public, industrial and education sectors.

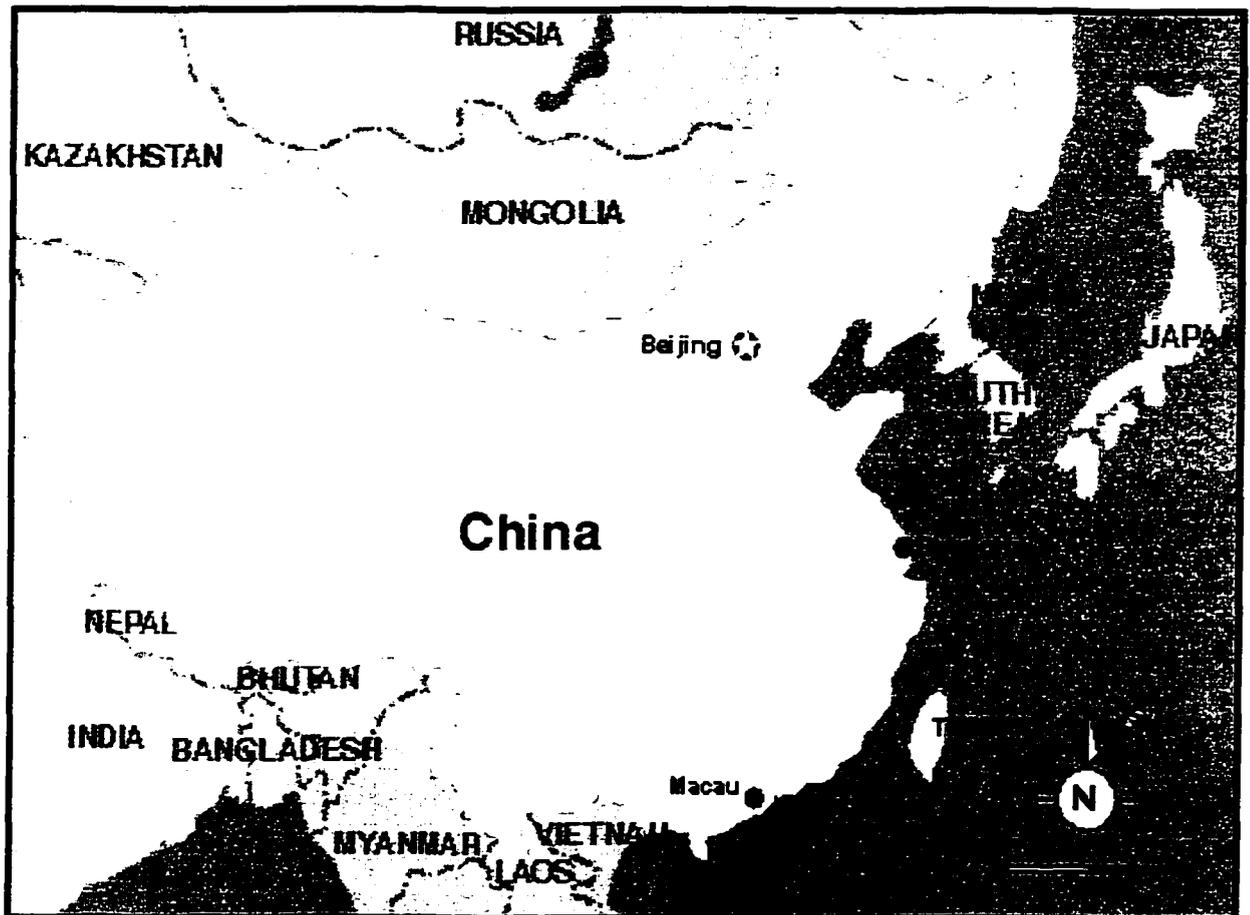


Figure 4-1: Map of China

4.2 Tourism in PR China

China, with its large geographic coverage, long civilization, history and diverse ethnic cultures, possesses distinct tourism resources, characterized by attraction variety, abundance, ancientness and uniqueness. These rich endowments have not been fully realized due to a series of political upsets in contemporary Chinese history and subsequent national security concerns, all of which have deliberately made China a late entrant in the world tourism market - - a "sleeping tourism giant", as described by Hall (1994). Tourism, with the promise of foreign currency yields, was cosseted by the economic reform policy known as "the open door policy" promulgated by the Deng Administration in 1978.

In recent years, the Chinese authority, similar to many countries that are keen on tourism, has also swiftly adopted measures to help keep pace with the growing demands of tourism. These have included strengthening of the material foundations - - more hotels, increased accessibility and the "creation" of attractions. The strong mobilization power of the state has made Chinese tourism remarkable. There have been very few incidences of civilian resistance to clog the accelerated pace of tourism development, even under the circumstances of competing needs for resources. From 1978 onward, annual arrivals and tourism receipts have consistently sustained impressive growth varying between annual rates of 7.4 percent to 70.9 percent with the exception of 1989 when a decrease of about 17 percent occurred as a result of the Tiananmen Square event that happened on June 4 (Hall 1994, Jenkins and Liu 1997).

The statistics released by China National Tourism Administration (CNTA) show that, between 1995 and 1999, arrivals to China have sustained an annual two-digit growth; the number of tourists soared from 4.6 million in 1995 to 7.3 million in 1999. According to the World Tourism Organization (WTO), the Asian and the Pacific regions are projected to be the fastest growing areas in tourism activities up to the year 2005. In particular, China is expected to become the most popular tourist destination in the world with increasing visitation growth

at an annual rate of 8 percent, ahead of the US, France and Spain, by year 2020 with estimated tourism receipts of 3,300 billion RMB (399.5 billion USD). An estimate by WTO indicates that, in 1998, 635 million people traveled to a foreign country with total tourism receipts of USD 439 billion. China received 7.1 million foreign tourists which generated USD12.6 billion in tourism receipts (CNTA statistics). This means China attracted 1.1 percent of the world's cross-border visitation and 2.9 percent of the world expenditures.

Yet beyond the impressive tourism growth, many complained about local defects in meeting tourists' expectations (e.g. Choy and Gee 1983, Hall 1994, Oudiette 1990). Domestic concerns and resistance have also emerged related to the fears of subordinating Chinese authenticity to foreign demands and tastes. Other issues have also risen as a result of the lack of experience and skills in dealing with tourism development e.g. underestimation of increasing leisure needs from the domestic population, dominance of the state authorities in planning tourism without mobilizing local involvement, loss of control and proprietorship of tourism facilities as well as failure to carry out necessary measures to improve services and create a trained workforce.

Zhang (1987) attributes such chaos and China's inability to fully capitalize on tourism development to the absence of an adequate response from the education systems. Human capital needs of the industry have been traditionally constrained by a bureaucratic aberration that has a first and foremost concern in strengthening tourism personnel's socialist values and uncontaminated ideology. This has resulted in an unfavourable situation in which China appeals to massive foreign capital and expertise for prospecting tourism and the competition for tourist expenditures among the state, prefectural authorities, collective sector, and corporate business, while small-scale enterprise and individuals are often deterred from direct involvement in tourism. These issues are examined within the context of the conceptual framework of Figure 3-1.

4.3 Tourism Policy in Transition

In the early 19th century, tourism slowly developed using the facilities that were established during the colonial era to cater to commercial trades, religious purposes, diplomatic exchanges, large export of Chinese labour and some scholarly activities. As a response to the increasing travel trades, the first travel agent was set up in 1923 by the Shanghai Commercial Bank, when China remained under the republican sovereignty founded by Dr Sun Yat-sen's Administration (known as Republic of China or ROC). In 1954, organized tourist services came into existence followed by the establishment of the China International Travel Services (CITS) under the governance of the communist government, People's Republic of China (PRC) (Choy and Gee 1983).

Tourism became a national issue when the China Travel Affairs and Administration was established in 1964 with two principles: "expanding external political influence" and "absorbing free foreign exchange" (He 1999). However, tourism prior to 1976 was not considered as an industry nor as an economic activity, "because of its scale, purpose and method of operations" (Gao and Zhang 1983:76). At the same time, tourism policy was largely negative in nature, controlling rather than stimulating tourism, prior to the "open door" policy; the fewer foreigners, the better state of control (Richer 1983).

Under the dominance of Maoist radicalism, China's political-economy system, which utilized the aid and experience of the Soviet Union, linked regional development strategies with perceived national security needs. As a result of the emulation of the Soviet development model, heavy industrialization was intensified across the country to produce a self-sustained economy. China's development theories, as Oakes (1998:107-109) points out, were "the political legacy of the revolution and the continuing perception of a hostile world beyond China" and, thereby, the subsequent regional development strategies were "dictated by what was perceived as the efficient realization of rapid industrialization and national defense

requirements". This made tourism a non-issue in China's early economic development policy.

As well, contacts with the outside world were cut off, because the communist government denied westerners entry and vice versa. Tourism was then initiated at a miniature scale as a part of the diplomatic strategy which was confined to "friendly civilian interactions" with its socialist allies. Only a limited number of "friendly" visitors, notably from other socialist states and overseas Chinese, were permitted entry by the public tourism bodies and their activities were restricted to designated circuits. Visitors, as a coherent group, were shepherd by the personnel of CITS during their stay to assure that "tourists would not have contact with Chinese who might offer contradictory interpretations of political reality" (Richter 1983:397). Foreign visitors to China reached an historical peak of 12,877 in 1965, but dropped drastically to about 500 visitors in 1966 and was further reduced to 300 in 1967 due to the Great Cultural Revolution (CNTA statistics). The tourism agency at the national level - - GATT - - responsible for the development and management of travel services, was also inevitably downsized and staffed with only 12 employees.

China's anxiety in restoring the national economy led to a self-sufficient and boot-strap mode of industrial development (which is a shared characteristic of the development approach of socialist countries, see Hall 1990). This facilitated a foundation for the growth of tourism with its resource-based nature. Following the implementation of the "Four Modernizations" policy (which placed emphasis on strengthening national capacity in science, technology and national defense forces, while rejuvenating agriculture to feed the large proletarian population), tourism was resumed with an overwhelming objective of supplementing the balance of payments. Under Deng Xiaoping's economic liberalism, the potential of tourism to stimulate economic growth was substantial from the Chinese authority's viewpoint. Tourism has since entered into Chinese leaders' discourses about economic progression and is omnipresent in official documentation.

As Deng had reiterated in his conversations with local industrial leaders and Chinese officials in 1978 and 1979: "tourism business is of significant prospects, requiring unique planning and accelerated development. Tourism earns more money and faster and, consequently, there is no outstanding foreign debts that can not be settled" (<http://www/cnta.com/zilizo/den/d-3.asp>). This was based on Deng's calculation that if one tourist spends 1,000 US dollars per trip to China, 5 million foreign tourists can bring 5 billion US dollars into China, annually. Hence, in an urgent need of earning foreign exchange, China's attitude towards the outside world shifted drastically as China's capacity to earn foreign currency greatly depends upon the degree of openness to the outside world (Hall 1994, Tisdell and Wen 1991).

The State and the Communist Party of China (CPC) had made an unprecedented move - - more emphasis was given to economic reconstruction issues rather than to political ideology in the Plenary Session of the 11th Congress of the CPC (Zhang 1985). Subsequently, in the National Tourism Conference of China held in September 1979, the role of tourism was also redefined from being a "political reception activity" to an "economic management activity".

Under the 6th five-year national economic plan (1981-1985), the overall objectives of tourism were set to receive 1.3 to 1.6 million foreign visitors and 6 million Chinese compatriots (i.e. residents of Hong Kong, Macao and Taiwan), with a targeted revenue of USD 1.2 to 1.3 billion. At the same time, China allocated a 5 billion RMB (USD 605.3 million) annual budget for 5 consecutive years (1984 -1988) to the improvement of tourism infrastructure and the perfection of facilities. In 1986, tourism, for the first time, was incorporated into the national social and economic development plan. The state's attempt to use tourism as a development tool was explicitly expressed in Chapter 37 of China's 7th five-year plan (1986-1990), which further substantiated the role of tourism as an industrial sector. In the 8th five-year plan (1991-1995), while more prominence was directed to the development

of the tertiary industrial sector, efforts were made to position tourism as a priority industry.

Tourism continues to play an increasingly important role in today's Chinese economy. In a central conference on economic tasks that took place in December 1998, tourism, together with the real estate and information technology industries, was defined as one of the "prominent growth points" of the national economy as appeared in the 9th five-year national economic plan (1996-2000). In the modernization process across the country, tourism was portrayed as a "pillar industry", a "priority industry", or a "pioneer industry" by 24 local governments of provinces, autonomous areas and municipalities. As well, there is wide recognition both at home and from abroad, generalizing tourism as "a language and canvas for finishing China's incomplete modernity" (Oakes 1998: 128, Choy and Gee 1983, Hall 1994, Richter 1983, Uysal *et al.* 1986, Zhang 1985).

Tourism has grown substantially since the 1970s as it received strong endorsement from the central government. Not only has the state allocated substantial funds in forging tourism, foreign capitalists have also shown keen interest. Between 1979 and 1988, approximately one-third of the total direct foreign investment into China was for hotel projects (Hall 1994). Under the tourism investment plans between 1985 and 1990, 85 percent of the funds were also allocated for hotel projects (Hall 1994). As a result, accommodation capacities increased from 137 hotels (15,539 rooms) in 1978 to 5,201 hotels (701,700 rooms) in 1997.

In 1999, inbound visitors reached 72.8 million which was a 40 times increase as compared with only 1.8 million in 1978. Visitors from Hong Kong and Macao (61.7 million) and Taiwan (2.6 million) have always been the majority of the arrivals to China, about 88.3 percent in 1999, while foreign visitors were about 8.4 million. In 1998, international tourism receipts accounted for 12.6 billion US dollars which was 7th largest worldwide (47.92 times more compared to 1978) (CNTA statistics). The domestic tourism market has also become prosperous as Chinese social stability increasingly improves. Over 694 million domestic trips

took place in 1998, which generated expenditures of approximately 239 billion RMB (USD 29 billion) (CNTA statistics). By 2000, tourism receipts generated by both international and domestic travellers comprised 8 percent of China's GDP (He 1999). These are achievement of only the last 2 decades. Correspondingly, tourism has promoted employment growth from an estimated 17,000 jobs in 1985 to 5.14 million in 1999 (CNTA statistics).

China has attempted a self-styled or a genuine Chinese tourism, which has progressed with the active involvement of the government through "government-led" types of development decisions. He Kuangwei, Director of CNTA, claims that, over the course of the last 5 decades, a set of effective mechanisms has been explored by China that has proven to be adequate for the Chinese culture and inherent socialist disciplines for economic development (He 1999). Conversely, the present dilemma confronting the Chinese policy makers is to determine an appropriate level of foreign investment (Hall 1994) and, at the same time, to help state- and collective-owned hotels fight for a greater gain of the market share¹ (Table 4-1).

China's current tourism phenomena also suggest that, over the expansionary period of the 1980's and 1990's, a more balanced investment in tourism supporting infrastructure and personnel training was more desirable rather than exclusively concentrating on the increase of accommodation capacity, particularly luxury establishments. As Schrock *et al.* (1989) reported: "even after ten years of being open to international tourists, such basics as confirmed reservation, property maintenance, quality control, sanitation, and staff training are large hurdles to overcome" (cited in Hall 1994:127). Another problem arises from the domestic incapability to cater to the material needs of the industry and over-reliance on foreign capital

¹ Corporate governance is a complex issue in China. As is the case with hotel ownership structure, it has absurdly complicated categories (e.g. investment from Hong Kong, Macao and Taiwan has a distinct category). This has implications for management incentives, decision making, employee welfare and rewards and competitiveness in acquiring clientele. In general, foreign-owned hotels outperform the local-operated counterparts, presumably because of management expertise, higher standards of services/facilities, better networks for accessing clientele and more effective human resources management. Hotels owned by the local, provincial or central governments in many cases serve as little more than employment centres.

in fostering the commercial accommodation sector. This has led to a leakage of up to 80 percent from the foreign exchange garnered from tourism at the initial stage of massive construction of international standard hotel premises (Richter 1983). It appears that the benefits of tourism which the Chinese authority had expected under its socialist doctrine, to be realized in its own best interests socially, culturally and economically, remain very much intangible.

Table 4-1: Management Effects of the Hotel Sector, 1997

	Hotels	Rooms (10,000 rooms)	Revenue (100 million yuan)	Profits (100 million yuan)	Occupancy rates
Total	5201	70.17	812.36	8.14	53.78
Economic types					
State-owned	3343	42.18	369.13	-5.89	52.43
Collective	726	5.98	44.92	-4.41	50.24
Private	97	0.63	6.63	-0.93	50.11
Joint-venture	78	0.91	10.75	-1.02	50.86
Share-holding	223	2.64	29.61	0.46	54.05
Foreign investment	464	8.39	211.53	12.78	58.12
Investment from Hong Kong, Macao and Taiwan	270	9.44	139.79	7.15	59.57
Scale types					
Over 500 rooms	96	14.15	193.53	31.88	60.38
300-499 rooms	267	9.93	148.92	-1.59	57.91
200-299 rooms	464	11.16	143.91	-5.48	54.67
100-199 rooms	1519	21.07	174.37	-12.38	51.62
Less than 99 rooms	2855	13.86	151.63	-4.29	49.90
Standard types					
5 star	57	4.94	18.03	62.92	61.04
4 star	157	5.40	134.11	3.64	56.86
3 star	895	15.73	207.17	-3.34	52.69
2 star	1339	14.37	93.16	-3.42	48.61
1 star	276	1.94	8.33	-0.32	50.38
None-star	2477	29.82	61.57	-6.45	n/a

Source: CNTA Statistics

4.4 China's Tourism Industry and Local Participation

China has a long history of practicing tourism for wide-ranging purposes. Diplomatic and trade interactions with tributary states were active during the past 4 thousand year imperial era. Sunzhang Monk's pilgrimage to Northern India dated back to the Tang Dynasty (AD 7). *Susheng* fellows (intellectuals/meticulous pedants) had to travel over a few thousand miles to the imperial capital for an annual examination that granted successful candidates official positions, not to mention the outward commercial and trade contacts developed by inhabitants of South China by the beginning of the Christian era.

A pragmatic nature inherent within Chinese culture was literally halted due to a deliberate claim of atheism and fears of intervention of western countries into its domestic affairs. This attitude made tourism an improbable issue in the early days of the establishment of PR China. Tourism was even further set back when the Great Leap Forward (1958-1960) and the Great Cultural Revolution (1965-1970) occurred, as the ideology of the Chinese political body went extremely leftist. The socialist regime held the doctrine that leisure needs, being perceived as a non-productive activity, are rotten to the society and, often, tourism was labeled as being an endeavour of the bourgeoisie that contradicts the communist ideology of forming a non-stratified society. People in such a society are "constrained in their mobility and methods of self-expression by the activities of security and other forces and mass mobilization of workforces is employed to undertake major projects and emergency works, often proclaimed as voluntary effort" (Hall 1990:37-38).

Movement of the Chinese people was controlled by the *hukou* system (a social control system that binds residents to their birthplaces, instituted by Mao Zedong in 1958 (Ewing 2002)). Their movement was also under close scrutiny of their *danweis* (organization units) and was limited within their residential places and production points. Travel permits were required prior to the commencement of a travel itinerary within the Chinese territory. Even

after the Gang of Four became history, the remnants of the Cultural Revolution still fostered anti-foreign sentiments and caution in dealing with foreign visitors continued to be the norm throughout Chinese society (Lew 2000:269). Accessibility to the outside world has been administratively constrained both by domestic control and receiving countries' vigilance against illegal migrants, even though recent policy relaxations have induced substantial outbound growth. In 1998, China generated 8.4 million outbound trips from a population of 1.27 billion, which only gives an insignificant travel intensity ratio of 0.0066. Lack of exposure to the outside world by the Chinese has been a major hindrance preventing China from attaining a reputation as a genial/hospitable destination (Choy and Gee 1983, Oudiette 1990). The western tourists' discourse generally blamed China's austerities and Chinese people's foreignness to an unfamiliarity with their expectations.

The relative isolation, physically and spiritually, as well as the oppression and servitude that the Chinese people have gone through, have all resulted in only a vague sense of what the services sector is. Service spirits and skills were devalued under a political economic environment in which heavy industrialization was seen as the only vital way to achieve a consolidated socialist state. A "big rice pot" system was intended to strengthen collectivism in that every worker received the same wages regardless of the level of job sophistication or the share of work. This diminished workers' enthusiasm and commitments to their responsibilities. As observed by Choy and Gee (1983), the perceived servile nature of service positions in tourism and the fact that individuals were assigned by the state to employment in tourism contributed to low motivation and morale among tourism service personnel in China.

China has gradually opened to tourism without jeopardizing its political, economic and social agendas. For example, in 1982, an additional travel permit was required along with a visa to visit an individual city. In 1983, 30 cities were opened to the foreign visitors. Free accesses were then increased to 107 cities in 1985 and to 244 cities in 1986 (Choy *et al.* 1986,

Richter 1983, Zhang 1985). Full freedom of movement within China was then virtually possible. In 1981, three years after openness was initiated, Richter (1983:395) found several anomalies pertaining to tourism: “more market oriented cost structure than in most non-socialist developing nations; a hierarchy of tourist classes in a supposedly classless society; liberalization in tourism itineraries along with a freezing of contacts between tourist and Chinese”. At the same time, Chinese people experienced stunningly the social, cultural as well as economic disparity from the encounters with tourists. Arguments, mostly from domestic commentators, were made expressing intolerance of mimics of “western ways” by youngsters, greatly reminiscent of the central-planned economy orders. Too often tourism was conveniently condemned for the emergence of non-socialist behaviours and, as put by Zhang (1995:15), as a “scapegoat” for prevailing social problems in China.

Gao and Zhang (1983) claim that tourism is at fault for exerting “unhealthy” and “uncivilized” influences on the Chinese people: “Some weak-willed Chinese, youngsters in particular, could not withstand such influences and blindly pursue the way of life of the foreigners. Also smuggling, contraband trafficking, divulging state secrets and other offences occurred. These have violated the decency and image of socialist China and should not be tolerated” (Gao and Zhang 1983:78). Similarly, Zhang (1989, 1995) condemns covetous behaviours such as over-charges, bribes, prostitution and illegal trades of foreign currencies which were nowhere to be seen during the Cultural Revolution, that have become pervasive in many tourist areas. Resentments from the Chinese could also be discerned owing to apparent ideological rifts or real disparities between the hosts and guests.

Nevertheless, tourism has been a driving force that mitigates the daunting pressure brought by increasing capitalization (or commercialization) in the Chinese economy. China's economic growth in the last two decades was phenomenal. GDP reached 8,940 billion RMB (USD 1,082 billion) in 2000, ranking 7th in the world. That is a six-fold growth when

compared with the GDP in 1980. Ambitious movements toward modernization and dependency on mobile investment (largely foreign capital), however, have inevitably led to an uneven development across the regions. Regional development and resources allocation have appeared to be asymmetric in that, aside from the major cities and special economic zones (SEZs), the remainder of the country is characterized as areas of low productivity with high rates of illiteracy and high unemployment, resulting in an uneven distribution of employment opportunities. In the five years from 2001 onwards, an anticipated 40 million jobs in urban areas are expected to help absorb the equivalent amount of labour moving from rural areas or the agricultural sector (China Times 2001). At the same time, urban unemployment is projected to reach 12 million, whereas the surplus labour force in rural areas is to be over 100 million people (*ibid*).

There is a growing size of urban-ward migration which is termed by Chinese as *liudong renkou* (flowing population), moving from their peasant jobs to seek more lucrative employment opportunities, of which tourism destinations have become one of the magnetic poles of employment to the migrants (Xu 1999, Figure 4-2). It is in this context, though somewhat misinterpreted, that tourism was considered by the central government as an industry that “requires less investment, yet has quicker results, better efficiency, larger employment potential and a greater prospect for improving people’s livelihood than many other tertiary service sectors” (Zhang 1995:9)². According to an estimate by Liu (1998), in 1988 the labour productivity of tourism in China surpassed by 6 percent that of the average of all industrial sectors. By the end of 1999, an estimate by CNTA indicates that there were 5.14 million people employed in the tourism sector with secondary employment effects of 25 million jobs generated in other industrial sectors that support the tourism industry.

² This was documented in “Decision of the Central Committee of the Communist Party of China and the State Council on Speeding Up the Development of Tertiary Industries” released on June 16, 1993.

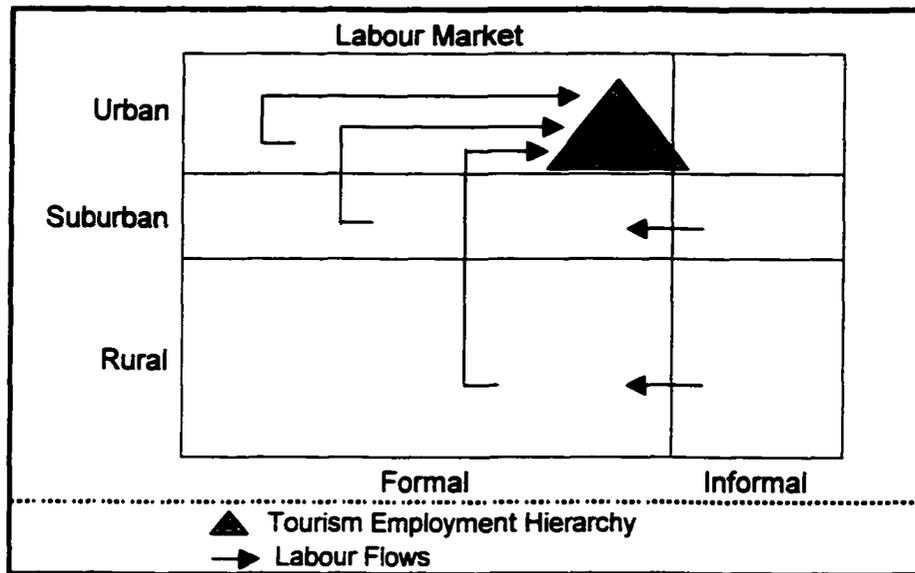


Figure 4-2: Tourism Employment and Labour Mobility

Source: Xu (1999:204)

4.5 Workforce Development Strategies for Tourism

The preceding discussion indicates some of the factors that have led to a “passive” involvement of Chinese in tourism. China undoubtedly has an ample labour supply (an estimated 700 million work population), albeit with a labour surplus of primitive skills and low productivity. Tourism’s workforce requirements at the initial stage of PR China’s establishment were minimal, given the relatively small scale of tourism activity and the fact that distribution of labour was directed by the state and particularly with the state’s ability to mobilize labour at the drop of a hat.

Tourism training and education were non-existent prior to 1978 (Zhang 1987). It was then germinated with the establishment of Jiangsu Technical School of Tourism (Xiao and Liu 1995). As tourism quickly expanded, pressing needs for an adequate workforce to cater to ever-increasing visitation were not properly met: “investment has been made in infrastructure, e.g. hotels, tourist attractions and purchase of vehicles and airplanes, while education and training for tourism has (*sic*) been neglected” (Zhang 1987: 264). Not surprisingly, many

writers have been critical of China's capacity in satisfying travelers' needs and requirements, with most referring to the very low standard of services (see Uysal *et al.* 1986, Choy and Gee 1983, Oudiette 1990, Hall 1994). This problem has arisen from tourism workers' lack of knowledge and means to understand and meet what visitors need.

As a means of alleviating this problem, the government instituted crash programs (mainly foreign languages programs) to help tourism service personnel to eliminate communication barriers. At the same time, some costly training opportunities abroad were also provided: e.g. "cooks are being trained in Hong Kong; travel experts are studying at Cornell University" (Richter 1983:406). This was followed by a series of tourism education and training initiatives maneuvered jointly by the State Education Commission and the Department of Personnel, Labour and Education of CNTA, through syllabus and guidelines design, quality monitoring, teaching material editorials, and resources allocation.

Initially tourism education courses/programs at tertiary level outpaced those of secondary and vocational categories. By 1986, according to Zhang (1987:263), there were 4 tourism institutes and 10 universities/colleges offering courses related to tourism, together with 4 tourism secondary schools, producing a total of 3,896 graduates (2,426 at tertiary level and 1,470 at secondary level) since the introduction of tourism education. By 1987, tourism workers who had undertaken training courses instituted by the state accumulated to 27,700 (CNTA statistics).

Progress, however, suffered from lack of familiarity with tourism by teaching staff, lack of teaching materials and information sources, and poor hardware for technical practices. Statistics released by CNTA (2001) indicate that tourism studies have grown in proliferation. Until the end of 1999, there were 1,187 institutes (209 tertiary level institutes and 978 secondary schools) involved in tourism education with total enrollments of 276,429 (54,041 enrolled at tertiary level and 222,388 at secondary level). Of the 209 universities/colleges

involved in tourism education, 92 (44 percent) had a tourism program. These tourism programs/courses were concentrated in large metropolitan areas or most visited Chinese cities, such as Shanghai, Beijing and Guangdong. Licensing systems for tour guides, tour operators and managers of star-rated hotels were also stipulated to regulate the Chinese tourism market.

Reflecting on the nature of tourism policy and the development approach adopted, China's tourism education and training have been dogmatic in nature. The governing principle set for developing its workforce has been to perpetuate state socialism, which did not fully articulate with the local labour trend nor the industry's requirements. The emphasis on political doctrines was combined with precaution to help diminish perceived spiritual defilement or contagion of bad practices induced by tourism. As of 1999, the four training areas designated by the CNTA as fundamental were: (1) political thoughts, (2) professional ethics, (3) tourism policies and administration and (4) up-to-date operational skills and knowledge, of which the former two were regarded as the cores. Hence, training for the tourism sector corresponded with considerable efforts in indoctrinating participants with the following tourism tenet:

.... tourism serves as a showpiece for China's sociocultural and political traditions and heritage, and is helping to extend and expand China's relationship with foreign countries, as well as contributing to the "four modernizations" (Gao and Zhang 1983:78).

It is in this context that the Chinese officialdom attempts to have graduates or trained staff adhere to an avowed aim of "showcasing the brightness of the country". Regime attitudes toward tourism persistently exhibit tenacious suspicion. The response from the tourism administrative body of China to Tiananmen Square turmoil exposes how much prominence has been given to the impartation of "correct" political thoughts in training tourism personnel. According to Parker (1992), "China's estimated 620,000 tourism workers underwent

compulsory political indoctrination that aimed to cleanse their socialist minds, deepen their love of Communist Party and, alarmingly, to cultivate their suspicions of foreigners presumed by paranoid leaders to be bent on sundering communists" (cited in Hall 1994:123).

Progress to date has been merely that tourism semantics are interpreted with intimate association with economic phenomenon, rather than in political or diplomatic tones. Thus, complementing the propaganda requirements, tourism education and training objectives have gradually been transformed to be situated within the needs of the travel trades (Zhang 1987). Tourism education and training initiatives encompass pre-employment and skill-upgrading and are hospitality-driven in nature (Table 4-2), primarily catering to the staffing needs of the hotels, tour operators and travel agencies, cruise operators and tourism administrative bodies.

Table 4-2: Provision and Coverage of Tourism Programs in China

Tertiary Level Institutes (3- or 4-year programs)	Secondary Level Schools (2-year program)
Political Economics	Hotel Housekeeping
Western Economics	Food and Beverage Management
Management Theory & Practice	Front Desk Operations
Accounting	Hospitality Accounting
Quantitative Methods	Introduction to Hospitality Management
Computer Applications	Introduction to the Travel Industry
Travel Psychology	
Introduction to the Travel Industry	
Travel Laws and Regulations	
Introduction to Hotel Management	
Property Management	
Food and Beverage Management	
Guest Services Management	
Human Resources Management	
Hotel Engineering and Maintenance	
Hotel Safety and Security	
Hospitality Marketing	

Source: CNTA, 1991, adapted from Xiao and Liu (1995:111)

Availability of training opportunities has also been broadened through collaboration with foreign institutes, personnel exchange programs with other affiliated hotel ventures and more tourism personnel/educators are dispatched abroad for advanced tourism studies. Intellectual exchanges are forged through frequent visits of foreign experts commissioned both by local and foreign resources. In-house training for senior staff of tourism administration at provincial, autonomous region and municipal levels, is also in place to improve "the professional quality".

However, entrepreneurship is not a concept readily acceptable to the centrally dominant organizational model. A concerted recognition of small business, by both the government and educational circles, remains a barren area and, in fact, the state manifests apathy towards small operators. Involvement of *gateihu* (mainland Chinese's term for the self-employed, meaning literally "individuals who are working on their own account") is seen as trivializing the tourism economy. Chinese officials freely admit that they do not regard the *gateihu* as having a role to play in tourism in any capacity. Negatively perceived, the petty traders deflect the orders and image of the country. Actions are taken to eliminate their spread in the designated tourist areas.

Wei (1999:24), in an overview of tourism development in China in the last two decades, states: "what is most gratifying about the tourism growth in China is what one sees as the emergence of the first group of professionals" who are marked by the CNTA as being dedicated (love what they do), professional (know what they are doing, know how to do their jobs and observe work ethics) and open-minded (ready to learn). However, Oudiette's (1990:128) observation, which was quite otherwise, still legitimately describes the current weaknesses that exist among the tourism personnel: great training efforts are required to facilitate "a real change of mentality" to make Chinese tourism workers aware of the knowledge and essence of services.

Of course, this is said much from a touristic vision that demands that international service standards and quality expectations are to be met. It, notwithstanding, suggests that greater adaptabilities are required to devise practical mechanisms for tourism's human resources development, rather than imparting infallible dogma and thereby using tourism workers as publicity tools to project a deliberately built image. While the tourism authority's focus on planning tourism human capital has somewhat switched to a system of catering to structurally diverse demands by the industry, the lack of practicality remains the dominant explanation for China's failure to manipulate tourism as an effective unemployment saviour. Examples are elicited from a case study of Hainan Province of China to exemplify the labour deficiencies and employment demands confronted by a rapidly growing destination and measures taken to address such issues.

4.6 The Hainan Context

Hainan is an island province of China which is geographically peripheral, economically disadvantaged and historically and politically inferior (a place of exile in the imperial era) in comparison to the mainland regions (Figure 4-3). The prospects for tourism development in Hainan were first raised officially in 1983 and were centrally directed by the Chinese State Council, aiming to use tourism as a tool to achieve higher levels of development. In 1986, Hainan was designated as one of the seven major tourist areas in China.

In 1989 Hainan was upgraded to provincial level and its status as a special economic zone, established in 1988, renders Hainan prerogatives in facilitating connections with the outside world. It was intended that considerable industrial development would occur, but this strategy has met with only mixed success. Population growth, fuelled by immigration from the mainland, coupled with slow economic growth has resulted in a shortage of employment opportunities. Nevertheless, a substantial tourism industry has been established based on both

natural and cultural resources (Figure 4-4), albeit with low occupancy rates in hotels and questionable profitability in commercial accommodation (Figure 4-5). Entry formalities have also been eased in that landing visas were made available at the entry points to spur the growth of visitor arrivals, and the requirement was eliminated entirely in 2001 for visitors from some countries.

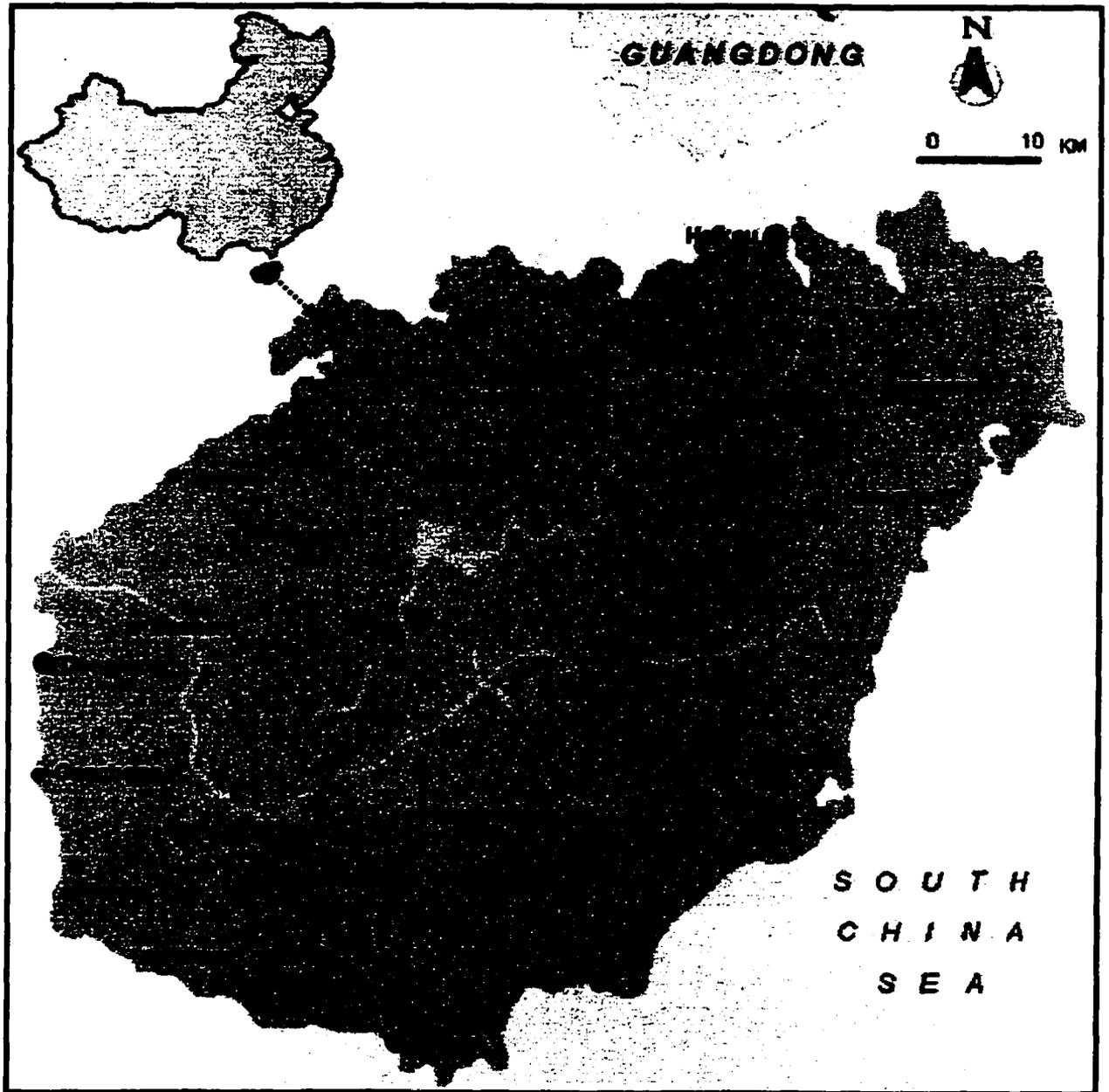


Figure 4-3: Map of Hainan

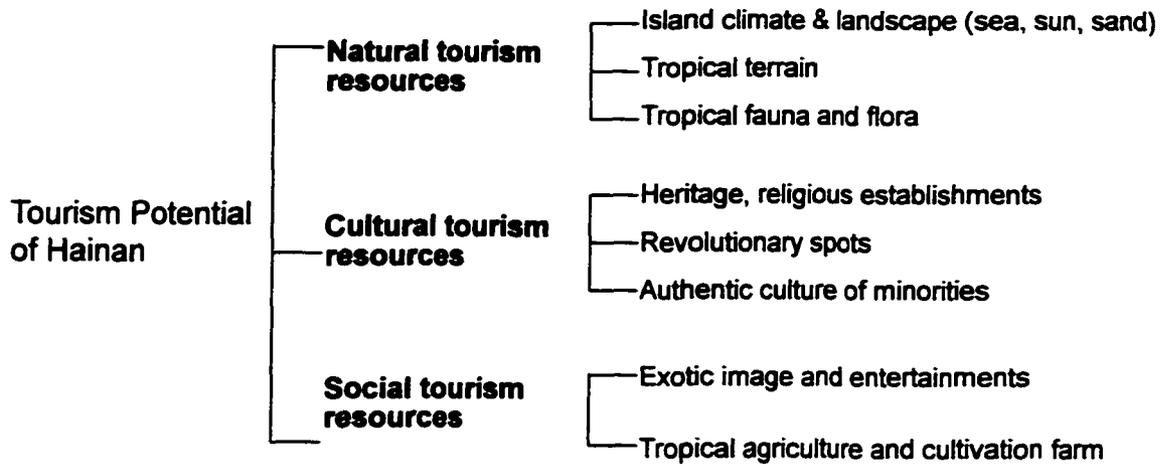


Figure 4-4: Tourism Potential of Hainan
Source: after Wang (1997)

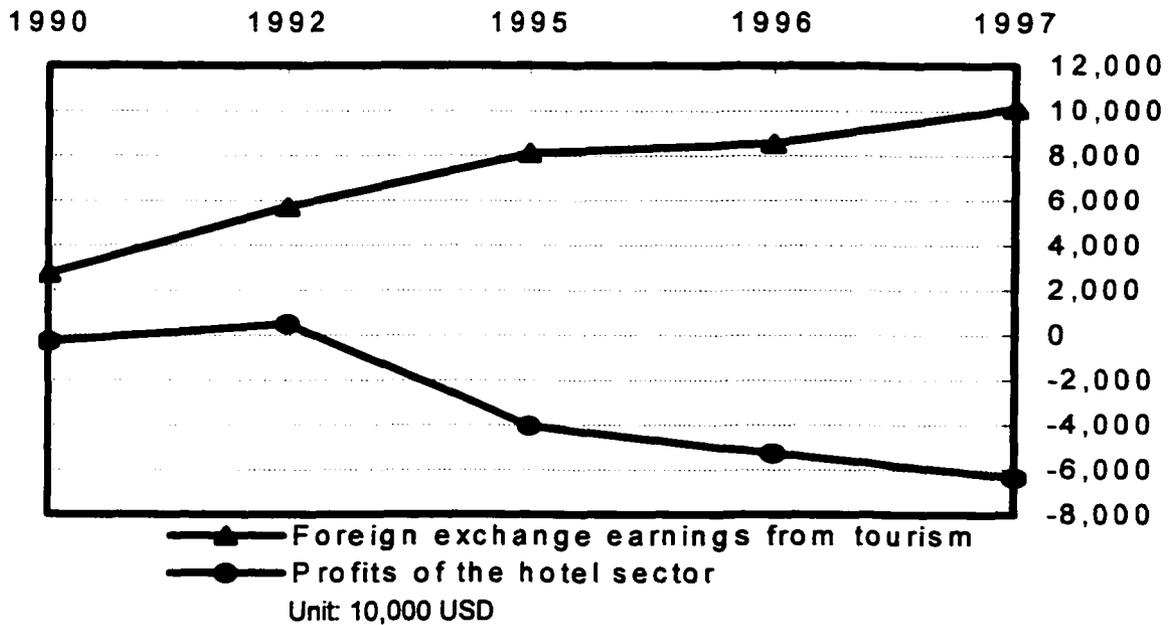


Figure 4-5: Profitability of the Hotel Sector
Source: Data compiled from 1998 Statistical Year Book of Hainan (1998)

Tourism development in the 1980's and early 90's was undertaken without appropriate guidance. It was not until October 1993 that "An Outline of the Planning of Hainan Provincial Tourist Development" was promulgated by the Tourism Administration Bureau of Hainan

Province as a measure for approving and implementing development programs to guide tourism investment and management, and to serve as a guide for decision making. Since then, tourism has expanded rapidly and caters primarily to visitors from mainland China (86.4 percent in 1997, Table 4-3).

The influx of foreign investment in the mid-1990s further enhanced the quality and variety of the tourism offerings. Taking the hotel sector as an example, the number of hotels increased from 31 in 1987 to 251 in 1997 with more options (2 five-star hotels, 5 four-star hotels and 17 three-star hotels) available to up-market demands (Table 4-4). As well, the emergence of Hainan Airlines as the fourth largest and most profitable carrier in China is another indicator of tourism's economic significance to Hainan island (Dolven 2002).

Table 4-3: Tourist Arrivals (total heads received by hotels)

Type of Arrival	1987	1990	1992	1995	1996	1997
TOTAL	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	7,916,885
Number of tourists received by designated hotels	750,810	1,134,654	2,473,739	3,610,178	4,858,097	5,458,885
<i>International tourists</i>	<i>173,124</i>	<i>188,749</i>	<i>269,896</i>	<i>327,764</i>	<i>339,030</i>	<i>412,803</i>
Foreigners	24,751	24,581	39,282	64,521	70,343	100,206
Overseas Chinese	6,102	4,070	8,135	8,369	7,792	5,946
Hong Kong & Macao Visitors	142,271	143,976	176,786	140,401	110,353	166,127
Taiwanese Visitors	NA	16,112	45,693	114,473	150,542	140,524
<i>Domestic tourists</i>	<i>277,686</i>	<i>945,905</i>	<i>2,203,843</i>	<i>3,284,414</i>	<i>4,519,067</i>	<i>5,046,082</i>
Number of tourists received by non-designated hotels	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	2,458,000

Source: 1998 Statistical Yearbook of Hainan (1998)

Table 4-4: Growth of the Hotel Sector

	1987	1990	1992	1995	1996	1997
Number of hotels	31	58	80	195	220	251
Number of rooms	2,804	5,889	8,216	19,232	20,117	21,674
Number of beds	6,375	12,678	17,369	37,733	38,796	41,819

Source: 1998 Statistical Yearbook of Hainan (1998)

Other indications of the growth of tourism in Hainan and its contribution to regional development are provided by the following: with the GDP of RMB 40,986 million (USD 4,962 million) in 1997, tourism receipts accounted for 15 percent (RMB 6,167 million or USD 7.5 million) of the total GDP (Table 4-5). In addition, expenditures by tourists also give rise to the generation of employment. According to Hainan Provincial Tourism Administration (HPTA), direct employment in the tourism sector doubled from 20,000 jobs in 1992 to 40,000 jobs in 1997. Adding the multiplier effects of tourism employment, HPTA estimated that tourism contributed to the creation of 160,000 jobs in 1997 (Figure 4-6). The high share of tourism in total employment resulted in a significant change in the overall labour force structure - - 8.8 percent growth in the tertiary sector and 12.7 percent decrease in the primary sector over the last decade (Figure 4-7). Although agriculture is still the dominant sector, tourism has gradually diversified Hainan's economic base through growth in services (Figure 4-8).

Table 4-5: Tourism Receipts 1987-1997

	1987	1990	1992	1995	1996	1997
Domestic revenue (100 million RMB)	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	53.27
Foreign revenue (10,000 USD)	1,150	2,717	5,715	8,098	8,542	10,120
Tourism receipts (100 million RMB)	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	61.67

Source: 1998 Statistical Yearbook of Hainan (1998)

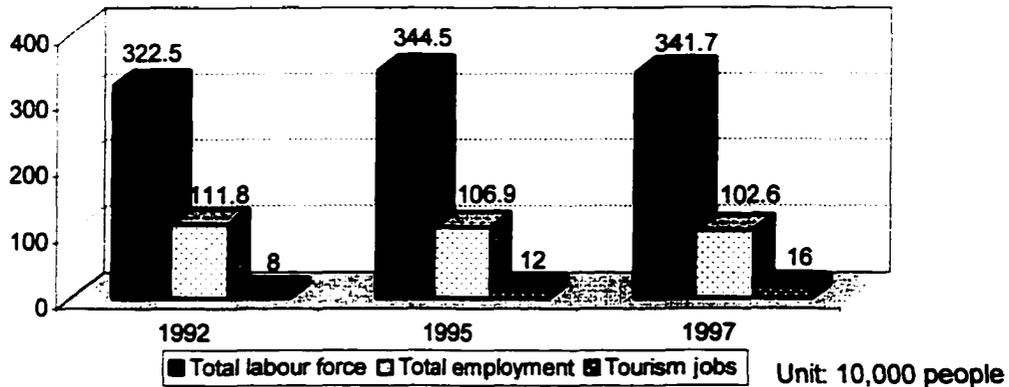


Figure 4-6: Tourism Employment Effect

Source: Compiled from 1998 Statistical Yearbook of Hainan and interviews with HPTA officials.

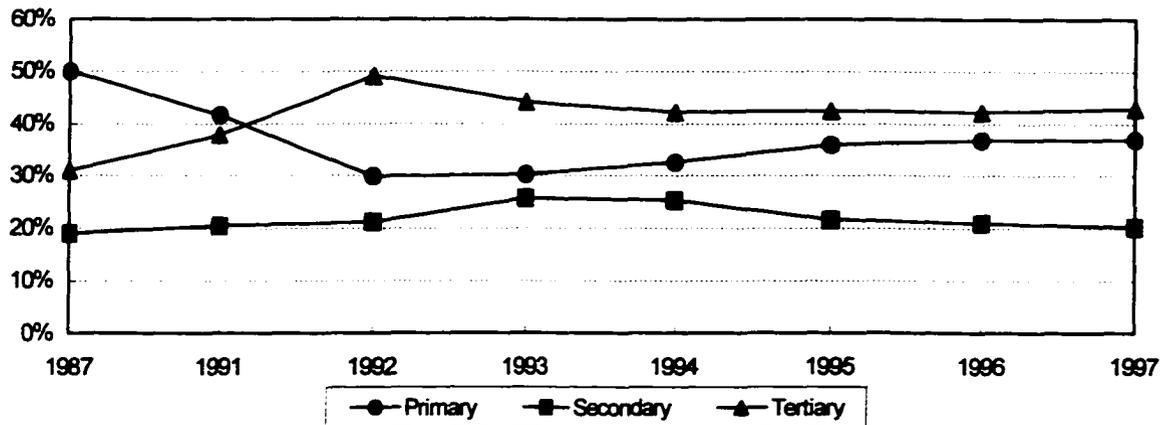


Figure 4-7: Composition of Gross Production 1987-1997, Hainan
Source: Data compiled from 1998 Statistical Yearbook of Hainan (1998)

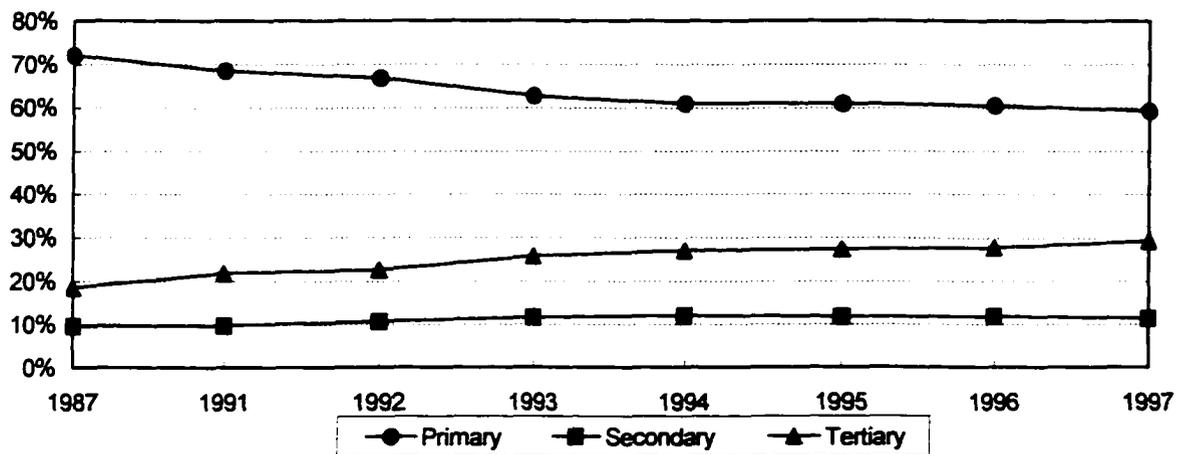


Figure 4-8: Composition of Labour Force 1987-1997, Hainan
Source: Data compiled from 1998 Statistical Yearbook of Hainan (1998)

At a macro-scale, Hainan's role as an international tourist destination in China is still modest in nominal terms relative to its mainland provincial counterparts. In 1997, of the 57.6 million overseas tourists received by the designated hotels in China, Hainan accounted for 0.72 percent (412,803 tourists). While total foreign currency earnings from tourism amounted to USD 12.1 billion in China in 1997, Hainan received only 0.1 billion. Nevertheless,

undoubtedly tourism in Hainan has risen to be an important economic sector. It is featured in the provincial statistical yearbooks and is congruent with current initiatives to establish Hainan as an "eco-province". Future prospects of tourism in Hainan are expected to grow along with other industries which are deemed to be environmentally friendly.

4.7 Human Resources Issues in Hainan

Hainan requires substantial employment opportunities to meet large job demands from its massive work population of 3.4 million, or nearly half of its total population (7.2 million). While the labour participation rate is relatively high, employment available other than agriculture is rather limited (30 percent of total employment, i.e. 1.1 million non-agriculture jobs) (Liu and Wall 2000). Thus, tourism serves as an ideal vehicle for alleviating employment shortage and ultimately helps to generate jobs in the services sector.

Hainan's tourism industry in fact demonstrates remarkable employment absorption, due to the dominance of state and collective corporate ownerships and cheap labour cost (annual average labour wage was RMB 5,664 or USD 685.7 in 1997, according to 1998 Hainan Statistical Yearbook). According to the data available in 1992, the average ratio of employees to rooms in Hainan is equivalent to 1.9 jobs which is much higher than ratios produced in Asia (1.14), the Caribbean (1.15) and worldwide (1.02) (Baroncini 1982, Liu 1998).

The share of direct employment in tourism, in comparison to the total employment, rose from 1.7 percent to 3.9 percent between 1992 and 1997. An ambitious estimate by HPTA (1993) indicates that jobs created in tourism were expected to continue to grow between 16.7 percent and 17.9 percent per annum between 1995 and 2010 (Table 4-6) and, by 2010, direct employment in tourism will reach approximately 80,000 to 100,000 jobs.

Table 4-6: Estimation of Required Tourism Manpower by Sectors 1995-2010

	Hotel	Tour Operating Business	Other tourism agencies	Total
1995	25,000 – 29,200	3,000 – 3,500	2,000 – 2,300	30,000 – 35,000
2000	41,700 – 45,900	5,000 – 5,500	3,300 – 3,600	50,000 – 55,000
2005	54,200 – 62,600	6,500 – 7,500	4,300 – 4,900	65,000 – 75,000
2010	66,700 – 83,400	8,000 – 10,000	5,300 – 6,600	80,000 – 100,000
Change% 1995/2010	266.8% - 285.6%	266.7% - 285.7%	265.0% - 287.0%	266.7% - 285.7%

Source: HPTA (1993)

In spite of a high unemployment rate and a significant growth in tourism employment, the industry has experienced difficulties in balancing supply and demand in the workforce. In some instances, people residing in the rural areas are not even aware of the employment opportunities available in the tourism sector. The recruitment dilemma can best be described by quoting the frustrated statement of a General Manager from the hotel sector: “when we opened our four-star hotel in 1994, we had serious problems in meeting our employment demands; the newly recruited were predominately from agricultural work. Virtually, all of our staff only knew rice plantations”.

Similarly, Hainan's main minorities of Li, Miao and Huei groups, who are mainly located in the vicinity of southern resort areas in Sanya region, do not seem to have significant involvement in tourism. There are some Li and Miao minorities who pursue employment as cultural performers, vendors and services personnel in the cultural parks promoted by the provincial tourism agency and local collective body. The Huei group, however, can only intercept the circuits of tourists to sell souvenirs as their culture is not manipulated as part of cultural tourism products in Hainan.

Tourism appears to capture the relatively well-educated when taking into account the local education standards - - the students in the total population accounted for only 20 to 22 percent

in the last decade and the student population is predominately constituted by those in elementary schools (73.7 percent) (Figure 4-9). According to HPTA, in the tourism sector, workers with high school diplomas (60 percent) comprise the majority of the workforce and the remainder is constituted of 23 percent of secondary school and 17 percent of college graduates.

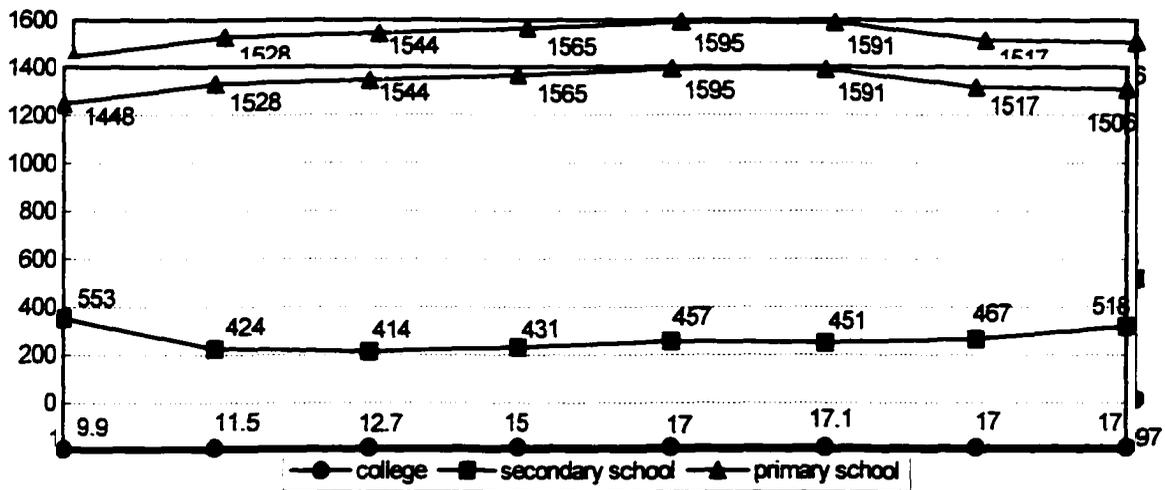


Figure 4-9: Number of Students per 10,000 People
 Source: 1998 Statistical Yearbook of Hainan (1998)

More significantly, while much of the employment in tourism is usually considered to be attractive primarily to more socially marginalized people, women, the young and minorities, data available from 114 state-owned hotels indicate that gaining access to tourism jobs is very competitive for women and minorities, particularly. In 1998, 57.2 percent of the 11,654 jobs were taken by females and as little as 5 percent were taken by the minorities (Figure 4-10). Also, children, as young as 6 or 7 years old, are involved in both the formal and informal sectors to help supplement their family income. In the cultural parks, little girls of Li or Miao ethnic groups, wearing their traditional costumes for photograph-taking by the tourists, earn 1

to 2 yuan (USD 12 to 24 cents) per photograph. Similarly, at the popular scenic spots, children gather in small flocks trying to tout tourists with coral, shell-made souvenirs and other small craft items.

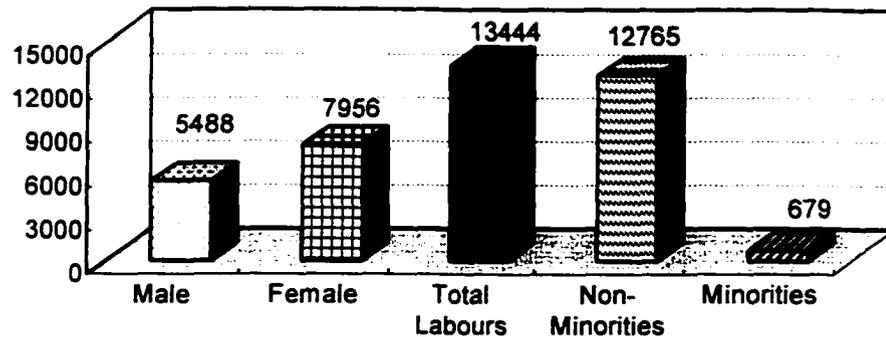


Figure 4-10: Composition of Workforce in the State-owned Hotels, 1997

Source: Data compiled from 1998 Hainan Statistical Yearbook (1998)

The provision of tourism human capital is a complex issue in Hainan, as generalized by HPTA (1993) in the following statements:

1. the shortage of qualified tourism workers, particularly for the higher level positions that require skilled workers;
2. the tourism industry's limited capacity to absorb college graduates from tourism programs;
3. the lack of systematic institutional systems for the cultivation of tourism manpower at all levels; and
4. the absence of a match between the supply and demand in the middle and higher level managerial positions of the tourism workforce.

It becomes apparent that, although the needs for a competent workforce has been recognized to some extent as being fundamental to Hainan's tourism industry, such identifications reveal that the efforts and investment in workforce cultivation were manifested in a "tourism

enterprises" framework (a so-called supply-oriented approach). Too often, aspirations to replicate an Hawaiian image has also led the development approach to tourism education and training. As will be demonstrated in the ensuing sections, types, levels and expected outputs of tourism programs remain a matter of considerable concern that needs to be dealt with to suit the specific situation in Hainan and, ultimately, the best interests of tourism participants.

4.8 Tourism Education and Training Initiatives

4.8.1 Availability and Nature

The field of "tourism study" has emerged as a result of increased recognition of the income potential that tourism brings as discerned by the public sector, of more secure employment prospects as perceived by prospective students, and of increasing demands as an area of study as responded to by the education circle. Availability of the study of tourism has grown in proliferation over the last decade. In 1999, 4 out of 5 universities in Hainan offered tourism courses/programs that generally emphasized hospitality management, including Hainan University (Department of Tourism), Hainan Normal University (Department of Geography), Hainan Television University (Department of Hotel Management) and Qiongzhou University (Department of Tourism). At the secondary level, 6 out of 45 vocational schools had a tourism program. More recently, with a goal to meet the current and projected tourism workforce, the Provincial Government of Hainan has taken some important steps to integrate the cultivation of human resources into tourism development. The establishment of a hospitality vocational high school in Haikou, along with collaboration plans with other tourism centres on the Chinese mainland, are expected to improve the tourism labour supply.

Hainan University was the first institute of its kind that innovatively introduced tourism education into the university sector. In 1992, tourism-related courses, as a secondary area of study, were initially used as an illustration to enrich the study of English literature - - as a sub-

section in the English Department, College of Liberal Arts. Students registered in the tourism section are required to take tourism courses as core units in their third academic year.

The tourism program at Hainan University was initiated in 1996 and, in 1999, almost 300 students, perhaps excessive, were enrolled in two, three and four-year programs. With funding retrenchment from the public sector, the provision of the tourism program has contributed significantly to the finance of the University, while at the same time helping to achieve the targeted number of students. Plans are poised to offer a four-year degree program in 2000 and a ten-year development plan proposes further expansion to 2010 with some innovative ideas such as flexible programming, experiential learning certification and partnerships with the industry. It is expected that the proposed Faculty of Tourism will have the capacity to accommodate 2,700 students by the year 2009. An HPTA representative is somewhat less optimistic on such an expansion, primarily because of the flimsy faculty base (presently 7 teaching staff versus 300 students). Nevertheless, the leadership possessed by Hainan University in tourism education has been remarkable in:

- raising government and the industry's willingness to invest in tourism education/training;
- providing prospective participants and existing tourism employees an access to further their tourism education;
- increasing the number of students at the higher education level; and
- contributing to the sustainable tourism development in Hainan with faculty members' involvement in tourism planning projects.

The design of the curriculum (Appendix C) bestows intimate attachment with industrial relevance, while local social and cultural integrity are also incorporated. The mandate is to prepare students with "managerial capabilities that meet the needs of the social market economy and to develop students' potential in order that they may work independently at managerial levels in the tourism field". The objective is to equip students with the following

knowledge and capabilities:

- the fundamentals of tourism management theories and knowledge;
- the fundamental skills and techniques of tourism management;
- the capability of management and goal attainment; and
- the capability of analyzing and problem solving in the real world.

The above, which focuses on technical and operational competence, is very much in line with the majority of institutes involved in tourism education. The accumulative supply of high calibre personnel is then drained by better renowned and prestigious employers. Similarly, the drive for HPTA's training efforts is invigorated by a "Chinese Hawaii"-aspirations leading to high quality but ignoring alternatives or less sophisticated operations. This problem is further compounded by the complex corporate governance system; even non-starred lodging houses are typically operated under collectivism. Training thus, in reality or otherwise, has no role in breeding entrepreneurs, nor does it mirror consciously a critical mass of service providers required by its major domestic market segment. There needs to be a better appreciation of a tourism employment mix in which to program training directions. Thus, it is appropriate to examine the perceptions of students; the expectations of the industry; as well as the relatively disadvantaged who strives for basic sustenance by grasping peripheral opportunities adjacent to deluxe tourism enclaves as to what investments in tourism education and training endeavours would be most helpful.

4.8.2 Student Perspectives

In Hainan, tourism is a promising sector for economic development that provides alternatives that might be preferable to those in traditional occupations because of higher rates of remuneration, access to foreign currency and relatively limited physical demands (Liu and Wall 1999). In order to gain understanding of the needs and expectations of students who

have elected to prepare themselves for positions in tourism, a survey of participants in the tourism program at Hainan University was undertaken during June-July, 1999. Students were questioned concerning factors influencing their decisions to enroll in a tourism program, the opinions of their parents, the skills they expected to obtain, the kind of jobs desired and their views on employment prospects on completion of their studies. Of the 160 questionnaires distributed to the first and second year students, 134 were completed for a response rate of 83.8 percent.

The majority of students surveyed (95.5 percent) indicated that tourism was one of their top three choices in their applications and only 4.5 percent was not particularly keen on entering the tourism program (Table 4-7). Similarly, their parents also have a positive attitude towards their children's choice of tourism as their major subject as 59.7 percent of the students indicated that their parents were very supportive of their enrollment in the tourism program. Only 3.7 percent of the students surveyed indicated that their parents did not support their choice at all (Table 4-7).

Table 4-7: Chinese Students' and Their Parents' Preference for the Tourism Program

	1 st choice	2 nd choice	3 rd choice	4 th choice	After the 5 th choice
Students' choice	57.5%	27.6%	10.4%	1.5%	3.0%
	Strongly agree	Agree	No opinion	Disagree	Strongly disagree
Parents' Attitude	20.1%	39.6%	36.6%	3.0%	0.7%

Tourism seems to have an appealing image. Students identified the most influential factors that led them to their choice of a tourism program as being "own interests" (mean = 4.11 on a five-point scale, 1 being not important at all, 5 being most important), "an interesting subject" (mean = 3.99) and "good employment potential" (mean = 3.86) as the top three factors (Table 4-8). In most cases, however, tourism still has the problem of having a poor image. Survey

results given in Table 4-9 indicate that jobs in tourism are generally perceived by students as interesting/challenging work (mean = 3.97) with good employment potential (mean = 3.87), with moderate evaluations of the wages (mean = 3.07) offered by the tourism industry. Tourism employment is of low social status as many students believe that tourism jobs are not socially respectable (mean = 2.87).

Table 4-8: Factors Influencing Chinese Students' Choice of the Tourism Program

Considerations	Mean	Std. dev.	Ranking
Own interests	4.11	0.98	1
An interesting subject	3.99	1.02	2
Good employment potential	3.86	1.01	3
A popular area of study	3.43	1.11	4
Good pay offered by the tourism industry	3.18	1.18	5
Easier than other disciplines	3.06	1.28	6
Other people's suggestion	2.85	1.27	7

Note: 5 = most important, 1 = not important at all.

Table 4-9: Chinese Students' Perception of the Tourism Profession

Aspects of tourism jobs	Mean	Std. dev.	Ranking
Interesting/challenging work	3.97	1.01	1
Good employment opportunities	3.87	1.00	2
An attractive/desirable job	3.67	1.05	3
Good pay and welfare	3.07	1.03	4
A respectable job	2.87	1.08	5

Note: 5 = strongly agree, 1 = strongly disagree.

Despite the fact that good employment potential is the most well-recognized characteristic of the tourism industry, its relative significance is reduced as students tend to expect to find jobs in the tourism sector with good pay, plenty of variety and stability. As can be seen in Table 4-10, airlines (28.1 percent), tour businesses (24.2 percent) and the hotel sector (21.1 percent) are the top three potential employers that the students desire to work for, followed by the tourism administration office in the public sector (20.9 percent).

Table 4-10: Chinese Students' Favourable Tourism Employers

Most favourable employer	Percentage of respondents	
	Unprompted	Prompted (ranked 1-3)
Airline company	25.8%	28.1%
Tour business sector	24.3%	24.2%
Hotel sector	22.5%	21.1%
Tourism administration office	19.6%	20.9%
Attraction sector	7.8%	5.7%
Total	100%	100%

Note: The value of the first choice is 3 (most favourable employer) and the third choice weights 1.

Thus, students generally expect the curriculum content to be centered on industrial applications with vocational-based courses, in order for them to be well trained and ready for a post within the industry. As can be seen from Table 4-11, students expect the number of tourism courses to be increased in the areas of foreign languages (mean = 4.75), operational knowledge and techniques (mean = 4.68), and communication skills and etiquette (mean = 4.59). The subject of planning and resource management (mean = 4.21) appears to draw less attention because it is not perceived to directly equip the students with the necessary skills/knowledge required in the workplace. However, although lowest in ranking, there is still considerable support for provision of such courses.

Table 4-11: Tourism Courses Expected by Chinese Students

Course	Mean	Std. dev.
Foreign languages	4.75	0.56
Operational knowledge and techniques (e.g. hotel, travel, and aviation operation)	4.68	0.63
Communication skills & etiquette	4.59	0.66
Business management (e. g. finance, information technology, personnel, marketing)	4.41	0.79
Relevant regulations & profession ethics	4.35	0.78
Tourism planning and resources management	4.21	0.99

Note: 5 = most expected, 1 = not at all.

In summary, students choose to enroll in tourism programs because of personal interests, because they regard jobs in tourism as challenging, and also because they believe that the employment prospects are good. At the same time, they acknowledge that the pay and benefits as well as job status are likely to be less than those in some other fields. Employment security appears to be students' main reason for enrolling in a tourism program. Students choose security over status and high remuneration, believing that job opportunities are more likely to be available in tourism than in other economic sectors in Hainan. Perhaps this explains the tourism institutes' narrowly defined approaches to tourism studies and students' main concerns regarding the acquisition of operational skills at the expense of broader education scope.

4.8.3 Industry's Expectations and Responses

The shortage of trained staff and the generally low education level of the population, create problems for the tourism sector and add to the operational difficulties of providing quality service. This section examines the views of tourism employers in Hainan concerning their employment needs and the challenges that they face in meeting these needs, as well as their responses to these challenges. Data were gathered in June - July 1999 through in-depth interviews with informants of HPTA and questionnaire surveys with individuals responsible for personnel and human resources management in larger-scale tourism operations, e.g. travel agencies of over 10 employees, hotels of over 100 rooms.

The survey included representatives of 28 hotels, 1 carrier and 9 travel agencies/tour operators. Interviewees were first contacted by phone to inquire of their willingness to collaborate by completing a survey and self-administered questionnaires were then distributed. The exclusion of smaller operators is based on the advance inquiries made to the hotels with less than 100 rooms regarding their training programs. The hoteliers indicated that they

seldom conduct training of any kind; their staff learns what they should perform by following senior co-workers.

When the surveyed representatives of the tourism industry were asked the kind of challenges they experienced in personnel management, the quality of workforce (mean = 4.21 on a five-point scale, 1 being not significant at all and 5 being most significant) was reported as being the most important factor affecting the performance of their firms, followed by employee turnover (mean = 3.50) and competition for tourism personnel within the industry (mean = 3.32) (Table 4-12). On the other hand, labour costs (mean = 3.13) and sources of recruits (mean = 3.11) were of much less concern. This indicates that the tourism employers have started to demand a level of productivity that depends much more upon the qualifications and the personal involvement of the employees, rather than on their quantity.

Table 4- 12: Challenges in Tourism's Personnel Management

Considerations	Mean	Std. dev.
Quality of workforce	4.21	0.70
Employee turnover	3.50	1.20
Competition for manpower within the industry	3.32	1.12
Labor cost	3.13	1.09
Willingness in joining tourism jobs (sources of recruits)	3.11	0.95

Note: 5 = most significant, 1 = not at all.

Regarding criteria used by tourism employers for recruitment, as shown in Figure 4-11, education (mean = 4.21) was rated to be the most important criterion for a successful candidate to possess, followed by personality traits (mean = 3.97) and work experience (mean = 3.95). In addition, due to the high visibility of tourism workers to their clients, appearance (mean = 3.55) was also regarded as being an important criterion for selection. The issue of gender (mean of 2.28) appears to be of minimal concern to the tourism sector in Hainan as it was rated the lowest by the respondents.

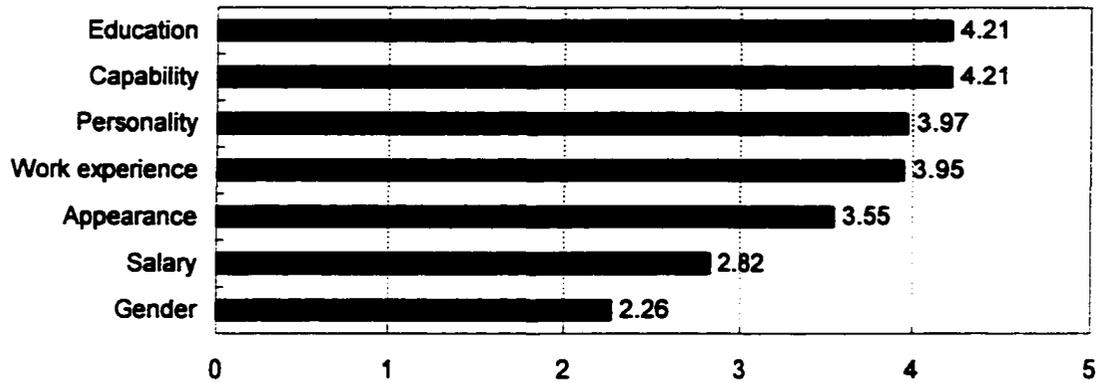


Figure 4-11: Level of Importance of Recruitment Criteria

Tourism employers generally feel that there is an urgent need for improvement in the capabilities of their workforce. Training programs, therefore, have been implemented widely as a means of achieving this goal. All of 38 tourism employers interviewed offer training programs. Training is primarily offered to correct service failures. The training programs typically focus on providing employees with technical skills and knowledge (mean = 4.61), strengthening communication and interpersonal skills (mean = 4.26), developing appropriate behaviours or attitudes (mean of morality = 4.26), indoctrination into the company culture (mean = 3.79) and language training (mean = 3.47), as illustrated in Figure 4-12.

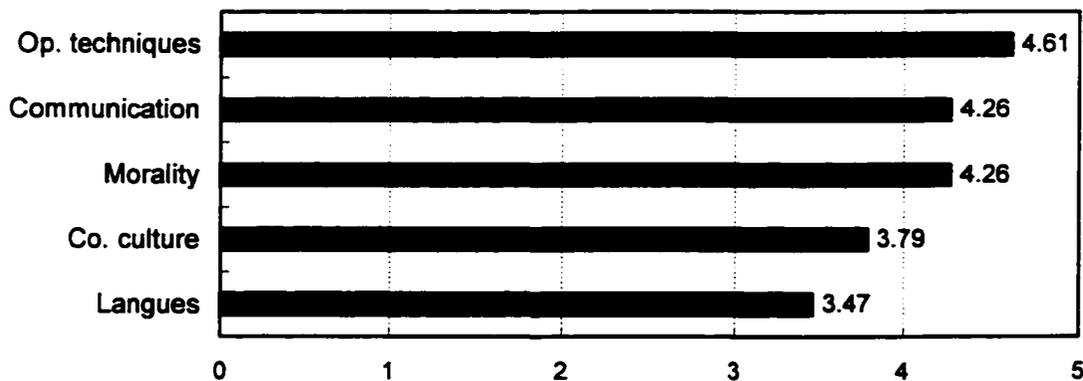


Figure 4-12: Focus of Training Programs

Despite the fact that training programs appear to be popular in Hainan, the frequency with which they are offered varies significantly, as shown in Figure 4-13. Almost half of the employers (47.4 percent) organized less than 5 training programs in 1998, implying that those programs were a job orientation type of training to cover short-term specific tasks rather than employers' commitment to personal growth of their staff. Only 31.6 percent (12 firms) organized training programs on at least monthly basis, for the purpose of developing a competent workforce.

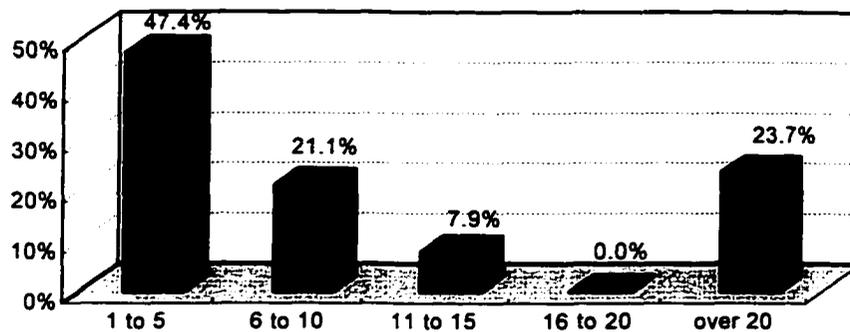


Figure 4-13: Frequency of Organizing Training Programs, 1998

There is a tendency towards a collaborative approach to the provision of training programs (Table 4-13). Of the 38 tourism employers interviewed, 24 (63.2 percent) offered some of their training programs in collaboration with other tourism-related organizations. HPTA (41.7 percent), educational institutes (27.8 percent) and tourism-related firms (25.0 percent) are active partners in the development of joint training programs. The HPTA's involvement in the development of the tourism workforce appears to be of some significance as 15 firms (41.7 percent) received assistance from them in the preparation of their training programs.

Some tourism employers complained that training programs create a financial burden to their firms, as they often have to seek help from external sources, such as foreign language

tutors, industry experts and academic institutions. Thus, HPTA is expected to be more proactive in organizing the collective efforts of the industry in the preparation of training programs and to take responsive actions to meet the industry's demands for a skilled and well educated workforce. Overall, tourism employers indicate that the training programs have been effective in upgrading service quality (mean = 4.89), increasing labour efficiency (mean = 4.0) and also promoting a good image for their firms (mean = 3.63) (Figure 4-14). However, training appears to contribute little to employee stability (mean = 2.58) and staff turnover continues to be an important concern.

Table 4-13: Collaborative Approach to the Provision of Training

Collaborative Approach to the Provision of Training	Count (firm)	Percent	Collaborative Partners	Count (firm)	Percent
Yes	24	63.2%	HPTA	15	41.7%
			Education institutes	10	27.8%
			Private training centres	2	5.6%
			Tourism related firms	9	25.0%
			No	14	36.8%

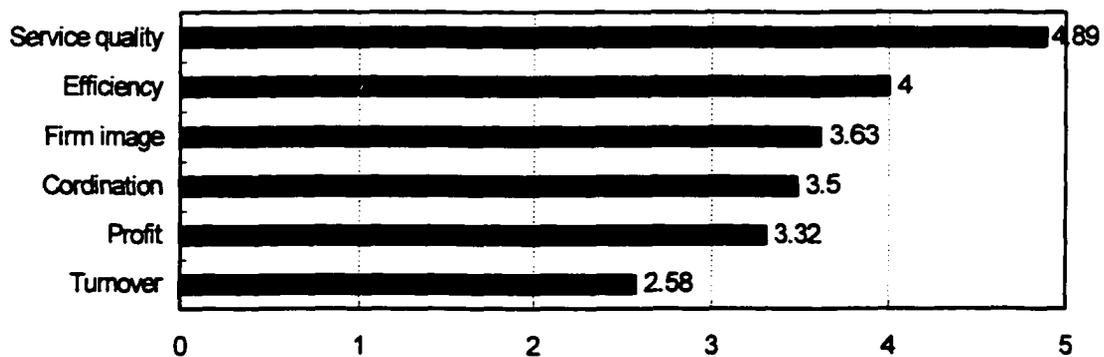


Figure 4-14: Effects of Training Programs

4.8.4 Education-Industry Interactions and Policy Implications

In Hainan, the oversupply of tourism graduates with a tertiary education background is an indication of lack of systemic planning for the tourism workforce. While nearly all the universities in Hainan offer tourism or hospitality programs, the trained personnel output from vocational schools is comparatively insignificant and certainly insufficient to fully satisfy the industry's workforce demands. Because of the difficulties in employing the tertiary-level graduates, tourism employers are blamed by the public sector for their failure to absorb the proliferation of students emerging with relevant tourism or hospitality qualifications.

However, there is a considerable positive inclination for hiring workers endowed with a tourism background; over 60 percent of the employers surveyed indicate that they often employ people with a tourism education background, as shown in Figure 4-15. Tourism employers interviewed were also enthusiastic about helping students acquire practical experience. Job placement opportunities are available at most of the firms interviewed. There were only 3 tourism employers who were reluctant to offer job placement, mainly due to concerns for declined profitability. The types of jobs that the tourism industry provides to students during their industrial placement period generally include front-line positions and operative types of jobs.

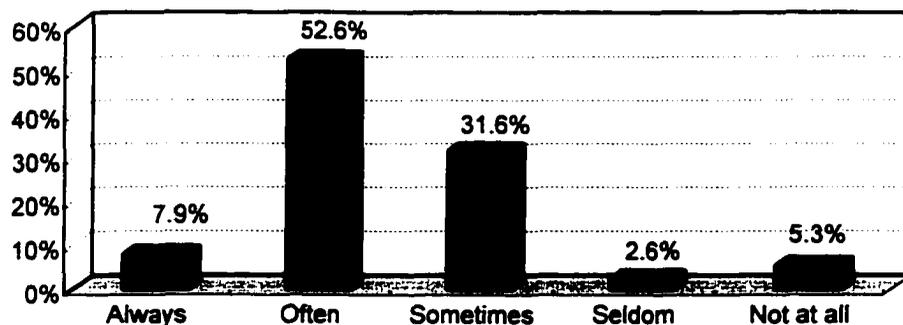


Figure 4-15: Tendency in Recruiting Tourism Students

Employers indicated that, given the fact that students do not have substantial practical skills and job placement is for a limited time, it is risky for them to empower the students to perform more sophisticated jobs. Also, tourism employers feel that the ultimate value of industrial job placement for students is the opportunity of being in a real working environment where they can observe what goes on and get acquainted with actual work situations. Contrary to many tourism educators and students, employees do not regard industrial placement as a way of acquiring new skills. In any case, industrial placement is also a way of employers gaining cheap help. What has been neglected by the tourism employers is to consider the industrial placement as an integral part of tourism education, because of its short duration, as well as the long-term benefits to the industry.

Considering the relatively low education levels, the tourism industry in Hainan generally emphasizes the importance of education for the managerial level positions with prominent requirements for solid training in the relevant field. Table 4-14 indicates that a high school and above education level with 4-year plus work experience are essential for a candidate to be considered as an entry-level manager. This suggests that tourism education not only helps students enhance their employment potential, but also serves as a well-founded base for good career progression for the tourism graduates.

Table 4-14: Requirements for Entry-level Managers

Education Level	College & higher	High school	Secondary school	Primary school	Not required
	31.6%	34.2%	10.5%	13.2%	10.5%
Work Experience	Over 4 years	4 years	3 years	2 years	1 years
	53.0%	10.5%	13.2%	23.7%	15.8%

There appears to be conformity in views with respect to the prerequisites for employment at the entry-level manager positions. In response to the question of rating the necessary qualifications for entry-level managers in the tourism sector, students indicate capability (mean = 4.81) as being the number one qualification followed by management knowledge (mean = 4.62), personal traits (mean = 4.48), education (mean = 4.32), work experience (mean = 4.32) and gender (mean = 2.2) (Figure 4-16). It is interesting to note that employers generally agree with the students' criteria; the employers rate the criteria in a similar descending order, though with slightly more conservative judgment.

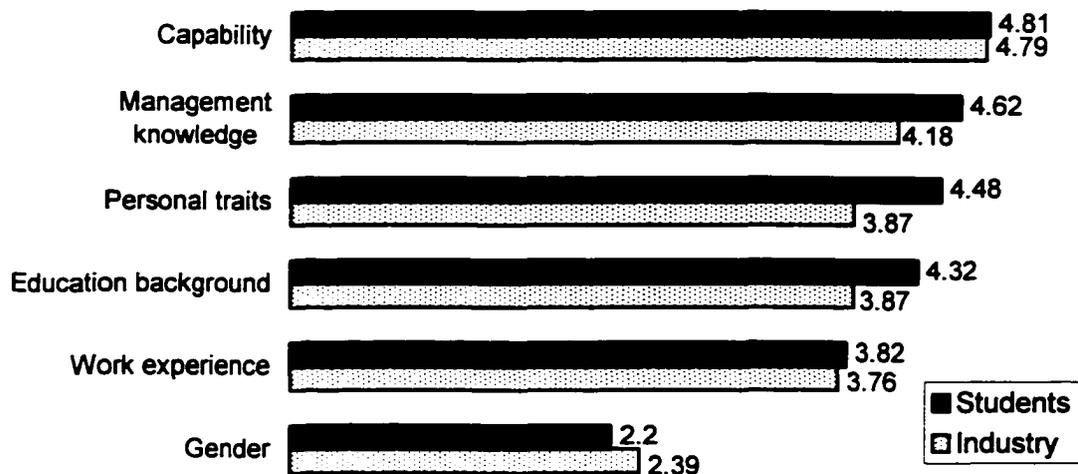


Figure 4-16: Importance of Qualifications for Entry-level Managers – Employers versus Students

Tourism studies and training are in great demand in Hainan due to the fact that tourism offers better employment prospects than the other economic sectors. Unemployment rates are extremely high in Hainan and, although tourism positions are not highly remunerated, tourism employment is still an attractive option where paid employment of any kind is in short supply. The economic importance of tourism is well acknowledged by the HPTA, whose efforts have been apparent in raising tourism awareness and the overall local capacity to better respond to

the commercial opportunity provided by tourism. Key policy decisions made in an authoritarian manner have immense influences but exert disturbing effects on devising education and training infrastructure. Fundamentals of workforce training deployed by the HPTA, in adherence to the conducts ordained by the CNTA, are lopsided with concerns for political doctrines: to reinforce workers' obedience of socialist tenets with adroit skills and to be ethically disciplined in the tourism professions.

Some concerns were expressed by the industry that such a scheme does not best suit their specific interests or requirements. Recent reinforcement of licensing measures and the mandatory training hours involved for chief management personnel, aggravated the irritations as "good sum was paid over to HPTA for practitioner admission", but "the quality of training programs and training staff was not very elaborate", as stated by a Human Resources Manager from a 4-star hotel.

Awareness of tourism in Hainan is profoundly affected by a "Chinese Hawaii" aspiration, although few have actually been to Hawaii. Even the taxi drivers are capable of expressing this image by frequently alerting tourists' attention to their impression that "Hainan is like the Hawaii island, very beautiful". Tourism students are trained by describing the geographic and climatic similarities with Hawaii. Tour guides can even move further to demonstrate Hainan's superiorities over Hawaii: Hainan has longer coastlines of natural white sandy beaches and the transparency level of sea water reaches 7 to 9 meters with a pleasant all-year-round water temperature at 25 Celsius, etc. The attributes that should make Hawaii a "honey-pot" destination are vague notions that cannot be fully appreciated by the locals with their limited exposure to, and even alienation from, places other than Hainan.

Therein lies the paradox of using an Hawaii image as a means to promote Hainan as a comparable product. Accelerating the liberalization of the islanders' mindset to adapt to international tourism paradigm overrides individuality and personal attributes. Concurrently,

tourism personnel are required to be familiar with an “ultra-sophisticated western custom” (a mandatory change of mentality as expected by the foreign visitors, Oudiette 1990:128), but remain in adherence to socialist dogma. Likewise, even when confronted by high unemployment, the public sector simply does not appreciate the scattered employment effects that tourism brings. In most cases, antagonism was obvious against the petty traders, fearing dispersion that would jeopardize the colossal tourism enclaves that reflect the modern facet of the Hainan SEZ, as will be discussed in the ensuing section.

4.9 Employment Issues in the Informal Sector: Examples from Beach Vendors in Sanya

4.9.1 Background

Vendors scattered in major scenic spots in the Sanya region were examined to determine the job status of the informal sector. Sixty-one vendors were interviewed at the height of the tourism season in May-June 1999. The vendors surveyed were asked to relate not only the details of their job but also details of their demographic characteristics and their experience and future job prospects. The motivations of the vendors were examined, together with their educational and vocational qualifications, in order to explore training suitable to their employment.

Sanya sits along the South China Sea, blessed with oceanic endowments and tropical exoticism, which has contributed to its status as one of the twelve national resorts in China. Although with relatively low industrialization and urbanization, the Sanya tourist system was depicted under Hainan's tourism development guidelines as an international standard, up-market destination, catering to higher expenditure tourists.

The region's 1998 population was 440,599 with mixed ethnicity. However, approximately two-thirds (64.8 percent) were registered in agriculture households and reside in rural areas.

By ethnicity, 58.2 percent of the population are Han and the remainder 41.8 percent are comprised by minority groups (39.4 percent Li, 1.5 percent Hui, 0.6 percent Miao, and 0.3 percent Zhuang). As a low-industrialized area, Sanya has relatively few sources of employment. Tourism confers a multitude of benefits: a diversified economic base, a higher economic development level and job alternatives in the tertiary sector. There is a more evenly distributed composition of GDP, a significant share of both foreign and fixed asset investments that it was able to secure and more equally structured and distributed labour force, as compared to the capital city, Haikou. In 1997, the ratios of three industrial sectors (primary, secondary, and tertiary) in GDP were 3.8:2.8:3.4, respectively. Workers in the tertiary sector comprised nearly half (47.42 percent) of the labour force, compare to the capital city, Haikou, where it was accounted for 67.07 percent, as shown in Figure 4-17. In 1997, the average annual income of formal sector employee in Sanya was RMB 7,385 (USD 891), which is about 30 percent higher than the mean Hainan annual wage.

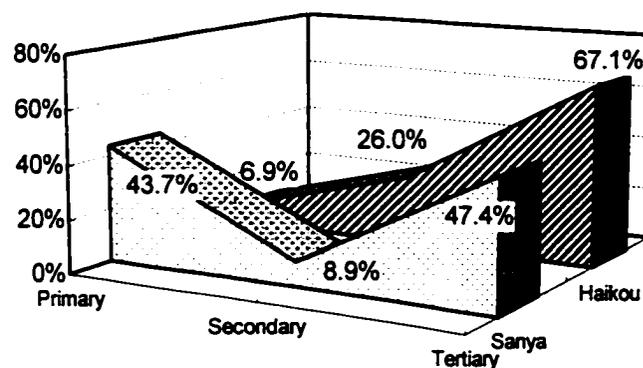


Figure 4-17: Composition of Labour Force, 1997 (Sanya versus Haikou)
Source: 1998 Statistical Yearbook of Hainan (1998)

Nonetheless, despite the fact that tourism offers job alternatives, the general trend in employment generation has been slow, and unemployment is a serious concern in both rural and urban areas. Employment opportunities appear to be insufficient to meet the demands

from the large work population. By the end of 1997, there were only 49,344 jobs which means that only 25.4 percent of job requirements were met out of the total labour force of 201,197 people. Thus, apart from the jobs created by tourism in the formal sector, self-employed operations are also vital to help generate employment opportunities. Unfortunately, such an effect is underestimated and often is seen as detrimental to the development of a sophisticated tourism industry in Hainan. Legal powers are used to crack down on the expansion of the informal sector.

4.9.2 Demographic Characteristics and Operation Patterns

A convenience sample of 61 vendors involved in the study is, demographically, dominated by females (78.7 percent), the married (55.7 percent), the young (59 percent), and the minorities (57.3 percent), as shown in Table 4-15. The workers generally have a low education level. Less than 19.7 percent of the vendors surveyed have more than a primary school education, 49.2 percent are illiterate and 31.1 percent semi-literate. Information presented in Table 4-15 also indicates that, although tourism literature suggests that tourism generally induces work migration, this phenomenon is less prevalent in Hainan. Local residents constitute the largest segment of the informal sector; 48 (78.7 percent) of vendors surveyed were born in Sanya region. Only 7 (11.5 percent) of the respondents have resided in Sanya region for less than 5 years.

The majority of vendors surveyed have become aware of the employment opportunities of tourism by themselves (Table 4-16) but most of them lack business intelligence and, thus, have highly concentrated patterns of operation. The beach vendors tend to choose a scenic spot that is in the vicinity of their place of residence as a fixed sale point. As data in Table 4-17 and the map in Figure 4-18 show, vendors who reside in Tienya are predisposed to gather in Tianyahaijiao and vendors who reside in Sanya mostly sell in the Sanya Bay area (14 out of

16). The more scattered patterns of distribution of vendors residing in Yanglang is explained by their advantageous residential location in the vicinity of major scenic spots, as can be seen from Table 4-17. Only 7 people (11.5 percent) of the vendors surveyed indicated that they were once or few times touting their merchandise to the tourists in the scenic spots other than the interview venue.

Table 4-15: Demographic Characteristics of Vendors Interviewed

	Count	Percent		Count	Percent
<u>Gender</u>			<u>Marital status</u>		
Male	13	21.3%	Single	26	42.6%
Female	48	78.7%	Married	34	55.7%
			Separation	1	1.6%
<u>Age</u>			<u>Education level</u>		
Below 10	1	1.6%	None	30	49.2%
10-19	14	23.0%	Primary School	19	31.1%
20-29	21	34.4%	Secondary School	12	19.7%
30-39	12	19.7%	High School	0	0.0%
40-49	9	14.8%	College	0	0.0%
Over 50	4	6.6%			
<u>Length of residence</u>			<u>Nationality</u>		
Less than 1 year	2	3.3%	Non-minorities		42.6%
1-5 years	5	8.2%	Han	26	
6-10 years	6	9.8%	Minorities		57.4%
Over 11 years	0	0.0%	Huei	34	
Born in Sanya	48	78.7%	Li	1	
			Miao	0	
Total	61	100.0%	Total	61	100.0%

Table 4-16: Who Suggested You to Do this Job?

	Count	Percentage
Family	6	9.8%
Friends/Relatives	10	16.4%
Self	45	73.8%
Total	61	100.0%

Table 4-17: Origins of Vendors versus Interview Locations

Operation locations	Place (town) of residence				Total
	Yanglang	Tienya	Sanya	Yacheng	
Tianyahaijiao	17	11	0	3	31
Yalong Bay	10	0	0	0	10
Dadonghai	6	0	2	0	8
Sanya Bay	0	0	14	0	12
	33	11	14	3	61

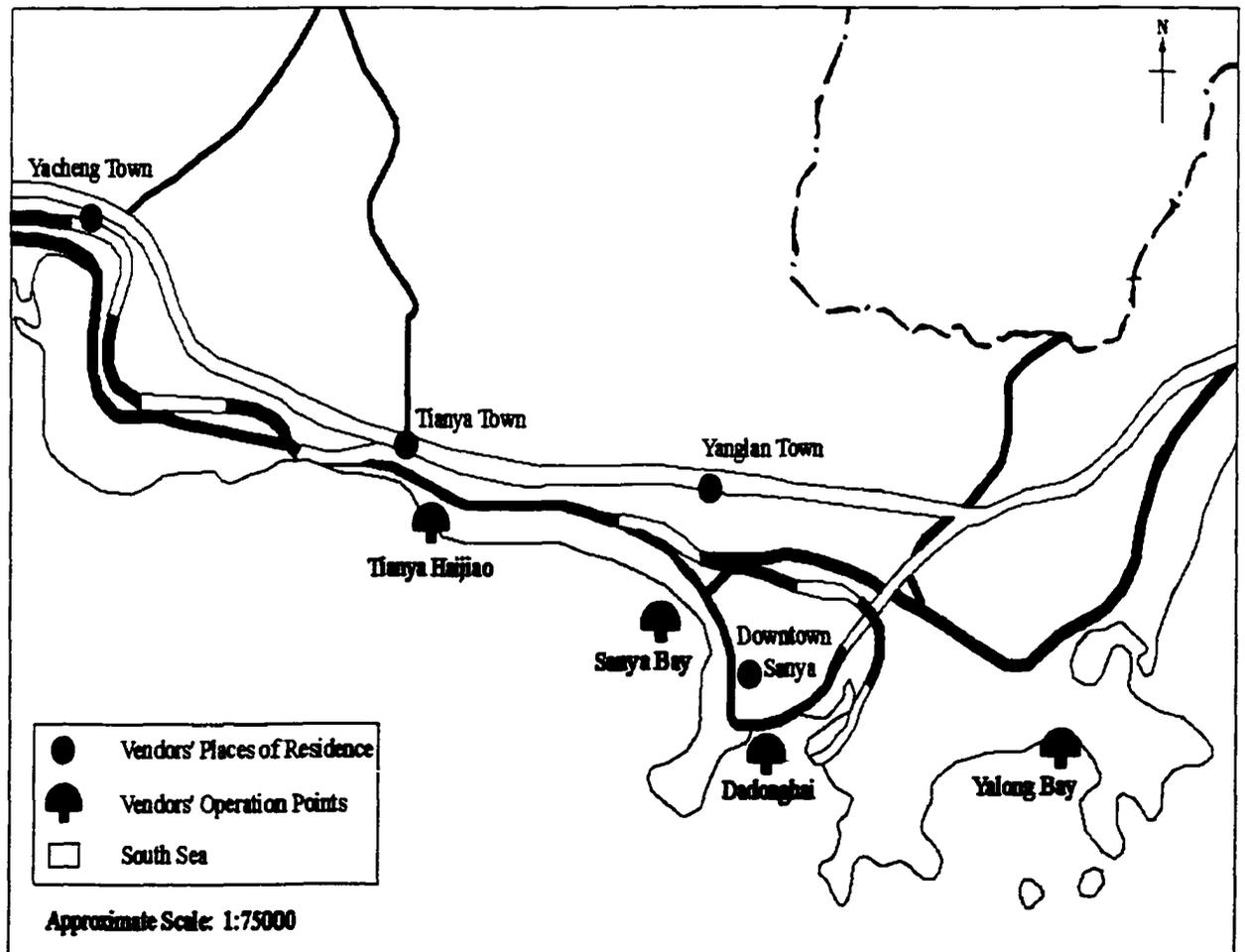


Figure 4-18: Map of Vendors' Operation Points and Places of Residence

Vendors seem to have limited sources for acquiring merchandise. While only 2 percent of respondents sell self-produced products, the majority (95 percent) acquire merchandise from wholesalers: 60 percent purchased their commodities from wholesalers in Hainan and 35 percent from Zeijian Province (southeast coastal province on the mainland) (Table 4-18). They also rely on a few commodities as their principal source of income generation. Pearl/crystal ornaments (54.1 percent), shell souvenirs (18.0 percent) and food/drinks/fruit (14.8 percent) are the most common items that vendors sell to the tourists (Table 4-18). In particular, the selection of commodities appears to be influenced by the vendors' ethnic attributes to the extent that, for example, of the 34 vendors in the Huei group, 32 sell pearl/crystal ornaments.

Table 4-18: Sources and Types of Merchandise

Sources	Hainan	Zeijiang	Other regions	Self-produced	
	60.0%	35.0%	3.0%	2.0%	
Types	Pearl/crystal ornaments	Shell-made souvenirs	Suntan-proof products	Foodstuff & drinks	Others
	54.1%	18.0%	4.9%	14.8%%	8.2%%

The lack of expertise and innovation inevitably make the vendors' operations hazardous and of marginal profitability. Nonetheless, vendors exhibit a relatively high rate of stability in retaining their jobs, particularly when one considers the typically high worker turnover rate in the tourism industry. More than half (55.8 percent) of the vendors surveyed maintained their jobs for over 4 years, while only 9.8 percent had worked as vendors for less than 1 year (Table 4-19). Since there are limited sources of employment and few alternatives, they show a strong reliance on their jobs as vendors; 90.2 percent of the respondents are full-time workers. Over half (60.7 percent) of the respondents' work-hours exceed 8 hours per day (Table 4-19), but they are poorly compensated. As indicated in Table 4-19, more than 60 percent of vendors

have incomes below the provincial average (in 1997, annual average wage of an employee was RMB 5,664 or USD 686).

Table 4-19: Length of Involvement, Work hours and Remuneration

	Count	Percent		Count	Percent
<u>Years of operation</u>			<u>Work hours</u>		
Less than 1 year	6	9.8%	1-4	9	14.8%
1-3 years	21	34.4%	5-8	15	24.6%
4-6 years	17	27.9%	9-12	32	52.5%
7-9 years	4	6.6%	13-16	5	8.2%
Over 10 years	13	21.3%			
<u>Monthly income</u>					
Below 400	37	60.6%			
401-800	17	27.9%			
801-1200	7	11.5%			
1201-1600	0	0.0%			
Over1601	0	0.0%			
Total	61	100.0%	Total	61	100.0%

This implies that the respondents generally have an underprivileged living and socially disadvantaged lifestyles, resulting in an excessively high level of job dissatisfaction. The respondents are generally depressed with feelings of inferiority because of poor remuneration, an unpredictable work environment and the very long work hours involved. As a result, the vendors do not see their employment as well remunerated, stable, secure, or socially desirable, as can be seen from Figures 4-19 and 4-20.

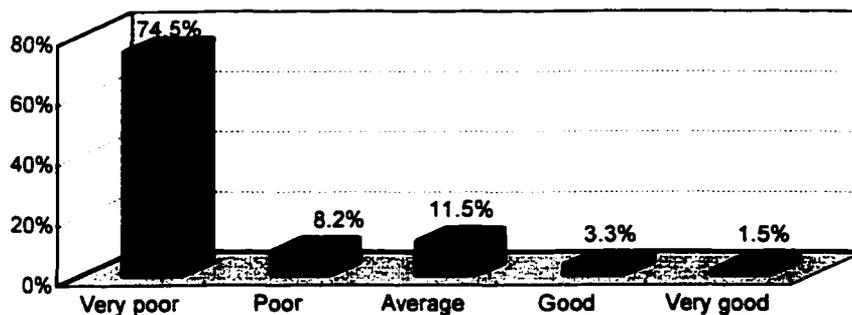


Figure 4-19: Vendors' General Opinion of their Employment

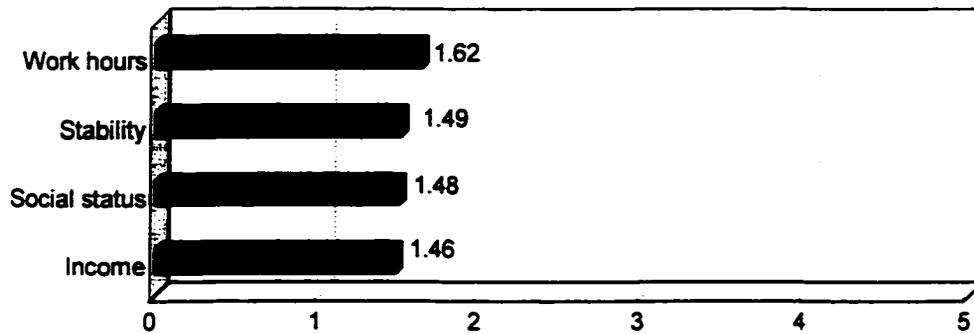


Figure 4-20: Level of Job Satisfaction

4.9.3 Training Needs for the Informal Sector

The low education level of vendors and their limited capabilities for job alternatives are the main reasons for the majority of them to continue with their current jobs. Although as few as 8.2 percent of the respondents indicated that they want to leave their current jobs as a vendor, the majority have chosen to remain in the informal sector simply because of skill deficiencies that restrain their access to other employment options in other economic sectors (Figure 4-21). Of the 51 respondents who intend to continue with their jobs, only 2 believe that it is a reasonably good job. Five people indicated that they will continue because of the need to earn a living. Similarly, 35 would like to leave, but can not find any other employment opportunities that could accommodate them. The rest (9 vendors) did not give any reason for choosing to continue to work as vendors.

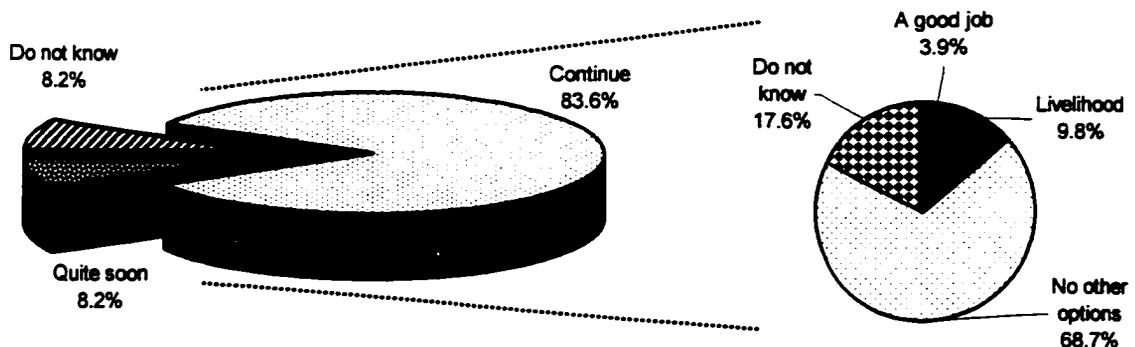


Figure 4-21: Vendors' Intentions to Retain Jobs

The survey results indicate that, although the informal sector's involvement in the tourism trade is mostly a personal decision, the majority of the vendors surveyed emulate the trade patterns of earlier entrants. Results illustrate that jobs created by tourism in the informal sector attract unskilled and uneducated people who have little potential and a low level of innovation. Despite the fact that the majority of them have long involvement in their jobs and are likely to retain them, they generally have extremely low levels of job satisfaction and self-esteem. Under such circumstances, many of them feel frustrated and their employment prospects are dim, primarily because of the limited number of job opportunities and their inability to access job alternatives.

Vendors in tourism venues are often being swept away by inspectors or police. The tourism authority expects to restrict their operations within "designated operation zones", in order that social order is well kept: "If necessary, we will use barbed-wire fences to keep them out!" - - an action that is seen as appropriate by a superintendent of a designated scenic area.

4.10 Summary

Tourism is a latecomer to China's modernization plans, but it has been maneuvered by the state as an important means of reducing regional disparities. Tourism initiatives in Hainan are good examples that illustrate efforts to improve a peripheral region's marginal economic status. However, while tourism is embedded with much policy precedence, with planning efforts directed towards the international clientele's tastes, the resultant disproportionate distribution of resources has left very little room for the local Chinese to become involved in the tourism commerce. As well, perpetuating prominence placed on socialist doctrines and communist ideological tenets has led to a situation in which the tourism policies and planning are highly circumscribed in that the citizenry and individualism are not fostered.

Hence, even though education and training provision relating to tourism has been portrayed

as a prerequisite in the tourism plans, the fragmented characteristics of tourism that require a variety of employment types across many sectors have not been differentiated by the policy-makers. Such an omission has hampered China's ability to transform its economic base from an old agricultural and recently manufacturing dominated economy to a services-oriented one. Few mechanisms have been deployed to support tourism employment opportunities for many who seek work in tourism for a livelihood.

As evidenced from the Hainan case study, among major issues identified are the shortage of qualified candidates, particularly for higher-level positions requiring skills and experience, the lack of a well-organized institutional system for the education and training of tourism personnel at all levels, and the inability of the tourism industry to absorb the college graduates that are currently being produced. At the same time, the marginalized earnings by vendors from their employment in tourism's informal economy also indicate additional training is essential. This is required to facilitate entries for those who depend on tourism for their livelihood and, through the provision of training, to improve the quality of their operations for higher profits.

To summarize, it may be fair to generalize that in China, the approaches to tourism workforce development have suffered from inappropriate organization. A politically motivated emphasis has often overridden what is required by the industry, as tourism education and training have been used for propaganda purposes. Perhaps this explains the asymmetric organization of tourism training and education which neglects the industry's requirements as well as students' concerns to acquire operational skills at the expense of a broader education. Tourism studies are generally quite narrowly defined. Also, while many students are attracted to tourism studies because of the relatively high probability of acquiring a position and job security, many also perceive it as a glamorous industry providing opportunities for adventure – notions that may be misplaced (Liu and Wall 2000). At the

same time, tourism employers have reluctantly embraced the responsibility to deal with the transformation of labour from unskilled agricultural work to semi-skilled/skilled tourism work since governmental (including the tourism administrative body) and educational authorities have not given high enough priority to employment issues (Liu and Wall 2000).

Chapter 5

Planning Tourism Human Capital in Malaysia's Multi-ethnic Setting: Policy Implications and Kedah Case Study

5.1 Introduction

Malaysia is a multi-ethnic state (multi-racial or "*bangsa Malaysia*" is an official term in government documentations), which is comprised of 58 percent Malay and other indigenous people, 27 percent Chinese, 8 percent Indians and 7 percent other ethnic groups (e.g. Siamese). A cultural potpourri with a mix of Asian ethnic diversity has been the tourism image - - "truly Asia" or "a happy, colourful little Asian" - - that has been accentuated by the state to lure foreign visitors who seek Asian exoticism. Under the Muslim dominance of officialdom, the "truly Asia" slogan inevitably is a multi-cultural facade, especially on the part of a government that acts as a missionary for the incubation of Islamization. Malaysia is an Islam state with different ethnic groups. As signified by Din (1989b:194), the legitimacy of Malay preponderance is held by the state: "This discordance in the image projected and the reality reflects a dilemma in which the government is ideologically committed to uphold Malay-based cultural identity".

Ethnicity has consistently been an issue in Malaysia's development policies which derive lessons from the racial casualties caused by wealth disparity and the resultant clashes among

different ethnic groups. Racial tensions arose because of the vastly different religious and cultural values and, more fundamentally, a long-standing demarcated conception of immigrant settlers and officially defined, indigenous groups. A stimulus for racial consonance and national integrity, as evidenced in the government policies, is “social equity” through the elimination of social and economic inequalities and imbalances while promoting “a fair and more equitable sharing of the benefits of economic growth by all Malaysians” (National Development Policy (NDP), in 6th Malaysia Plan, 1991-1995), albeit with a *bumiputra/non-bumiputra* dichotomy.

Is Malaysia a plural society par excellence? This concern is beyond the scope of the study. However, tourism, as a key sub-sector of the services economy, renders immense income and employment opportunities for Malaysian society and plays a pivotal role in the context of leveling ethnic exclusion in economic activities. In some cases, tourism overwhelmingly rends the officialdom’s taboos. For example, the release of liquor licenses and agreement to abolish service taxes on all food sold at the bars are made possible for the sake of “boosting” tourism¹. An interesting question, thus, arises as to what extent the tourism objectives purposefully enumerated by the state, contribute to the amelioration of social inequality or ethnic mastery in tourism commerce without jeopardizing fundamental Islamic values held by the state. Whether the targeted large population (the *bumiputras*) prioritized by government’s development initiatives is capable of venturing into tourism niches in circumstances in which they are traditionally geographically disadvantaged, economically backward and, in particular, culturally sensitive to some of the tourism motifs, is an important question.

In order to provide a background, at the outset, the nature of Malaysia’s social and

¹ According to The Sun Newspaper dated June 4, 2001, Dr. Teng Hock Nan, State Executive Councillor and Chairperson of the State Liquor Licensing Board, said that “the liquor industry plays an important role in boosting the tourism industry – the second largest revenue earner for Penang – by keeping the prices of liquor fair and reasonable”. It had been an assurance made by the State Liquor Licensing Board that Penang authority will no longer defer the issuance of the licenses.

economic development policies is examined in conjunction with the effects that they exert on the formation of strategies for tourism and training initiatives. Pertinent to political motivations, the following topics are reviewed: ethnic differentials towards tourism employment as they have emerged in the tourism industry and are conceived by students enrolled in a tourism program; a plan for rural tourism development; tourism initiatives of the rural villagers, and the use of indigenous culture as a tourism attraction. These themes are selected from a case study conducted in Kedah State (Figure 5-1) to reflect the deficiencies of the “tourism orthodoxy” of indigenous control required in Malaysia’s approach to planning and workforce development.

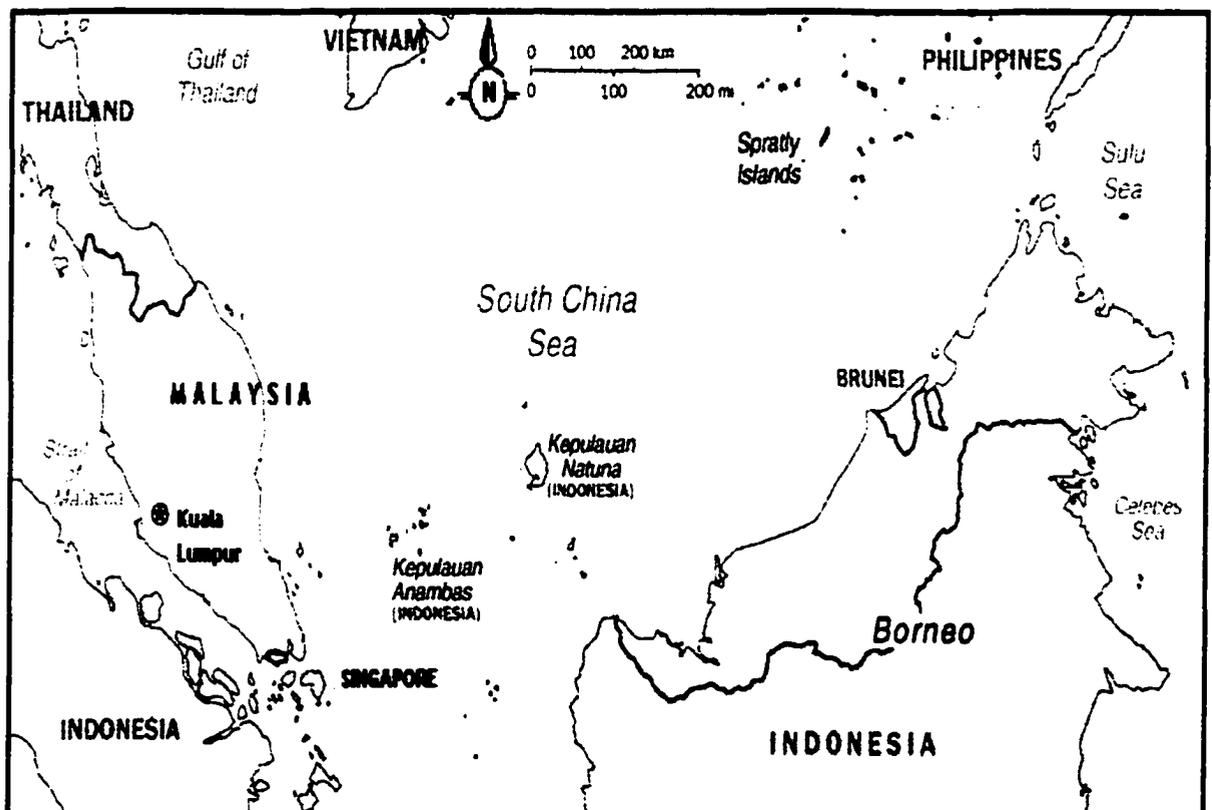


Figure: 5-1 Map of Malaysia

5.2 Malaysia's Development Rationale

In a multi-racial society that is constituted of different ethnic groups with extremely varied cultural backgrounds and religious values, catering to ethnic heterogeneity is certainly an extraordinarily demanding task. Historically, the very notion of race tension in Malaysia, as broadly conceived, had its roots in the colonial divide which was encouraged by the British rulers to administer their colonial subjects (Square 2001). The colonial tensions were then intensified owing to monopoly of business by Chinese and through ethnic networks in trade, which restricted ethnic Malaysians' access to development. Although the nation's wealth was predominately in the hands of the British colonial power, the Chinese community, being extensively involved in the provision of supplies and transport services, constituted a more visible monopoly power in the economy in the eyes of Malays, who were traditionally rural dwellers and largely engaged in farming, petty trade and hawking activities. Conditions of economic plight caused by unemployment and underemployment, dislocation and a chauvinistic sense of Malay nationhood inevitably bred antagonism towards ethnic segregation, resulting in the eruption of racial confrontation in 1969. The racial prejudices called for an urgent response, as alleged by the government, requiring the forging of "affirmative actions" (or state interventionist positive discrimination as put by Bunnell 1999:5) on behalf of the majority who were economically disadvantaged.

For Malaysia, the fundamental issues of inter-racial harmony, integration and a sense of belonging among Malaysians would apparently need to depend on wiser statesmanship, mutual understanding, tolerance, and a better allocation of social resources (Musa 2000). Such paramount issues have appeared to be asymmetric in the political agenda and have often been bypassed and obscured by policy-makers as a strong interconnectedness reciprocally exists between mosque and state. Aside from encouraging a greater Malaysian participation in economic affairs, Malaysia's development rationale has been restrained by a narrowly defined

indigenous conception, which legitimatizes *bumiputra* status (sons of the soil) with constitutional prerogatives. Ethnic groups including the Orang Asli (natives of the land), the Malays, the Kadazandusun of Sabah and Iban of Sarawak, have been bestowed with indigenous status in the territories of Malaysia.

The government has made efforts to cater to this “created” majority of indigenous *bumiputras*. Consequently, leniency furnished under politicized ethnic identification has also led to interventions in the economic and financial affairs by the state and perhaps too much indulgence for lifting up the “indigenous” people’s underprivileged condition. However, the sense of indigenouhood cohesively attached to ethnic attributes is controversially discordant with what Malaysia contends: that assimilation and egalitarianism among all segments of society are the government’s priorities. A whole series of development plans from the 1970s onwards has been maneuvered at odds with the national integrity objective, predominately favouring this collectivity called the *bumiputra* community.

The New Economic Policy (NEP), launched in 1971, served as a set of guidelines for the federal government for two decades (1971-1990). It manifested explicitly the state’s determination to “restructure Malaysian society to correct economic imbalance so as to reduce and eventually eliminate the identification of race with economic function”. Mechanisms in the second Malaysia five-year plan (1971-1975) and four other Malaysian plans released at five-year intervals between 1976 and 1990, were primarily deployed to transfer resources to the socially disadvantaged and economically marginalized. As declared in the NEP, the main objectives were: (1) the eradication of poverty irrespective of race and (2) the elimination of the identification of race with economic function and geographical distribution.

An equal distribution of material benefits among the Malaysian societies has been the mainstream perspective prevailing in Malaysia’s development policies since the mid-1970s and is still vividly delineated in the everyday life of Malaysians. Ironically, social parity is

interpreted based upon a dissection of the capital market that is anticipated to be proportionately compatible with the ethnic composition structure. Thus, a greater *bumiputra* share in commerce and trade is deemed to be sought. By so doing, social distributive justice could be reinforced, contributing to political and social stability.

The target of NEP was set to increase the *bumiputras*' holding of share capital in the corporate sector from 2.4 percent to 30 percent, non-Malays' share from 34.3 percent to 40 percent and reducing the share held by foreigners from 63.3 percent to 30 percent. The Majlis Amanah Rakyat (Council of Trust for the Indigenous People) was formed in 1966, loaning Malay entrepreneurs the needed initial capital for their business establishments. The Urban Development Authority (UDA), founded afterwards, adopted the same mission. The Bumiputra Investment Corporation was set up in 1978 to allow the federal government to legally purchase shares of public firms. More *bumiputra* trust agencies were also sprouting, i.e. Pemas or National Corporation, PNB or National Equity Corporation, SEDCs or State Economic Development Corporations, that shared the mandate of furthering accumulation of corporate assets to the less capitalized Malay investors (Kennedy 1993, Cartier 1998). The National Development Policy (NDP) promulgated in 1991 inherited the same spirit of the NEP and adopted an "equity requirement" and "*bumiputra-centered*" development approach, aiming to reduce development disparities among states in general, and to disperse urbanized economic effects to rural dwellers in particular. Meanwhile, special legislation, development schemes, and subsidiaries continued to be appropriated in favour of the chosen group, while the intended increase of *bumiputra* share in corporate ownership was justified with "redistribution of wealth with growth". It was argued that measures should not upset the sentiments, nor should they irritate the non-beneficiaries who might feel deprived (Mahathir 1998).

Malaysia has assumed capitalization, modernization and urbanization as effective remedies

in the state's response to the imperatives of social restructuring. The state maneuvered an approach, which is termed "social engineering measures", ranging from affordable housing, reserved land under Malay titles, financial aid, employment, accessibility to education and training, to spur indigenous participation in economic activities. The state's main attempt has been to define an economically viable role for the Malays to play. Those measures and, specifically, categories of corporate ownership, employment and education have been under close scrutiny throughout a whole continuous series of Malaysian plans over 3 decades. These initiatives obviously float freely in a political environment in which highly politicized ethnicity has a major role. The rural setting and residents of *kampongs* (villages) have been preponderant in Malaysia's development schemes, while an insignificant proportion of non-Malays have benefited peripherally (Kennedy 1993).

Adding to the *bumiputrazation* irony, quota systems² have been stipulated to secure employment and education for Malays, proportionate to the composition of the Malaysian population by ethnicity. For instance, regardless of the academic ratings, a 55: 35: 10 distribution of public university intake makes *bumiputra* students the dominant group. The remainder is split among *non-bumiputra* students in accordance with their ethnic population ratio. Similarly, 50 percent of employment is set aside for the indigenous population in corporations with over 10 staff.

Both policy initiatives and political climate have undoubtedly induced expectations among the indigenous groups that opportunities for alternative forms of participation will be provided in an economically significant and meaningful way. Mahathir (1998:12) has explicitly

² An anecdote released by the media reveals the quota paradox in Malaysia. When gender imbalance was revealed in university intakes (female 65% and Male 35%), concerns were raised as to whether or not something should be done to "correct" the gender imbalance, though at the expense of gender equity in varsities. As reported by the New Straits Times (July 1, 2001): "Should something be done to offset the gender imbalance? Accustomed as we are to having quotas for just about everything, it is probably only a matter of time before the power-that-be decide to reserve a certain percentage of all places in public universities for the boys".

elucidated: “the main thrust of the NEP was to prepare the *bumiputras*, through education and training, to enter into lucrative economic activities and employment on a permanent and successful basis”. An elaboration by Mahathir (1998:11) also points out, “if the *bumiputras* were to play a more equitable role in the economy, they have to be equipped not just with capital and opportunities, but also with the necessary education and know-how”. It was hoped that, through exposure to knowledge and learning opportunities by the Malays, a vibrant self-confidence would be restored and an aggressive, urban culture stimulated, leading to vigorous entrepreneurship.

While the majority of the citizens may have swooned with joy and indicated the possibility of further infatuation with the policy, the future of *bumi*-orientated strategies are bleaker. This is simply because the Malays might have lost competitive spirits while their non-Malay counterparts have had to fight for their survival in the face of overwhelming odds favouring the *bumiputra* dominance. At the same time, opportunists have started to gain advantages without adhering to the NEP principles. Some beneficiaries of the NEP have harboured illusions concerning the mechanisms since they failed to understand the true nature and intention of the NEP, and there has been a loss of enthusiasm on the part of some policy-makers involved. It is disturbing that, while the *bumiputras*' share of the capital market might have shown a substantial increase in an official statistical sense, in reality the owners, in effect, are still non-Malays.

The emergence of “Ali Baba” type enterprises was a kitsch of the NEP. A common form of NEP abuse, as lamented by Mahathir (1998), is that many Malays typically lend their names to form joint ventures which, with the *bumiputra*'s status, enjoy priorities in negotiations of contracts and acquisition of operation licenses/permits. However, the Malays merely serve as sleeping partners or promptly sell their so-called “Ali Baba” businesses to their *non-bumiputra* partners. Ironically, Chinese merchants have been pleased with the

broader business opportunities and higher profit margins resulting from the *Sdn Bhd* (Malay corporate ownership) as well as with the increase of their clientele base with the Malays becoming more affluent. This phenomenon afflicts badly the policy-formulating members of the Malay elites, who made a denunciation by stating “*Melayu mudah lupa* (Malays forget easily)”, particularly when their political objectives are not approvingly reverberated by the NEP beneficiaries.

The state’s preoccupation with all things “*Melayu*” (Malay) have adversely made cultural heterogeneity a residual matter throughout the NEP implementation period and led to non-*bumiputras*’ discontent and, inevitably, loss of sense of belonging. Malaysians of Chinese or Indian ethnic origins have become indiscernible in the national agenda towards economic progression. The mixed sentiments and the compliance by the non-Malay citizens over the implementation of the NEP are communicated by what they jeeringly view as the resultant relegation to a second-rate status by NEP. This has occurred in exchange for social stability and their living tranquility (an avoidance of racial riots similar to those experienced by Indonesian Chinese). Malaysia’s development strategies are sensible in their equity objectives, but constantly represent conventional political opinion in deploring the Malay’s inferior economic status as ideologically inappropriate. As Square (2001:6) argues:

Economic balancing acts go so far and obscure the deeper human costs of race politics. The expansion of both policy-making and thinking on the basis of economic parity has not been met by a parallel attention to social affairs. This trend was accentuated during the period of economic liberalisation in the 1990s that saw rising growth rates until the financial crisis of 1997. The concern has for so long been economic parity that the adverse consequences of race politics, namely the erosion of a shared experience and a sense of belonging, has gone unheeded.

Despite the striking flaws in Malaysia's development rationale, proponents credit the NEP with promising features, such as the "trickle-down, "redistribution with growth" and the "basic needs" approaches to development (e.g. Bruton 1994) as well as efforts in inculcating positive values and self-reliance attitudes towards development. Nevertheless, the achievement of the NEP was derived much from the political dominance of the Muslims and the personal drive (leadership) of Mahathir who tutored an array of ethnic groups, sometimes to praise and encourage, sometimes to up-braid and condemn, to progress into modernity. In the light of the social changes which have taken place since the 1960s, the pace of national solidarity and intended economic objectives do not seem readily predictable. However, it is fair to note the effectiveness of the development plans in some areas such as sustained growth in GDP, significantly reduced deficits and improved balance of payment, and progressively improved incidence of poverty which decreased from 8.7 percent in 1995 to 6.1 percent in 1998.

Placing the above-discussed issues of ethnicity, ideology and political-economy in the tourism context, tourism is seen as an industry that not only "creates considerably high multiplier effects and linkages in the economy but also fosters national integration and unity" (6th Malaysia Plan 1991-1995:248). But Malaysia's development tendency in favour of modernization and ethnicity ties has resulted in the planning of tourism as being aggressive and, without exception, suppressive of cultural and social factors. Capital-intensive tourism projects have been rigorously pursued and remain in policy precedence. Even when tourism is used as a development stimulus for peripheral ill, tourism establishments appear to be in conspicuous confrontation with the general scale of the rural economy. Craft-level offerings, while gradually receiving more attention from the national tourism bodies (primarily for the growing demands from the emerging domestic market), continue to lack sustained support. In terms of ethnicity issues, tourism has, in fact, undermined the multi-culturalism as Islamic

fundamentalism held by the state has taken the lead in defining the nature and direction of tourism development. Strategies employed for tourism workforce development are, therefore, confined to the achievement of international requirements, omitting specific responses to ameliorate antagonism towards ethnic dominance or promote indigenous involvement in tourism.

5.3 Tourism Industry and Ethnic Groups' Participation

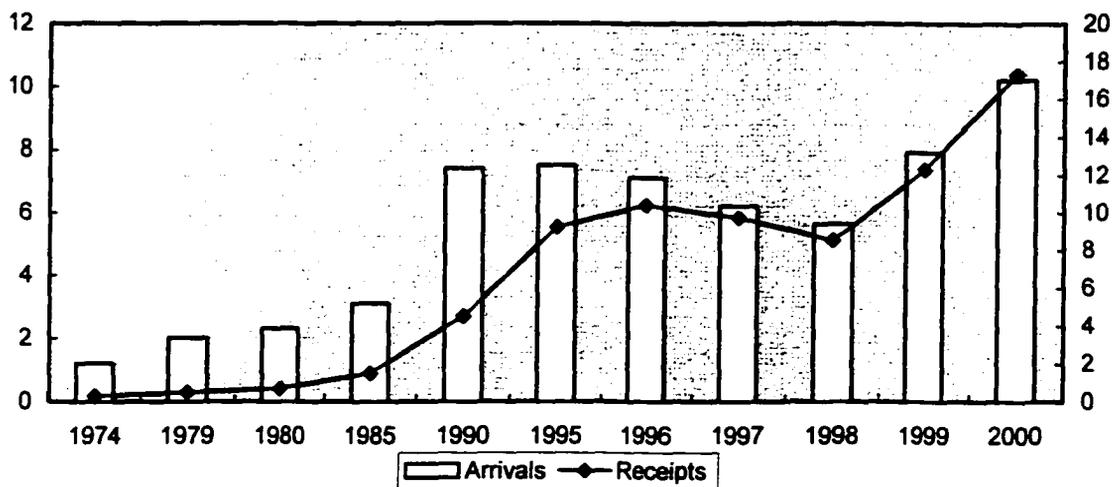
5.3.1 Tourism as a Social Engineering Drive

Throughout most of Malaysian history, its economy has shown a strong reliance on the staple exports of tin, rubber, oil palm and lumber, which are typically highly influenced by the fluctuations in the world economy. In the 1970s, Malaysia's economy was well sustained by good prices of its export commodities, but struggled in the early part of the 1980s through plummeting prices of staple exports. Some recoveries were later realized through improved export markets and expansion of the industrial sectors. Such economic adversities caused the policy-makers to reconsider the role of tourism, when budget deficits and balance of payment deficiencies became serious problems affecting development plans.

The inception of tourism development in Malaysia was underway in a *laissez-faire* environment. The government left the destiny of tourism to be determined by the interested individual operators and the market forces without any support or interference. Reluctance to promote tourism is partly explained by the characterization of tourism as being closely connected to hedonism, permissiveness and lavishness, all of which are considered to contribute to the emergence of social disorders and cultural disruption (Din 1989c:551, King 1993). With a discerned need to exploit sources of income, Malaysian Government started to

respond more favourably to tourism as opposed to a previous passive and “self-effacing” attitude (Din 1989a, see also Din 1982 & 1989b, Tan 1991). Tourism has since featured prominently in the government’s development plans, despite the Malaysian government’s constant, steadfast and rigid, sectarian spirit.

Tourism has become an important contributor to the Malaysian economy and continues to be the services counterpart to the manufacturing sector, where the petroleum industry has experienced rapid growth. Malaysia generated a total of RM 11,443.8 million (about 3.4 percent of Malaysian GDP, equivalent to USD 3,011.5 million) in revenues from 7.5 million tourists in 1999 (Malaysia Tourism Promotion Board 2000) (Figure 5-2). In 1999, an estimated 130,000 people were employed in the tourism sector, which is 1.4 percent of the total labour force (Malaysia Tourism Promotion Board 2000).



Note: Unit used for tourist arrivals is million heads and for tourist receipts is RM billion dollars.

1974-1979: Peninsular Malaysia Only

1980-1990 Peninsular Malaysia, Sabah and Sarawak

1991 onwards Peninsular Malaysia, Sabah, Sarawak and Labuan

Figure 5-2: Tourist Arrivals and Receipts 1988 – 1999, Malaysia

Source: Malaysia Tourism Promotion Board (2000)

Tourism development in Malaysia is closely aligned with the state's objectives to eradicate poverty, equalize ethnic involvement, balance regional development disparities, leading to the cohesion of the Malaysian culture and, ultimately, the promotion of national integrity. Tourism is also a means to represent Malaysia's multicultural outlook. This is largely accomplished through event and festival arrangements, but Islamic culture is not part of the marketed images.

Wood (1984) attributes the lack of marketing of Islam to the interests and culture of foreign tourists who are assumed to be less keen on having Islamic cultural encounters. Another notion relates to the image of the majority of Islamic states which has become synonymous with backwardness, conservatism, poverty, and upheaval. However, religion has traditionally been strongly linked with "nation-building" in Islamic states and, in the Malaysia context, is bestowed with power by the politicization of the declared relationship between ethnicity, religion and language (Clammer 1996). Religion plays an important role politically and socio-culturally and is eternal and inviolable from the Muslims' perspectives. Commercializing Islam is thus anathema to the general Muslim public and it is even more difficult to get support from the Muslim leadership for touting their holy religion as an attraction.

The absence of the Malay's involvement in tourism is due to a complex set of factors. According to Din (1989a and 1989b), religious revulsion and cultural aversion against social stigmas associated with tourism (e.g. gambling, alcohol, cabaret, prostitution, etc) as well as the shortage of capital and expertise have undermined the meaningful involvement of the Malays. External factors including ethnic dominance and kinship exclusion, are major impediments that deny extraneous involvement in tourism ventures. It is in this religious context that the Malay culture has been elaborated in the forms of crafts, cookery, folk dances, and unique architecture, as alluring attractions, while Islam is not staged as a tourism motif (see also King 1993). At the same time, tourism development plans also incorporate the *bumi-*

oriented theme of the NEP, anticipating that tourism would help to promote the emergence of “*Melayu Baru*” (new Malay) or *bumiputra* entrepreneurs.

The application of the “society restructuring” spirit sketched out for tourism, reflects the prominence of the government policy that has a main objective of encouraging an equal ethnic representation in the tourism sector. Tourism was initially regarded as not only critical for economic growth but also important for the attainment of equity objectives, which were proclaimed in the 2nd Malaysian Plan (1971-1975). The Tourist Development Corporation (TDC), established in 1972 as a public organ responsible for tourism administration, regulation and development, has a mandate to “ensure balanced participation in the industry by all races” (Tourism Development Plan 1975). The ethnicity concerns were more explicitly conveyed in recent documents.

Under the 6th Malaysian Plan (1991-1995:239), “the tourism industry is expected to provide increased opportunities for *bumiputra* ownership, participation and entrepreneurship”. State-sponsored soft financing totaling RM 206.1 million (USD 54.2 million) was disbursed to 182 small and medium-sized tourism-related projects. *Bumi-status*, though not necessarily mandatory, granted more eligibility for accessing the government funding. As well, under the 7th Malaysian Plan (1996-2000), using public subsidiaries, 15 medium-priced chain hotels (providing 1,450 rooms) managed by Rangkaian Hotel Seri Malaysia Sdn. Bhd. were initiated to contribute to the creation of the Bumiputra Commercial and Industrial Community (BCIC). Greater representation by the *bumiputras* in the tour operations and travel agencies has also grown substantially, due to bumi-related policies and regulations.

As a matter of policy, Malaysia has turned to cultural and ethnic ties as a determinant in decision making. Another example has been the promotional efforts to target Muslims from the Middle East (less than 10 percent of arrivals in 2000), who share similar habitation and regimen characteristics with the Malays, despite the fact that over 70 percent of visitors

originated from ASEAN (Association of Southeast Asian Nations) countries³. Tourism Malaysia expanded two overseas promotion offices in Dubai and Jeddah in 2000. This attempt, however, has not been a successful strategy. Malaysia does not have a glamorous image, nor does it have splendid shopping facilities with luxurious designers' commodities to attract affluent oil-rich Muslims. Also, it is perceived to be less secular and exotic by the young Islamic travelers (interviews with the Malaysia Tourism informants).

ASEAN sources of arrivals remain dominant in Malaysia's tourist profile. Recent tourism growth suffered a setback through the continued Asian economic recession and health hazards (haze, cholera outbreak, the Nipah virus) and domestic turbulence (labour strikes and political demonstration), but recovered through immense promotional efforts. In 2000, tourist arrivals reached a record high of 10.2 million. The growth of visitors was dwarfed by the high promotion budget and comparably higher visitor numbers received by its neighbouring Southeast Asian nations. It also should be noted that occupancy rates continued to decline and, with them, the marginal profits in the tourism sector (Table 5-1). An indication is that room rates in the leading 5-star hotels in the capital city of Kuala Lumpur plummeted to as low as RM 160 (USD 42) and, with negotiation, it was possible to get RM 120 (USD 32) for longer stays. The realities of slower tourist influx and over-capacity did not seem to undermine Malaysia's optimism for tourism and, despite disappointingly low occupancy rates (50.1 percent in 1985 and 72.9 percent in 1990 (Visit Malaysia Year)), more resources were still allocated for hotel constructions under the 6th plan of 1991-1995, along with RM 100 million (USD 26.3 million) that were allocated for medium-priced hotels in 23 locations (Figure 5-3).

³ Ten member countries of ASEAN are Brunei Darussalam, Cambodia, Indonesia, Lao PDR, Malaysia, Myanmar, Philippines, Singapore, Thailand, and Vietnam.

Table 5-1: Selected Tourism Indicators 1985 – 2005, Malaysia

Indicator	1985	1990	1995	2000	2005 (projection)
Arrivals (million)	3.1	7.4	7.5	10.2	14.3
Receipts (RM million)	1,543	4,473	9,927.8	18756.7	29,499.5
Average length of stay	4.5	4.5	4.8	5.5	5.8
Hotels (over 10 rooms)	851	989	1,220	1,492	1,541
Hotel rooms	35,720	45,032	76,373	134,503	140,503
Occupancy rate (%)	50.1	72.9	65.5	55.0	60.0
Direct hotel employment	25,170	39,691	67,214	78,671	79,603

Source: Data compiled from the 6th (p. 235), 7th (p.505) and 8th Malaysia Plans (p.434)

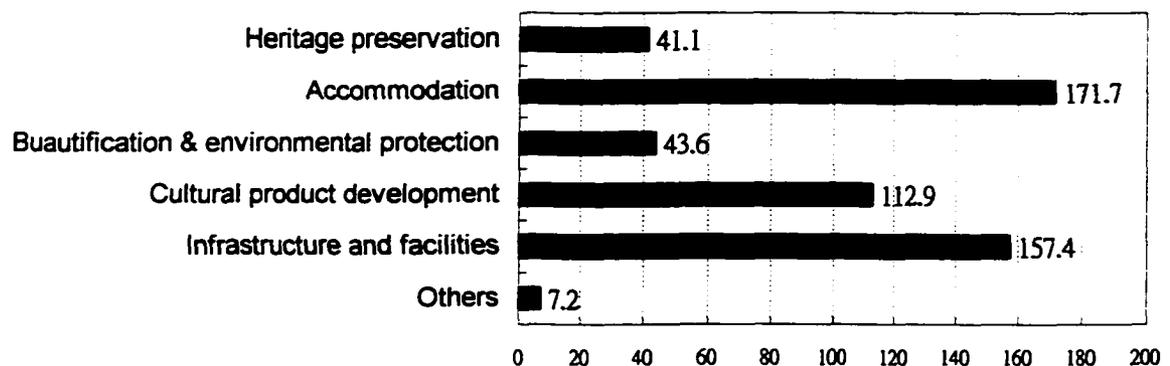


Figure 5-3: Allocation of Tourism Budgetary (million RM)

Source: Malaysia 6th Plan 1991-1995, p. 247.

Notions of a high-profiled “*Malaysia(ns) Boleh*” (meaning literally Malaysia(ns) can do) jeopardize Malaysia’s trickle-down development energies. Government’s development interests in tourism were somewhat at odds with the intensification of *bumiputra* strategies, since “emphasis on large-scale capital-intensive tourism projects parallels the state’s construction and real estate development goals” (Cartier 1998:156). Even as part of a state imperative of inculcating entrepreneurial culture for the Malays, the state is concerned less with foreign capital than ethnic gains, visible ownership structure and employment patterns. In the 6th Malaysian Plan period (1991-1995), approved investment reached RM 8.8 billion (USD 2.3 billion), while the Special Fund for Tourism that was to assist small and medium-

sized projects was disbursed for only RM 206.1 million (USD 54.2 million). Tan (1991) argues that the tourism objectives have been biased in that the investment incentives promote international standard hotels, while small lodging houses with 10 to 19 rooms gradually disappeared in the marketplace from 453 units in 1980 to 432 in 1990. Such contradictions are conspicuous in Malaysia's tourism plans, since mega-developments are seen as indicators of national prestige and as part of Malaysia's endeavour to achieve developed country status by 2020 (see also Cartier 1998).

5.3.2 Tourism Employment Effects

Malaysia's GDP, based on the strength of export growth and continued fiscal stimulus from the government, presents a sustained and steady expansion with the exception of 1998, when a region-wide Asian recession occurred (Table 5-2). The flourishing economy stimulated employment comparable to the growth of its labour force and the unemployment rate remained moderate, ranging from 2.6 to 3.0 percent between 1995-2000. During the 1990s, Malaysia's labour structure has responded in line with the country's economic policies, with the tertiary sector taking the lead at 47.2 percent, and secondary and primary sectors representing 36.4 percent and 16.4 percent, respectively.

Table 5-2: Selected Economic Indicators

Category	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000
Population (million)	20.7	21.2	21.7	22.2	22.7	22.2
Real GDP growth (%)	9.4	8.6	7.7	-7.5	4.3	8.6
Labour force (million)	8.3	8.6	9.0	8.9	9.0	9.2
Labour force growth (%)	5.4	4.6	4.6	-1.7	1.5	2.0
Employment (million)	8.0	8.4	8.8	8.6	8.7	8.9
Employment growth (%)	5.5	4.9	4.6	-2.5	1.7	2.1
Unemployment rate (%)	2.8	2.6	2.6	3.2	3	2.9

Source: Economic Reports of 1999, 2000 & 2001 (<http://www.jaring.my/ksm/key/htm>.)

Date of retrieval: September 3, 2001)

Sectoral shifts in Malaysia's economy have also had numerous policy implications. The most significant one has been the major changes to Malaysia's immigration act. Recruitment of foreign workers (approximately 730,000 in 2000, mainly from Indonesia, Bangladesh, Philippines, Pakistan and Thailand) has become imperative to fill labour vacancies in the manufacturing, construction and agriculture sectors (interviews with informant from Human Resources Development Council). This labour shortage has also spurred the emancipation of women that make up one third of Malaysia's labour force with their main participation in the agricultural sector and other low-paying and low-skilled jobs in manufacturing industry.

Tourism, from a small share of 4.9 percent in export earnings in 1973 (Malaysia Tourism Development Plan 1975), replaced petroleum as the second largest earner of foreign exchange in 1996, after the manufacturing sector (Cartier 1998). Growing arrivals made tourism a leavening agent for Malaysia's economic growth and a principal contributor to a diversified employment structure. Table 5-3 presents the components constituting the tourism industry, and shows that, with varying skill level requirements, tourism has the flexibility and capacity to accommodate diverse employment demands from different population segments.

Table 5-3: Tourism's Employment Structure by Gender and Skill Levels

Gender (%)	Hotel sector		Tour & tour agency		Airline sector		Attraction sector		Education sector	
	male	female	male	female	male	female	male	female	male	female
	60.0	40.0	52.9	47.1	48.0	52.0	70.0	30.0	43.1	56.9
Skill-level (%)										
Un- & semi-skilled	47.0		21.2		2.2		47.8		8.1	
Skilled/clerical	29.7		41.6		63.1		34.9		28.7	
Supervisory	13.4		19.0		25.2		10.9		47.4	
Management	9.4		18.2		9.5		6.3		15.8	

Source: 1997 Annual Tourism Statistical Report (Malaysia Tourism Promotion Board 1998:58)

The Malaysian tourism industry consistently experiences labour shortages and is in need of more skilled and semiskilled workers to increase the level of service. More importantly, the government expects that local labour entry is anticipated to meet the workforce needs. Employment in the tourism sector doubled from about 60,000 jobs in the early 1970s to a peak of 134,990 in 1996, but dropped sharply in 1997 with 32,157 jobs eliminated as a result of the 1997-1998 currency crisis in the Asian region (Table 5-4). However, measures taken to tackle tourism's downturn exacerbated its employment impacts. In addition to institutional attention dealing with unemployment in a general sense, pressing issues pertaining to tourism identified in the 1998 Economic Recovery Plan were primarily concerned with:

- market competition;
- decline in tourist arrivals;
- financial constraints of tourism operators;
- tourists' safety concerns;
- over-supply of hotel rooms;
- overcharges to tourists by taxi drivers;
- trimmed budget for tourism promotion; and
- lack of up-to-date data on tourist arrivals.

Table 5-4: Employment of Malaysia's Tourism Industry

Sector	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000
Hotel	60,103	67,214	73,749	65,377	73,127	72,102	78,671
Tour and travel agency	21,416	22,731	25,068	12,839	11,788	N/A	N/A
Airlines	19,982	21,049	19,791	16,482	23,174	N/A	N/A
Attractions	3,488	12,309	15,584	6,777	4,653	N/A	N/A
Tourism educational institutions	N/A	352	798	1,358	1,077	N/A	N/A
Total	104,989	123,655	134,990	102,833	113,810	N/A	N/A

Source: Data compiled from Annual Tourism Statistical Reports, 1998, 1999, 2000 and interviews with Research Division, Tourism Promotion Board.

In 2000, tourism provided a good proportion of employment in the Malaysian economy (Figure 5-4). The hotel sector alone provided 6,569 new jobs, which comprised 3.5 percent of the total new employment of 185,820 jobs created in Malaysia. At the same time, the hotels, combined with wholesale, retail trade and restaurants, have become a fast growing sector for female employees: female workers in these sectors increased from approximately 18 percent in the 1970s to 40 percent in 1990s. However, until recently, the proscriptions of Islam against some forms of women's involvement in tourism have not been eased in some religiously rigid states. For example, "...the Kelantan government banned the staging of Malay dances, because, where they involve female performers, they raise the question of *aurat* (parts of the body which should not be exposed according to Islamic law)" (King 1993:113).

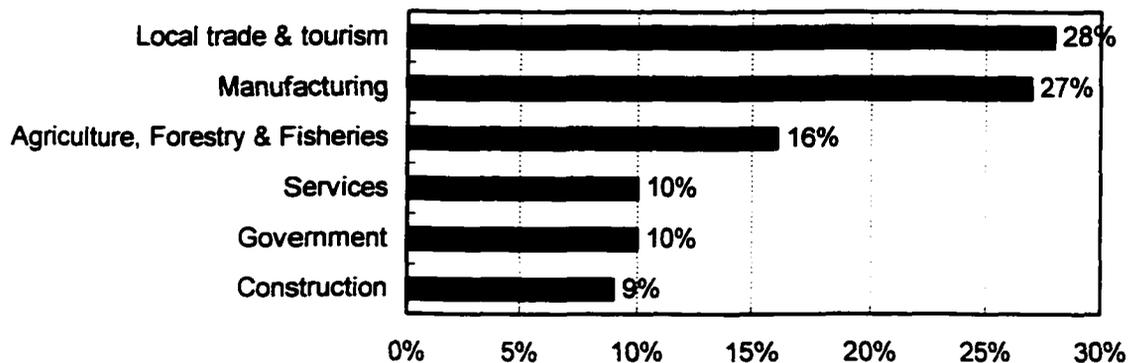


Figure: 5-4: Composition of Labour Force, 2000, Malaysia

Source: Central Intelligence Agency (<http://odci.gov/cia/publications/factbook/geos/my.html>, date of retrieval: September 30, 2001)

Increasing domination of the services economy has generated new types of jobs and, at the same time, tourism-induced employment has been singled out for protectionism (e.g. foreign workers are not allowed to take up travel agency employment). Yet, tourism stimulates little spillover effects into the local economy, other than employment created within the urban-based touristic domain. Three interrelated factors contribute to this phenomenon: (1)

concentration of tourists in the urban areas; (2) high level of import propensity to meet the tourism industry's material needs; and (3) locals' inability to produce and supply consumable products.

The Tourism Development Plan (1975) measured an income multiplier value of 3.2 to 4.3 to exemplify the magnitude of the tourism economy, albeit with a leakage factor of 16 percent. The leakage of tourism expenditure increased to about 50 percent in 1989/90, revealing "insufficient backward linkages to the traditional sectors of the economy" (Tan 1991: 169). Similarly, patterns of international tourist expenditures in 1995 and 2000 feature a wide spectrum of industrial linkages, but present a similar dilemma of low local goods consumption. As shown in Table 5-5, a good proportion of tourist dollars is distributed to accommodation, shopping, food and beverages that are typically offset against hard currency commitments, while only a quarter of spending is comprised by domestic transportation, recreational activities and entertainment that are likely to be supplied by local resources.

Table 5-5: Composition of Tourist Expenditure, 1995 and 2000, Malaysia

Category	1995	2000
Accommodation	32.0	32.8
Shopping	21.0	23.1
Food & beverages	18.0	19.5
Local transportation	8.0	7.1
Domestic airfares	5.0	4.6
Organized sightseeing	4.0	4.2
Entertainment	6.0	5.0
Miscellaneous	6.0	3.7
Total (percent)	100.0	100.0
Total (RM million)	9,174.9	17,335.4

Source: 8th Malaysia Plan (2001-2005), p. 436

Responding to these troublesome situations, Malaysia has been looking into ways of introducing and developing consumable tourism products to reinforce the use of local

resources, e.g. educational and health tourism products. Planning efforts in tourism sought out opportunities to provide inter-sectoral linkages; eco-tourism and agro-tourism were initiated under such a concept, aiming to help revitalize agriculture and forestry. Of course, promotion of agro-tourism also attempts to bring the rural dwellers into tourism commerce and to disperse highly urban-based tourism activities which have long been monopolized by and benefited the Chinese proprietors.

Under the 8th Malaysia Plan (2001-2005:445), Malaysia increasingly looks to tourism for economic growth: “the overall policy thrust of the tourism sector is to achieve sustainable growth in order to realize the full potential of employment and income generation effects at the national, state and local levels”. An average annual growth rate of 6.9 percent in tourist arrivals to 14.3 million with expenditures growing at 9.5 percent annually to reach RM 29.5 billion (USD 7.8 billion) in 2005 is anticipated. Diversification of tourism offerings is to be vigorously pursued and flamboyantly packaged, ranging from agro-, eco-, MICE (meetings, incentives, conferences and exhibitions), cruise, health, education, resort, shopping, sports, recreation, cultural and heritage tourism products. At the same time, more investments have been made in tourism; a 107 percent increase from RM 8.8 billion (USD 2.3 billion) during 1991-1995 to RM 18.2 billion (USD 4.8 billion) during 1996-2000, mainly in capital-intensive types of development projects.

All of these could facilitate immense tourism employment prospects, providing a buoyant job market. Figure 5-5 illustrates that employment in the hotel sector is of much higher remuneration than that of public services occupations. The greatest shortages of labour, although this observation differs sharply with observations by Malaysian labour authorities, and is in contrast to the situation in Hainan, PR China, are in fact those semi-skilled or non-skilled, which now rely on migrant workers from Indonesia.

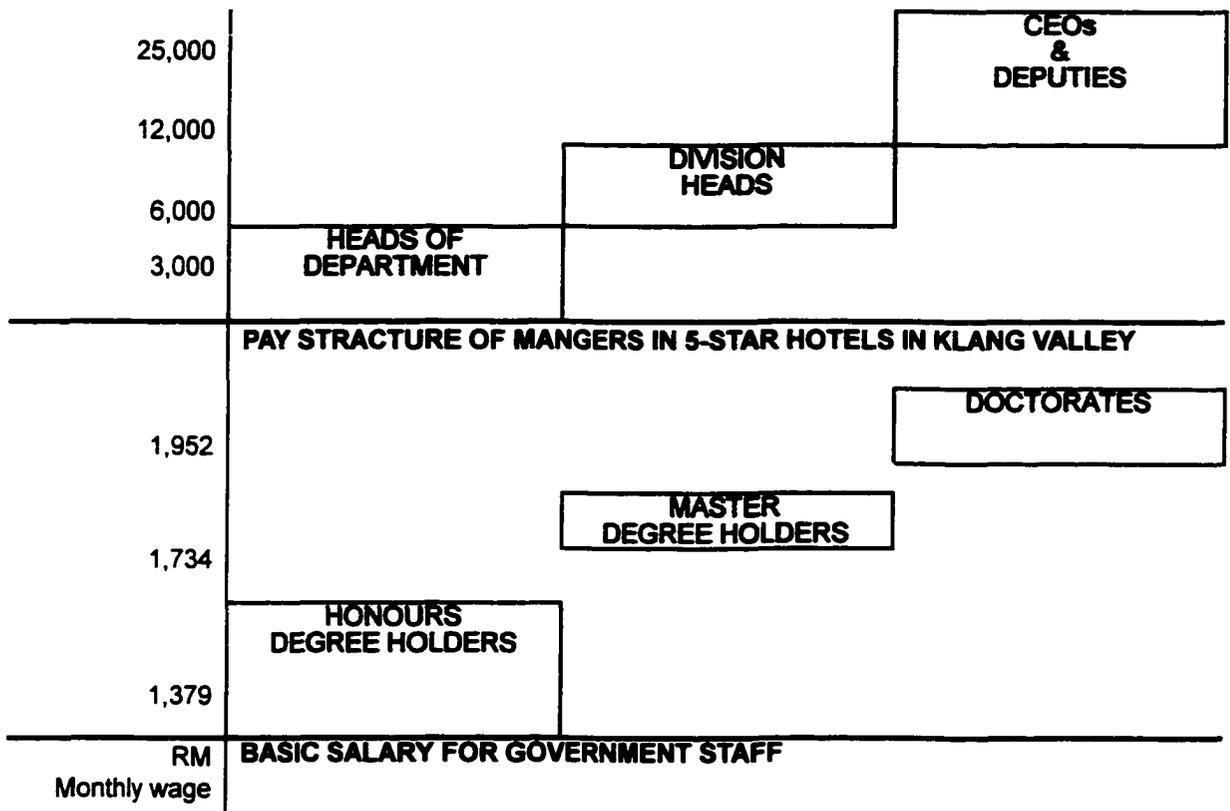


Figure 5-5: A Comparison of Wage Structure - Hotel Managers Versus Government Employees

Source: New Straits Times, June 10, 2000 (courtesy of Seri Malaysia Hotel, Alor Seter)

It appears that wage levels are less of a hindrance in the recruitment of workers. More of a deterrent is the industry's image and the nature of tourism undertakings. Casino tourism flourishes in the Genting Highlands and provides a rich laboratory to observe employment situations. A Food and Beverage Director from an international hotel has noted that the employee structure, generally speaking, has a diverse mix of Malaysia's ethnic groups with the Malays' dominating in the front-line operations as well as having some involvement in administrative functions. Technical/engineering personnel are mostly Indians. Chinese predominately serve as dealers in the casinos, where Malays' participation is prohibited on

religious grounds. He also noted that the Chinese prefer to be *towkays* (sole proprietors) rather than seeking fixed income employment. It appears that the Chinese sources of labour will be less dependable as this labour segment is in a diminishing trend in the tourism industry. While ethnic differentials in tourism employment structure lack statistical evidence, the response on the part of the government to tourism employment prospects has undoubtedly elevated stronger representation of the *bumiputras* as a result of protection of training resources and opportunities working in their favour, as will be further examined subsequently.

5.3.3 Human Resource Policies for Tourism

Tourism's workforce development strategies parallel the dual goals of Malaysia's development initiatives: improving Malaysian capacity and competence in general and correcting disequilibrium in employment structure in particular. The first national tourism master plan formulated by the TDC in 1975 prioritized human resources development as a key to the betterment of tourism development in the country. In the early 1970s, there were three sources of tourism education and training instituted by:

- Majlis Amanah Rakyat Institute of Technology (MARA);
- National Productivity Centre (NPC); and
- Tourism Development Corporation (TDC, Tourism Malaysia).

The MARA was the first institution of higher learning to offer disciplinary courses in tourism, incorporating both theories and practicality into accreditation modules with two categories - - hotel and catering (available at certificate, diploma and degree levels) and tourism administration programs (diploma and degree levels) (Japan International Cooperation Agency 1989). However, the MARA, as a training branch subordinated to the Council of Trust for the Indigenous People, imposed restrictions on the entry into such training programs,

accepting students with *bumiputra* status only, which obediently mirrored the NEP's priorities at the time. Similarly, when public funding is involved, the determinant criterion for eligibility for overseas training, education or even internship has been *bumiputraship*, leading to the emergence of numerous striking figures in tourism, especially in the hotel industry. In this way, the ethnic structural distribution in the tourism sector has been modified significantly.

The NPC has a limited annual capacity for 200 trainees and primarily focuses on theoretical aspects through formal 6-day workshops/seminars, as no facilities are available for practical exercises. The TDC caters to the training of tour guides and formulates a national syllabus for this training course. As tourism prospered, it was anticipated these three agencies would contribute to the development of some 250 managerial, 550 supervisory and 2,400 skilled workers each year (6th Malaysia Plan 1991-995). More significantly, the training manifested in Malaysia not only serves as a means to forge greater labour productivity but also as an alternative to the retrenchment of workers during recession.

Under the 6th Malaysia Plan (1991-1995), a National Council for Hotel and Tourism Training was proposed and officially established in 1992 re-entitled National Tourism Human Resources Development Council (NTHRDC), with the mandate to:

- identify key areas where training is lacking;
- establish national standards and certification;
- determine the relevant curricula; and
- provide overall coordination and supervision in tourism's human resources development (p. 245).

In response to the absence of national quality standards, qualifications and certifications, the NTHRDC took initiatives to develop the national occupational skills standards (NOSS) for the travel and hotel sectors. This was accomplished through collaboration with the National

Vocational Training Council (NVTC) to ensure compatibility and continuity with other vocational areas. By the end of the same plan period (7th Malaysia Plan 1996-2000), fifteen indicators of NOSS relating to tourism commerce were developed in the 7th plan period and then expanded to 71 indicators, composed of 30 in tourism and travel, 33 in the hotel and 8 in the theme park categories. It is expected that the NOSS system will help to incubate professionalism in the tourism sector, create competent job candidates, and eventually lead to the development of a wage structure in the tourism industry commensurate with the qualifications/certification granted by the public agencies.

The availability of training expanded rapidly in the 1990s to supplement the rather limited training capacity provided by the MARA, NPC and TDC. Malaysia's tourism training intensity has since been greatly improved through the involvement of 18 public and 47 private institutes, the hotel industry apprenticeship scheme (HIAS), the introduction of a levy-grant scheme, and human resources development fund (HRDF) that provides incentive grants encouraging the industry to undertake training tasks. The levy-grant scheme supports the public sector's determination to increase the skill intensity of the industry and promote greater dedication on the part of the industry in cultivating basic, enterprise-based and new skills, and skill advancement for workers. Since January 1, 1995, it has been mandatory for hotels and inbound tour operators with over 10 employees to register with the Human Resources Development Council (HRDC), under the Human Resources Development Act (HRDA) promulgated in 1992. Employers' failure to comply is subject to a fine of not more than RM 5,000 (USD 1,316) or imprisonment for a term not exceeding one year, or both, as stipulated by the HRDA. By the end of 1999, the hotel sector comprised almost half (48.8 percent) of the registry in the services category (Table 5-6).

Table 5-6: Services Sector Registry in HRDC, 1999

Industry Code	Industry	Number of employers	Percentage
63200	Hotel	675	48.08
71161	Freight forwarders	229	16.31
71210	Shipping	58	4.13
71310	Air transport	26	1.71
71919	Travel agency	46	3.28
72001	Postal/courier	21	1.50
72009	Telecommunication	52	3.70
83230	Computer	204	14.53
83250	Advertising	95	6.76
Total		1,404	100.00

Source: 1999 Annual Report of Human Resources Development Council, Malaysia, p.59.

Among the apprenticeship schemes organized by the HRDC, the hotel industry apprenticeship scheme (HIAS) has been the most popular one taken by fresh graduates. It accounted for 1,524 or 62 percent of all apprentices in training between 1998 and 1999 (Table 5-7). Under the sponsorship of 104 employers, the HIAS is generally grouped into 3 modules (i.e. accommodation practice and reception techniques, beverage services, and kitchen operation) with a total of 6-month training duration (inclusive of 3-month on-the-job training).

Table 5-7: Composition of Apprenticeship Schemes 1998-1999

Apprenticeship schemes	Total of Apprentices	Ethnic background		Gender	
		Bumiputra	Non Bumiputra	Male	Female
Mechatronics	830	638 (77%)	192 (23%)	706 (85%)	124 (15%)
Hotel industry	1,524	1,044 (68.5%)	480 (31.5%)	789 (51.8%)	735 (48.2%)
Industrial machining	24	9 (37.5%)	15 (62.5%)	24 (100%)	-
Tool and die machining	77	70 (91%)	7 (9%)	76 (98.7%)	1 (1.3%)

Source: Annual Report 1999 of Human Resources Development Council, p. 67.

In Malaysia's tourism workforce development arena, there are very few areas which have not seen the involvement of Ministry of Culture, Arts and Tourism (MOCAT) in one capacity or another. The vision of the current Minister of MOCAT is "a quality workforce that is attuned to the highest international standards yet deeply steeped in Malaysia's culture, traditions and heritage" to contribute to the long-term success of tourism in Malaysia, which "hinges on the country's ability to develop sustainable tourism and attract repeated visitors" (Keynote address delivered in the first hospitality and tourism educators national conference, June 14, 2001). However, MOCAT appears to be most enthusiastic about the marketing and promotion activities. Even the in-house training of the MOCAT gives most emphasis to marketing skills rather than the background that a tourism planner might be expected to possess. "An individual's deportment, knowledge of Malaysia's cultural and natural resources, and interpersonal and communication skills to promote Malaysian tourism" is simplistically the qualifications an officer involved in tourism should require (interview with MOCAT representatives)!

In light of the state's sanctions in reinforcing the *bumiputra*'s involvement, the cross-sector integration of training efforts has surely provided effective means, financially, intellectually and professionally, to channel late entrants into the tourism venture. Thus, in review of the impediments identified by Din in 1989 (Table 5-8), one can assume that the entry to tourism commerce is now less hazardous for the *bumiputras* as virtually all are supported by various public agencies. However, empirical perspectives are to a large extent incongruent with the belief that the maturity of craftsmanship is an effective prescription to cure the inactivity of the *bumiputras*.

Table 5-8: Perceived Reasons for the Lack of Malay Entrepreneurs in Tourism

Reasons	Percentage (multiple choices)
Lack of capital	69.1%
Lack of knowledge and experience	61.0%
Lack of interest and business tradition	44.0%
Lack of business contacts, leadership and information	30.3%
Lack of initiative and diligence	28.7%
Ethnic monopoly and discrimination	20.0%
Ineffective government policy	5.1%
Do not know	16.4%

Source: Din (1989a: 285)

5.4 Tourism in Kedah

Kedah State of Malaysia, which is located at the northern tip of the peninsula bordering with Thailand (Figure 5-6), is densely tinted with Muslim characteristics originating from the traditional Islamic foothold dated back to 1136 and, contemporarily, two Prime Ministers' pedigree association. As a granary or "rice bowl" of Malaysia, Kedah's terrain features abundant cropland (about 52 percent of land use) and forestry (37 percent) with a very low level of urbanization (2 percent). Natural resource based industry supplies the main income source, which provides a pedestal for light industry expansions, predominately furniture factories and tobacco barns. This relatively low industrialization base makes Kedah an underprivileged state with low gross monthly household income that is 40 percent less than the Malaysian mean and almost twice the poverty level.

As a part of the economic stimulus, the prefectural government places emphasis on intensified infrastructure expansion and industrial diversification to stimulate an economic rejuvenation in Kedah. The rather small size of the total Kedah economy combined with the successful resort development in its Langkawi island suggest that the relative importance of tourism in Kedah is of a high order. In fact, a series of industrial development and service

industry expansions derived from tourism have been rigorously pursued through large-scale and capital-intensive projects, despite rich relics and antiquity embellishing its traditional cultural landscape. As a result, Kedah's landscape has been "resurgent" with modern developments emerging both in the urban and rural areas.

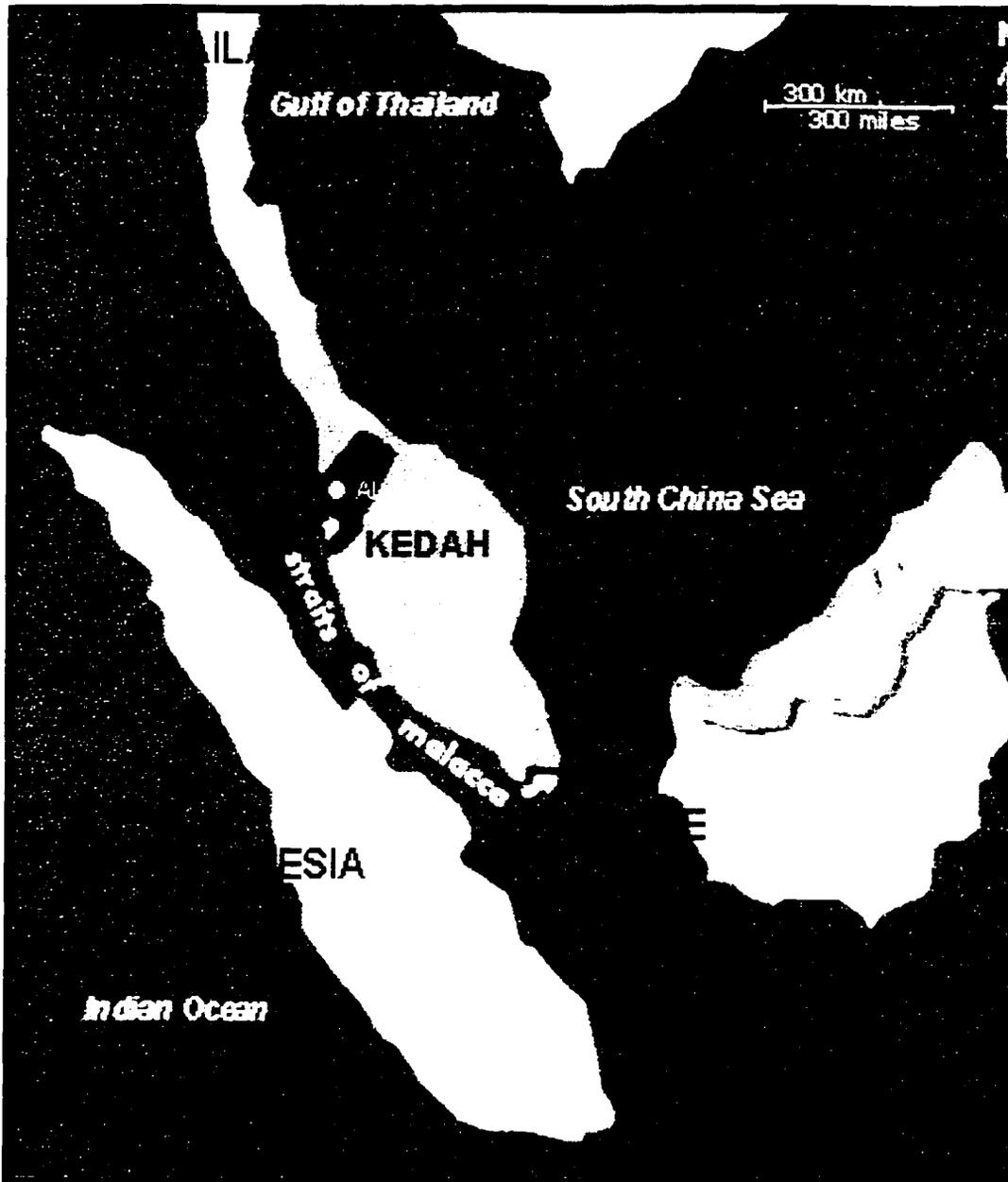


Figure 5-6: Map of Kedah

The rising of Menara Telecom (the fourth tallest tower in Malaysia), which has been inserted into the concentration of prestigious heritage preservations, substitutes for cultural legacy as an emblematic image of the state capital, Alor Setar. The recent 680-acre industrial development near Kota Kuala Kedah (a port connecting Kedah mainland and Langkawi island) is another manifestation of Malaysia's pursuit of modernization. This development has given no choice or control to the local fishermen, whose livelihood has been impacted by the relocation of 30 anchorages and numerous fishing villages. Similarly, the international-class resorts densely situated in off-shore Pulau Langkawi and tourist enclaves of Pedu Golf and Lake Resort near the Malaysia-Thailand border, were all established through decisions made by the leadership and not by local initiatives. Even the local authorities' involvement has been minimal. A prefectural tourism body did not exist until a tourism section was established in 1995; an annex to the Economic Planning Unit with two officers working with a very constrained annual budget of about half a million ringgit (USD 131,579).

Furthermore, intensive tourism development has been programmed without an appropriate comprehension of the resources upon which tourism depends. The nature of tourism development in Kedah does not cater to the local spheres in terms of its adaptability, capacity and market forces. Rather, the main themes are geared towards and symbolic of the ambitious national agenda embodying growth. The craft-level or indigenous-based industry is, thus, of low status and is, in fact, a victim of the modernization plans.

For example, Langkawi island, which has evolved as a self-contained international resort destination with overwhelming accommodation capacity (about 7,000 rooms or 77 percent of Kedah's total supply) and accessibility, disperses few spill-over benefits to the mainland. Likewise, the North-South Expressway running through the Malaysia peninsula reaching the Thai border directs few tourists into Kedah. Metropolitans from Kuala Lumpur and Penang and even the Kedahnees themselves, bypass what Kedah has to offer and head directly to

Haadyai in Thailand, which is perceived to have more entertainment options and better value for money.

Political will also has a strong influence on the course of tourism development. Expansion of agro-based tourism development has a limitation in dispersing tourism benefits across ethnic lines, since the customary land tenure systems stipulated retention of land ownership for the indigenous group other than immigrants. Imposed by both tourists' circumscription of attractions and planned delimitation of tourist destinations by government, a matter of concern is then not only about the attractiveness to clientele, but also in terms of official promises of distributive equity within Malaysia's ethnic interests and between districts.

The government has, however, attempted to correct deficiencies appearing in past tourism practice by identifying indigenous tourism as part of Kedah's tourism diversification. Under the first tourism master plan of 2001, indigenous involvement is asserted to be a core ingredient. The main objectives set in the first master tourism plan were to expedite tourism growth, outperforming the prediction of the current 5-year Malaysia Plan, and to promote greater indigenous representation in the tourism industry. Tourist arrivals in Kedah are expected to increase from about 380,000 in the 1990s to 1.6 million in the early 2000s and to 4.9 million by 2010 (interview with tourism planner of Kedah).

Kedah has great expectations for prospective tourism income to improve their underprivileged condition. At the same time, tourism has been increasingly operated as a lever to overcome rural sluggishness and as a facilitator to infuse urban culture into the rusticity. Nevertheless, given the dominance of a large, rural-based, Muslim population, promoting tourism as a mainstream economic activity evokes questions of fundamental skill deficiencies and of villagers' cultural adaptability to tourism. Employment entries into tourism are, to some extent, confronted by Islam proscriptions. This dilemma, adherence to Islamism or reconciliation with tourist culture, has long existed and is further complicated by

ambivalent attitudes. At one extreme, it is advocated that tourism ought to be placed within an Islamic framework (Din 1989c) and, at the other extreme, other views confine this issue as a localized one, because “Islam is not a significant object of the tourist gaze in a general sense” (King 1993:114). Yet the empirical information points to omissions, which betray a staggering contempt for the need to address socio-cultural hindrances in Malaysia’ training and education efforts to develop the tourism workforce. This has marred tourism’s image as a promising employer and a progressive career option, as illustrated by examples drawn from the Kedah case study.

5.5 Differentiating Education and Training Needs:

5.5.1 Prologue: Ethnicity Differences and Incongruities

Malaysia as a whole has carefully distinguished itself from a blatant and racy image as a tourism destination with most efforts being devoted to creating a conservative product identity. At the same time, ethnic diversity has been addressed as a value-added asset to tourism with a special emphasis on developing a more distinctive Malaysian image and identity to reflect values that are consonant with the Malaysian way of life (6th Malaysia Plan 1991-1995). While striving for an Islamic framework on which to base tourism operations, the desire to foster continuous tourism growth has played a role in shaping “beef bacon” culture that has emerged in Malaysian tourism. This has meant a process of negotiations between the local traditional values and tourists’ tastes. Some concessions to Western standards are inevitable.

However, pluralism exists because of the multi-ethnic structure of Malaysian society. Rashid *et al.* (1997:52) distinguish the diversity of values and beliefs that permeate Malaysia’s three major ethnic groups:

.... the Malays are predominantly Muslims and have a strong respect for

elders and traditional leaders which can override rational decisions. The Chinese, on the other hand, give less importance to religion but show values relating to hard-work, diligence, success, meritocracy, pragmatism and wealth. The Indians, predominantly Hindus, showed high values on loyalty, hard-work, family, and fear of God.

The stereotype of ethnic differences in values, belief and characteristics, partly explains the dominance of the Chinese ethnic group at the early stages of tourism development in Malaysia and partly exemplify the reasons behind the persistent problem of interethnic income disparities. The Malays, marked by religious prescriptions, require more adaptation to and greater tolerance for tourists' indulgent behaviour than their Chinese and Indian counterparts so that they can access tourism employment opportunities. As late entrants, they also need knowledge and skills to cope with the ethnic dominance in the tourism trade. The cultural and religious proscriptions, in a subtle way, still exert strong influences on the Malays' choice of and willingness to accept tourism employment.

The Malays are also assigned by their constitution to a life-time commitment to Islam - - the constitution defines Malay as "a person who professes the religion of Islam". It is, therefore, hard for the policy-makers and tourism trainers to go beyond the religious boundaries to interpret tourism differently. Under the Syariah Acts, the Muslims are to avoid from entertainment places (nightclubs, discotheques, cabarets, billiard, lounges, karaokes and cyber cafes), including hotels with entertainment offerings. Even in terms of physical environment, deliberate segregation of the Muslim community from the contamination of "ill-conceived" tourism establishments has been proposed. For example, restrictions are to be imposed upon zoning of places of entertainment since these facilities are seen as a requirement of the non-Muslims and, therefore, it is logical that they be permitted only in non-Malay majority areas. All of this reflects the values and beliefs of Malays. This inevitably engenders

a moralistic or repressive response rather than encouraging participation by the Malays in the positive forms of tourism employment.

The culture and political system in Malaysia consistently predispose Malays to take the lead in the multi-ethnic society. For the tourism sector, policies as well as education and training endeavours, however, have not adequately identified the specific needs and problems that halt the Malays' involvement in tourism. But the need for equity is continually expressed. Tourism education and training needs envisaged by the government as most effective to increase the Malay's participation, have been centered on the enhancement of technical knowledge and skills. There is a dearth of attention to the removal of cultural impediments.

A relevant investigation in this context is undertaken in Kedah State, where there is strong religious adherence with growing interest in tourism. As will be demonstrated from examples of tourism students and workers elicited from Kedah, there is a need to link education and training approaches with cultural sensitivities. An examination of rural tourism initiatives follows. This is a mode of development which seeks to capitalize local resources but the action plan indicates otherwise. Operational difficulties in tourism and challenges in training and securing personnel of high calibre, are also highlighted.

5.5.2 Students' Cognitions of Tourism

In the summer of 2001, students of different ethnic backgrounds enrolled in the tourism program of University Utara Malaysia were surveyed to explore their views concerning tourism education and jobs, and a career in the tourism field. Of the eighty questionnaires distributed to the final-year students, sixty-seven completed copies were returned. The response rate was 83.8 percent.

Tourism studies were initially offered in the School of Management. The School of Tourism Management was established in 1999, offering degree courses in tourism (Bachelor

of Tourism Management Honours). The mission of the Tourism School is to generate “a community of thinkers and scholars that will promote sustainable tourism practices in Malaysia and the ASEAN region”. Its objectives are to:

- produce professional managers and administrators in tourism-related sectors;
- serve as a national centre of excellence in training, education and scholarly endeavour in tourism; and
- search and accumulate knowledge in tourism management based on the world standard of best practices.

In a modern and progressive context (sustainable development approach to tourism), and from local and regional viewpoints, and short- and mid-term objectives, the tourism program is aimed to become a leader in tourism education and research with improved conceptual and research capabilities as well as enhanced networking among key players of the tourism sector. Similarly, it embraces a global scope (long-term objectives) to develop a centre of excellence in tourism research and curriculum development as well as an internationally acclaimed tourism journal. The curriculum correspondingly includes both academic (i.e. tourism research methodology) and professional (i.e. hotel management) types of tourism courses (Appendix D). It is organized within an integrated framework which emphasizes a multi-disciplinary approach to tourism studies (e.g. facets of policy, planning, management, psychology, geography, finance and law, etc). The course content delicately caters to the main components of tourism and is very useful in that it offers practical and up-to-date specialization areas (e.g. human resources information system, sports management and event management, etc) to the students.

In Malaysia, as per the quota stipulation for university intake, students of Malay ethnic origin comprise the largest group of the student population and, at the same time, the

participation of Chinese and Indian students is limited, as at every public university. The respondents' profile reflects this: the Malay students (64.2 percent) comprised the majority of students surveyed, followed by Chinese (25.4 percent), Indians (4.5 percent), Thai (4.5 percent) and other ethnic groups (4.5 percent) (Table 5-9).

Table 5-9: Ethnic Distribution of Students

Ethnic group	Count	Percent
Malay	43	64.2
Chinese	17	25.4
Indian	3	4.5
Thai	3	4.5
Others	1	1.5
Total	67	100.0

Unfortunately, the disproportionate ethnic composition of student population limits the types of statistical analysis that can be performed. For example, chi-square (an application of cross-tabulation that is based on the sum of the differences between the counts (observed values) and the expected values to demonstrate the level of significance of relationship between variables (Veal 1992)) cannot be employed to test the relationship between ethnicity and enrolment patterns because of larger Malay student population in the sample size. As a result, comparing means, although descriptive in nature, is more appropriate and useful to evaluate the level of importance each respondent attaches to a specific situation or characteristic. Because of the relatively small sample sizes involving the Indian and other ethnic groups, the survey results are presented using categorizations of Malay (43 counts, 64.2 percent) Chinese (17 counts, 25.4 percent) and others (7 counts, 10.5 percent).

In general, both students and their parents possessed rather positive views of tourism education. Table 5-10 shows that approximately three quarters of students surveyed ranked

the tourism program as being in their top two choices of university undertakings and their parents were supportive of their decisions. Only 6 percent of students surveyed specified that the tourism program was not their priority area of study. Similarly, there were only 2 students (3 percent) who indicated that their parents did not support their choice of tourism studies. The Malay students (mean = 3.95) appeared to be slightly keener on tourism studies than their Chinese counterparts (mean = 3.06) and other ethnic groups (mean = 3.14) (Table 5-11).

Table 5-10: Malaysian Students' and their Parents' Preference for the Tourism Program

Students' choice	1 st choice	2 nd choice	3 rd choice	4 th choice	After the 5 th choice
	50.7%	25.4%	4.5%	4.5%	1.5%
Parents' Attitude	Strongly agree	Agree	No opinion	Disagree	Strongly disagree
	10.4%	62.7%	23.9%	3.0%	0.0%

Note: 5 = strongly agree, 1 = strongly disagree.

Table 5-11: Ethnic Differentials in Students' Choice of Tourism Program

Ethnic Groups	Students' choice of tourism			Parents' Attitude towards tourism		
	Mean	Count	Std. Dev.	Mean	Count	Std. Dev.
Malay	3.95	43	1.54	3.86	43	0.60
Chinese	3.06	17	1.64	3.71	17	0.59
Others	3.14	7	1.57	3.71	7	1.11
Total	3.64	67	1.60	3.81	67	0.66

Note: The value of the first choice is 5 and the fifth choice weights 1.

Tourism itself presents a good image to students as an interesting educational option with good employment opportunities. When students were asked to indicate the factors that influenced their choice of tourism program, tourism students demonstrated a high level of self-discretion in determining their learning paths with emphasis on future employment security (Figure 5-7). "Own interests" (mean = 4.45) was rated as being one of the main reasons to

enroll in a tourism program. Their motivation for choosing tourism as their major study area was also guided by the notion of the diversified nature of tourism studies and the good employment prospects involved. “An interesting area of study”, “employment potential” and “good earning prospect” were also identified by the students as being influential in affecting their decision to choose tourism studies. In terms of inter-ethnic comparison, there are no significant differences. The students of Malay origins, however, seem to consider the intensity level of course requirements more than other students of different ethnic background (mean of “easier than other disciplines”: Malay group is 3.63, Chinese group is 2.35 and other ethnic group is 2.57).

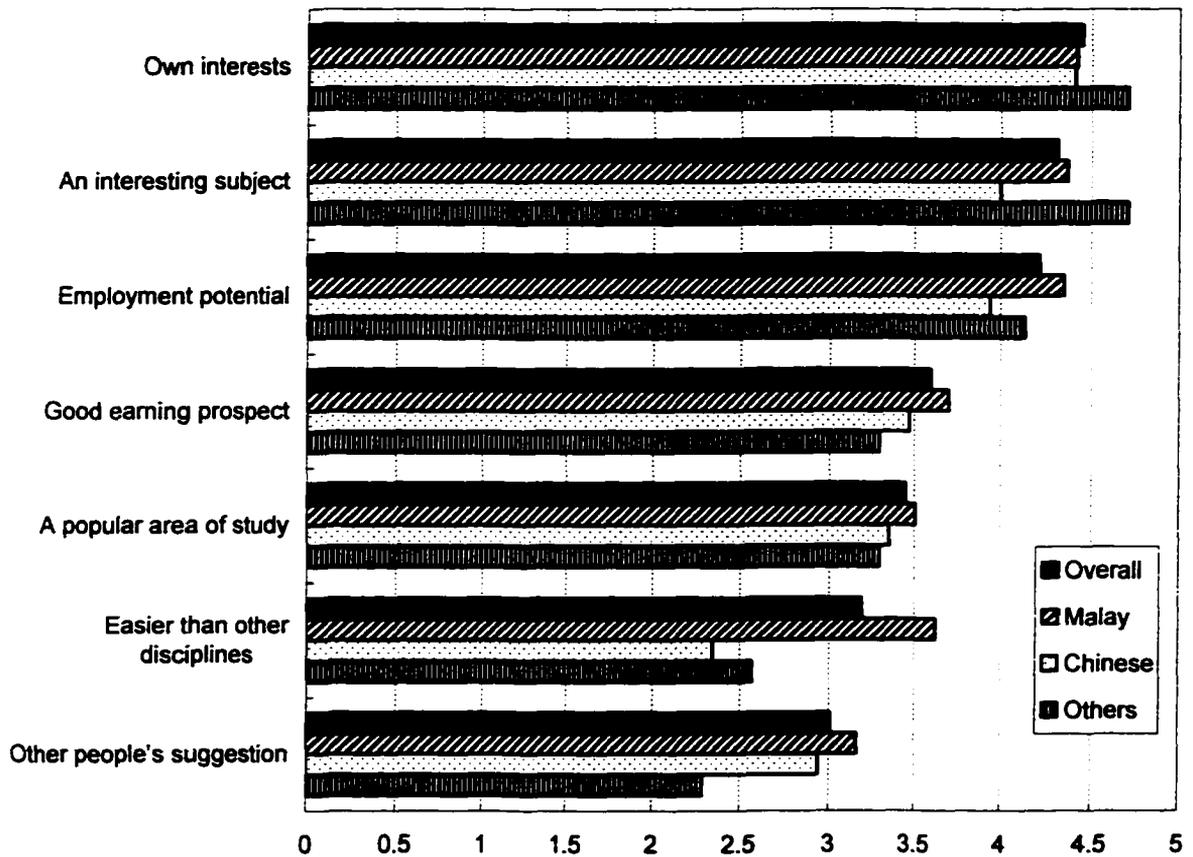


Figure 5-7: Factors Influencing Malaysian Students' Choice of Tourism Program

Note: 5 = most important, 1= not at all.

At the same time, the students surveyed have shown a balanced view concerning the expected coverage of a tertiary level tourism program. The weights given to the learning areas of general professional training, technical competence, specialization and broad tourism planning issues were almost equal (Figure 5-8). However, to be competitive in the job market and effective in job search, the students, to some extent, inclined to operational knowledge and skills, management expertise as well as communication skills and etiquette. In the area of tourism administration, regulations and profession ethics, the Malay students indicated greater interests than the other students (Malay mean is 4.37, Chinese is 4.00 and other ethnic groups is 3.86). The emphasis placed on foreign languages by the students surveyed was less prominent presumably because of intrinsic multi-lingual characteristics in Malaysian society.

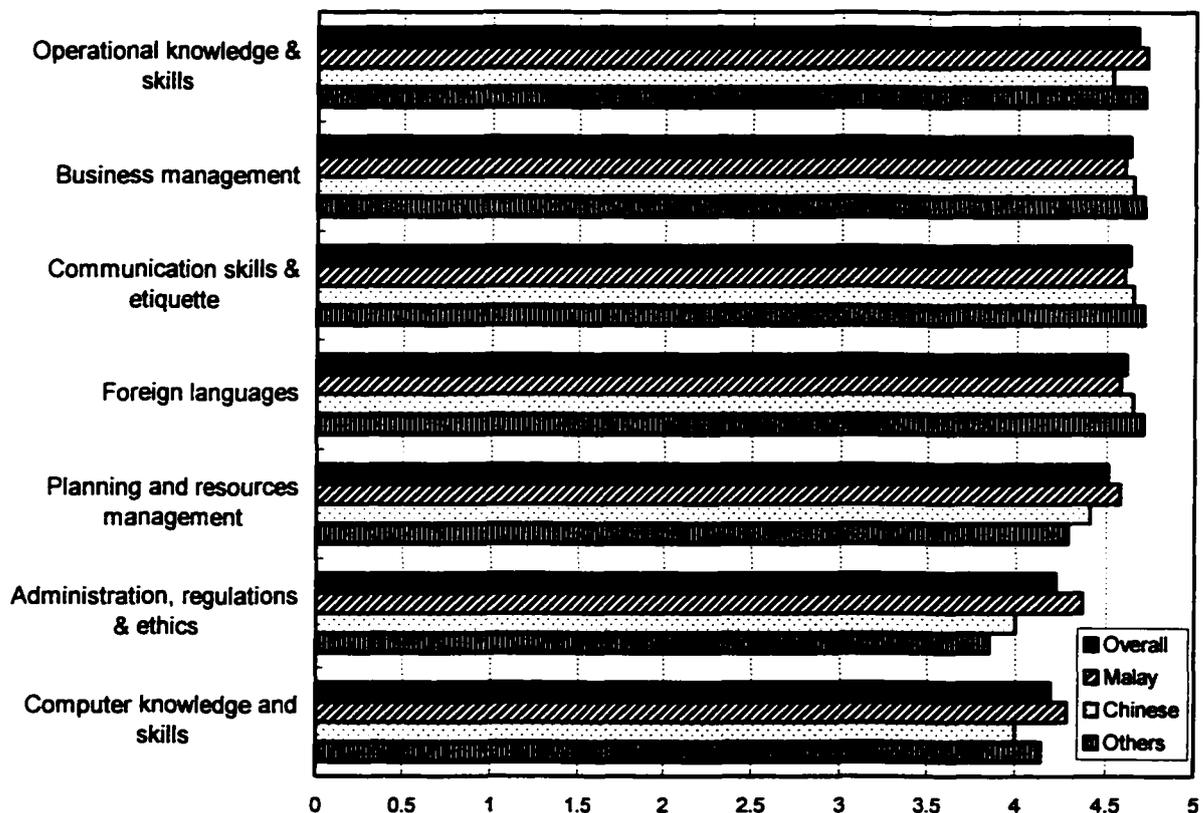


Figure 5-8: Tourism Courses Expected by Malaysian Students

Note: 5 = most expected, 1 = not at all.

Tourism was generally perceived by the students as being a growth sector in the Malaysian economy that is full of plentiful employment opportunities. More importantly, students found the non-static nature exhibited in many tourism jobs to be the most striking feature of the tourism industry. The appeal of tourism, which offers many opportunities to meet a variety of people with possibilities to travel, also makes the tourism profession an attractive option for students. As shown in Figure 5-9, the students surveyed, in principle, supported the statements that tourism is an interesting job (mean = 4.33) with good employment opportunities (mean = 4.09) and attractive job options (mean = 3.72). Despite this perceived alluring image, students were also fairly well aware of the generally low wage structure of the tourism industry; they showed modest opinions about wages and welfare (mean = 3.18) offered by the tourism industry. At the same time, students also acknowledged the physical strength required to perform the common tasks involved in the tourism industry; most students did not agree that tourism jobs are “soft” tasks (mean = 2.85). Overall, students tended to value the tourism jobs based on a glamorous image and future employment security.

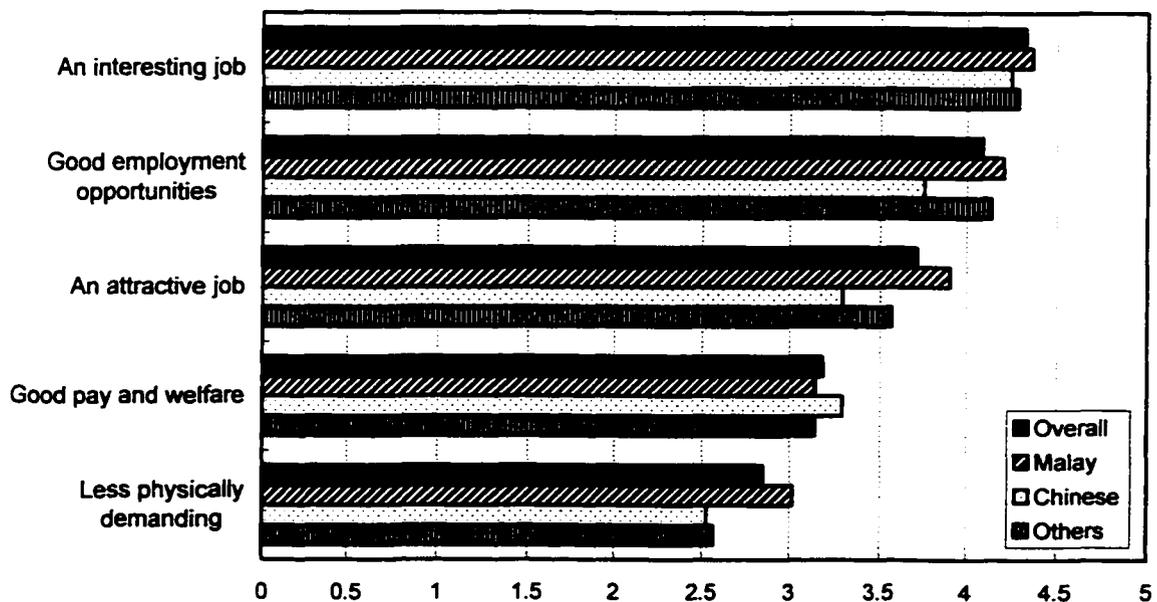


Figure 5-9: Malaysian Students' Perception of the Tourism Profession

Note: 5 = strongly Agree, 1 = strongly disagree.

Nevertheless, although the system of tourism education lays knowledge and skill foundations for students, its merits were not well acknowledged. In their responses regarding the critical qualifications for entry-level manager positions in the tourism field, students identified human ability (mean = 4.72), such as communication and co-ordination skills, as being the most crucial element (Figure 5-10). Good personal traits (mean = 4.57), management expertise (mean = 4.55), and relevant work experience (mean = 4.46) were also perceived as being very important qualifications for a successful job candidate to possess, while education (mean = 4.16) was valued just behind the above items. Age (mean = 3.85) and gender (mean = 3.27) were perceived of less significant in tourism industry’s recruitment preferences. The students of Chinese and other ethnic background appeared to consider gender to be a little less influential in their career progression in tourism than their Malay counterparts.

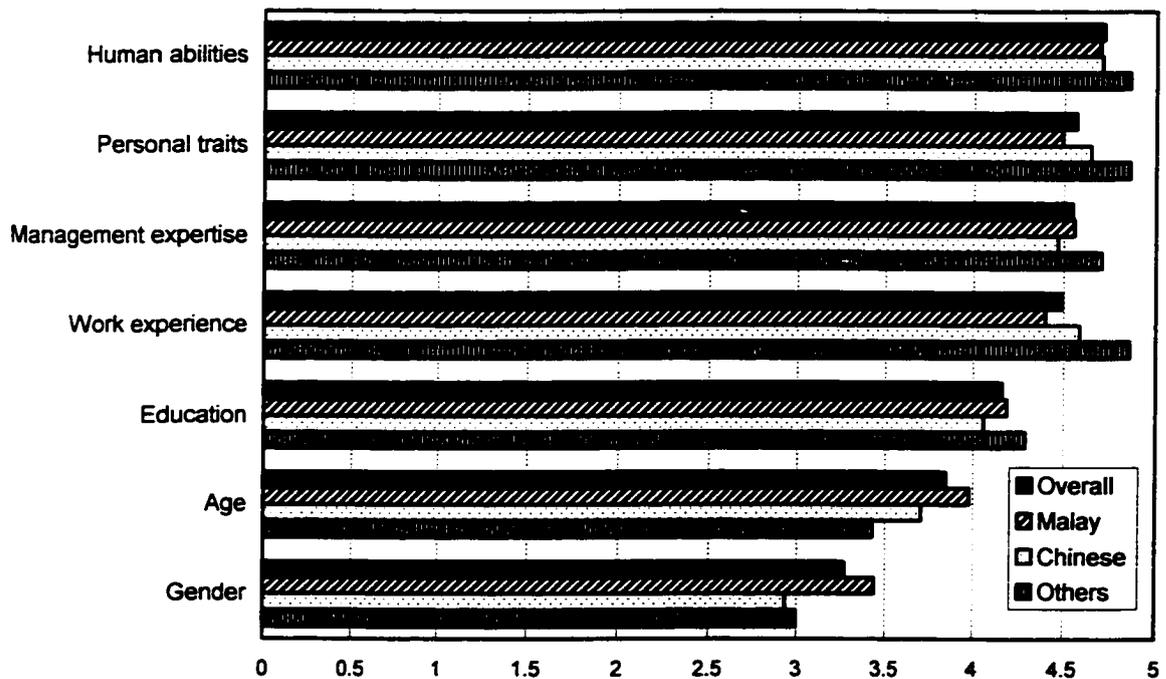


Figure 5- 10: Qualifications of Entry-level Managers Perceived by Malaysian Students
 Note: 5 = most important, 1 = not important at all.

Table 5-12 reveals that students were aware of the state of the tourism job markets and appeared to have responded rationally to the characteristics exhibited in the tourism employment environment. Hotel, tour operation and airline sectors, as three major sources of tourism employment, were selected by the students as the top three potential employers. Influenced by a high stake and capital-intensive image of tourism, there was lack of enthusiasm in developing proprietorship in a tourism business by the students surveyed. Though not entirely associated with tourism, Chinese students indicated their interests in restaurant and catering services. Other entrepreneurial ventures include tour operations and craft and souvenir stores.

Table 5-12: Malaysian Students' Favourable Tourism Employers

Most favourable employer	Percentage of respondents	
	Unprompted	Prompted (ranked 1-3)
Tour business sector	24.4%	24.9%
Hotel sector	16.9%	21.9%
Airline company	20.4%	20.6%
Tourism administration office	18.4%	16.4%
Attraction sector	8.5%	7.7%
Tourism education	10.0%	7.0%
Entrepreneur	1.5%	1.5%
Total	100.0%	100.0%

Note: The value of the first choice is 3 (most favourable employer) and the third choice weights 1.

However, an examination of the sectoral-specific cases reveals that students' employment inclinations are actually different. Their preferences of the desired tourism profession were found to be proportionate to their ethnic differences due to the impact of the relevant government policies on the employment environment. Using results produced from the consolidation of students rankings of their intended jobs by priorities (i.e. first choice

weighting 3 and third choice weighting 1), Figure 5-11 shows that ethnic background and characteristics as well as policy realities were important determinants that influence ethnic groups' choices of career path. Other than common interests in dominant tourism employers such as the hotel, travel business and airline sector, diverse interests appeared in positions in the public tourism administration offices and education sector.

Similarly, differences between the Malay and Chinese groups were also detected in regard to their intention to explore entrepreneurship in tourism. Data presented in Figure 5-11 (based on multiple choices with 3-level scales, 3 being most desirable and 1 being not desirable at all) reveal that, less than 6 percent of Chinese students indicated a desire for government employment in the tourism field as opposed to over one-fifth (20.5 percent) of the Malay students. At the same time, while there was an indication of pragmatism, adventurousness and ambitious intentions to “start from scratch” on the part of Chinese students, the Malays were less keen on entrepreneurship. As indicated in Figure 5-11, for the 43 Malays students surveyed, none indicated an interest in any kind of proprietorship in tourism operations.

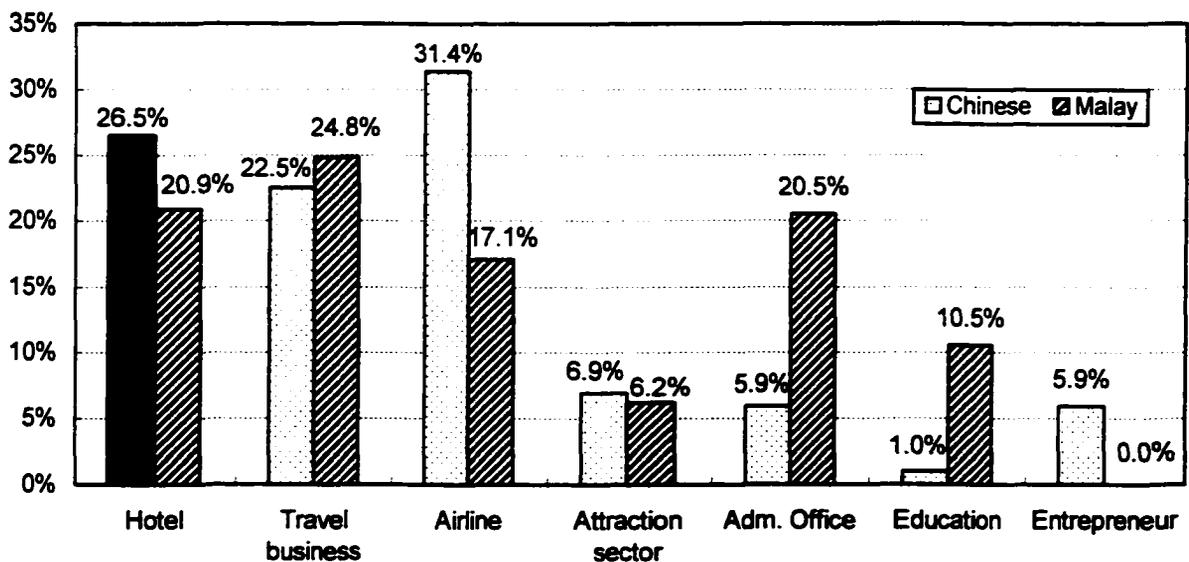


Figure 5-11: Preference of Tourism Employment (Malay versus Chinese)

The students were also questioned concerning their ethnic and cultural concerns related to their participation in tourism-related jobs. Some concerns were found. In a statistical sense, the issues raised by the Malay students were much more substantial than the issues raised by the other ethnic groups (Table 5-13). The Muslim ritual of “*haram*” (not permissible by Islam) is the predominant factor that appears to restrict Malays’ involvement in tourism, including dress code, religious observations, morality and code of conduct. Students of other ethnic backgrounds, on the other hand, expressed little concerns about any kind of job placement in the tourism sector. The few issues raised by them were mainly associated with the social problems of gambling and the noticeable consequences of excessive development practices which are not necessarily directly related to their ethnic culture or belief.

Table 5-13: Malaysian Students’ Concerns about Tourism-related Jobs

Tourism sector	Malay n = 43	Chinese n = 17	Others n = 7
Tour business sector	1		
Hotel sector	46	2	2
Airline sector	5		
Entertainment	28	1	
Other activities	8	2	
Total	88	5	2

Note: students gave multi-responses to the question structured in an open-ended way.

Islamic behavioural codes affect the Malay students’ choices of tourism employment significantly. Inevitably, the Malay students seemed to be vulnerable and sensitive to the hedonistic character of much tourism. Jobs that are likely to involve alcoholic drinks, entertainment and direct contact with the opposite sex (particularly for females) are not favourable employment options for Malay students. Frequently mentioned job titles which were identified by students as being contradictory to their value systems, mostly come from

the hotel-related services, including: bar tender, waiter/waitress, guest relations officer, etc. Reasons used to support their statements were predominately values and beliefs related to their religious backgrounds.

It was noticed from students' description of the tourism industry that tourism, in some cases, was being misinterpreted as a source of breeding social stigmas. Hotel facilities, for example, are negatively viewed as places promoting prostitution and drinking which are "*haram*" or "*hukum agama*" (punishable under Islam codes), totally unacceptable to the Malay community's social values. Apparels were also an issue. Female students were concerned about the styles of uniforms designated in some tourism workplaces that may not meet the Islamic dress codes. Similarly, tourist-oriented stage performances were also identified by some students as inappropriate activities because female cultural performers "*tauladan terlalu membuka aurat*" (reveal their bodies too much which is not an acceptable behaviour for Muslim women), and "*wanita Islam dilarang melakukannya di hadapan lelaki asing*" (Malay women are prohibited to perform such a activities in the presence of foreigners). Inconvenient work schedules which conflict with their required five times per day worship formalities, were also identified as another problem. As indicated by a female student of Malay origin, hesitance to pursue careers in the airline sector (as a flight attendant) was again largely because of religious reasons: "*waktu solat yang tidak tetap dan pergaulan terlalu bebas*" (cannot pray five times a day and mix too freely with men).

In summary, students' views, perceptions and judgments vary due to their different cultural and social values. This, in turn, has a significant impact on their choice of participation in tourism. Results explicitly point out that students of Malay background feel that certain types of tourism employment challenge the moralistic values of their community and, to a large extent, are incongruent with their customary values and beliefs (particularly in the cases of females' involvement in tourism jobs). These religion-related issues do not seem to be

important to the students of other ethnic origins in their pursuit of employment in the tourism sector.

This unique situation in Malaysia demands sensitivities and flexibilities in developing education and training programs for tourism. A divergent yet standardized approach appears to be more adequate - - an approach that addresses the specific training needs of a multi-ethnic workforce, while conveying the general principles of tourism objectives within the whole Malaysian society context. The ensuing discussion, which is based on interviews with a variety of agencies involved in tourism workforce development, reveals that there is an obvious omission in this respect, creating operational difficulties for the tourism operators. However, effective strategies to solve the problem or even gain attention from the public tourism administration, education circles as well the tourism employers themselves, are lacking.

5.5.3 Problems of Undifferentiated Approaches

In Kedah, the shortage of tourism labour persists and increasingly becomes a major operational challenge confronting many tourism employers. This problem arises mainly because of the competition for labour between industries, the tourism industry's low wage structure and a disciplined work environment that tourism creates (interviews). The tourism planner of Kedah explained reasons for the recruitment challenges in tourism:

“While such industries as electronic manufacturing offer a base salary of 1,000 ringgit plus overtime compensation as well as bonus and productivity incentives, the tourism industry can hardly match up. At the same time, the tourism industry demands a highly disciplined work attitude with multi-skill requirements, which makes it even hard to attract youngsters to move into this sector .”

A craft-level position such as waiter/waitress or housekeeper earns between RM 300 to 400 (USD 79 to 105) per month and clerical-level personnel, such as receptionists or accountants, receive RM 600 (USD 158). These monthly wages and varied performance incentives do not provide an adequate level of income. Paradoxically, the labour import strategy employed to remedy labour shortage problem further exacerbates the imbalance in the local labour market. The government has relaxed its quota on importing workers (mainly unskilled and low-skilled) from overseas to fill up vacancies confronted by the tourism industry, while Kedah still suffers from one of the highest low-income and poverty rates in Malaysia. There has been no concerted effort on the part of the public sector to spread tourism employment to the marginalized, creating a maze of disparities between employer requirements and labour supply. As such, impediments of any kind that may have halted the locals' engagement in tourism are a residual issue in the big scheme of tourism development.

At the same time, tourism workers are faced with their own set of values in responding to and fulfillment of their clients' requests. It is not uncommon to see the non-Muslim staff undertake those sensitive tasks that their Muslim colleagues hesitate to do. This is the tourism workers' only coping strategy. The standard expression from tourism workers of Muslim background was: "Tourists they have their lifestyles and I have my own". This reflects the Muslims community's Islamic religious instruction that they received in their formal education, guiding them to deal with the value pluralism in Malaysian society. The veterans of commented on this issue in an apathetic manner: "It is just a job" is a work philosophy adopted by Malay workers engaged in tourism.

Certainly, adherence to Islam often makes tourism-related jobs an unfavourable option for men and even more so for women in the Muslim community. However, in the educational or training programs, there is little or no attempt made to cater to the cultural differences to facilitate the creation of recognized career paths in tourism and more positive views

concerning the nature of tourism employment. This suggests that the involvement of Malays will continue to be ambiguous and subject to conflicting pressures that arise from their religious beliefs and moral imperatives.

There is a certain self-disciplined lifestyle for all Muslims, especially for females. Acting otherwise is viewed as anathema to their Islamic community. A second-year female student from Kelantan (one of the most rigid Muslim states) carrying out her internship in a resort, indicated her enthusiasm for employment opportunities in the hotel sector. However, she also indicated that she would not feel comfortable if she were asked to remove her *tudung* (head scarf) and *jubah* (robe). It is one of the prevailing cases that women's entry into tourism is generally being "swaddled", particular in conservative regions

The social characteristics of tourism would become a greater issue if *bumiputras* were to play a more active role in the tourism industry. The main question that arises concerns who should clarify some of the conflicts related to the Malays' involvement in the tourism sector? Most importantly, what can be done to create a religiously acceptable work environment, if it is at all possible? Not surprisingly, representatives of MOCAT who were interviewed, were adamantly opposed to being given such a responsibility, although licensing and policy-making are the main tasks of MOCAT. The only viable solution, according to MOCAT officials, was that "fundamentally, people have to recognize that tourism provides good access to "*duit halal*" (legally acquired wealth). Another statement was that "students have to learn and appreciate the contribution made by tourism to our country's economy". It seems that the cultural values were seen as being replaceable by recognition of economic sufficiency, whether it be at the individual or with respect to the national economy. At the same time, the tourism authorities agreed that a more down-to-earth attitude and the promotion of secular views among those who are culturally sensitive to tourism, are definitely useful approaches to secure their participation.

Malaysia's education and training approaches for tourism require concerted efforts from the government, institutions and religious authorities to address cultural diversity adequately. Distance from religious prohibitions and inherent pragmatism have made Chinese early entrants into the tourism trade. Similarly, the Indians are less troubled by the nature of tourism-related jobs. By properly catering to the needs of different ethnic groups, the development of a balanced, culturally appropriate and comprehensive framework for human resources development might be possible.

In summary, equity sensitivity by government has been the motive behind promoting greater Malay representation in tourism employment, despite the fact that there are serious concerns and discomforts confronting religious tenets. While there has always been contestation over values and culture as a result of the introduction of tourism development into a conservative society, tourism acquaints destination residents with new ways of interpreting this. Evolved cognitions of tourism employment have allowed more significant involvement of the Malays, and particularly Malay females, in work in the tourism sector. A decade ago (even five years ago in Kedah), this appeared to be very unlikely. However, despite this progress, the Malays are continuing to reevaluate and negotiate the legitimacy of their involvement in tourism.

5.6 Training as a Requisite for Tourism Development in Peripheral Areas

5.6.1 Developing Tourism in Rural and Peripheral Areas

Tourism is held up as a potential development engine to combat rural sluggishness. In Malaysia, agro- or nature-themed tourism is vigorously pursued by tourism planners and is used as a facilitator to help revitalize the rural economy. Ideally, tourism in rural and peripheral areas is developed using the inherent character and resources of the locality which

typically include “their attractive natural environments, original local culture and traditional systems of land use and farming” (Bramwell 1994:3). Cartier’s (1998:154) observation of Malaysia’s development of tourism on a massive scale, indicates otherwise: “more regularly transforming agricultural land rather than reworking urban industrial landscapes and some natural resource sector companies, especially in the plantation and mining sectors, have restructured to take advantage of property development opportunities as opposed to manufacturing”. Kedah, as a granary in Malaysia, has an abundant resource base to create agro-tourism products. Conversely, product development strategies adopted for Kedah’s rural tourism have created paradoxes - - problems of asymmetric ethnic representation, social appropriateness and control. Particularly, when the creation of new and artificial products dominates tourism development efforts, human resource issues typically do not receive the attention they deserve.

Kedah’s tourism interests in rural and peripheral areas are somewhat different than the well-defined concepts and ideas concerning rural tourism - - an integrated, local resources-based and locally empowered approach for constructing tourism. Common development imperatives of rural tourism, characterized by small-scale initiatives, emphasize the integration of tourism, environmentally, economically and socio-culturally within the local community’s capacity (see also Lane 1994, Gannon 1994). A most conspicuous anomaly is a resort-based mega-project in the Pedu Lake area, where infrastructure lags far behind and is insufficient to support two international standard resort establishments. Home-stay facilities in several Malay *kampungs* (villages), which have a fairly short history in Malaysian tourism, are creations of resourceful Malay elites rather than small entrepreneurs. Another example is outsiders’ ideas for Baling District which is designated by Kedah State as a prefectural rural tourism core. As a part of Malaysia’s Rural Tourism Master Plan, Kedah’s rural tourism development plan, which has been led by commissioned foreign consultants, is a move

towards sophisticated operations.

The provision of training to support tourism development in rural and peripheral areas is contradictory and complex because of the very nature of the type of tourism established. Different stakeholders have their own priorities and their own definitions of the benefits of tourism to rural villagers. In this study, training concerns for rural villagers were examined through examples from the following areas: labour sources and training issues in Pedu Lake resort area, the role of training as defined in Baling's rural tourism development plan, and training needs for home-stay operators in Bandar Baharu (Figure 5-12).

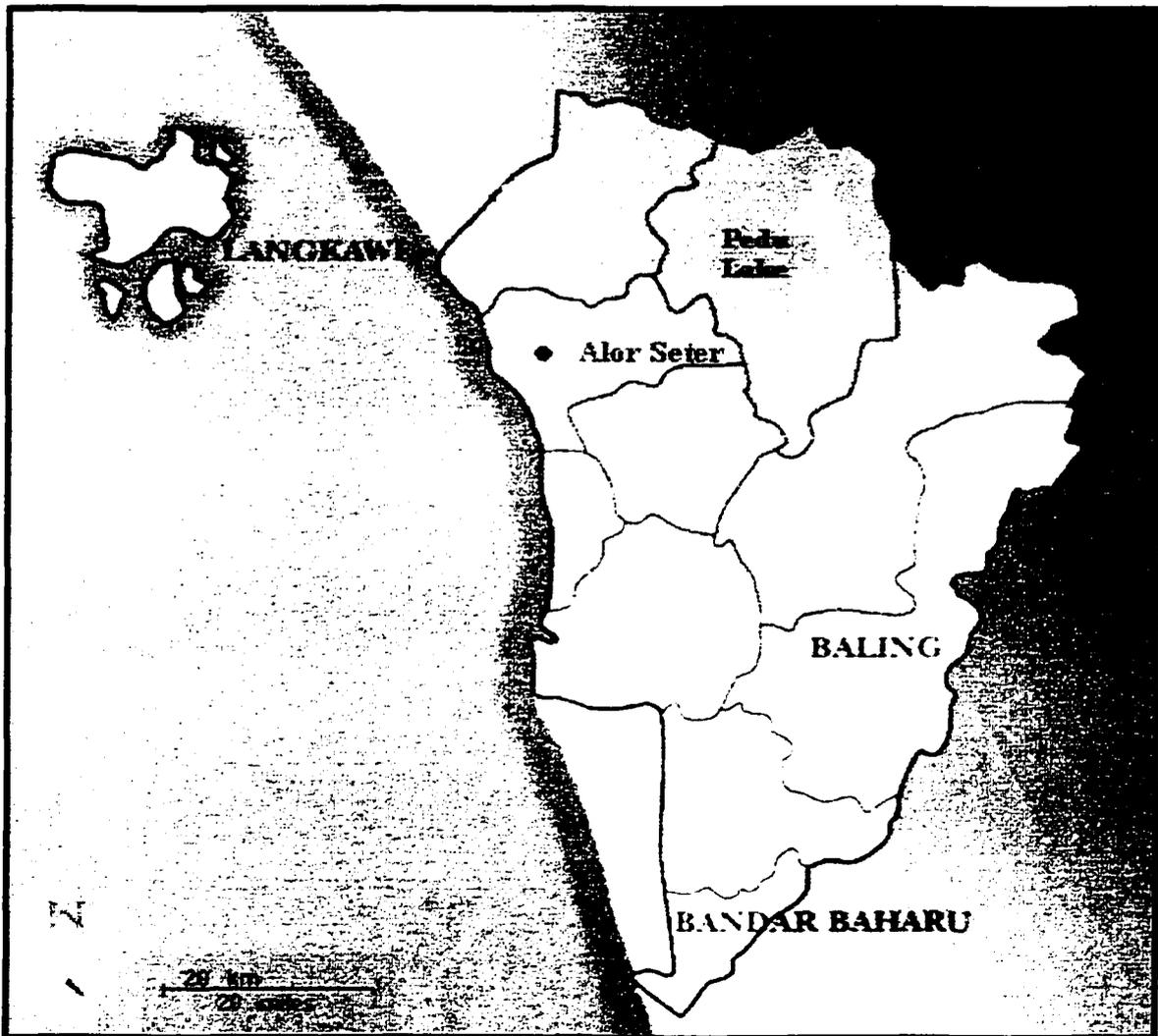


Figure 5-12: Location of Study Areas, Kedah, Malaysia

These examples, although varied in their development scales, are concerned with the provision of accommodation facilities and exploitation of attractions. They illustrate the same enthusiasm for pursuing tourism and a lack of familiarity in how to manipulate and manage their resources. There is a tendency to reduce the content of rural tourism initiatives to a focus upon the expansion of tourists' "bednights".

Tourism establishments of any kind undoubtedly bring income possibilities to supplement traditional sources of income. However, tourism benefits or even employment opportunities disseminate narrowly within the locality. This is especially the case when the concepts of rural, agro- or eco-tourism are rarely seen as development facilitators but rather as a part of product diversification strategies. Thus, it should not be assumed that tourism is an income alternative to the locals, that local participation is a natural outcome of the completed tourism projects, and that tourism is necessarily the answer to rural problems.

The forms of tourism development prevailing in Malaysia's rural and peripheral areas often go far beyond complementing traditional economic activities and, consequently, have little to do with local conditions. Thus, a disturbing phenomenon exists - - it is hazardous for the locals to play a role in any capacity in rural tourism establishments when the provision of training opportunities is not regarded as necessary in the rural tourism development plan. Three cases, a resort-based development, rural tourism core planning and home-stay programs, are examined in the context of training needs.

5.6.2 Tourism Enclaves in the Pedu Lake Area

Resort-based development on the Pedu Reservoir was one of the new product development strategies proposed in the 6th (1991-1995) and 7th Malaysia Plans (1996-2000). Pedu reservoir, which is situated near the Thai border, about 90 kilometers east of Alor Seter, is a part of Pedu Dam project (storage capacity of 1050 million cubic meters) completed between 1966 and

1969. The dam was built for irrigation to enable double paddy harvests in the Muda area. Resorts constructed on the Pedu Reservoir created a new economic source for the rural residents in addition to agriculture and limited fishing activities.

The two luxurious resort compounds that have been completed have had disappointing effects on the local rural economy for two reasons: dismal performance and their style and appeal are not compatible with the rural communities' capacities. Even with an attempt to create Malay themed and *kampung-style* establishments, the capital investments provided very limited job opportunities to the locals. During the construction of a 400-hectare resort, more than two thousand workers were recruited from the poorer neighbouring countries of Vietnam, Burma and Thailand. This resort construction, as proudly pointed out by a resort manager and flaunted in their resort's promotion leaflets, was a record in Malaysia's resort development history - - it took only four months to complete the project!

Mutiara Pedu Lake Resort, that began its operations in December 1994, is a 4-star resort with a room capacity of 205 and 180 employees. Besa Utara Pedue Lake Resort, which opened in August 1995, is a smaller 3-star resort with 106 rooms and 104 employees. In 2000, Mutiara had a very low annual average occupancy rate of about 18 percent. Besa Utara, with a more manageable size and affordable prices, performed better but occupancy rates were only 30 to 40 percent throughout the year.

Both resort managers complained that accessibility was a major problem limiting the tourism growth in the Pedu Lake resort area. Only approximately 49,000 tourists visited Pedu Lake in 2000. The majority of arrivals came from domestic sources (about 92 percent) with ASEAN sources comprising about 5 percent and European visitors 3 percent. A 30 million ringgit (USD 7.9 million) investment has been promised by the Malaysian government to improve the overall infrastructure, of which 17 million (USD 4.5 million) will be spent on an

expressway project to improve accessibility. Upon the completion of infrastructure improvements, it is expected that the arrivals will increase to 100,000 and, at the same time, create another 10 to 15 percent employment in these resorts.

The resorts are equipped to appeal primarily to a corporate clientele for meetings and to visitors who are interested in nature and adventure. Both resorts are fully-equipped and self-contained, comprising conference and training functions, outdoor facilities and activity arrangements and a variety of food and beverage outlets. Such a self-sustained system permits resorts to meet tourists' demands and to arrange their activities within the resorts' self-demarcated domain. At the same time, the resorts are less sensitive to local needs. Since all the activity arrangements are a matter of unilateral decisions by the resorts, the locals have no access to the tourist dollars other than seeking employment at the resorts. In fact, the resorts have declined academics' suggestions concerning the inclusion of local folklore as a part of their resort attractions. Moreover, the major economic linkages established by the resorts are with the large distributors rather than with the rural suppliers. All the purchasing is done in Alor Setar. Local sources of supply are not considered. This is obviously at odds with the principles of tourism development in a rural area in that its spillover effects should provide opportunities to rural households and promote the consumption of local produce.

Nevertheless, a large number of jobs at the resorts are sought by the locals. Both Mutiara and Desa Utara provide substantial employment opportunities to the locals. Within a similar employment structure (roughly 5 percent of managerial positions, 15 percent at supervisory level and 80 percent semi- and non-skilled categories) employed by both resorts, many jobs have been taken by the locals, albeit with high concentration in the low status and low pay types of jobs. Mutiara has 85 percent of its personnel filled by locals and Desa Utara has an estimated 70 to 75 percent local workers. The initial recruitment of resort personnel was a

demanding task. Although semi-skilled and unskilled labour are in abundant supply locally, “it was rather difficult to fulfill our employment demands locally and the newcomers needed time to learn how to do their jobs. It took us a whole year to get everyone to fit into the resort business” (personal communication with a resort manager, 2001). The managerial staff was largely recruited outside of Kedah State, with metropolitan background (from Kuala Lumpur, Penang and Johor Baru) and previously trained in international hotel chains.

At the same time, the management at both resorts has shown little interest in enhancing training at their workplace, simply because of the fact that locating veterans was much easier than enormous effort required to teach the locals who typically have only primary education or less. Other than complying to the stipulated training levy programs, very limited effort or commitment were found on the part of the employers to enhance the provision of training. Lack of attachment to the rural communities is also a factor that impacts the level of enthusiasm of the employers to promote career progression opportunities for their local employees. Certainly, dismal financial performance plays a major role that explains the employers’ reluctance to invest more in in-house staff training.

The situation of Pedu Lake resort development illustrates that tourism could be an impetus affecting upward structural shifts in a rural economy but it is only effective when there are conditions to stimulate changes. The degree to which tourism can be an effective development tool in rural and peripheral areas depends greatly on the degree of linkage between the concerns related to meeting tourist demands and the capability of the service providers. Conversely, resort development that is not compatible with local capacities contributes very little to integration and diversification in the rural economies. Fostering positive effects, particularly to encourage greater involvement of the locals, requires commitments be given to the provision of training opportunities.

5.6.3 Training Themes of Rural Tourism: the Case of Baling

In 2000, the Malaysian government arranged with the United Nations Development Program and World Tourism Organization to have a Rural Tourism Master Plan for Malaysia undertaken by a foreign consulting firm. Each state was required to nominate a region (district) as a rural tourism core. The District of Baling was selected by Kedah State. Baling is located in the eastern part of Kedah with 30 percent precipitous terrain and 60 percent arable areas. In 2000, the population was estimated to be 124,947 with Malays dominating (nearly 80 percent); Chinese and Indians each accounted for about 9 percent. There were also about 1,900 Thai people (1.7 percent) and 198 natives, Orang Asli (0.2 percent), residing in Baling. Baling was selected because of its rich combination of tourism endowments: hot spring, forest recreation park, waterfalls, and the primitive culture of the Orang Asli. Information related to training issues for rural tourism were gathered in July 2001 with the assistance and permission of the State Tourism Planning Section, allowing the researcher to participate in the sites visits and the discussions and seminars held for the preparation of the rural tourism master plan for Baling.

The council of Baling welcomed the idea of tourism because of perceived needs for mobilizing structural changes in its agriculture-based economy, dominated by primary sector employment (Table 5-14). The average household income in 2000 was RM 380 (USD 100). Another inspiration for tourism interest arose from Baling's tourism success that it experienced from the management of Ulu Legong Hot Spring Recreation Centre (project cost was RM 1,289,578, equivalent to USD 339,363), which attracted about 20 to 30 thousand visitors per month with a gross monthly revenue of RM 30,000 (USD 7,895). Hence, the council aggressively moved toward the designation of a rural tourism core in Kedah. The

Baling council promptly mustered representatives of all the concerned departments to assist the private consulting firm with the preparation of a rural tourism development plan.

Table 5-14: Composition of Labour Force in the District of Baling

Categories	Number of workers	Percent
Agriculture and forestry	30,621	63.0
Mining and quarry work	390	0.8
Factories and manufacturing	5,103	10.5
Construction	1,555	3.2
Transportation and communications	3,013	2.3
Business, Hotels and restaurants	2,527	6.2
Government services	3,499	7.2
Others	3,307	6.8
Total	48,606	100%

Following hasty visits to several potential tourism sites by the commissioned consultant, the council was alarmed by Baling's deficiencies in accommodation supply and the locals' inability to create a competitive rural tourism core. Other main issues cited for Baling's tourism endeavour predominately dealt with the level of service standards as well as the low quality of tourism facilities. Improvements were definitely needed in order that Baling could capitalize upon its natural phenomena to gain economically. An interesting aspect of this process was the way the cultural attributes that were stressed by local officials were initially taken into account. However, because of subtle foreign influences, tourism prospects in Baling were envisaged differently with primary concerns related to product quality and diversity.

In this respect, it should be noted that, from a local perspective, tourism initially had an articulated envision. At least, as explicitly conveyed through local representatives' briefings to the foreign consulting firm, tourism was regarded as a lever that would spur a series of

economic activities. It was also signified that, in Baling, tourism could best be promoted not only through natural scenery but also through cultural attributes such as the local legendary character Raja Bersiong (a blood-thirsty King with mass followers), the historical event of Baling Talks (taking place on December 28 and 29, 1955, a series of peaceful talks between the Malayan government, colonial representative and the communist party regarding issues of amnesty and the independence of Malaya), and aboriginal traditions of the Kinsiu tribe, Orang Aslis. Nevertheless, Baling's rural tourism development strategies have been traditionally lopsided with Malay prominence, because of the customary land tenure system (75 percent of the land ownerships were retained under the Malays by 2000) and because of the dominance of the Malay officialdom and their insensitivities to cater to other ethnic groups. For example, with the token inclusion of the *dhamasala* (Thai preaching hall) as one of the cultural attractions, the role of the Thai people was obscured in the overall tourism development and was not a concern at all.

In a local context, the officials sketched the tourism development directions in a pure rural form with close connections to rural functions, history and the primitive form of settlements. A reciprocal relationship between tourism and community development was thought out: "a lot of activities may be organized and developed into programs which in the long term benefit the people of Baling" and "the private sector may be encouraged to invest in the development of tourism in Baling" (Seminar of Rural Tourism Master Plan, Baling, on July 12, 2001). Clearly, what was described as being an ideal mode of development was the kind that was largely controlled locally and developed for the common, long-term, good of the community. To achieve this, the training needs, simplistically and yet pertinently, were concerned with acquainting local people with knowledge and skills of the hospitality business so that they could play a major role in that business.

The economic prospects of tourism induced in people a vague expectation regarding the nature of tourism activities, ignoring the way that they could be affected. The consultant intended to sketch an “up-scale destination” that would be competitive and, most importantly, perceived to be at international standards. Yet the quest for high sophistication to achieve international standards is conspicuously incompatible with the local situation, given the inherent backwardness and economic sluggishness of the rural setting. In fact, the locals were surprised to witness how unsatisfied the international tourists could be with the best establishments that the villagers could offer - - a guest room with ceramic flooring, double-layer drapery, air-conditioning and modern flush toilet, which are not standard facilities in the village households.

The local council was advised to lease out the Ulu Legong Hot Spring Recreation Centre which is a public property and a pretentious part of Baling life. A lease arrangement with a professional management firm was recommended as an effective way to upgrade the services and operation standards which, in turn, would benefit Baling itself with the attainment of professionalism in managing tourism facilities. The tourism expert’s view was that metropolitan enterprises, with their marketing powers, management expertise and client base, can stimulate tourist growth more effectively and eventually incubate a professional culture among the villagers who appeared to be incapable of effectively managing a tourism venture. Likewise, for the purpose of achieving good economic results, a general fee increase was proffered for current administration or entry tariffs (typically a symbolic RM 1 (USD 0.26) entry fee for adults and 50 cent (USD 0.13) for children are charged) and other services provided. The suggested measures not only limited villagers’ access to their amenity, but also diminished the sense of pride and identity with their place that was a creature of the Baling area, not an outsider’s manipulator of tourist dollars.

The appropriation of indigenous culture was another flaw. As one of the major marketed attractions in Baling, it was conveniently assumed that the primitive form of life of the Orang Asli and their folklore would endow the district with a rich assortment of cultural attributes. The Orang Aslis were assigned a role as cultural performers. Local council felt that tourism would be good to the Aslis because of the stable income potential that tourism would bring. Paradoxically, while this might have helped their impoverished lifestyle, Aslis themselves were reluctant to become a “tourist attraction”. The coordinator responsible for Orang Asli affairs, complained that “the Aslis were not appreciative of the opportunities and were unwilling to co-operate with the District’s arrangement in engaging them in cultural performances. They did it one or two times and then always refused the District’s arrangement to perform for the tourists”.

Considerable ingenuity is needed to expose adaptations of the Aslis’ culture whose lives and perceptions of the world are very different from the urbanized or even rural ways of mainstream society. The Aslis are familiar with being cast out into the wilderness and cling to their traditional ways of life based on jungle produce, searching for food, herbs and other useable jungle resources. The jungle is not only their economic lifeline but also a pharmacy which supplies a rich source of medical plants, herbs and cooking spices. These Asli attributes are difficult to market. Demonstrations of handicraft making, staged traditional dancing and cooking were what the Aslis were expected to contribute to Baling’s rural tourism development. The Aslis did not think that cooking for the tourists was a good idea because, as an Asli explained, “no one wants to eat the Asli food”. “Well, tourists do not have to eat what you cook; they just want to see how you make Asli food”, was the response of the elites who hold the key to tourism decisions. The Aslis lackadaisically replied with “*boleh*” (can do) to the suggestions, reluctantly agreeing to participate in tourism activities.

It seems that the Aslis have become the prey captured by the tourism development, as their rarity and quaint way of living appear to be authentically enchanting to the tourists. "Just to be there as a part of tourism attractions" was the role of the Aslis in the rural tourism development plan. Creation and collection of tourism attractions have overwhelmingly predominated in planning endeavours. Elites who have decision powers might be faulted for confining the Aslis to a role as cultural performers without capacitating them to exploit their knowledge and skills about the jungle which might make eco-tourism products. The authorities charged with planning tourism typically concentrate upon manipulating resources, whether it be of physical, natural or cultural kinds. This approach confronts the inherent characteristic of rural tourism. The fact that rural tourism is a concept primarily concerned with the mobilization of local resources and local operators towards the structural diversification of the local economy and employment, is often a residual issue in the planning process.

Tourism has yet to flourish. The pressure created by the need to boost tourism, however, has created an increased sense of vulnerability on the part of the locals. In Baling, tourism is generally regarded as being good in that is deemed to bring economic progress to the locals. However, a western inspired professionalism requirement that was urged as a priority for training, was inadequate. In the case of Baling, rural tourism presently is constrained by limited accessibility and, thus, the clientele is predominately domestic. They likely share similar criteria for evaluating the services offered. The necessity of incubation of professionalism is, thus, a less compelling issue than addressing the rural sluggishness with an entrepreneurial spirit. Fundamentally, the rural residents first need to learn how to market, process, and package their offerings.

5.6.4 Perspectives from Home-stay Operators

In a destination area, home-stay facilities generally emerge in immediate vicinity of sophisticated tourism establishments and depend greatly on surrounding attractions. They provide not only an alternative choice for cheaper accommodation to the tourists but also a supplementary source of income to the hosts. In Malaysia, the home-stay establishments that have emerged recently do not have such a traditional reliance on geographical proximity to major tourism attractions or large tourism establishments for clientele sources. They are typically village-based and sustain themselves as independently, usually using local endowments such as social elements, cultural motifs and natural resources.

The home-stay program in Malaysia was initially promoted to provide tourists with cultural experiences of Malaysia's multi-ethnic lifestyles and the economic benefits to the local people (former Minister of MOCAT, Dato' Sabbaruddin Chik's statement in Malaysia Home-stay Program Directory). Home-stay operations became prevalent in rural areas because of Malaysia's development orthodoxy which always prioritizes *kampungs* (villages). As a part of government development endeavours to rural areas, funds necessary for infrastructure improvement, beautification, marketing and publicity were the main facilitators to the growth of home-stay operations. Malaysia expresses a desired multi-cultural manifestation from its tourism products, but political will plays a central role which leads to the absolute dominance of the Malay *kampungs* in the expansion of home-stay programs. The informant of the MOCAT, in fact, frankly admitted that Chinese or Indian-themed home-stay facilities also exist, but are not part of the government's home-stay initiatives.

By the end of 2000, there were 612 home-stay operators scattered in 31 Malay villages registered with the MOCAT. However, the MOCAT paid scant attention to the promotion and incorporation of the home-stay program as one of Malaysia's main tourism attractions. No

information material was on display at the MOCAT's tourist information centre and even the representatives there appeared to be unfamiliar with the existence of the home-stay program. Lack of substantial support and the fact that locations are typically not in proximity to a major tourist attraction or establishment, the village-based home-stay program can only target niche segments and primarily caters to special interests groups. In Relau, for example, visitors have been predominately foreign students who come for cultural exchange and educational purposes.

The involvement of Kampung Relau in this study resulted from a recommendation from a tourism planner primarily because it is regarded as being an exemplary operation model in Kedah. Data were gathered in June and July 2001 through in-depth interviews with 16 operators and their family members. Interviews used both English and Bahasa Malaysia and were interpreted by local research assistants.

Relau is an exclusively Malay village with about 3,000 dwellers. With its proximity to Penang, Relau has a light industrial-based economy with some residents commuting to their jobs in Penang (Table 5-15). As in most rural villages, a traditional village system based on inherited power, hierarchy and reputation, remains influential and has wide application in local politics and business (Lipscomb 1998). The idea of home-stay settlements in Relau originated from a local affluent family's initiatives. They pioneered the tourism business because of their enthusiasm to promote authentic Malay culture and to help their *kampung* escape from the dilemma of under-development. Relau's home-stay operations are organized and managed by this family and one family member holds the position as program co-ordinator responsible for liaison with the clientele, tourism authorities, and other concerned agencies as well as distribution of visitors among the establishments.

Table 5-15: Composition of Household Income and Occupation in Relau Village

Household Income		Occupation	
Over 1,500	4.6 %	Agriculture	22 %
1,000 – 1,499	6.4 %	Business	10 %
500 – 1,000	40.0 %	Manufacturing	40 %
250 - 500	49.0 %	Government	25 %
		Others	3%
	100.0%		100.0%

Source: Government statistics, provided by home-stay co-ordinator.

Initially, 19 families were motivated by the co-ordinator to join the program. All the participating families indicated that extra income was not the primary reason for their patronages. The idea of promoting their *kampung*, as advocated by the co-ordinator, was the main motive that encouraged the participating families. However, there were certain requirements and guidelines set by the tourism authority to qualify for patronage. The availability of sufficient space, the security of the house structure and level of quality and suitability, were important elements for eligibility to be a home-stay operation. Many residents could not participate simply because of their shabby-looking house conditions. “They were too poor and they had no money for improvement”, explained a host family. These poorer proprietors of ancestral *rumah atap* (Malay leaf-roofed house), *rumah kaya* (wooden house) and huts apparently were not considered suitable for the home-stay program. Solid wooden houses and all-brick bungalows, both with large verandahs, were selected to accommodate the tourists. As proudly pointed out by one of the operators, nearly all the posh houses in the villages have been included in the program. The views of the representatives from MOCAT were: “home-stay program is a new product that we are trying to create. Since the purpose is to attract tourists, there are certain standards that must be met. Only those houses that meet the criteria set by the ministry are being considered for home-stay application”. Perhaps the reality is that the owners of *rumah atap* or *kaya* might not have

spare room for rent because of family size. As well, in the power structure of a traditionally structured conservative society, nepotism certainly plays an influential role that determines who gets what.

Table 5-16 shows that the majority of home-stay participants have their employment in a variety of fields, while home-stay operations are largely an “amateur” activity. The participating families also express high levels of interest in being involved in a non-traditional activity. Even though some of the families are already in a crowded living space with large families or mixed generations living together, they still allocate a room for rent (Table 5-16). Initial investment for converting a household to meet the home-stay requirements varied considerably. In addition to standard furnishing requirements, some participating families made major renovations and lavatory improvements at relatively high costs. One host family indicated that over RM 10,000 (USD 2,632) were spent on the home-stay project (Table 5-16). Regardless of the size of investment contributed by the host families, cost is considered to be modest in comparison with the potential benefits. To reach a break-even point, the majority of the participants indicated expectancy for investment recovery ranging from 2 months to 3 years (Table 5-16).

Relau’s home-stay program began its operation in 2000 and hosted the first group visitors, 26 students from a Japanese university, in August 2000. In December 2000, 40 university students from the USA visited Relau. In the same time period, a handful of domestic visitors also used Relau’s home-stay facilities. It is apparent that there are not enough visitors to maintain all the home-stay operators in the area, not even on a part-time basis. The coordinator indicated that, with limited visitors, distribution of them is typically done based on his own judgment of “comfort and quality level” offered and “gracious attitudes” exhibited by the operators. The family traits of the operator and, perhaps, “nepotism” also affect the distribution decisions.

Table 5-16: Profile of Home-stay Operators

	Title, age & occupation of operator(s)	Household members	Total of rooms/ Room(s) for rent	Initial investment	Expected terms to reach break-even
1	Father-50-general worker Monther-47-food vendor	5	4/2	\$10,000	2.5 years
2	Father-66-traditional doctor Monther-60-housewife	10	5/1	\$ 1,200	1.5 years
3	Grandmother-65-housewife	6	3/1	\$ 500	2 years
4	Father-47-food vendor Monther-52- food vendor	5	5/1	\$ 2,000	3 years
5	Father-60-farmer Mother-55-school canteen helper	4	3/1	\$ 1,000	2 years
6	Father-60-plumber Mother-49-housewife	4	4/1	\$ 3,000	3 years
7	Father-45-grocery store keeper Mother-41-grocery store keeper	6	3/1	\$ 3,000	2 years
8	Father-63-retiree Mother-63-housewife	8	4/1	\$ 3,000	2 years
9	Father-63-retiree Mother-56-housewife	4	2/1	\$ 1,000	1 year
10	Father-54-store-keeper Mother-50-store-keeper	5	5/1	\$ 400	3 months
11	Father-60-retiree Mother-60-housewife	3	4/1	\$ 500	2 years
12	Father-48-government employee Mother-43-bank clerk	5	3/1	\$ 100	5 months
13	Father-34-restaurant owner Mother-37-restaurant owner	7	3/1	\$ 300	1 year
14	Father-50-government employee Mother-46-housewife	5	3/1	\$ 300	2 months
15	Mother-46-housewife	8	4/1	\$ 300	3~4 months
16	Father-50-cleaning services contractor Mother-47-housewife	7	4/1	\$200~300	2~3 months

As a result, there are significant disparities between the earnings of the home-stay operators, as shown in Table 5-17. However, despite the limited number of visitors, the income derived from the home-stay operations appears to be relatively substantial as compared with the low monthly living costs needed for an ordinary village family (Table 5-17). All the operators involved indicated an extremely high level of appreciation of the extra income received from the home-stay program. Nevertheless, there were some complaints concerning the distribution of the tourist dollars. Operators received only about 40 percent of the total fees paid by the tourists and the remaining 60 percent is "managed" by the program co-ordinator.

Table 5-17: Investments and Revenues of Home-stay Operators

	Monthly living expenses (ringgit)	Income from home-stay (ringgit)	Targeted annual revenue	Level of satisfaction on revenue
1	1,000	3,000	\$7,000	Highly satisfied
2	1,400	1,700	\$1,500	Highly satisfied
3	700	1,000	\$ 3,000	Highly satisfied
4	600	2,100	\$2,000 ~ 3,000	Highly satisfied
5	500	1,400	\$1,000	Highly satisfied
6	1,000	500	\$5,000	Highly satisfied
7	800	500	\$1,500	Satisfied
8	600	350	\$1,500	Highly satisfied
9	600	200	\$1,000 ~ 2,000	Satisfied
10	1,100	200	\$1,000	Highly satisfied
11	500	300	\$1,000	Highly satisfied
12	1,600	150	\$1,000	Satisfied
13	800	360	\$1,200	Highly satisfied
14	600	400	\$1,000	Highly satisfied
15	800	200	\$ 500	Satisfied
16	3,000	500	\$1,000	Satisfied

No formal training was provided prior to the inception of operations, other than professional advice and inspections by the MOCAT representatives regarding hygiene, facilities' placement and proper etiquette. Some language training, both in English and Japanese was organized by the co-ordinator family members to help the hosts to cope with the basic communication needs with foreign visitors. Recently, as a part of Rural Tourism Master Plan initiative, 5 operators attended a 3-day home-stay training program organized jointly by the foreign consulting firm and the MOCAT, to address quality, safety and hygiene issues. In general, based on their limited operational experiences, the hosts identified that communication skills and understanding of foreign languages are most important. There were no particular expectations of advancing knowledge and skills regarding the home-stay operations, presumably because of highly amateur involvement and, thereby, the limited obligations perceived.

However, lack of training presents the operators in Relau with a unique problem resulting from culture and religious observation. Some hosts indicated that they were irritated by the inappropriate behaviour of the visitors. At the same time, they also indicated that they had expected that the visitors would respect and adapt to their way of life. Inappropriate attire was upsetting to some hosts: "we saw girls with too small and short clothes that show too much of their body".

Requesting operators to make concessions to the tourist culture is of contentious. However, there requires adaptability and appreciation on the part of the hosts in order that cultural differences will not become an issue. The *kampung* itself is a social and ethnic enclave. Also, most villagers have not been tourists themselves nor have they ever been exposed to foreign cultures. Encounters with their guests have been undertaken in a simple way with humbleness and generosity, rather than as a commercial-oriented activity. Promoting culture as their main motive, the operators have perhaps been overly enthusiastic in attempting to integrate tourists

into their way of life. They were not made aware of the visitors' squeamishness about squatting over well-used, non-flush toilets, but it was important to the operators to ensure that tourists experienced the authentic *kampung* lifestyle. Visitors were urged to follow the hosts' way of living and, in fact, their awkwardness in imitation were found by the hosts to be entertaining. Home-stay guests certainly tend to be more culturally aware and sensitive as a result of their visit. However, it is imperative to make tourism appealing to both the visitors and the villagers. The provision of training is, therefore, crucial to help to achieve this goal.

There are aggressive growth plans for the home-stay program. As ambitiously pronounced by the program co-ordinator: "We want to upgrade our home-stays to reach hotel standards (which was a important message inspired by the home-stay training program of the Rural Tourism Master Plan initiative) and, if tourists keep coming, we want to expand and include more local families in the program with various house categories. Like hotels, we will use a star-based system, so tourists can choose the accommodation according to their budgets". There are high expectations for higher incomes for those participating in the program, even though visitor numbers were still small in 2001. Unfortunately, in their aggressive growth plans, training of the operators remains a residual issue and is not even considered to be an effective means to achieve the desired operation standards.

5.6.5 Enhancing the Organization of Training

Malaysia's tourism interests in peripheral areas are diverse and yet commonly supported with a benign view that tourism is an effective development vehicle. However, tourism has not always been integrated well into the rural development strategies to contribute to the betterment of the rural communities. As illustrated in the preceding sections, the development approaches for rural tourism tend to lean towards the collection of attractions and predominately operate based upon a vague concept of accommodation provision. Limited

success of the tourism development approaches in rural areas arises because of failure to address the strengths and constraints represented by “rurality”.

The most common perception of rurality is associated with “low population densities”, “open spaces” and “small-scale settlements” (Lane 1994:14). When a rural community considers tourism as a development tool, open space is an advantage. However, the associated development irony is that the involvement of the local population and the appropriate integration of local settlements do not receive adequate attention in tourism planning endeavours. As a result, tourism often becomes an unfulfilled promise in terms of indigenous employment generation and as a supplementary household income source. The positive benefits to the rural residents, in both economic and social terms, become minimal simply because of their lack of involvement in the tourism developments as well as their inability to respond to the new employment opportunities brought by tourism.

This problem arises because of a planning approach that does not cater to the changes induced by tourism in the labour market, including necessary skill requirements. Certainly, human capital supply is complicated by difficulties related to “rurality” in terms of labour deficiencies in both quantity and quality. The divergent tourism development approaches adopted in rural areas, involving both high capitalization and local entrepreneurship, further complicate the task of developing human capital for tourism.

Examples reviewed in Kedah’s rural tourism development clearly show that the very limited attention given to training is a major weakness in rural tourism development. In addition, the problem of labour supply in the rural areas emerges substantially because of lack of commitment to training as an important ingredient of tourism planning. Lack of enthusiasm on the part of the rural residents is mainly due to their unfamiliarity with the nature of tourism activities. At the same time, the reluctance on the part of tourism employers to devote resources to training is mainly because of the management’s low level of attachment to the

locality, the high labour mobility that exists in the tourism labour market and the relatively primitive qualifications and skills possessed by the rural residents.

Several tourism cases drawn from Kedah's rural and peripheral areas indicate that there is an obvious omission in the provision of training opportunities. Tourism often is an alien concept to the villagers because they have not been tourists themselves. Rural residents need training because of their typically low education levels and primitive skills, and also because of their relatively low exposure to tourism culture. The positive impact of training is most successful when training issues are considered and dealt with as a part of a planning exercise prior to the execution of tourism projects.

Furthermore, general training objectives, such as achievement of professionalism, do not always adequately reflect the particular challenges of rural tourism. Given the daunting shortage of human capital in the rural areas, tourism planning initiatives should give more prominences to the provision of training that helps to overcome problems of knowledge and skills deficiencies in managing tourism resources. Relating this to the appeal of rural tourism (i.e. strong dependence on open spaces, local atmosphere and activity-based), it can be argued that achieving services excellence (a superficial interpretation of professionalism) has not been a priority issues. In fact, it undermines rural tourism's simple and unadorned hospitality style. In the context of Malaysia's rural setting, where there is strong adherence to cultural and religious observations, training priorities should include the incubation of cultural understanding, adaptability and appreciation of cultural differences.

5.7 Summary

Malaysia, which is an Islamic-based theocratic sovereignty, has a variety of ethnic groups with diverse values and beliefs. Social disparities between these ethnic groups have been a long-standing problem. Hence, equity is a priority for the government and has become a

mainstream issues in its policy-making. Tourism was previously regarded as an intrusion, undermining Malaysian society's values, traditions and way of life. However, recognizing that diversification was imperative for Malaysia's staple-based economy, tourism was re-appraised and later incorporated into the national development agenda. Tourism now serves as a cornerstone in the Malaysian economy. The economic significance of tourism compels the government to take initiatives, as a part of its equity strategies, to promote greater indigenous (*bumiputra*) representation in tourism commerce. *Bumiputras* were traditionally marginalized and impoverished and were exposed to underdevelopment because of antecedent colonialism and cultural factors.

However, development plans, which largely focus on modernization and progressive objectives, often go beyond the local capacity and place the locals in unfamiliar and challenging situations. The principle implication of this type of development is minimal realization of economic benefits and limited participation of the locals. The authorities seek to stimulate prosperous tourism in the host regions. However, local participation does not grow at a rate commensurate with the tourism growth mainly because of heavy reliance on labour input (of all skill levels) from outside sources. The hosts' adaptability and capability to engage in tourism activities are consistently and continuously overlooked, resulting in a lack of meaningful local participation.

In general, ethnic structural adjustment policies predominate in Malaysia's human resources development initiatives for tourism, albeit with ethnic cleavages and the main training endeavours focused on *bumiputras*. Training programs and human resource investment funds instituted by the public sector have contributed to the elimination of ethnic dominance. However, as empirical perspectives drawn from field observations in Malaysia in general and from a specific case study conducted in Kedah suggest, conspicuous deficiencies exist. Lack of ethnic differentiation in the government's human resource development

policies and training approaches have resulted in limited effects that have not been effective in ameliorating moralistic and religious aversions towards tourism. At the same time, ethnicity-driven policies have diminished the multi-cultural characteristics, which are an important tourism asset for Malaysia to distinguish itself from its Asian competitors.

Given the interventions of the government, neither colonialism nor resources constraints should any longer be blamed for ethnic dominance or distributional inequities in tourism. In fact, hereditary factors sufficiently explain ethnic groups' professional preferences and/or biases concerning tourism. Strong governmental support has undoubtedly increased access of the privileged *bumiputras* to higher status in tourism niches but failure to address these issues has negatively impacted their adherence to their cultural values. In this regard, the training programs require an approach not only to achieve "professionalism" but also to expose the constraints to its achievement.

Chapter 6

Synthesis

6.1 Introduction

Diversification is sought by developing countries to modify an economic base that is primarily dependent on natural resources extraction to one that relies more on the modern tertiary services-oriented sectors. Tourism is widely adopted as a driving force for stimulating upward labour mobility and positive economic trends. However, limitations of tourism benefits arise because of questionable economic returns retained locally as well as the quality of employment tourism creates. However, tourism has varying influences on developing nations and vice versa. The site studies conducted in China and Malaysia present different perspectives on the evolution and present conditions of tourism development and the employment effects that tourism affords to the local society. Nevertheless, in both countries national economic objectives predominate, and central government initiatives take the prime position in leading tourism development decisions.

In this study, the policy-industry-locality framework (Figure 3-1) is proposed for re-examining the applicability of normative planning approaches to tourism, along with the appropriateness of common views associated with tourism employment, as well as for evaluating the factors that should entail different approaches to tourism human capital development. By integrating the precedents in the literature and the empirical results, this

Chapter synthesizes the development paradigm shifts of tourism, complexities of tourism employment and factors that jeopardize the adequacy of tourism human resources development strategies for tourism in developing countries.

6.2 Placing Tourism Planning in Perspective: Paradigms and Empirical Evidence

Much of the history, practices and theoretical foundation of planning abound with physical and technical matters with foremost concerns on the intervention in resource allocation, the power of the politicians and compliance with regulations (Lea 1996). Particularly from developing countries' perspectives, the expectation of economic change is often the main impetus for planning. This has also been the feature exhibited in many governments' approaches to tourism planning. Often overlooked is the contemporary multi-dimensional nature of planning that embraces facets of environment and human well being as well as social and cultural meanings. Similarly, tourism planning-related studies exhibit an identical concentration on physical structures e.g. creation of accessibility and infrastructures, attractions and tourist facilities. A common deficiency revealed from the discourse on tourism development is the absence of an historical and political context in which planning or development decisions are situated (Britton 1982, Dieke 2000, Din 1997b).

The fundamental spatial nature of tourism that originates from the movement of people may explain why tourism planning has had such a physical orientation. Means and settlements need to be created to facilitate and cater to people's mobility. This, in turn, has significant implications for tourism research that has often assumed an applied orientation (Faulkner and Ryan 1999) and, arguably, devotes heavy emphases to the supply dimension. A tourism planning paradigm shift occurs when the conventional and formative development approaches can no longer evade responses to challenges and dislocations confronted by the

host communities. Recent progressive and evolutionary views concerning tourism have shown a drift towards understanding the impacts of tourism to the hosts and, especially, a comparative evaluation of costs and benefits accrued to the destination regions.

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New tourism development orthodoxy has evolved to embrace wider social, cultural and environmental implications, albeit with an undifferentiated sustainable orientation. The economic dimensions of tourism have received less emphasis in recent years; instead, notions of sustainability have been regularly reiterated. Consequently, the conceptualized properties of tourism carry many negative interpretations today, particularly when references are made within the context of a conservative and impoverished environment. It is not uncommon to find criticisms speculating tourism as a destructive force to the developing countries; for example, infringement of foreign power (whether it be colonial remnants or contemporary western capitalism) or blurring of social stigmas induced by immoderate tourist behaviour.

While factors exogenous to destination areas have been recognized to be responsible for the consequences of tourism, endogenous drives, as fundamental as local political will, are

often ignored. As pointed out by Din (1997b), national goals and political-bureaucratic issues are often excluded from the scope of analysis of tourism development. Likewise, Britton (1982:332, 1989), with special references to the developing economy, attempted a search for alternative explanations of divergent views of tourism: “debate on the advantages and disadvantages of tourism is conducted without regard to those theories of political economy concerned with persistent poverty and the causes of increasing inequality between and within nations”. Britton postulates a political economic root for tourism impacts with an emphasis on the power relationships that influence the distribution of tourism’s economic gains and the responsiveness required to augment local participation.

The most commonly adopted approaches to tourism development, as has emerged both in China and Malaysia, favour large-scale, sophisticated and expensive projects with the main objective of meeting an international clientele’s profile and taste. More significantly, when attempting to create a tourism industry of high capitalistic characteristics by both nations, there are references, both explicit and implicit, with respect to the provision of grassroots level planning initiatives. However, this is rarely more than tokenism for there is seldom any real involvement of residents that are affected by developments. Consequently, tourism success is, to a great extent, measured by tourist arrivals, which are not always translated into local economic viability. Similar to the tourism dilemma experienced by many developing countries, the dominance of multi-national operators, expenditure leakage problems, loss of local control, neglect of the domestic market, and a low level of entrepreneurship are also common difficulties in both China and Malaysia.

Moreover, in addition to economic functions, tourism bears symbols of culture, identity and development status. High-profile developments are found to be favoured and are rationalized as serving multiple purposes: prevalently as income and employment generators;

symbolically as means to consolidate national pride; and, most superficially, as a showcase to demonstrate national advancement internationally. In light of this, a pattern of interrelated relationships between ideological values, social and cultural factors, the attributes of the political economy and the formation of tourism development decisions is illustrated by Figure 6-1. Variations in tourism development decisions by different developing countries can be explained by the divergence in their ideologies, culture and political economy systems. There are other important factors, for example, western-inspired development ideas and the influences of capitalism. Tourism, thus, is incorporated into local economies to varying degrees. In this context, both China and Malaysia provide a rich ground to interrogate tourism workforce development issues arising from contested interests in tourism among political, social and economic agendas

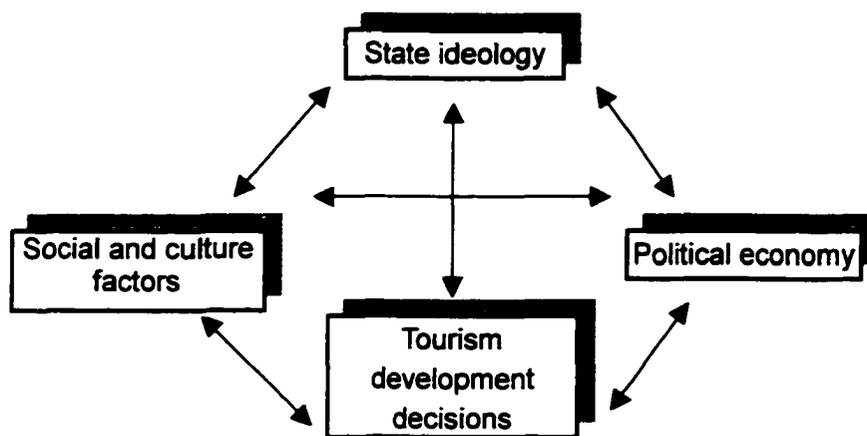


Figure 6-1: Tourism Development Model in Developing Countries

In China, initial tourism development adopted a self-sustained socialist approach. However, because substantial funds were required to establish the tourism industry, acceptance of external resources was inevitable. The incipient tourism development, as depicted by

Deng Xiaoping, was to be implemented through China's own concerted efforts utilizing foreign capital. This strategy contributed to a more diversified ownership structure in the accommodation sector, as the highly centralized socialist system hindered locals' direct involvement in tourism economic activities.

Table 6-1 summarizes the evolutionary changes that have taken place in China's tourism policy and development approaches over the last five decades. Tourism, from being almost synonymous with political and diplomatic activities in the late 1940s through the mid-1970s, was endowed with a more realistic economic objective after the inception of the open door policy in 1978. However, with decentralization and deregulation in place, tourism developments have been authoritarian in nature and were largely used as means to diversify heavy industry based economy. The current Chinese situation reveals that political controls remain rigid even when economic controls have been gradually relaxed and continue to be further loosened. An autocratic growth-oriented principle - - "development is an irrefutable argument (發展才是硬道理)" - - is perpetuated in China's development and planning decisions. Hence, local participation in China's tourism plans rarely refers to the involvement of *gatihus* (private proprietors) but predominately pertains to the local regional government agencies. As evidenced in Xu's studies (1999), people-centered, community-responsive and socially responsible approaches in tourism planning and policy formulations remain unknown in China.

Under the culture of communism and socialism, individualism is a dissenting concept. The Chinese are exhorted to uniformity, unity and collectivism. Often overlooked is the fact that the Chinese, in attempting their involvement in tourism, are typically hampered by their unfamiliarity with service skills and tourism cultures. Reflecting the nature of the socialist system, China's tourism planning and management has hardly given any consideration as to how to inculcate or empower the individual's participation in tourism.

Table 6-1: The Evolution of Tourism Planning in PR China

	1949-1978	1979 –1980s	1990s onwards
Motivation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Expanding political reach 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> National economic growth 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Regional development
Objectives	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Diplomatic relationships 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Foreign exchange Balance-of-payment 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Foreign exchange Modernization
Approach	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Controlled 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Centralized 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Decentralized
Mechanism	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> As a diplomatic strategy 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> As an economic sector 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> As a social-cultural activity
Focus	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Establishment of tourism organization responsible for reception of "selected" visitors 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Increase of accommodation capacity Ease of accessibility Simplification of entry formalities 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Product development Diversification of ownership Marketing & promotion
Targeted visitor group	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Visitors from socialist countries and non-aligned nations Overseas Chinese 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> International tourists Chinese compatriots from Hong Kong and Macao Overseas Chinese 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> International tourists Chinese compatriots from Hong Kong, Macao and Taiwan Domestic tourists
Constraints	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Political considerations National security concerns 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Political considerations Lack of planning and management expertise Shortage of trained staff Unbalanced investment in tourism infrastructure Sanitation 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Political considerations Lose of shares of tourism equity ownership Shortage of trained staff Over-supply of accommodation

In the past, the personnel needed in the tourism industry was a part of labour deployment by the state. Despite contemporary economic dynamics, wealth-oriented mentality and values, to a greater extent, are still taboos that contradict socialist doctrines. Consequently, entrepreneurial activities in China tend to have a marginalized position in the

overall tourism development scheme. Although recently many education and training endeavours have been planned to implant a services culture and to upgrade services skills and quality that was missing in the past, the production of trained tourism labour, who merely serve as cogs in the great Chinese tourism machinery, has not enabled individuals to derive substantial benefits from their participation in tourism.

In contrast, Malaysia presents a different tourism situation and its tourism policy is veneered with Malaysian ethnicity. It presently enjoys a wealthier developing country status (in terms of GDP per capita) with a comparatively small population, though of diverse ethnicity. Leadership is mostly concerned about persistent ethnic disparities and laments the indigenous group's inability and disinclination to see beyond the *kampung* (village) and *pasar malam* (night bazaar), despite the visionary maneuvers of the state to elevate their deprived status. In this context, Malaysia's tourism policy reflects the general equity principle of the NEP that emphasizes indigenous access to and control of Malaysian tourism, as a key policy objective.

Tourism is regarded by the state government not only as a generator of employment and income but also as a mechanism for racial and spatial economic restructuring that is expected to increase the economic control of *bumiputras*. Despite the fact that some of tourism's hedonistic and indulgent traits appear to breach local norms and create hostility against its theocratic ideology and cultural tenets, the Malaysian government has gradually responded favourably to tourism as an economic development strategy because of perceived needs to supplement a staple-based economy. Figure 6-2 indicates a transformation from a negative view of tourism (1960s), through passive treatment (1970s) and then an objective evaluation of tourism (1980s), to an aggressive pursuit of tourism benefits (1990s onwards) by the government.

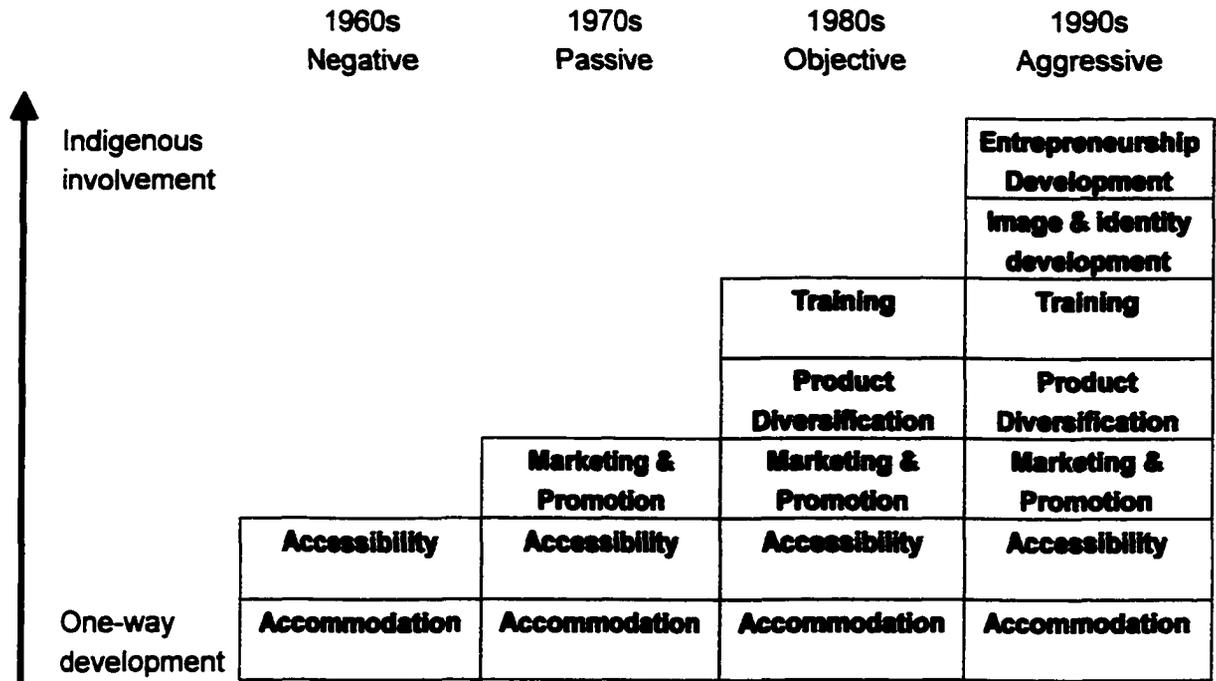


Figure 6-2: Focal Elements of Malaysian Tourism

By integrating tourism into the national social and economic development agenda, tourism has long been expected to help impel national integration (2nd Malaysian Plan 1971-1975) and to ensure that “the employment and control of ownership in the industry should closely reflect the composition of the population” (Din 1989b:195). As a part of the state policy of inculcating an entrepreneurial culture to the Malay(sians), attempts to enhance indigenous involvement in tourism are evident in the tourism plans contained in the series of Malaysia Plans published on a 5-year interval. Nevertheless, development of human capital is not a main element in the strategy to achieve desired growth and greater indigenous involvement (Figure 6-2).

A closer examination of tourism narratives in the Malaysia Plans reveals that four themes tend to dominate Malaysia’s tourism focus: tourist arrivals, new product development and diversification, marketing and promotion, and continued investment in expanding physical

capacity. Tourism human capital was an undifferentiated element in tourism plans in the early development stages of the 1960s and 1970s (Figure 6-2). At that time, only the National Productivity Corporation (NPC) and Majlis Amanah Rakyat (MARA) provided limited training opportunities to the indigenous groups. In fact, other than acknowledging training as an imperative to create a good destination image, useful means or strategies to increase indigenous participation were not made explicitly. It was not until the early 1990s in the period of the 6th and 7th Malaysia Plans (1991-2000) that the planning and development of human resources development received due attention. The establishment of the National Tourism Human Resource Development Council (NTHRDC) and the incorporation of tourism-related occupations into national occupational skills standards were positive responses to increase the quality and quantity of tourism personnel demands.

The empirical results also point to an omission in coping with cultural and religious concerns, which have been the main impediments preventing the *bumiputras*' active involvement. The different ethnic groups, who hold less secular values and are traditionally religiously coherent, are more likely to be vacillating about opportunities in tourism, simply because of obvious cultural and religious contradictions, especially when guidance is not available. Thus, envisioning indigenous participation in tourism in the Malaysian context requires greater understanding of ethnic sensitivities.

In practice, developing countries' interest in tourism has been primarily economically motivated and their development preferences for tourism are predisposed to up-scale and expensive establishments. Their tourism plans exhibit impressive adaptability to tourism planning paradigm shifts and a sustainability rhetoric now prevails. It is not difficult to locate proper acknowledgement of economic competitiveness, ecological balance, culture and good governance in the tourism plans. However, the commitment to sustainability (or a community development approach) can be questioned because of failure to develop adequate

means to fulfill participatory objectives

The results derived from the studies of China and Malaysia indicate that, beyond the economic benefits, tourism has also provided pretext under which intrusive governments operate to enforce policies for tourism human capital which encompass explicit political motives. This evokes questions not only concerning what training can be provided to the host population to facilitate their meaningful involvement, but also how training can be manipulated to work for the state political objectives.

As well, the training needs of tourism personnel are seen as being directed to meeting the needs of an up-market clientele and continually increasing visitation volumes. Empirical evidence suggests the need to affirm the cultivation of tourism human capital in developing countries' tourism development plans, if the hosts are to be the actual beneficiaries. More importantly, special attention to local political situations and cultural factors is required in devising human resources development strategies in developing countries.

6.3 Factors Governing Tourism Employment

Tourism exhibits a high level of employment flexibility and the capacity to generate a wide spectrum of episodic and permanent jobs. In the literature, tourism is also credited with higher production of employment than alternative economic sectors (using the same amount of investment). As well, tourism economic impact studies acknowledge tourism's labour intensive attributes. There are certainly some dissenting views questioning the capital efficiency and effectiveness in generating tourism jobs as compared with alternative allocation of resources in other economic sectors. However, it is commonly accepted that tourism is an effective means to address developing countries' employment dilemma. Tourism, with its services-based activities, necessitates the wide utilization of labour, especially in semi- and low-skilled categories, and can provide employment to developing countries' surplus labour.

The most common view concerning the merits of tourism employment in a developing economy is typically generalized based on their resource constraints which limit opportunities to produce a large number of regular, productive jobs, particularly when unemployment is high. However, a typical misconception of tourism employment effects in developing countries arises in relation to the usage of tourism's labour intensive feature and relatively low entry threshold to remedy daunting challenges of meeting high employment demands. As contended by Richter (1983:406) using China as an example:

While China is doing many things right in its development of tourism, it has also missed several opportunities to make the industry more labour intensive. For example, many of the new hotels have self-service elevators. Moving sidewalks at the Beijing Airport eliminate much of the need for porters, but at a heavy initial cost and continued high energy consumption. The absence of porters and tipping at airports, train stations, hotels, or indeed anywhere in China is consistent with the country's ideological views of classlessness and self-reliance. But such ideological posturing is foolish if it only leads to poor and indifferent service or to tourists curtailing their shopping beyond what they can carry.

While one can accept that tourism is labour intensive, this account unfortunately devalues the significance of tourism jobs. The labour intensive attribute does not augur well for tourism as an economic growth sector. A more pertinent question is then not the numbers of people employed by the tourism industry but whether or not tourism is a job alternative of higher productivity that provides better levels of remuneration. Often overlooked is the fact that the labour intensity of tourism (i.e. cost per job created or employment output ratio, see Cleverdon 1979:40) is indicative of the local economic development level which reflects the dependency level of the tourism economy and the local capacity to establish linkages with

tourism consumption. Another notable issue in evaluating tourism employment is the political influences impinging upon the courses of action for materializing the whole spectrum of tourism employment ranging from large corporate tourism organizations to small entrepreneurial operators. Studies undertaken in China and Malaysia support this point.

Examples drawn from both China and Malaysia have shown that, given strong elite dominance and weak public scrutiny on all affairs in developing countries, a thorough understanding of employment effects and the courses of action for human resources development can not be acquired without taking into account government policies. The economic significance of tourism in both countries is derived predominately from government initiatives and tourism facilities have often been built with a modernization aspiration. Tourism, as a part of the development drive, is then progressed through appropriation of scarce resources and displacement of traditional economic activities with little attention being given to the need to facilitate labour transformation. Tourism, therefore, is not necessarily a genial development option nor does it represent a relatively lucrative form of employment to the destination communities, even when tourism initiatives are proposed to defeat underdevelopment problems in outlying areas (e.g. Hainan Province in China, Kedah State in Malaysia).

As evident elsewhere in other developing countries' tourism employment status, both China and Malaysia have generally benefited from the direct employment opportunities created within tourism establishments, but materialization of tourism's secondary employment effects in other sectors supporting tourism is persistently a challenge. Spread effects to other economic sectors are often hardly discernible, primarily because of narrowly-focused development interests in exploitation of attractions and expansion of accommodation facilities. In fact, the types of targeted tourists and modes of tourism development have significant implications for the types and extent of local participation in the tourism economic activities

(Echtner 1995, France 1998). A commonality of both countries' tourism profile is an internationalization process that predominately caters to a foreign clientele's tastes and requirements. This does not encourage the flourishing of locally-owned small enterprises. There is an underestimation of domestic tourism as a home-grown, self-reliant initiative to inspire local tourism entrepreneurship.

China, in particular, even faced with a high level of high employment, trivializes the petty trades of tourism, which can be an economical method of employment generation and, more significantly, can be maneuvered to boost indigenous entrepreneurs' movement into the tourism sector, using their traditional produce. The ultimate tourism objective of much of governments' endeavours is to attract significant tourist expenditure increases in the national economy. Consequently, mode, scale and technique of tourism development envisaged by the public sector are often at odds with capacities and without articulation concerning local autonomy and technical self-sufficiency. Even local awareness of tourism employment opportunities is often overlooked and this is fundamental if local people are to be primary beneficiaries of tourism development.

There is substantial evidence suggesting that Malaysia's tourism planning has been more sensitive to local needs and capacity. However, it has been superimposed on a similar focus upon luxury tourism expansion. Its pursuit of tourism has emphasized social equity issues among its diverse ethnic population, albeit with a chauvinistic facade and a preference for the indigenous group (*bumiputras*). This indigenization approach is directed at a specific ethnic group that is offered employment opportunities. Their inertia, skill deficiencies and unfamiliarity with tourism commerce demand large public resources to improve their sluggish involvement in tourism. Thus, the current employment profile tends to yield a generally flat ethnic pyramid with the indigenous group dominating the whole tourism employment structure. Nevertheless, virtually no attempt has been made to sensitize tourism workers or

prospective participants to tourism culture and to show them how to adapt appropriately to the tourism employment needs and realities.

From the viewpoints of tourism participants and students, research results from both China and Malaysia reveal that tourism represents good employment potential and is a favourable employment option with a glamorous image. Both existing and prospective participants indicated moderate views on remuneration levels and the social status of tourism employment. One might argue that the tourism can be an economic saviour to developing economies because of the production of 60 to 80 percent semi- and low-skilled positions that can help to absorb a large number of the marginalized workforce which is typical in developing countries. Yet, even in the developing countries with an economically backward status, the attractiveness (or competitiveness) of tourism as an employer is somewhat constrained by its generally low wage levels in comparison with the wages offered in other economic sectors.

Job satisfaction with tourism employment, similar to any profession, is measured by monetary terms, power (responsibility) and prestige. In light of these, the value of being a labour-intensive industry and its associated flat occupational hierarchy should be re-assessed if tourism is to be a sector of high productivity with satisfactory remuneration. Otherwise tourism employment remains vulnerable to not being recognized as a desirable and socially respectable profession. On the other hand, labour supply in tourism is typically hampered by the fact that many people simply are not aware of tourism employment opportunities and do not know the way to seek employment in the tourism sector.

In principle, using results from the studies in China and Malaysia, several factors that impact the magnitude of tourism employment in developing countries can be generalized as follows:

- the nature of tourism objectives is primarily embedded in the national agenda rather than in a micro-economic development strategy;
- the tendency to create an international tourism profile that has an implication of limiting opportunities for local entrepreneurship;
- development types, scales and the utilization of resources are not congruent with local capacities;
- the public sector's unwillingness to optimize the employment flexibility and capacity of tourism by expanding the range of tourism jobs covering different economic levels;
- the expenditure leakage resulting from high import propensities and, thereby, insignificant indirect and induced tourism employment effects;
- high labour absorption characteristics because of low labour costs and flat employment hierarchical structure;
- the degree of incorporating local produce and resources into tourism is minimal;
- lack of proactive action in taking initiatives in incubating tourism human capital; and
- insensitivities to ethnic differentials and cultural impediments in relation to accepting positions in tourism.

A destination country's political system and economic objectives provide immense implications for the structure of tourism employment. As identified in both China and Malaysia, governments' increasing involvement in and enthusiasm for tourism is aimed at achieving national agendas. This suggests that, although tourism objectives vary, political influences have shaped the widely varying responses to tourism at different levels of the planning process. However, failure to accord an adequate level of attention to cater to community needs has diminished the opportunities for meaningful local participation hampering tourism's most beneficial effect as a job generator. Simply stated, best practice in tourism development will ensure effective involvement by the host population and secure distributional equity by awarding the locals with proper participatory incentives.

6.4 Tourism's Human Resources Development: Omissions and Biases

Developing nations show increasing interest in adopting tourism as a mean to address their economic hardship problems. Limitations inherent in physical and human capital, however, lead developing countries to be reliant on external sources for finance and/or management expertise to facilitate tourism development. Developed nations and international funding agencies have become regular donors and investors in tourism projects. The expectation for poor populations in destination areas is that they will receive benefits commensurate to the growth of tourism. Too often the outcome is otherwise.

While there is a correlation between human resources development and economic growth, it has not received comparable attention in the tourism field. Orthodox tourism planning that is typically pursued by destination nations is predominantly an amalgamation process to coordinate various tourism components (e.g. accessibility, accommodation, attractions and promotion). Schematically, Figures 6-3 and 6-4 illustrate the benefits of incorporating human resources development into the overall tourism planning process: a more balanced income distribution for the host population, diminution of disparities between labour supply and demand and, most significantly, the initiation of local tourism enterprises.

In many developing countries, the level of tourism development is running ahead of the labour supply, as shown in Figure 6-3. In other words, the supply cannot keep up with the demand. This situation limits the benefits to the locals while increasing the leakage. If, on the other hand, human resources planning is considered and local involvement is woven into the tourism planning process, the labour supply will be able to keep pace with the tourism development, as illustrated in Figure 6-4. In this case, the locals, after learning the skills and knowledge, will be in a position to respond more effectively to the economic activities created by the development, maximizing the overall benefits to the host community.

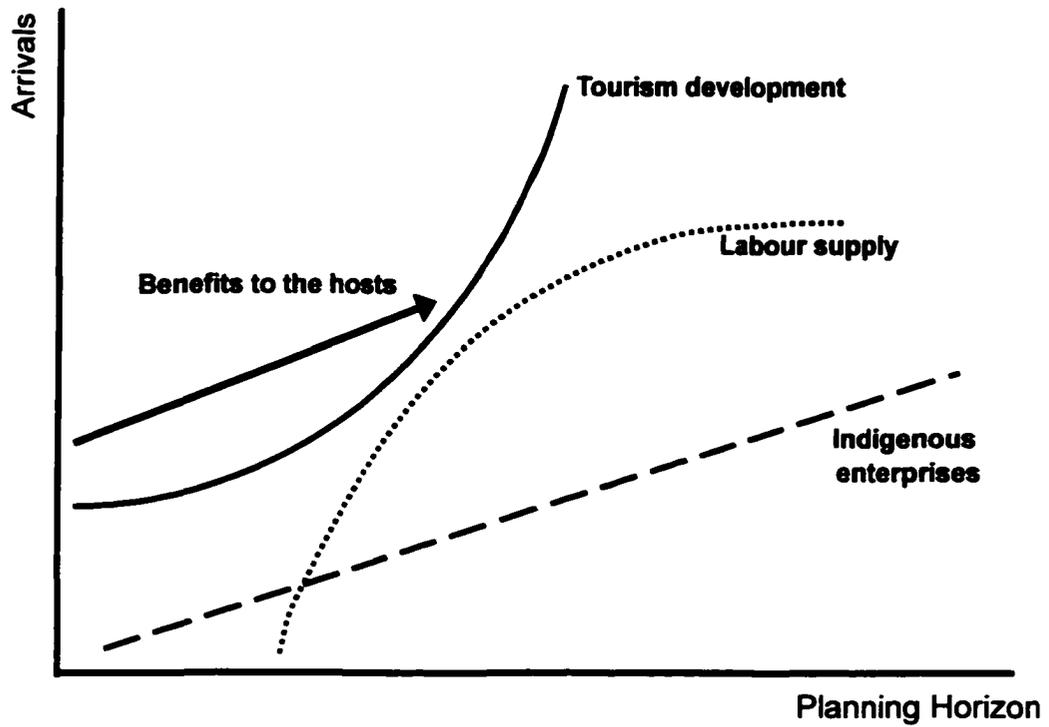


Figure 6-3: Tourism Planning Constraints

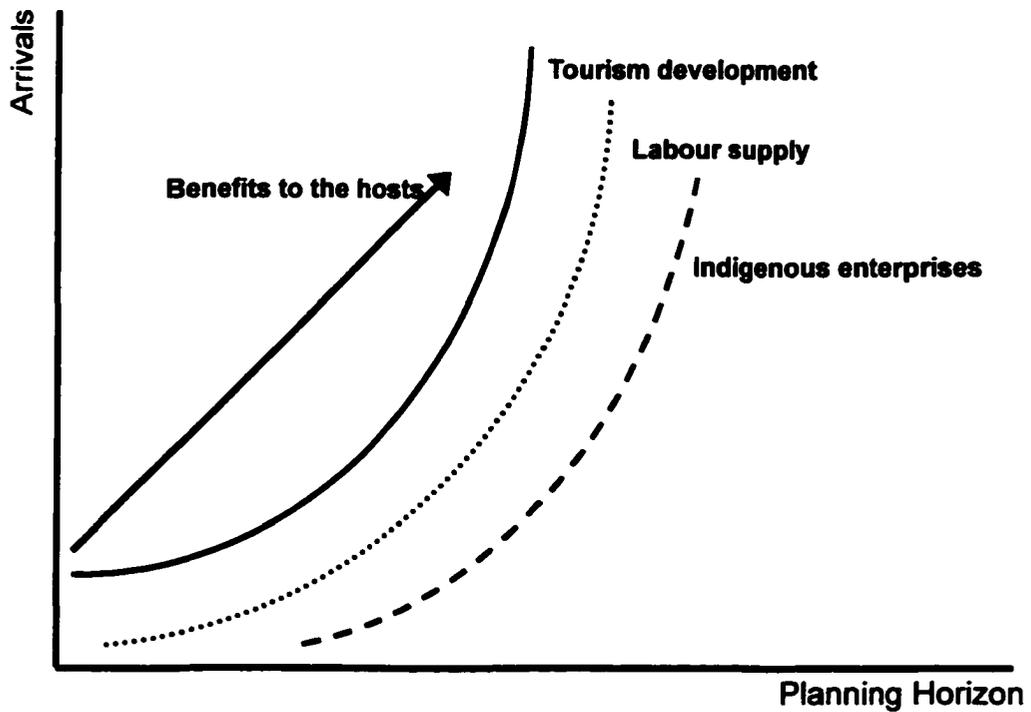


Figure 6-4: The Benefits of Human Resources Development for Tourism

However, human resources in developing countries' tourism plans typically serve as investment incentives; abundant cheap labour supply to attract investment. Even when incorporated as a primary element in a tourism plan, the main focus of human resources development is usually to achieve professionalism or so-called service standards. This notion of human resources development for tourism appears to be too simplistic. It does not recognize the need for cultivating tourism human capital to encourage optimal local participation in tourism. Similarly, as shown in the Chinese and Malaysian case studies, tourism development in developing countries tends to share the same problems that exist in human resources development in other areas (e.g. African countries and micro-states in the Pacific Rim), as follows:

- obvious omission of the significance of tourism human capital;
- misconception of tourism training and education objectives;
- shortage of a competent workforce;
- absence of adequate means for developing tourism's human capital; and
- lack of commitment to involve host communities in the tourism development.

In China, low education levels and high illiteracy have been a major problem hampering economic growth. As a result, tourism, being a relatively young sector, is affected in that lack of awareness and inadequate qualifications preclude Chinese from pursuing mundane tourism jobs, let alone more senior managerial level jobs. Consequently, tourism employers are faced with the responsibility of dealing with the transformation of labour from unskilled agricultural work to semi-skilled/skilled tourism work, since government (including the tourism administrative body) and educational authorities have not given high enough priority to the issue. A corollary to this problem is the need for the introduction of basic skill training programs that not only make the locals aware of tourism employment opportunities but also

broaden their choice of employment. China's human resources development approach tends to be concentrated in higher education and is inadequate in vocational training.

Another important factor that contributes to a unique situation of tourism human capital is intrusive governance. Chinese tourism so far has created a hybrid system of socialism and capitalism. Under this system, Chinese tourism workers experience two extremes in their workplace where they are expected to think socially but also act capitalistically. China's tourism workforce development strategies certainly have gradually evolved as its political economy system has been transformed from a socialist planned economy to a socialist market economy with increasing economic dependence on tourism. The government has taken some important steps to integrate the cultivation of human resources into the future course of tourism development. Training resources are allocated to increase technical competence of tourism workers, focusing on the following three sectors: (1) accommodation, (2) tours and (3) tourism administration. Training efforts are geared towards the provision of quality services, as tourism workers represent the image of their country. However, the issue of "correct" political thoughts remains important in China's approach to the development of the tourism workforce. It is common to find that people involved in tourism have the ability to precisely recite the official definition (made for propaganda purposes) of tourism.

Malaysia, even though it is blessed with abundant natural resource endowments, values the role of human resources more in the overall national social and economic development agenda when compared with China. Recognition of the importance of human capital to economic growth as well as the government's investment in and commitment to education and industrial training far exceed China. Human capital is given prime importance and is at the forefront of economic development strategies. In addition to public subsidization of formal education systems and training programs, the Malaysian government goes a long way to motivate the industry. Incentive grants, redeemable training levies and apprenticeship

schemes, as well as relevant legislation concerning training for human capital accumulation, have been implemented to encourage the industry itself to undertake training responsibilities.

The striking feature of Malaysia's human resources policy is the equity objective aimed at the removal of ethnic dominance of social wealth. Thus, appropriate distribution that proportionately reflects the structural composition of its ethnically diverse population, predominates in Malaysian policies. The main reason for this policy, it would appear, has to do with the need for an equitable society and, thereby, to avoid disruption of national integrity. With tourism being a significant job and income contributor, the government postulated an indigenous growth model during the inception of tourism growth in the mid 1970s. National training agencies accommodated the training needs of the indigenous groups with the objective of eliminating ethnic dominance in the tourism field. Continued interventions in public tourism education expenditures and associated tourism development projects has assured greater indigenous representation in the tourism sector. However, the provision of training opportunities to the indigenous people is grounded on the basis of technical competence and not necessarily to nurture knowledge, novel ideas, innovation or an entrepreneurial spirit. This does not help to achieve the ethnic equilibrium objective in tourism commerce. Thus, the efficacy of an explicit ethnic-driven policy to promote positive growth of indigenous representation in tourism is not yet conclusive.

Both in China and Malaysia, there is a shortage of veteran tourism staff. As tourism continues to expand, the proliferation of workforce demands from the industry will aggravate the scarcity of tourism labour. Unfortunately, workforce needs have never been a major concern when planning tourism. Other than acknowledging the tourism human resource issues in a general sense, specific measures such as the transformation of labour between economic sectors and the need to impart necessary skills and knowledge have generally been ignored in the tourism development process. Similarly, tourism employers themselves,

despite repeated complaints about staffing difficulties, give little attention to the training needs of their workers. Recruitment of veterans has been the most effective remedy to staffing problems.

Despite the growing realization of the need for tourism workforce cultivation and the recent efforts devoted to raising the skill level of the workers, approaches remain immature and somewhat counter-productive. Approaches to tourism human resources development, as typically organized, sacrifice the profundity of education and training in the locals' growth in order to try to meet the needs of visitors. Often tourism education and training are directed towards a misplaced parameter of "international standards" or superficially defined "professionalism"¹, merely targeting the production of technically seasoned personnel. Reflecting upon this, the strategies devised focus on attaining "visitor satisfaction" - - hosts are taught to be gracious and timely in providing services in order to gain monetary rewards from satisfied tourists. Even when the hosts, with their unique customs or their way of life, are cast as "raw materials" for exotic images, there is usually limited training except for attempts to inculcate an understanding of tourists' tastes by the hosts.

Moreover, the deficiencies that exist in both China and Malaysia's human resources development measures are a result of a pragmatic and ideological vision of tourism as well as lack of appreciation of the socio-cultural influences exerted by tourism. The Chinese approach contains much political exhortation as the focus is discourse and homily. In Malaysia, failure to deduce an adequate interpretation of religious and cultural doctrines, obstructs indigenous involvement. In both China and Malaysia, the industry needs to take the lead in cultivating tourism education and training, but the scope should be beyond

¹ The level of professionalism of any given occupation, as summarized by Sheldon (1989:493-498) from fourteen different definitions, could be assessed by criteria such as the length of training required, the existence of a code of ethics, organization (association/affiliation), complexity (skill sophistication), altruistic service, body of knowledge, people-oriented, licensing/certification, prestige, self-employment, remuneration.

destination competitiveness building, and subordination by the state's political and economic priorities should be minimized. As well, there continues to be a search for a more appropriate means of human resources development. Some current training practices, either suggested by commissioned foreign consultants or depicted by domestic experts with exposure to Western notions of tourism, are simply inappropriate or unworkable, mainly because of lack of recognition of the unique local conditions. For instance, the importation of the Hawaii image into the hosts in Hainan and the pursuit of international standards prioritized in Baling's rural tourism training initiatives are both inappropriate approaches.

While one can demonstrate several important economic attributes of the tourism industry, the laudable desire for tourism gains can encourage false hopes in the absence of an adequate human resources development approach. The tourism phenomenon that has occurred in destination countries is typically an extraneous force which can create social changes. It requires adaptability on the part of the peasantry and proletariat in the poorer destination regions. The locals in these regions must be acquainted with tourism culture and it is difficult for them to provide tourism services without proper training. A tourism planning approach that gives more prominence to the transformation of and is adjusted to the needs and capabilities of novice hosts is thus imperative in order to facilitate their adaptation to the new economic structures and opportunities created by tourism.

6.5 Research Needs and Opportunities

There is a complex set of factors that can have significant influences on the status of tourism employment. Initially, in this study, conceptual considerations concerning human resources development for tourism were arranged in a policy-industry-locality schema. Its application was fruitful in generating a variety of research questions (e.g. policy trends, local industry characteristics and the nature of the hosts' involvement in tourism) and related results (e.g.

influences of tourism policy on employment diffusion). However, the research needs related to human resources in tourism are substantial and complex. Based on the empirical evidence, the one-way policy-industry-locality schema can be expanded into a broader conceptualization, which is organized as a “tourism human resources matrix”, as presented in Figure 6-5. The framework can serve as a device for generating research questions that suit academic, planners’ and managers’ specific objectives. This, in turn, will facilitate the production of pertinent insights from different perspectives.

		Constructs			Directives
Tourism employment categories	Tourism policies	Labour conditions	Education and training approach		Distribution of tourism expenditures
Formal	1	2	3		Tourist types
Entrepreneurs	4	5	6		Establishment sizes
Informal	7	8	9		Development scales
Effects	Employment structure	Supply and demand	Social and cultural transition		

Figure 6-5: Tourism Human Resources Matrix

Note: The concept of tourism human resources matrix is an adaptation from “tourism matrix” developed by Mitchell (1994:200).

Figure 6-5, which conceptualizes components to be considered in research of human resources in tourism, illustrates how different forces influence the patterns of tourism employment and describes the types and sources of influences. In principle, the distribution of tourism expenditures directly determines the formation of tourism employment patterns. There are, however, other key factors that are often overlooked in tourism’s human resources

studies. Based on the observations gained from the China and Malaysia case studies, it can be generalized that tourism policies, local labour conditions and the availability of tourism education and training opportunities are three main constructs affecting the nature of the hosts' involvement in tourism and the structural composition of tourism job levels.

It is possible, with the adoption of the matrix, to emphasize specific information that is explicit to an individual cell or to highlight linkages with other elements for the purpose of generating propositions (a combination of rows or columns). For instance, as an illustration of the application of the matrix, cell 1 raises questions such as the extent of tourism policy influences on the generation of tourism jobs in the formal wage sector relative to the tourism expenditures distribution, tourist types, establishments sizes, and development scale. Further, by placing cell 1 as a reciprocal to "directives" or to "effects", a relationship between the level of policy support and the creation of tourism employment in the formal economy sector can be acquired (the column "tourism policies" or cells 1, 4 and 7). The matrix can also be used to develop a multi-faceted study by combining rows or columns.

6.6 Summary

Tourism in a developing economy is highly contested raising substantial dissensions. This is so because of tourism's questionable economic benefits retained locally and its environmental and cultural implications for host destinations which call for a reorientation of tourism development initiatives. However, the emergence of new tourism paradigms tends to rest upon impact skepticisms, leading to a divergence from practicality and reality. Neither does the community-driven approach that has prevailed in recent tourism planning practices sufficiently addressed the hosts' capabilities in partaking in tourism decisions. This is a crucial problem that challenges the adequacy of current tourism development orthodoxy. Alienation from the reality of tourism decisions in developing countries also affects the

veracity and applicability of the current tourism development norm. It is often overlooked that tourism is highly susceptible to political influences and its functionality is subordinate to government sanctions. Hence, in spite of good will and the intention to avert victimization of economically disadvantaged hosts, recommendations often are far from empowering the hosts in playing a pivotal role in tourism. In most cases, the hosts' needs, as basic as earning a living from tourism, have generally been neglected in the planning process.

As has been demonstrated in both China and Malaysia, strong endorsement from the state stimulates rapid tourism growth and, as a result, tourism has risen to be a major economic sector with significant contribution to their GDPs. In both countries, in addition to being a source of foreign currency, tourism is also a manifestation of multiple symbolisms - - progress, modernization, and a reflection of national identity. However, while there can be little doubt that community benefits should be considered as a pivotal determinant for tourism decisions, the hosts are confronted by tourism policy objectives that pursue large increases in international arrivals, accommodation capacity and accessibility. Even given the well-acknowledged notion of capacity building of the hosts, a fundamental problem would seem to be the adequacy of a service quality focused approach for accumulating tourism capital. Problems arise from importation of multinational operators, a high proportion of foreign content in commodities and a focus on international tourism. These, in return, create wages and employment for a minority of skilled and a large semi- and un-skilled workforce and an insignificant involvement of local entrepreneurs. As well, tourism education and training programs are usually mutually exclusive. They focus upon mastery of technical skills and reflect the needs of the industry, rather than on a long-term strategy. Human resources development, in fact, has been primarily concerned with the creation of a gracious and high calibre workforce to fill the menial positions.

As suggested in Figure 6-5, tourism is a dynamic process involving many factors, which

introduce considerable challenges and new opportunities. Thus, there is a need not only to endow the hosts with the necessary skills and knowledge to take part in the employment opportunities, but also to enhance understanding and appreciation concerning tourism culture and, ultimately, to increase the capabilities to mould tourism in such a way that it fits into their own agendas. Yet, if education and training needs remain unappreciated in the planning and development process, tourism may falter, revolving around foreign capital and tourists' preference and value systems, while the locals' involvement remains slight.

Chapter 7

Conclusions

7.1 Research Orientation

This study examines the policy trend toward the greater use of tourism as an economic development strategy and its implications for the development of tourism human capital, to identify entry impediments for a host population's participation in the tourism-related economic activities and to develop a methodology (as presented in Section 7.3) that facilitates local's entry and job advancement in the tourism sector, using training and education as tools.

This research employed a recursive research process. At the outset the conceptualization of research problems was postulated through review of tourism literature, from a wide range of multi-disciplinary applications. Based on a set of generated propositions, the research conceptual framework identified essential facets that needed to be considered for tourism human capital studies. These were formulated in a sequential manner serving as a study guideline for the research execution. Research questions were elicited from a conceptualized policy-industry-locality schema. The research design and instruments drew on local characteristics from site visits conducted in Hainan Province, PR China and Kedah State, Malaysia. Data collection, processing and analysis followed. The anticipated result was a statement about the relationship between tourism human capital and a useful human resources development framework, for the provision of tourism education and training programs.

This thesis has argued the neglect of in tourism human capital in the tourism planning process. Human resources development for tourism lags far behind the establishment of tourism facilities. People often refer to tourism with a predominantly physical orientation, particularly in connection with the exploitation of attractions and the increase of accommodation capacity. The preparation of tourism plans is typically preoccupied with catchphrases of special relevance to economic gains but overlooking the fact that tourism can serve as a catalyst to improve the quality of life for destination residents. As a result, while many of the successful examples of tourism development have reported substantial increases in tourist numbers and foreign currency yields, the destination residents, who comprise the principle sources of labour supply for most tourism operations, have not been compensated commensurate to the tourism growth. The lack of tourism knowledge, skill deficiencies and even unfamiliarity with tourism culture have been major impediments limiting the meaningful involvement of the hosts in tourism. This is mainly because tourism planners generally devote inadequate attention to the need to cultivate tourism human capital.

To address this dilemma, a research framework (Figure 3-1), which goes beyond tourism's inherent physical-orientation and growth philosophy, accords the area of human resources development an adequate position in the tourism plans. One of the strengths of the framework is that it embraces broad perspectives inclusive of aspects such as policy implications, industrial and educational initiatives and tourism employment dynamics. The point of departure of the research framework was to determine the extent to which tourism policies/plans identify human resource issues. The policy implications for the formation of the tourism industry, employment patterns and job levels, as well as the nature of the locals' participation, were also examined. The application of the framework was successfully implemented in the cases studies conducted in Hainan Province of China and Kedah State of Malaysia.

Given the extremely diverse political and cultural backgrounds of China and Malaysia, all aspects outlined in the research framework were not examined in equal depth. In any case, the very different circumstances in each country required different emphasis. For example, the Chinese study investigated the adequacy of the tourism workforce within communist country undergoing economic transition from a command to a free-market economy. In contrast, the Malaysian study questioned the appropriateness of the ethnic-driven approach to the development of tourism human resources with a particular emphasis on rural tourism initiatives, ethnic diversity and cultural sensitivity. The observation of the common deficiency exhibited in most tourism plans that overlook tourism's human resource demands was exemplified through examples elicited from both case studies.

7.2 Recapitulation

Theoretically, this research attempted to draw together the strands of tourism employment narratives and to generalize tourism concepts. The knowledge of tourism is generally grounded on a place-specific basis. A north/south, developed/developing, or metropolitan/third world dichotomy further complicates the heterogeneity of tourism exhibited in two systems which are differentiated by economic status. Tourism does not exert the same effects on any two host communities due to the historical, geographical, socio-cultural, economic and political variations (Crandall 1994). Thus, despite considerable international homogeneity of tourism phenomena, there is a need to differentiate tourism implications depending on the host country's domestic socio-cultural, economic and political systems.

Nevertheless, a common concern regarding tourism impact on the poorer destination areas is often built upon the notion that tourism is destructive to destination areas environmentally, socially and culturally. These negatives are rooted in the acerbic treatment of tourism mercantilism, the encroachment of foreign cultures, the dependency on

metropolitan capitalists and the resultant economic leakage problems, while ignoring the decisive power that the local economic and political requirements impose upon the modes of production. A common deficiency revealed from discussion of tourism is that the historical background and political processes that determine development are overlooked (Britton 1982).

Tourism development exercises, in their purest form, can be conceptualized as a process of economic conditioning. This is particularly true in the developing nations where tourism is widely used by governments to elevate the internal functioning of economic and social systems. With this in mind, the fundamental issue which needs to be addressed via appropriate policies is how do government agencies address the development of human resources in tourism. In light of this, a prerequisite for understanding tourism impacts within the context of developing economies is the study of the implications of tourism policies on the nature and patterns of the host population's participation in tourism and the way in which it responds to tourism employment opportunities; that is, the locals' knowledge, skill base and their perceptions with respect to tourism jobs.

Empirically, this study identified the tourism education and training imperatives for promoting meaningful participation of the hosts in tourism. Employment generation is considered the most direct and beneficial impact of tourism to the host population. Human resources development, however, goes unmentioned or is glossed over in many tourism plans. Furthermore, the formal wage sector's employment needs are usually stressed to the neglect of the training needs or other employment available in petty trading activities. It is also conspicuous that the accumulation of tourism human capital remains a poorly developed area of discussion in the literature. A typical reflection both in tourism plans and literature is that, section(s) entitled with "human resources development", "tourism training" or "local participation" only involve a flimsy description of the significance of this issue with normative approaches to meeting international tourism requirements. Tourism planners and experts

integrate human resources development principally to maintain the integrity of a tourism plan but they tend to pass tourism education and training off as a residual matter.

The principal outcome of examinations of tourism human resource issues, as emerged both in China and Malaysia, is the distorted use of foreign visitation growth and accommodation capacity as indicators to explain progress made in their tourism efforts. There are shared tendencies that tourism administrative bodies view their most important and prime responsibilities as marketing and promotion, product development and massive implementation of hotel projects. Meagre understanding of tourism effects on the part of public tourism authorities is the main reason that undermines the due consideration of tourism human resources. Problems of inefficient balance of the supply and demand of trained tourism personnel are common to both countries.

Examples extracted from China and Malaysia provide evidence that the main determinants governing the level of incorporation of tourism into the local economy and its diffusing employment effects are repeating historical precedents and state ideology. Tourism was keenly pursued because of the perceived need to political, social and economic agendas to place the destination on the world map. At the same time, adequate human capital for tourism is generally lacking. This has been a substantial issue that negatively affects receipt of tourism revenues. The provision of human capital rests greatly on the part of tourism employers. Inevitably, human resource issues are often dealt with at micro levels that have intimate association with corporate management or commercial interests. Comprehensive human resources development policy is rarely to be found. As a result, fundamental issues concerning the locals' capabilities to respond to employment opportunities and the possibilities to promote local entrepreneurial involvement generally receive little attention.

Even when the cultivation of tourism human capital is acknowledged as an essential component in the planning process, the nature and scope of human resources development is

often profiled according to tourism operators' requirements, further contributing to the perpetuation of the privileged status of larger-scale tourism operators. At the same time, the quality control of tourism personnel predominates in both China's and Malaysia's tourism human resources development strategies. For example, China National Tourism Administration directs its in-house training efforts towards the improvement of the professional quality of tourism employees. Licensing systems for chief management personnel of the hotels and tour operations as well as guiding are in place to regulate the tourism labour force and to ensure that the tourism workers are acclimatized to tourist services culture. Similarly, in Malaysia, the introduction of an accreditation system (national occupational skills standards) was intended to create a professional image for the tourism industry and to help increase career progression and remuneration for tourism workers. Levy-grant and apprenticeship schemes were also an attempt to motivate the private sector to investment in developing tourism human capital.

The Chinese and Malaysian experiences reveal recognition of training needs for the tourism sector, albeit with overwhelming emphasis on the more organized segments such as hotel personnel and tour operators. There is a common oversight on the less developed but significant sector of petty traders. Development of entrepreneurial skills is generally also a neglected area. Furthermore, the mechanisms set out for human resources development generally concentrate on building destination competitiveness in the global marketplace without fully comprehending the local contribution to spreading tourism benefits equitably and expeditiously. Attuning tourism workers to highest international services standards is typically pursued as an ultimate goal of tourism's human resources development endeavours. Such an orientation of technical competence in developing tourism human capital encourages the external capitalists' interest in becoming directly involved in the destination areas, since craftsmanship and mastery gives tourism employers competitive advantages in attaining

services standards. However, this is not necessarily beneficial to the elevation of local tourism operatives. One consequence of these tendencies is that only commercial interests are in any position to coordinate, effect, construct, operate and profit from the deployment of human resources development strategies.

The public sector's ambition to actualize images of advancement, modernization and developed status further detracts from tourism contributing to the achievement of structural reorganization in local social and economic milieus. Particularly under the hierarchical systems in place in both China's and Malaysia's internal economic systems, the labour condition is perpetuated by their work population's limited knowledge and skill deficiencies of the tertiary industrial sector. A structural transformation is, therefore, difficult to achieve.

As is the case with the flourishing tourism economy, while craft training is sought to achieve operation professionalism, most of the higher-level skills and management expertise are rarely cultivated and accumulated locally. Thus, the anticipated benefits are minimal to the host populations because of their inability to manage their resources and to take part in the tourism development. Empirical information also suggests that tourism is not a highly rated employment, mainly because of unfamiliarity with the nature of tourism jobs and the lack of competitive pay for most positions. There is also a reluctance of tourism employers to provide training because of the high mobility of tourism workers and employers' inclination to recruit veterans. At the same time, tourism administrative agencies do not seem to regard human resources development as their main remit. These are obstacles to put forward training programs for tourism in developing countries. More significantly, these situations present a limitation to using tourism as a social and economic development strategy and blocks creation of potential employment in smaller and locally-owned tourism establishments.

As a corollary to the industry bias and international tourism emphasis, the growth of tourism as a major economic sector increases workforce demands but does not necessarily

result in social reorganization in tourism employment. In China, for example, strategies for tourism workforce development do not reflect a self-sustaining development approach as proclaimed by its leadership nor do they create appropriate options to eliminate the high unemployment situation. Similarly, the Malaysian case also indicates that human resource policies for tourism appear to contradict the national economic policy that has a fundamental mission to incubate an entrepreneurial spirit among the indigenous group. It appears that decision makers have not articulated the pivotal role that human capital plays in sustaining the viability of a tourism economy.

In an anxious search for a development alternative, it is common for developing countries to adopt an external-oriented strategy to bring in capital and experts for managing their tourism resources, while indigenous human capital cultivation has often lagged far behind the pace of tourism development. Thus, the ability of developing countries to retain tourism benefits continues to be a concern, giving rise to acrimonious commentary about the marginalization of the host population and lack of opportunities. While the manipulation of foreign capital and managerial expertise is perhaps inevitable, a major impediment that hampers the indigenization process in tourism is the dearth of adequate responses in providing useful mechanisms to prompt the hosts' participation in business and employment opportunities created by tourism. The provision of tourism education and training often lack vital components to address local needs sufficiently, whether it be skill and knowledge deficiencies, low level of entrepreneurship or cultural taboos, that would facilitate the removal of entry hindrances for the host population. Evaluations of tourism prospects are often optimistic for developing countries and the main effective way to realize economic benefits is to encourage greater local involvement in tourism commerce. The provision of tourism education and training opportunities is the means to achieve this goal.

7.3 Potential Use of the Research

The main aim of this study is to emphasize an interrelated policy-industry-locality continuum as an essential part of tourism employment and human capital development issues to be examined. In a theoretical context, this study has revealed new dimensions to explain the multiplicity of tourism employment characteristics and, at the same time, provides empirical evidence and factors to be considered for planning tourism's human resource needs.

The relationship between human resources development and economic growth is evident (as evidenced in Western economies). The value of competent human capital deserve due attention. Tourism is an emerging economic sector with growth potential in income and job generation in many developing nations, but is constantly confronted by host countries' inability to generate a sound human capital base. To eliminate the daunting demands of creating or finding trained tourism personnel and to promote greater local control of indigenous tourism resources, devising adequate education and training mechanisms is a pressing need.

The foregoing conclusions, which have emerged from an examination of developing countries' approaches to planning tourism and empirical investigation of tourism employment status, reaffirm that tourism education and training are imperative for the host population. Traditionally, service standards have been the main parameter governing the deployment of tourism education and training infrastructure. However, examples drawn from the case studies of China and Malaysia indicate that although these two countries' strategies of tourism human resources development are differentiated to meet their own political, social and economic requirements, the common characteristic is a technical competence orientation endowed with achieving service quality and international standards (which is also a universally accepted goal of tourism education and training, see World Tourism Organization 1999).

The plans articulate the developing countries' uniqueness but need to go beyond the attainment of services excellence and a superficially defined professionalism objective. Most endeavours are devoted to redressing the problem of trained tourism personnel shortages. However, the low level of entrepreneurship and the hosts' unfamiliarity with the nature of tourism employment plague the organization and operation of the tourism industry in developing countries, and is an obvious oversight in most plans. The result is a deviation from the stated goals for tourism education and training objectives and the real needs of the hosts.

Tourism is an industry rooted in local characteristics that makes this industry's relocation difficult. Unlike mobile industries with a high capacity to move their operational bases for cheap labour and material costs, tourism can best be sustained by maintaining the viability of indigenous resources, whether tangible or intangible. This requires the public authorities to provide adequate facilities and resources for a work population who are capable of managing the local tourism endowments, participating in the tourism sector and receiving appropriate participatory incentives. Figure 7-1 proposes the education and training methodologies to be considered for the development of tourism human resources.

Figure 7-1 conceptualizes a schematic vision, which embraces all levels of skills and capacity, for developing tourism human resources. This systematic framework is different from other previous approaches that have been predominately driven by the demands of the industry and the tourist clientele. This framework incorporates both the supply of and demand for tourism workforce at all skill levels. Most importantly, with the fragmented nature of the tourism industry in mind, it addresses the need to cultivate a variety of operational personnel for the segments that comprise tourism.

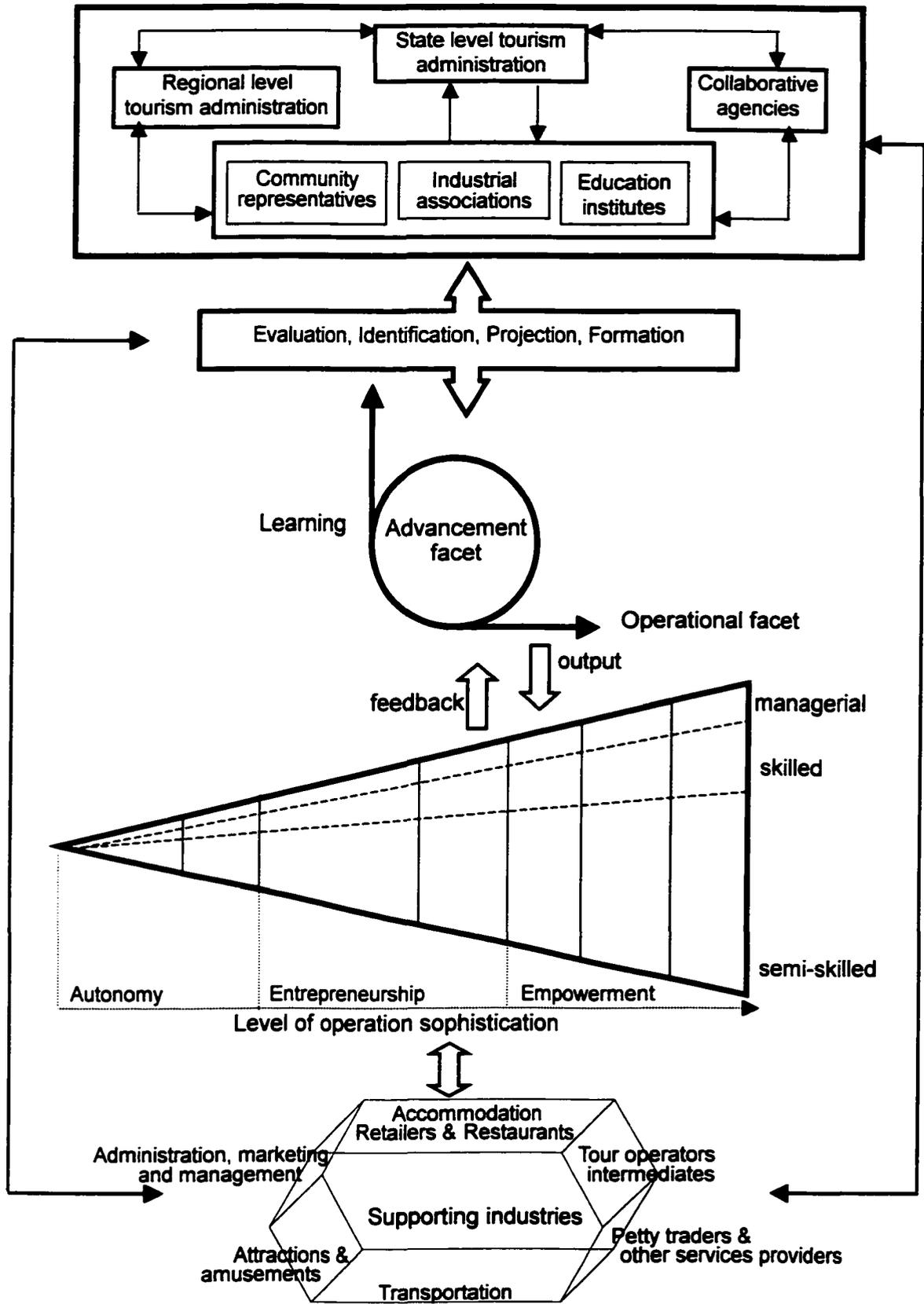


Figure 7-1: Conceptualized Human Resources Development Framework for Tourism

The first element defines the role of the public sector in cultivation of the tourism workforce. Reflecting the decision-making realities in developing countries, the proposed system assumes greater responsibilities to be taken by the national level tourism administrative agency. The tourism agency acts as a facilitator to bring in affinity agencies and institutes and to link the requirements of all stakeholders involved in tourism. A committee or a council can then be formulated to be responsible for tourism human resources planning and development and the program of activities of tourism education and training.

The second element describes the tasks of the committee. These include evaluation and projection of labour demands, skill requirements as well as integration of the requisite training components that adequately address the needs of workforce, industry and host community.

The third element which depicts a three-faceted integrated approach to tourism workforce development comprises learning, operational and advancement facets. It not only caters to the quantity (vertical facet) and variety of the required tourism workforce (horizontal facet), but also extends to establish a continuum of career advancement opportunities for tourism workers (spherical facet). The vertical (learning) and horizontal (operational) facets concentrate on the removal of job entry impediments and practical skills mastery of tourism jobs (vocational training and learning by doing), respectively. The spherical facet renders opportunities to encourage a cross-over of skills and knowledge advancement. This approach caters to the sufficiency of tourism human capital, the variety of operational personnel needed, as well as the establishment of an empowered and competent human resources base. In this way, it also contributes to the incubation of a dynamic and flexible environment for the upward movement of human capital.

The fourth element, based on the highly differentiated operational requirements by different sizes of tourism establishment, is conceptualized as a spectrum which represents a

proportionate mixture of workforce with the required skill levels. The education and training theme for each segment (distinguished by level of operation sophistication) and its specific skill and knowledge requirements are identified as categories of autonomy, entrepreneurship and empowerment. For example, in a less developed destination where local residents are strangers to tourism activities, there is a need to spur autonomy through education and training programs to assist the hosts in determining the utilization of local resources and the type of tourism industry that they want to establish. In contrast, in a more complex operating environment, the presence of empowered well-trained personnel is required to provide swifter responses to the demands of clientele.

Finally, the outcome is a mix of all types of tourism personnel that satisfies the workforce demands of the sectors involved in tourism. This systematic approach for accumulating tourism human capital integrates facilities and education and training program activities to cater to the knowledge and skill requirements demanded by different sizes of tourism operations as well as ancillary service providers. This can be accomplished because of flexibilities exhibited in the three-faceted integrated approach to tourism workforce development that is a bottom-up and worker-focused approach and allows for career mobility. Another advantage of the proposed framework is that it embraces the need to develop specific programs for particular components of the tourism sector, for example, administrators, intermediaries such as travel agents and transportation workers. However, the development of specific training programs that address the needs of such individuals is beyond the scope of this thesis.

To conclude, human resources issues in travel and tourism have been principally concerned with the quality of tourism personnel at the micro-level and tourism employment effects at the macro-level. Little effort is usually devoted to situate tourism human resources within the context of policy trends and planning paradigm evolution. To bridge this gap, this

study examined the role of tourism human resources as defined in tourism development plans and an array of issues pertaining to tourism's human resource issues in developing countries. The primary objective was to raise attention to and promote investment in cultivating tourism human capital so that, ultimately, future policies prioritize the development of human resources for tourism as a pivotal element in tourism plans.

The operationalization of the proposed framework requires concerted recognition and commitments of many of the key actors. Of course, there are significant obstacles confronting developing countries in implementing this strategy, given the special circumstances of customary top down decision-making system and typical resource constraints. Situations, such as public sector's inadequate cognition of human resources, private sector's unwillingness to invest in training and the general public's limited awareness of learning and employment opportunities are among the main challenges that hamper the operationalization of mechanisms for developing tourism's human capital. As well, to many developing countries, the availability of financial resources presents another hindrance in realizing human resources development initiatives. There is certainly no easy solution to eliminate these impediments. However, when considering the political reality that centrally-dominant systems still prevail in most of the developing world, it is legitimate to expect the central governments to assume a major responsibility and to adopt a leading role - - taking enlightened initiatives, mobilizing resources and stimulating active involvement of key actors - - in order to produce adequate tourism human resources, promote meaningful local participation and facilitate greater local representation in tourism employment.

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Appendices

Appendix A Example questionnaires

- Questionnaires Used in Hainan, PR China
 - (1) Employer's Copy
 - (2) Vendor's Copy (Sanya)
 - (3) Student's Copy (Hainan University)
- Questionnaires Used in Kedah, Malaysia
 - (4) Home-stay Operator's Copy (Relau)
 - (5) Student's Copy (Utara University Malaysia)

Appendix B Study Information Materials

- Verbal Script for the Recruitment of Participants
- Study Information Letter
- Interview Consent Form
- Letter of Appreciation

Appendix C Curriculum

Department of Tourism, Hainan University, PR China

Appendix D Tourism Program Structure

School of Tourism Management, Utara University
Malaysia, Malaysia

Appendix A

Example Questionnaires

- **Questionnaires Used in Hainan, PR China**
 - (1) **Employer's Copy**
 - (2) **Vendor's Copy**
 - (3) **Student's Copy**

- **Questionnaires Used in Kedah, Malaysia**
 - (4) **Home-stay Operator's Copy**
 - (5) **Student's Copy**

(1) Questionnaire to Tourism Employers in Hainan

1. On the scale of 1 to 5 (1 = not important at all, 5 = very important), please indicate the importance of the following criteria in the selection of new employees.

	Very important			Not important at all	
Education level	5	4	3	2	1
Possession of relevant work experience	5	4	3	2	1
Human ability (e.g. communication skills, languages)	5	4	3	2	1
Personality characteristics (e.g. hard-working, determination, intelligence, fairness, etc)	5	4	3	2	1
Appearance	5	4	3	2	1
Expected salary	5	4	3	2	1
Gender	5	4	3	2	1
Other:	5	4	3	2	1
Other:	5	4	3	2	1

2. On the scale of 1 to 5 (1 = not important at all, 5 = very important), in your experience, please indicate how important the following qualifications for an entry-level manager (supervisory level)?

	Very important			Not important at all	
Operational/technical knowledge in a specific section (e.g. front office, F&B, Housekeeping)	5	4	3	2	1
Human ability (e.g. leadership, communication skills, etc)	5	4	3	2	1
Management expertise (e.g. finance, marketing, HRM, information system)	5	4	3	2	1
Personality characteristics (e.g. hard-working, determination, intelligence, fairness, etc)	5	4	3	2	1
Other:	5	4	3	2	1
Other:	5	4	3	2	1

3. In terms of personnel management, what are the challenges facing your company?

	Very significant			Not significant at all	
Quality of tourism manpower	5	4	3	2	1
Willingness in joining tourism industry	5	4	3	2	1
Employee turnover	5	4	3	2	1
Manpower cost	5	4	3	2	1
Competition for manpower within the industry	5	4	3	2	1
Other:	5	4	3	2	1
Other:	5	4	3	2	1

4. In your experience, which education level and how many years of work experience in the relevant field are considered to be sufficient for an entry-level manager?

Education level:

Work experience:

5. Does your company offer work placement to students?

Yes, please continue with question 6

No, reasons are : 1): _____;
 2): _____; and
 3): _____. Then move to question 7

6. What kind of jobs does your company provide to students for work placement?

1):

2):

3):

4):

5):

7. When recruiting new staff, does your company consider a candidate who has tourism education background more favourable?

Always

Often

Sometimes

Seldom

Not at all

8. Does your company offer training programs to your employees?

Yes, please continue with question 9

No, reasons are _____ then move to question 13

9. In 1998, your firm organized _____ training programs and

The total hours of training were _____ hours.

10. On the scale of 1 to 5 (1 = not important at all, 5 = very important), please indicate the focuses of your training programs?

	very important			not important at all	
	5	4	3	2	1
Operational knowledge/techniques	5	4	3	2	1
Foreign languages	5	4	3	2	1
Communication skills and etiquette	5	4	3	2	1
Professional morality	5	4	3	2	1
Organizational culture	5	4	3	2	1
Other:	5	4	3	2	1
Other:	5	4	3	2	1
Other:	5	4	3	2	1

11. Does your firm offer training programs in collaboration with any organizations? Please tick the box(es) that applies.

- Tourism Administration Education institutes Other tourism firms
 Private training centre Others (Please Specify)

12. In your experience, on the scale of 1 to 5 (1 = not significant at all, 5 = very significant), please evaluate the effectiveness of training programs?

	very significant			not significant at all	
	5	4	3	2	1
Service quality	5	4	3	2	1
Employee efficiency	5	4	3	2	1
Employee Retaining	5	4	3	2	1
Firm image	5	4	3	2	1
Increase of profit	5	4	3	2	1
Coordination and cooperation among different departments					
Other:	5	4	3	2	1
Other:	5	4	3	2	1

13. Which aspect do you consider that the current tourism/hospitality education programs in Hainan needed to enhance? Please provide 3 items.

- (1):
(2):
(3):

14. The category of your firm is in:

- Accommodation Attraction Transportation
 Tour Operator/Travel Agent Others (Please Specify)

15. Your company was established in _____ (year) and has _____ employees.

.....
Please answer the following questions to clarify how your information can/should be used in my research:

a. You can mention the company name in your dissertation.

- Yes My company is:
No

b. I am interested in having a copy of your research report.

- Yes My address is:
Attention:
No

c. Please provide your e-mail address and/or telephone number, in case clarification of data is needed. Thank You.

Email address:
Telephone number:

(2) Questionnaire to Beach Vendors in Sanya

1. Gender: Male Female
2. Age: Single Married Divorced
3. Education level (number of years): _____ years
4. Nationality: (please tick a box)

<input type="checkbox"/> Hanzu	<input type="checkbox"/> Huizu	<input type="checkbox"/> Lizu
<input type="checkbox"/> Maiozu	<input type="checkbox"/> Other:	<input type="checkbox"/> Other:
5. Where do you live now? in _____ village _____ town/city.
6. How long have you been residing in Sanya region? _____ years and _____ months
7. How long have you been doing this job? _____ years and _____ months
8. Your previous job was: _____.
9. Who suggested you doing this job?

<input type="checkbox"/> Family	<input type="checkbox"/> Relatives/friends	<input type="checkbox"/> Self
---------------------------------	--	-------------------------------
10. The merchandise that you are selling are:
11. Where do you purchase the merchandise?
12. Do your children help you sell goods?

<input type="checkbox"/> Always	<input type="checkbox"/> Sometimes	<input type="checkbox"/> Not at all
---------------------------------	------------------------------------	-------------------------------------
13. How many hours do you work a day?
14. How many days do you get off per month?
15. How much income can you earn from your job per month?

<input type="checkbox"/> Below 400 yuan	<input type="checkbox"/> 401 to 800 yuan	<input type="checkbox"/> 801 to 1,200 yuan
<input type="checkbox"/> 1,201 to 1,600 yuan	<input type="checkbox"/> Over 1,601	
16. Have you ever gone to the other tourist points to sell goods?

<input type="checkbox"/> Yes, where:
<input type="checkbox"/> No

17. What other work do you do when you are not doing this job?

1st other job:

2nd other job:

3rd other job:

18. Please indicate the level of satisfaction on your job?

	Very good				Not at all
Income	5	4	3	2	1
Work-hour	5	4	3	2	1
Social status	5	4	3	2	1
Overall evaluation	5	4	3	2	1

19. Would you recommend your job to your friends/family?

	Highly recommended				Not at all
Willingness of recommendation	5	4	3	2	1

20. What kind of skills that you want to learn for your future career?

21. How long do you think that you would continue with this job? ____ Years

22. What kind of job would you like to do after this job?

Interview date:

Interview location:

Interviewer's name:

(3) Questionnaire to Tourism Students at Hainan University

1. You are enrolled in normal education system continuing education system and now are First-year student Second-year student Grade 3
2. How did you rank the tourism program when you submitted your application form?
 First choice Second choice Third choice
 Forth choice Ranked after the fifth place
3. What was your parent's opinion about your choice of tourism program?
 Strongly agree Agree No opinion
 Disagree Strongly disagree
4. On a scale of 1 to 5 (1 = not important at all, 5 = very important), please indicate which factor had significant influence on your choice of tourism program?

	Very important		Not important at all		
Good employment opportunities	5	4	3	2	1
Tourism is a interesting area of study	5	4	3	2	1
Tourism is easier than other disciplines	5	4	3	2	1
Own interests	5	4	3	2	1
Recommended/suggested by others	5	4	3	2	1
Tourism jobs is typically well-paid	5	4	3	2	1
Tourism is a popular area of study	5	4	3	2	1
Other:	5	4	3	2	1
Other:	5	4	3	2	1
Other:	5	4	3	2	1

5. On a scale of 1 to 5 (1 = strongly disagree, 5 = strongly agree), please indicate your opinion about tourism jobs.

	Strongly agree			Strongly disagree	
Tourism is full of employment potential	5	4	3	2	1
Tourism is an interesting/challenging work	5	4	3	2	1
Tourism is an attractive/desirable job	5	4	3	2	1
Tourism industry offers good pay and welfare	5	4	3	2	1
Tourism is a respectable job	5	4	3	2	1
Other:	5	4	3	2	1
Other:	5	4	3	2	1
Other:	5	4	3	2	1

6. After graduation, what kind of tourism jobs would you like to have? Please list 3 sectors that you desire to work in the order of priority (e.g. hotel, travel agent, airline, theme park, public tourism bodies, tourism education):
 First choice:
 Second choice:
 Third choice:

7. On a scale of 1 to 5 (1 = not important at all, 5= very important), from your viewpoint, please indicate how important the following qualifications for an entry-level manager in the tourism sector?

	Very important		Not important at all		
Education background	5	4	3	2	1
Relevant work experiences	5	4	3	2	1
Human ability (e.g. communication and coordination skills)	5	4	3	2	1
Management expertise (e.g. finance, information technology, personnel, marketing)	5	4	3	2	1
Personality characteristics (e.g. hard-working, determination, intelligence, fairness)	5	4	3	2	1
Other :	5	4	3	2	1
Other :	5	4	3	2	1
Other :	5	4	3	2	1

8. According to your experience, on a scale of 1 to 5 (1 = not expected at all, 5 = highly expected), please indicate what area of study your university should strengthen?

	Highly expected			Not at all	
Operational knowledge and techniques (e.g. hotel, travel business and aviation operation)	5	4	3	2	1
Foreign languages	5	4	3	2	1
Communication skills & etiquette	5	4	3	2	1
Business management (e.g. finance, information technology, personnel, marketing)	5	4	3	2	1
Tourism planning and resources management	5	4	3	2	1
Relevant regulations & profession ethics	5	4	3	2	1
Computer knowledge and skills	5	4	3	2	1
Other :	5	4	3	2	1
Other :	5	4	3	2	1

(4) Questionnaire to Home-stay Operators in Kedah

1. Gender: Male Female 2. Age:
3. Length of residence _____ years and _____ months
4. Education level (number of years): _____ years
5. Ethnicity: Malay Chinese Indian Thai
6. How long have you been running this business? _____ years and _____ months
7. Your previous job was: _____.
8. Who suggested you to run this business?
 Family Relatives/friends Government's advise Self's idea
9. The services that you provide are:
 beds drinks meals tour guiding souvenirs
10. Your customers typically are:
 locals Malaysians outside Kedah Thai foreigners
11. Is there is any particular strategy used to attract the visitors?
12. How many workers do your have to help you with this business?
 Full-time workers: _____ people Part-time workers: _____ people
13. The workers are:
 family members relatives/friends local villagers migrants ()
14. How many hours do you work per day?
15. How many days do you get off a month?
16. How much income can your business receive per month?
 below 1,000 RM 1,001 to 1,500 RM 1,501 to 2,000 RM
 2,001 to 2,500 RM Over 2,500 RM
17. Please indicate the level of satisfaction on your revenue?
 very good good moderate poor very poor
18. Do you plan on expanding or improving your operation?
 renovation expand existing operation space diversify products/services
 Hiring more workers
19. Have you attended any training programs prior to starting your business?
20. What kind of skills or assistance do you think that would be helpful to you to improve your operation?

(5) Questionnaire to Tourism Students at Utara University Malaysia

Human Resources Development and Planning for Tourism: Student Perspectives Pengurusan Sumber Manusia dan Perancangan Pelancongan: Perspektif Pelajar

Dear participant,

Greetings.

My name is Abby Liu, PhD Candidate in Planning, University of Waterloo, Canada. As part of my doctoral research project, this questionnaire is specially designed to understand the nature of tourism employment and the education and training needs for tourism as perceived by the students enrolled in a tourism program. The study is purely for academic purpose only. I am very grateful if you would kindly share your views with me. It will take about 15 to 20 minutes to complete the questionnaire.

Thanking you in advance for your assistance.

Saudara Pelajar,

Salam hormat.

Nama saya Abby Liu, pelajar bidang perancangan, Universiti Waterloo, Canada. Sebagai memenuhi keperluan penyelidikan Phd, Soalselidik ini Dirangka khas untuk meneliti pekerjaan pelancongan dan keperluan pendidikan dan latihan daripada tanggapan pelajar program pelancongan. Saya amat berbesar hati sekiranya saudara sudi memberi pandangan dengan mengisi borang ini.

Di atas bantuan saudara saya dahului dengan ucapan terima kasih.

1. You are now First-year student Second-year student Third-year student.
Saudara sekarang dalam Tahun 1 Tahun 2 Tahun 3 program sarjanamuda.

2. Your ethnic background is
Keturunan

Malay Chinese Indian Thai other _____
Melayu Cina India Thai Lain-lain _____

3. How do you rank the tourism program when you submitted your application form?

Nyatakan pilihan program pelancongan sewaktumemohon masuk ke universiti ini

- First choice Second choice Third choice
 Pilihan pertama Pilihan kedua Pilihan ketiga

 Forth choice Ranked after the fifth place
 Pilihan keempat Pilihan selainnya

4. What was your parent's opinion about your choice of tourism program?

Apakah pandangan ibubapa mengenai pilihan program pelancongan?

- Strongly agree Agree No opinion
 Sangat setuju Setuju Tiada pandangan

 Disagree Strongly disagree
 Tidak setuju Sangat tidak setuju

5. On a scale of 1 to 5 (1 = not important at all, 5 = very important), please indicate which factor has significant influence on your choice of tourism program?

Pada skala 1 hingga 5 (1 = langsung tidak penting, 5 = amat penting), nyatakan faktor yang berpengaruh terhadap pilihan program pelancongan.

	Very important Amat penting		Not important at all langsung tidak penting		
	5	4	3	2	1
Good employment opportunities Peluang pekerjaan yang baik	5	4	3	2	1
Tourism is a interesting area of study Bidang kajian pelancongan menarik	5	4	3	2	1
Tourism is easier than other disciplines Kajian pelancongan lebih mudah drp bidang lain	5	4	3	2	1
Own interests Minat saya sendiri	5	4	3	2	1
Recommended/suggested by others Dorongan/cadangan kenalan saya	5	4	3	2	1
Tourism jobs is typically well-paid Pekerjaan pelancongan lumayan gajinya	5	4	3	2	1
Tourism is a popular area of study Kajian pelancongan bidang yang digemari ramai	5	4	3	2	1
Other: (Please specify) 1. Lain-lain (sila Nyatakan)	5	4	3	2	1
Other: (Please specify) 2. Lain-lain (sila Nyatakan)	5	4	3	2	1

6. On a scale of 1 to 5 (1 = strongly disagree, 5 = strongly agree), please indicate your opinion on tourism jobs.

Pada skala 1 hingga 5 (1 = sangat tidak setuju, 5 = sangat setuju), nyatakan pandangan saudara tentang pekerjaan dalam bidang pelancongan.

	Strongly agree Sangat setuju		Strongly disagree Sangat tidak setuju		
	5	4	3	2	1
Tourism is full of employment potential Prospek pekerjaan pelancongan lebih cerah	5	4	3	2	1
Tourism is an interesting/challenging work Pekerjaan pelancongan menarik/mencabar	5	4	3	2	1
Tourism is an attractive/desirable job Pekerjaan pelancongan memberi ganjaran yg lebih	5	4	3	2	1
Tourism industry offers good pay and welfare Pekerjaan pelancongan disanjung masyarakat	5	4	3	2	1
Tourism is a respectable job	5	4	3	2	1
Tourism jobs are less physically demanding Secara fizikal pekerjaan palancongan tidak berat	5	4	3	2	1
Other: (Please specify) Lain-lain (sila Nyatakan)	5	4	3	2	1
Other: (Please specify) Lain-lain (sila Nyatakan)	5	4	3	2	1

7. After graduation, what kind of tourism jobs would you like to have? Please list 3 sectors that you desire to work in the order of priority (e.g. hotel, travel agent, airline, theme park, public tourism bodies, tourism education)

Selepas tamat belajar apakah jenis pekerjaan pelancongan yg ingin diceburi? Sila pilih tiga lapangan menurut keutamaan (contohnya: hotel, agen kembara, syarikat penerbangan, taman bertema, badan kerajaan, pendidikan pelancongan)

First choice: _____

Pilihan pertama: _____

Second choice: _____

Pilihan kedua: _____

Third choice: _____

Pilihan ketiga: _____

8. Do you have any work experience in the tourism sector?

Adakah anda mempunyai pengalaman dalam bidang pelancongan?

Yes If "Yes", please specify

Ya Jika "Ya", nyatakan bidangnya

hotel travel agent attraction sector souvenir shop other: _____

hotel agenkembara pusat tarikan kedai sourvenir (Please specify)

pelancong Lain lain: _____

(Nyatakam)

No
Tidak

9. Is there is any tourism-related job (you feel) that conflicts with your ethnic background or religious believe? If yes, please list.

Pada pendapat anda, adakah pekerjaan pelancongan tidak sesuai dari segi agama atau Kepercayaan agama ? Jika ada, sila seneraikan.

- a. Job title is _____ in the _____ sector.
 A brief explanation: _____
 Nama pekerjaan _____ dalam lapangan _____.
 Jelaskan: _____
- b. Job title is _____ in the _____ sector.
 A brief explanation: _____
 Nama pekerjaan _____ dalam lapangan _____.
 Jelaskan: _____
- c. Job title is _____ in the _____ sector.
 A brief explanation: _____
 Nama pekerjaan _____ dalam lapangan _____.
 Jelaskan: _____

10. On a scale of 1 to 5 (1 = not important at all, 5 = very important), from your viewpoint, please indicate the importance of the following qualifications for an entry-level manager in the tourism sector?

Pada skala 1 hingga 5 (1 = langsung tidak penting, 5 = amat penting), berikan pandangan sejauhmanakah pentingnya perkara-perkara berikut di peringkat permulaan kerjaya seseorang pengurus dalam pelancongan?

	Very important Amat penting		Not important at all Langsung tidak penting		
	5	4	3	2	1
Age Umur	5	4	3	2	1
Gender Jantina	5	4	3	2	1
Education background Pengalaman kerja yang berkaitan	5	4	3	2	1
Relevant work experiences Pengalaman kerja yang berkaitan	5	4	3	2	1
Human ability (e.g. communication and coordination skills) Kemampuan sahsiah (contoh: kemahiran berkomunikasi dan menyelaras)	5	4	3	2	1
Management expertise (e.g. finance, information technology, personnel, marketing) Pengetahuan pengurusan (contoh: kemahiran berkomunikasi dan penyelarasan)	5	4	3	2	1
Personality characteristics (e.g. hard-working, determination, intelligence, fairness) Ciri-ciri sahsiah (contoh: rajin, tekun, bijak, saksama)	5	4	3	2	1
Other 1. Lain-lain 1.	5	4	3	2	1
Other2. Lain-lain 2.	5	4	3	2	1

11. According to your learning experience, on a scale of 1 to 5 (1 = not expected at all, 5 = highly expected), please indicate what kind of courses you expect that your university to place more emphases?

Daripada pengalaman pendidikan saudara, pada skala 1 hingga 5, nyatakan jenis kursus yang seharusnya diberi penekanan oleh pihak universiti?

	highly expected		not expected at all		
	5	4	3	2	1
Operational knowledge and techniques (e.g. hotel, travel business and aviation operation) Pengetahuan operasi dan teknik pengurusan (contoh: hotel, perniagaan kembara, operasi penerbangan)	5	4	3	2	1
Foreign languages Bahasa asing	5	4	3	2	1
Communication skills & etiquette Kemahiran berkomunikasi dan tatasusila	5	4	3	2	1
Business management (e.g. finance, information technology, personnel, marketing) Layantamu pengurusan perniagaan (contoh: kewangan, teknologi maklumat, personel, pemasaran)	5	4	3	2	1
Tourism planning and resources management Perancangan pelancongan dan pengurusan sumber	5	4	3	2	1
Relevant regulations & profession ethics Peraturan berkenaan dan etika kerja	5	4	3	2	1
Computer knowledge and skills Pengetahuan komputer & pengalaman	5	4	3	2	1
Entrepreneurship	5	4	3	2	1
Other 1. Lain-lain 1.	5	4	3	2	1
Other2. Lain-lain 2.	5	4	3	2	1

**Thank you very much for your co-operation.
Terima kasih di atas bantuan yang saudara berikan.**

Appendix B

Study Information Materials

- **Verbal Script for the Recruitment of Participants**
- **Study Information Letter**
- **Interview Consent Form**
- **Letter of Appreciation**

VERBAL SCRIPT FOR THE RECRUITMENT OF PARTICIPANTS

My name is Abby Liu, PhD Candidate in Planning, University of Waterloo, Canada. This project is undertaken in collaboration with University of Waterloo, Canada and Utara University of Malaysia, Malaysia, with the kind sponsorship of International Development Research Centre (IDRC), Canada.

This research project is about investigation of the nature of tourism employment and the education and training needs for tourism in developing countries. The study is purely for academic purpose only. We are interested in finding out your views and preference on your current job. We also want to understand how education/training programs can help facilitate a better job prospect and career development for tourism workers. The information gathered will be analyzed and utilized as part of my doctoral dissertation. The data gathered will be stored in a secure location and I am the only person who has access to the data.

The interview session will take about 20 to 30 minutes. You have the option of declining answers to any question that you do not feel comfortable with or terminating the interview at any time. There is no obligation or penalty for the withdrawal from the study.

The confidentiality of personal identifications of the research participants will be maintained throughout the study. Information will be documented without using the names or job titles, unless agreement or consent is obtained. It will also be specified that the information presented is based on the researcher's interpretation and the interviewees are free of any obligations or responsibilities.

This research has been reviewed by, and received ethics clearance through, the Office of Research Ethics at the University of Waterloo, Canada. If you have any questions about your participation, please contact the Office at (519) 888-4567 ext. 6005, or by email at sskves@uwaterloo.ca. If you have any questions or concerns regarding the research itself, please contact either Dr. Geoff Wall at (519) 888-4567 ext. 3609, by email at gwall@watserv1.uwaterloo.ca, or myself, Abby Liu at (519) 885 8893 or by email at ayliu@fes.uwaterloo.ca.

Thank you in advance for your co-operation in this study.

Abby Liu
Student Investigator
University of Waterloo

STUDY INFORMATION LETTER

Dear Sir or Madam:

**Subject: Doctoral Research Project - -
Entitled Human Resources Development and Planning for Tourism**

My name is Abby Liu, PhD Candidate in Planning, University of Waterloo, Canada. First of all, thank you very much for your time and attention on my research project. This project is undertaken in collaboration with University of Waterloo, Canada and Utara University of Malaysia, Malaysia, with the kind sponsorship of International Development Research Centre (IDRC), Canada.

This research project is about the investigation of the nature of tourism employment and the education and training needs for tourism in developing countries. The study is purely for academic purpose only. The information gathered will be analyzed and utilized as part of my doctoral dissertation. The research questions are set out to understand the views and perceptions related to tourism employment and the application of education/training programs to cultivate the workforce needed for the tourism sector.

The interview session will take about 45 to 60 minutes. You have the option of declining answers to any question that you do not feel comfortable with or terminating the interview at any time. There is no obligation or penalty for withdrawal from the study.

The confidentiality of personal identifications of the research participants will be maintained throughout the study. Information will be documented without using the names or

job titles, unless agreement or consent is obtained. It will also be specified that the information presented is based on the researcher's interpretation and the interviewees are free of any obligations or responsibilities.

This research has been reviewed by, and received ethics clearance through, the Office of Research Ethics at the University of Waterloo, Canada. If you have any question about your participation, please contact the Office at (519) 888-4567 ext. 6005, or by email at sskves@uwaterloo.ca. If you have any questions or concerns regarding the research itself, please contact either Dr. Geoff Wall at (519) 888-4567 ext. 3609, by email at gwall@watserv1.uwaterloo.ca, or myself, Abby Liu at (519) 885 8893 or by email at avliu@fes.uwaterloo.ca.

Thanking you in advance for your assistance.

With best wishes

Abby Liu
PhD Candidate in Planning
Faculty of Environmental Studies
University of Waterloo, Ontario, Canada

INTERVIEW CONSENT FORM

I agree to participate in a short interview being conducted by Abby Liu, a Doctoral student in School of Planning, University of Waterloo, Canada, working under the supervision of Professor Goeff Wall and in co-operation with Professor Kadir Din, Utara University of Malaysia.

I have made this decision based on the information that I have received in the information letter and questionnaire. I have had the opportunity to ask questions and request any additional details that I wanted about this study. As a participant in this study, I realize that I may decline to answer any question that I prefer not to answer. I am also well aware that I have the option of allowing my interview to be tape recorded to promote a more open discussion. All information that I provide will be held in confidence, and I had been inquired whether or not my identification can be referred in the dissertation or summary report. I understand that I may withdraw my consent at any time by asking that the interview be stopped. I also understand that this study has been reviewed by, and received ethics clearance through, the Office Research Ethics at the University of Waterloo, and that I may contact Dr. Susan Sykes at (519) 888-4567 ext. 6005 or email at ssykes@uwaterloo.ca, if I have any concerns or questions regarding my participation in this study.

Participant Name: _____

Participant Signature: _____

Witness Name: _____

Witness Name: _____

Date: _____

LETTER OF APPRECIATION

Dear (Name of Participant),

I would like to thank you for your participation in my research project entitled “Human Resources Development and Planning for Tourism”. As a reminder, the purpose of this study is to understand the nature of tourism employment and the education and training needs for tourism in developing countries.

The data collected during interviews has contributed to a better understanding of the status of tourism employment and the facilitation of the host population’s participation in tourism job opportunities in the developing economy context.

Please remember that any data pertaining to yourself as an individual participant will be kept confidential. Once all the data are collected and analyzed for this project, I plan on sharing this information with the research community through seminars, conferences, presentations, and journal articles. If you are interested in receiving more information regarding the results of this study, or if you have any questions or concerns, please contact me at 1-519-885 8893 or email at ayliu@fes.uwaterloo.ca. As well, if you would like a summary of the results, please let me know now by providing me with your mail address. I will send a hard copy of my dissertation to you when the study is completed.

As with all University of Waterloo projects involving human participants, this project was reviewed by, and received ethics clearance through, the Office of Research Ethics at the University of Waterloo. Should you have any questions about your participation in this study, please contact Dr. Susan Sykes in the Office of Research Ethics at 519-888-4567, Ext., 6005, or email at ssykes@uwaterloo.ca.

With best wishes

Abby Liu
PhD Candidate
School of Planning
Faculty of Environmental Studies
University of Waterloo

Appendix C

Curriculum

Department of Tourism, Hainan University, China

Curriculum, Department of Tourism, Hainan University

Types	Courses	Hours	Credits	Credits distribution/Academic term						
				1	2	3	4	5	6	
Core Units	Philosophy and theory of Marxism	54	3	3						
	General introduction to the thought of Mao	54	3		3					
	General introduction to the thoughts of Deng, Xiaoping	54	3			3				
	Physical	98	3	1	1	1				
	General English	324	18	6	6	6				
	Applied writing	34	2		2					
	Cultivation for thought & ethics	36	2	2						
	Computer basics	88	4		4					
	Law basics	36	2		2					
	Practical exercises		15		2		2	2	2	9
	General introduction to tourism	36	2	2						
	Tourism marketing	54	3		3					
	Tourism psychology	54	3		3					
	Tourism geography	72	4	2	2					
	Tourism economics	36	2	2						
	Tourism public relations	36	2			2				
	Tourism English	72	4				2	2		
	English conversation	72	4		2	2				
	Accounting basics	54	3	3						
	Tourism management basics	72	4			4				
Hotel Management	108	6			4	2				
Management of travel enterprises	72	4				4				
Name Routes	Tourism culture	36	2			2				
	Tourism aesthetics	36	2					2		
	Tourism regulations	36	2					2		
	Folk studies	36	2				2			
	General situation of Hainan	36	2				2			
	Knowledge and practice of tour guide	36	2					2		
	Etiquette studies	36	2				2			
	Tourism Planning and Resources Development	36	2					2		
	Basic Japanese	72	24					2	4	
	Hotel Personnel Management	36	2				2			
	Hotel Finance Management	54	3					3		
Electives	Food Nutrition and Hygiene	36	32					3		
	Photography Arts	36	2			2				
	Hotel Decoration	36	2				2			
	Cantongness	36	2			2				
	Hainan Tourism Industry	36	2						4	
	Other(s)	72	4							4
Total			133	21	28	26	22	19	25	

Notes: written test is required for earning credits listed in the gray zones.

Other Arrangements and Requirements

Item	Activity	Weeks	Credits	Academic term/ Credits distribution						
				1	2	3	4	5	6	
Societal Exercise	Societal investigation and practices	2	2		2					
Courses Practical Exercise	Work placements in tourism industry	4	4				2	2		
Graduation Practical Operation Exercise	A variety of practical exercises	8	8							8
Graduation Professional Essay	Essay and defense	1	1							1
Graduation Professional Education	Career consultation									
Total		15	15		2		2	2		9

———— Appendix D ————

**Tourism Program Structure
School of Tourism Management, Utara
University Malaysia, Malaysia**

Tourism Program Structure, School of Tourism Management, Utara University Malaysia

(112 credits are required for earning Bachelor's degree (honours) in tourism management.)

Course titles	Credits
University courses (core units, 18 credits)	
Introduction to Thinking Skills	2
Basic Ethics	2
Islamic and Asian Civilization I	2
Islamic and Asian Civilization II	2
Malaysian Citizenship Studies	2
English I	2
English II	2
Co-curricular	4
School courses (core units, 21 credits)	
Mathematics for Management	3
Introduction to Statistics	3
Social Science	3
Management Information System	3
Malay Language for Management	3
Business Accounting	3
Principle of Economics	3
Program courses (core units, 58 credits)	
Basic Finance	3
Business Law	3
Principle of Management	3
Organizational Behavior	3
Entrepreneurship	3
Culture and Heritage	3
Applied Statistics	3
Introduction to Tourism	3
Tourism Marketing	3
Tourism Planning and Development	3
Tourism Policy	3
Tourism Research Methodology	3
Seminar in Tourism or Dissertation	3
Foreign Language I	3
Foreign Language II	3
Foreign Language III	3
English for Hospitality Purposes	2
Practicum	8

Specialty concentration (electives, students Select one from 4 specialty areas of study and for each of specialty area, only 4 courses are required, 12 credits)	
HOSPITALITY MANAGEMENT	
Hotel Operation Management	3
Restaurant Management	3
Food and Beverage Cost Control	3
Hotel Planning and Development	3
Accommodation Management	3
Destination Planning and Development	3
Resort Management	3
Operation Analysis in Hospitality Sector	3
TOURISM MARKETING	
Service Marketing in Tourism	3
Travel Services Management	3
Tourism Marketing Communication	3
Tourism Products Development	3
Tourism Transportation	3
Tourist Behaviour	3
Tourism Marketing Analysis and Strategy	3
HUMAN RESOURCE MANAGEMENT	
Human Resource Management (pre-requisite)	3
Planning and Recruitment	3
Training and Development	3
Compensation Administration	3
Performance Appraisal	3
Management of Changes	3
Negotiation	3
Health and Safety Management 1	3
Human Resources Information System	3
SPORT AND RECREATION	
Sports Management	3
Recreation Management	3
Sports in Society	3
Sports and Recreation Psychology	3
Event Management	3
Tourism Geography	3
Free electives (3 credits)	
Choose one (1) of 3 credit-hours courses offered by other schools.	