ASSESSING TOURISM INDUSTRY TRAINING AND EDUCATION: THE CASE OF THE TOUR OPERATING SECTOR IN KENYA

BY

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DECLARATION

I declare that the work presented here has not been submitted for any other award, and that the sources of material have been acknowledged in the text.

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Abstract

This study examines the quality of skills in the tour operations sector of the tourism industry in Kenya. This quality assessment is carried out within the broad context of tourism in Kenya and Sub-Saharan Africa and is based on an assumption of sectoral differences in tourism training and education. The study employs different methods of data collection and analysis. An employee survey, a Delphi type study and semi-structured interviews are used to determine where the quality gaps exist, the preferred mode of provision, while at the same time examining the relevance of identified key international tourism training and education trends to Kenya's tourism systems.

The results indicate a convergence of opinion between industry and the education providers to the effect that there are quality gaps in the development of skills in the tour operations sector. The study also identifies the need to standardise tourism training and education in Kenya. A national tourism training and education strategy is recommended. Government policy-makers, education providers and the tourism industry will find the results of the study useful.

ABBREVIATIONS

DIT	Department of Industrial Training
EATTA	East African Tourist Travel Association
FEU	Further Education Unit
FLP	Front Line Personnel
HLM	High-level Management
IEA	Institute of Economic Affairs
ITO	Inbound Tour Operator
JICA	Japan International Cooperation Agency
KATO	Kenya Association of Tour Operators
KIE	Kenya Institute of Education
LDC	Less Developed Country
MLM	High-level Management
MOTW	Ministry of Tourism and Wildlife
RSO	Receptive Service Operator
SAP	Structural Adjustment Program
SPV	Supervisors
TDR	Tourist Destination Region
TEDQUAL	Tourism Education Quality
TGR	Tourist Generating Region
TQM	Total Quality Management
TR	Transit Route or Region
TTI	Travel & Tourism Intelligence
WTO	World Tourism Organisation

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Chapter 8

Analysis and Discussion

Chapter 9

Conclusions and Opportunities for Further Research

APPENDICES

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF FIGURES

Chapter 1

Introduction

1.1 Background

The Republic of Kenya covers a total area of 582,650 km^2, two and a half times the size of the state of Victoria, and lies astride the Equator in East Africa. Two thirds of the total landmass is arid or semi-arid. The current population is about 28 million, 72.3% of which is classified as rural (Weaver 1998). The country attained its independence from Britain in 1963 and became a republic in 1964.

Kenya is a multiparty democracy with four main political parties and several smaller ones. Since independence, the government has pursued economic policies that encourage and safeguard private enterprise. Such policies and a prolonged period of political stability laid the foundations for positive economic development. Tourism has played an important role in this economic development.

Kenya's success as a popular long-haul destination offering a combination of wildlife safaris and beach holidays has been well documented. Wildlife attractions include big game as well as a high level of biodiversity, with, for example, over 309 known mammal species and 1067 bird species (Weaver 1998). This biodiversity, a wide variety of landscapes and rich cultural heritage have combined to create Kenya's present image as a popular destination. They also offer enormous potential for future development (Weaver 1998).

Since independence, agriculture has remained the dominant economic activity in Kenya, accounting for 27-28% of GDP. Reliance on the agricultural sector is a legacy of Kenya's colonial past. The country lacks heavy industry and minerals deposits. In recent years, the volatile demand for agricultural products and the susceptibility of agriculture to fluctuations in weather has elevated tourism's importance as an alternative vehicle for economic growth.

As awareness of the size and potential of international tourism grown, so has competition from other destinations. In many destinations tourism is now regarded as a quick means of economic growth (Hudman 1989, Koh 1995). Kenya's tourism

industry is now confronted by increasing competition from "new" destinations and no longer enjoys its previous monopoly, particularly in the nature-based tourism market. Recent changes in the geopolitical and economic environment such as the end of the "cold war", South Africa's independence, the emergence of Asian 'tiger' economies, political changes in Eastern Europe and the emancipation of Latin American economies have created a very different context to which Kenya must be responsive.

In addition to the "external threat", there is pressure on the tourism industry to make a tangible contribution to social development to counteract the economic and non-economic costs associated with tourism. These, among other introspections, have increased the search, within the industry and government, for ways and means of improving Kenya's tourism performance. The answer to this search may perhaps lie in Bull's proposition that tourism's socio-economic benefits are a function of, among other factors, a country's resources (1995). This study focuses on the development of what is, arguably, one of tourism's most vital resources—the human resource.

As is the case with other services, the tourism product is largely determined by the competence and innovation of the workforce. As Witt, Brooke and Buckley (1991) have noted, human resource development should form a key part in the tourism competitive strategy formulation. Tourism training and education has become a major area of both academic and non-academic inquiry. Current and potential areas of study range from overall policy analysis, micro (company) oriented analysis, content, and curriculum development.

Understanding human resource development at a macro level is particularly important in tourism, given the reliance of tourism on its human capital. As Brogan (1994) has noted, this focus raises a number of key issues: encouraging employers to take an interest in training and education; improving the supply and, quality of and access to training; and enhancing the status of careers in tourism. However, there may be other destination or region specific issues that also merit serious consideration. The study examines these "universal" concerns as well as the specific considerations in a sub-Saharan context with a focus on the Republic of Kenya as a destination.

For two reasons the thesis adopts a sectoral approach and focuses on the tour operator sector. First, there is an apparent lack of literature on this particular sector. The second reason is that whereas research has been useful in raising issues for the industry as a whole, researchers have not done so for various component sectors such as travel agents and tour operators. As Gunn (1998) has observed, most of the existing body of knowledge on tourism training and education is based on the hospitality component, which is assumed to be representative of the entire "tourism industry". However, as is suggested in this study, sector by sector analysis is vital for any integrated *national tourism training initiative*. It is essential to acknowledge the whole scope of tourism activities.

The reason for the focus of this study on the tour operations sector is the significance of the inbound tour operators (ITO) in Kenya's tourism system. The importance of the sector arises from Kenya's status as a long-haul, nature-based tourism destination. The economic implications of tour operator decisions and actions in the Kenyan context have been dealt with in the literature (Sinclair 1991). Tour operators constitute the second most important source of direct tourism employment sector after hospitality.

As the majority of tourism-related training and education takes place in government funded institutions, one might expect a positive return to society from this training. In any destination, there is a need to assess the extent to which existing training and education is deploying resources correctly through an examination of both the demand and supply sides. The rationale for the present study is that tourism will only succeed if employers find training provision to be useful and are willing to raise the wages of formally trained staff who bring more valuable skills into the workplace.

1.2. Research objectives

This study aims at detailing the current state of training and education in the inbound tour operations sector (ITO) in Kenya and examining the training needs. The strategic implications of the current state on the direction of Kenya's tourism and competitiveness will be examined.

This study's main objectives are:

- To identify the training and education quality gaps in inbound tour operations;
- To assess the level of training required;
- Identify relevant employee training schemes;
- To assess the views of industry experts about the most appropriate modes to deliver the skills required by tour operators; and
- To determine the global trends likely to impact on future tourism training and education;

The productivity of a person's work performance is affected by, among other factors, the quality of skills this person brings to the job (Charlesworth cited in Victorian Department of Labour 1986). Quality training and education provides the individual with the tools to adapt constantly to technological and other macroenvironmental changes (which need to be monitored regularly). Therefore, to ensure that the supply of training and education (whether it is at work or at school) matches needs, there has to be means of assessing the quality of the end product—the skills of the workforce.

Quality tourism training and education is not confined to meeting the skill requirements of the industry, but also optimises provision in relation to requirement at different occupational levels. Riley (1993), outlines certain measurable activities of the labour market's participants that can be indicative of skills shortages. He notes, for example, that when employers employ a high proportion of unqualified persons in positions that require certain minimum qualifications, they are responding to a shortage of trained people. Based on this argument, the necessary level of training and education can be determined.

Given the dynamic nature of the tourism industry, not all aspects of training and education can be catered for through the school system. Training and education that takes place at the workplace forms part of the tourism training and education system. So it is also vital for employers ensure that the skills of their employees are constantly updated. For the efficient utilisation of resources, it is necessary to determine what aspect of training and education can be provided by the school system and what

aspects can be learned at work or in both places. This is the basis for the need to determine the appropriate training and education provision modes.

The ultimate aim of the present study is to suggest ways of improving tourism training and education in Kenya. The optimal situation may not be realised due to a variety of reasons. It is, therefore, necessary to acknowledge the limitations in a more or less exploratory manner and to examine ways in which they can be overcome.

1.3 Key concepts

The tourism system

Despite the fact that tourism impacts millions of lives, it is by its nature a fragmented industry made up of many parts and varied activities (McIntosh and Goeldner 1990). This is one explanation for the apparent lack of a unified theoretical foundation in tourism research (Stabler 1991). Stabler has observed that most theoretical models applied in tourism studies have been confined to specific disciplines and, thus, tend to have a narrow perspective. In addition, Cooper, Fletcher, Gilbert, and Wanhill, (1993) cite tourism's relative youthfulness (international mass tourism is at best only about 30 years old) as a liability in its quest for status as a discrete discipline.

No existing tourism model is sufficient to depict the complexity of the tourism industry. It is, therefore, necessary to undertake an interdisciplinary approach in tourism research as has been proposed by Jafari (McIntosh and Goeldner 1990). Considerable time can be wasted in trying to determine the value of each model. However, as Leiper (1995) and Cooper et al (1993) have noted, it is always necessary to have an organising framework for any study of tourism. Various concepts from other disciplines may then be drawn upon as appropriate.

The current study, for its overall framework, has adopted the tourism systems model attributed to Leiper (in Cooper et al 1993). According to Stabler's (1991) tourism models' classification, the model is essentially *geographical.* Once this overall framework has been established, human resource management concepts are then applied within its confines.

Leiper (1979) has suggested that there can be several tourism systems depending on the actual itineraries taken--in line with systems theory, which recognises that there can be major systems and minor or subsystems (Leiper 1995). Thus, three systems are at work throughout the three geographical regions at any time:

- *domestic tourism systems*--Kenyan residents touring or visiting places within the country;
- *outbound tourism systems*--residents of Kenya going abroad; and
- ***Inbound tourism systems***--visitors coming into Kenya from other countries or regions.

To conceptualise these, Figure 1.1. demonstrates the link between the traveller generating region (TGR) and tourist destination region (TDR) as the main systems in the present study. Other linkages such as tourist movements between the TDR and the transit route or region (TR) and between the TGR and TR are minor systems. Domestic tourism systems are within any of the individual spheres and are considered minor systems in the current context.

The discussion which follows focuses on inbound tourism systems. In the model (Figure 1.1) the two large spheres represent the major geographical elements of inbound tourism systems (which are of main interest in the current research). The smaller sphere represents the transit component, but they have the possibility of growth to become major TGRs or TDRs. Domestic tourism systems take place within each sphere and it should be remembered that "tourism in the world is dominantly domestic" (Cooper et al 1993 p.1).

As Leiper (1990) has argued, the greatest impacts of tourism are felt at the tourist destination (in Cooper et al 1993). Thus, the proposed research and discussions will focus on inbound tourism systems for the simple reason that these are the systems capable of bringing in new wealth as opposed to the redistribution of existing internal wealth (as is the case with domestic tourism). It is this sector that contributes to real GDP.

A major consideration in the systems approach is that actions at any or all of the three geographical elements have a ripple effect throughout the system. For example, the government at the TGR issuing a travel advisory about insecurity at the TDR may not only affect the tourist flow to the TDR, but also revenue at the TR. By the same token, it can be argued that a problem or weakness such as lack of proper education and training within one industry sector, such as the inbound tour operations, has the potential to damage the image of the TDR and, therefore, to deter tourist flow throughout the system. This has been referred to as the "butterfly effect" (Faulkner 1997). This justifies even further the need for a skilled, resilient labour force.

Another important factor to be considered in the application of the systems model is that systems tend to be unique. This, from an academic perspective, means that care has to be taken when applying certain principles so that what is good and expedient for region "A", for example, is not necessarily applicable in region "B". It is necessary to examine, for example, the elements that play prominent roles in each system. Nevertheless, a systems approach proves to be a versatile tool in understanding tourism, because it helps to locate the key players and to take into account the roles played by each of them.

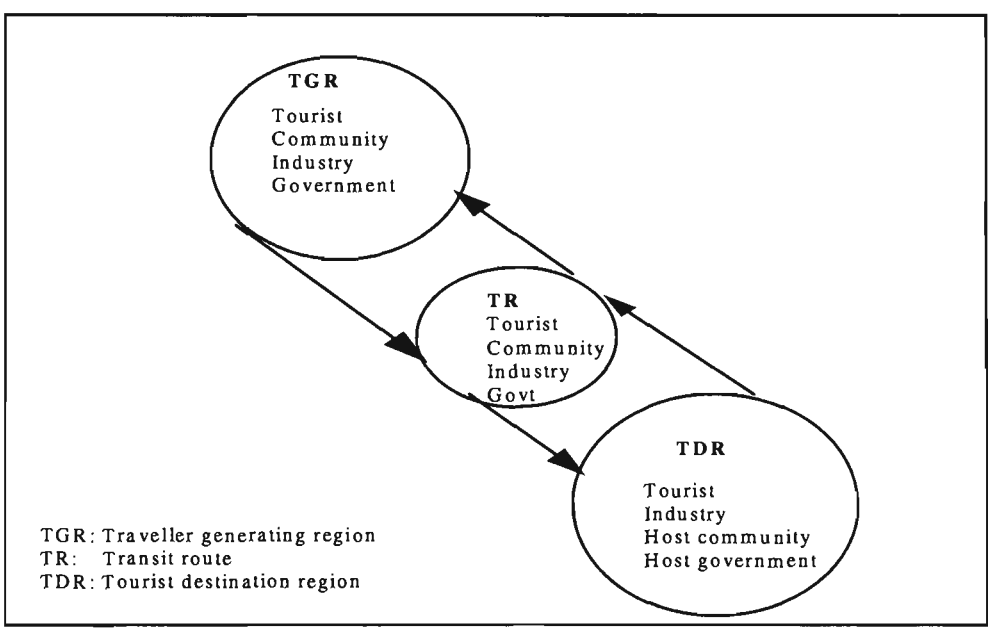

Figure 1.1: Geographical element in a tourism system with one destination (modified)
Source: Cooper et al 1993 p4

Leiper's model consists of six elements, all of which are vital in the understanding of tourism (Figure 1.1):

Geographical element. These can be divided into tourist generating region (TGR); tourist destination region (TDR); and transit region (TR). There can be several transit regions, but for the purposes of the proposed research it is assumed there is only one transit region for tourists, as Kenya is primarily a primary destination. The tourist generating region, according to Cooper et al (1993), provides the "push" factor to stimulate the tourist to engage in travel. According to Leiper (1995), it is at the tourist destination region where easily noticeable and dramatic consequences are most likely to take place as it attracts and services tourists. The inbound tour operator can contribute significantly to the "pull force", particularly through effective itinerary/product design, promotion and exceptional ground services provision and co-ordination.

Tourists. The tourist is the key element in the entire system. Without the tourist there is no tourism. The attractiveness of the destination and other extrinsic motivators initiate the whole system by creating demand at the TGR. The destination, therefore, applies the pull element in the system. In effect, inbound tour operator actions can have substantial impacts upon the destination, as they attract and service the tourist. The skills and competence levels will, for example, determine the service and product quality and, therefore, visitor satisfaction.

Host government. The host government often has a stake in tourism primarily because of the economic benefits (for example employment, balance of payments and distribution of wealth) that tourism is seen to bring. However, it usually has the responsibility to establish the necessary infrastructure and provide the policy framework within which the tourism industry operates. Part of the tourism development policy should focus on the human resource aspects of development. In the current study, the effect of government policy on tourism training and education will be examined, as it is crucial in the overall destination image and product development. Only the government has the necessary resources, for example, to provide and/or regulate nation-wide tourism training and education.

Host community. The host community, like the government, sees tourism from the point of view of the economic benefits that accrue from it, although negative social impacts may arise from the host/guest interaction. This latter issue must be considered in curriculum design. The host community is impacted by actions of the tourist and the tourism industry; thus knowledge and practices of operators can either increase or minimise impacts of tourism on these host communities.

Origin government. The involvement of the origin government is often ignored, though it can have quite a significant influence on the inbound tourism system. An example is the banning of US citizens from travelling to Cuba, Libya or Iran.

Tourism industry. This is made up of the range of organisations and businesses involved in delivering the tourism product. According to Leiper (in Leiper 1995), industry can be divided into at least 7 sectors): (i) marketing sector; (ii) carrier sector (transportation); (iii) accommodation sector (iv) the attractions sector; (v) tour operator sector; (vi) co-ordinating sector (organisations and associations that do exist world-wide and; (vii) Miscellaneous sector.

According to Leiper (1979), the marketing sector (for lack of a more appropriate collective term) is mainly located in the generating country and is made up, for example, of the wholesalers (outbound tour operators) and retail travel agents (in Cooper et al 1993). These travel agents and wholesalers are predominantly found in the tourist generating region, while the attractions and hospitality components are found in the destination region (Cooper et al 1993).

Table 1.1 Spatial distribution of five critical industry sectors in the tourism system

SECTOR	TGR	TR	TDR
MARKETING SECTOR (wholesalers --outbound tour operator, retail agents, sales reps)	•••	•	•
CARRIER SECTOR (transportation)	•••	••	•
HOSPITALITY	•	••	•••
ATTRACTIONS	•	••	•••
TOUR OPERATOR (inbound)	•	••	•••

Key: ••• Key role
•• Moderate role
• Minor role

It is argued here that, contrary to the common view, all of the industry sectors are actually present in every part of the system. What differs is the significance of the

roles they play at each of the three regions (Table 1.1). This is important when it comes to the design of tourism courses, as content ought to reflect these differing roles of various industry sectors.

Human resource management

There are many definitions of human resource management (HRM). Clark (1988), for example, has defined HRM as "the management of employment relationships with enhancing the achievement of organisational objectives" (1988: 3). However, Schuler's (1992) definition has a wider scope as it mentions individual and society needs as part of the broader aims of HRM:

> Human resources management involves the recognition of the importance of an organisations workforce as vital human resources contributing to the goals of the organisation, and the utilisation of several functions and activities to ensure that they are used effectively and fairly for the benefit of the individual, the organisation, and society (1992 p. 16).

Thus, human resource management (HRM) is directed at management's need to provide and deploy human resources to meet a desired objective. One of the fundamental philosophical principles of HRM is the recognition of human resources as the organisation's most important asset, and that their effective management is crucial to success.

Tourism training education, competence and development

Training and education is a vital function of human resource management, particularly in tourism. This is because the key aspect of service is the interpersonal relationship between the customer and the service provider. This core transaction determines the success or failure of the product (Heap 1996). As Baum and Conlin have observed, "the overwhelming presence of people in the process of delivering the hospitality product" links the quality of the [human resource] to productivity and value adding (1996: 59). This is true for most sectors of tourism.

Bennett (1984) defines *training* as a process that is concerned with the acquisition and development of specific skills necessary to undertake particular activities or jobs (cited in Silver 1991). Thus, training is geared towards helping an individual to carry out a particular function or set of activities within that function.

Go (1993) sees a distinction between education and training and argues that *education* is the intellectual and professional development of a person without concern for specific responsibilities. The purpose of education is to provide the student with a set of tools for interpreting, evaluating and analysing both knowledge and facts. Education develops the critical thinking capabilities of the student. Education is thus more general and broad based than training, yet it may be concerned with the development of certain specific skills [as is often the case in university and college education] (Silver 1991). The two overlap.

Competence is defined as an underlying characteristic of a person, which results in effective and/or superior performance in a job. Klemp (1980), Boyatzis (1982) and Constable (1988) seem to consider competence to be that effective mix of motives, traits, and skills, aspects of one's self-image or social role or body of knowledge by an individual (cited in Silver 1991). Competence, therefore, is the ability to use knowledge and skills effectively. Both education and training are necessary to raise the competence of an individual.

Another important concept is *development*, which implies fitting and helping the individual to take on jobs in different spheres, especially at higher or management levels. This again embraces the two of concepts training and education (Silver 1991).

Because of the apparent overlap between education and training from a conceptual and practical point of view, it serves no purpose to treat them as if they were mutually exclusive. Such is the view held by pragmatic commentators (see for example Gee 1997, Baum 1995). Indeed, as Baum (1995) observes, the realities of a modern working environment in tourism are such that employees require attributes which according to established distinctions would be described as being derived from both education and training. For this reason, the term *training and education* has been adopted and will be used throughout this study to incorporate all skill formation activities and processes: training, education and development.

1.4 Chapter outline

Chapter 2: Literature Review examines the broad theoretical issues relevant to the subject of tourism training and education. First it examines divergent views on the role of tourism as a vehicle for economic development in developing countries and then focuses on human resource development. Tourism training and education issues are then discussed at length, albeit from a developing country perspective.

Chapter 3 : Training and education in tourism, a global context
This chapter discusses the impacts of global trends on tourism training and education.

Chapter 4: *Tourism and Tourism Education in Sub-Saharan Africa* In this chapter a geographical context for the study is established including an overview of Kenya's tourism industry. The chapter commences with a discussion of the general problems facing tourism development in Sub-Saharan Africa. It is noted that despite the great tourism potential the region's performance in terms of arrivals and receipts continues to be relatively low. The problem of skilled labour is highlighted.

Chapter 5: Tourism and tourism education in Kenya Kenya's tourism industry is examined more closely. The recent performance of the industry is analysed. The policy and development of the industry and its role in economic development are discussed. A SWOT analysis of the industry is also undertaken as this underlines the need for development of skills.

Chapter 6: The inbound tour operations sector and its training needs in Kenya
This chapter focuses on the tour operations sector and its relevance and significance in Kenya's inbound tourism system. The relevant training and education issues are then within this context.

Chapter 7: Methodology The methodological issues are discussed. This is followed by a detailed account of the methodology applied in this study.

Chapter 8: Data analysis and discussion The research findings are tabulated and discussed.

Chapter 9: Conclusions and opportunities for further research This final chapter presents a review of the present study. Conclusions are then made based on the findings and in accordance with the main objectives of the study. The chapter also makes various recommendations and outlines the key limitations of the study as well as the opportunities for further research

Chapter 2

Literature Review

2.1 Approaches to tourism and development

The rapid growth of the tourism industry is well documented. In a bid to capture a share of this growing international market and, therefore, achieve rapid economic growth, many developing countries have sought to develop their tourism industries. A review of the literature on directions in tourism development [in developing countries] reveals four fundamental themes: opportunities, problem areas, paradigm shifts, and complexity of issues (De Kadt 1979; Britton 1982, 1983; Harrison 1991; Faulkner and Russell 1997; Brohman 1996; Poon 1993; Jenkins 1994; English 1986; Lea 1986).

In the last ten years or so, concerns have been raised over tourism's inability to deliver the benefits expected by host countries (Jenkins 1994). Criticisms raised include claims of foreign domination; cultural alienation; loss of control by host communities; environmental, socio-cultural costs; economic costs; the list is long (Britton 1982, 1983; Brohman 1996, Akama 1996; Jommo 1987, Krippendorf 1987). These criticisms represent the view which Lea calls the 'political economy approach,' which sees tourism as yet another extension of the north (core) and south (periphery) polarisation.

Despite these criticisms, there have been more positive comments about the industry. Such (one might say more pragmatic) contributions have mainly focused on how to minimise the negative effects and maximise benefits of tourism. This "functional approach," as Lea (1988) calls it, takes an optimistic view, as it sees all tourism related problems as capable of being solved through good management and appropriate policy. This approach is important when one considers the fact that tourism is now a global phenomenon affecting millions of lives. Furthermore, adopting such an approach is particularly relevant in the context of less developed countries for two reasons.

Firstly, many small economies lack alternative development options. Secondly, some countries have a history of embracing tourism with meagre resources already committed to tourism development. In such a context, any major shift of focus may have far reaching destabilising effects (see Mulindi 1997: 21). Moreover, it is useful to note that even those who ascribe to the political economy approach still acknowledge undeniable benefits of tourism to the less developed countries (LDCs) (Britton 1982, Harrison 1991). Given these benefits, and the increasing evidence that tourism is here to stay, the present study proposes a more functional approach in dealing with various tourism related issues.

There are three possible approaches to mitigating the problems associated with tourism development: maintain the status quo (i.e. accept them as characteristic of the industry and do nothing about them); seek means of improving the benefits; or undertake radical change to the existing structure and organisation (see Jenkins 1994). The second approach may be deemed appropriate, given the reasons cited above, although one can not rule out cases where radical change may be necessary.

The lack of skilled labour in tourism, and in particular, in less developed countries and associated problems such as leakage are well covered within the literature (De Kadt 1979, Jenkins and Henry 1982, Jommo 1987, Ankomah 1991). The list of common problems pertaining to the subject of human resource development revolves around popular themes such as: shortage of labour, importation of skilled labour, low skill nature of tourism jobs, low wages, high turnover and the seasonal nature of jobs (see for example Riley 1991, 1993, Ankomah 1991 Timo 1996).

These common themes on human resource issues have been repeated and reiterated to the extent that they are taken to be universal characteristics of the industry. Such an assumption has however been questioned. A study of tourism employment in Hawaii, for example, revealed that the quality of tourism employment was much better that is often perceived (Choy 1995). Such findings reinforce the need for a more positive approach to tourism in order to elevate its image and status as a socio-economic activity.

Recently, the focus in the literature has shifted to the subject of comprehensive human resource development, either as a means of gaining a competitive advantage or as a vital component of sustainable tourism development (Witt 1992, Heap 1996, Baum 1993, 1995, Burns 1994, Stewart 1995, Watson 1996). These two notions underpin any long-term human resource development policies and, therefore, need to be examined in greater detail as they form a basis for the current study.

2.2 Human resource development in tourism

As Baum (1993) has observed, the tourism industry is well served with literature where the focus is on the hospitality sector of the industry and which approach the subject of tourism human resources from the management point of view. Put simply, the approach within much of the human resource literature starts at the level of the company and moves towards the consideration of the wider issues that have an effect at company level. However, as Baum (1993) and Baum and Conlin (1994) note, the broader concern should be how a country or destination can administer quality product through its human resource.

As has already been pointed out, many nations now pursue tourism as a means of economic growth, the result being increased competition in the international market. As Nicholas (1996) notes, in such a competitive environment, achieving excellence in quality is an increasingly important element in competitive success. However, Haywood and Maki (1991) observe that despite the importance of tourism, and this importance of quality, developing of quality human resource in the industry has somewhat lagged behind (see also WTO1997: 10).

The greatest contemporary human resource development challenge, is how companies and educational institutions can attract the right people to the workforce, help those employees to gain skills to enhance the visitor experience and to generate greater on-the-job satisfaction and improve productivity, delivering quality products that are competitive in the global marketplace. In the Kenyan context, development of the human resource through training and education may be regarded as one of the key strategies for the much desired economic growth.

2.3 Sustainability and human resource development

The concept of sustainability in the context of tourism human resources development has gained ground in recent years (Poon 1993, Baum 1995, Hawkins 1997). Hawkins, in particular, points out that a commitment to sustainability can form an impetus to educating policy-makers and managers about sustainable business practices. This means that sustainability becomes both a driving force and a desired goal of tourism training and education. This addition of sustainability forms a vital link between human resource development and long-term tourism development strategies.

Sustainability is an important concept in the Kenyan context for two main reasons. Firstly, Kenya being a developing country whose socio-economic and cultural circumstances differ greatly from those of more developed tourist generating regions, is likely to experience greater negative socio-cultural impacts of tourism (see Hall 1995). Secondly, Kenya's economy is highly dependent on tourism, particularly for foreign exchange generation. This, combined with rapid tourism development experienced in the 80s and early 90s, means that the industry is more vulnerable to self-destruction unless its practices and activities are sustainable.

A sustainable human resource development approach is underpinned by several principles, among which the most relevant to this study are:

- Investment in people as a long-term commitment by all concerned parties;
- The need by companies to realise the impact that they have on the character and balance of the local labour market;
- The ability of tourism training to provide flexible and transferable skills that are able to adjust to changing demands, and in response to emerging opportunities;
- The incorporation of human resource development as an integral part of overall tourism development planning (Baum 1995 p.10).

At the core of this human resource development is education and training, whether it is offered at the company level, or by public or private education providers. Quality training and education has to be need driven and has to be well integrated within the overall destination planning and development. Such an approach, essentially, demands that several issues be addressed. Some of the key tourism training and education issues are examined in the next sections.

2.4 Tourism training and education issues

Tourism training and education has experienced a rapid growth, particularly in the 1980s and 1990s, largely due to the increasing in importance of tourism as a social and economic activity. Much of this growth has been inspired by governments who see training and education as a means to achieving competitive advantage or, sometimes, by individual institutions that have identified gaps in training and education provision. However due to the infancy of tourism as an area of study, tourism training and education is surrounded by disputes and controversies (Cooper 2000).

Controversy, for example, still exists as to what should constitute a tourism curriculum or, even more narrowly, the body of knowledge in tourism (Cooper 2000, Howell and Uysal 1981, Leiper 1981, Jafari 1990). There is also controversy over the issue of separation between vocationally-based "training" and tourism "education" (Jenkins 1997, Gunn 1998). Gunn, for example, notes that training is still given a pejorative connotation in the belief that it is less important than education. These and other prevailing issues in different regions render curriculum planning in tourism training and education difficult. Approaches taken still tend to be *ad hoc* in nature and, in some cases, dominated by short-term functional outcomes rather than long-term sustainable development objectives (Collins et al 1994, WTO/Surrey 1996).

Tourism educators concerned with curriculum planning can benefit from ideas in the mainstream education literature (Cooper 2000). As Cooper observes, there is need to examine how the definitions of curriculum have evolved. This evolution in definitions and the different debates on the subject of curriculum have become more relevant as tourism gains recognition and legitimacy as a distinct area of study in higher education (Leiper 1981).

2.5 Curriculum Development

Though the basic model has not changed, the definition of curriculum has evolved since the term was first used in the early 19th Century, (Cooper 2000, Tanner and Tanner 1980, Wiles and Bondi 1984). However, there have been a number of educational debates focusing on the different approaches to curriculum development. As Laird and Stevenson (1993) have noted, curriculum development is one of the

most complex processes and considerations in any educational setting. It must play an important part in tourism training and education.

Contemporary definitions of curriculum fall into Schefler's category of *programmatic* definitions, which imply a model where elements of curriculum fit together into an integrated holistic approach (WTO/Surrey 1996, Tanner and Tanner 1980, Cooper 2000). In other words, curriculum is seen as "the totality of the learning experience as guided and directed by the school" (in Tanner and Tanner 1980: 7). Such definitions of curriculum do not treat curriculum as a mere course of study, but the course as part of the curriculum. According to Cooper, it is within this "programmatic" thinking that the context of the curriculum becomes a critical issue, although it is an area to which tourism education research has paid little attention (Cooper 2000).

Tourism curriculum developers must consider the stakeholders in tourism education curriculum. Understanding the role and influence of the different groups that have an interest in training and education is vital. These groups include: students (taking their backgrounds into account), the industry and government. There are obviously areas of conflict and prospects of the curriculum planning process being dominated by one group. This can be avoided by the establishment of effective channels and mechanisms of communication between the stakeholders and, as Cooper (2000) warns, avoiding the possibility of curriculum becoming *context bound* rather than *context related.* It is also important to make a distinction between primary and secondary stakeholders.

There are various models that can benefit tourism educators involved in the curriculum design process. Among the main theorists in curriculum design are: Tyler (1949); Bligh (1975); Hirst (1978); Rowntree (1982); Manwaring and Elton (1984). Tyler's model is the most commonly accepted and involves sequencing the course objectives, deciding the anticipated learning experience and organising the method of delivery and evaluation. His ideas came to be referred to as the 'Tyler Rationale' in latter years (Tanner and Tanner 1980: 83). The more recent models are developments of Tyler's ideas.

Traditionally, curriculum developers focused on what has to be learned by the student in a prescriptive manner. This content approach is the more established view of curriculum and tends to be provider-centred (Pickup and Wolfson 1986). Knowles (1984) describes the process approach, which is more learner-centred and emphasises the importance of meeting individual needs. The approach that is taken by any institution of learning will obviously depend on, amongst other factors, various micro and macro-environments of the institution. The approach should however be determined on the basis of the desired outcome.

Curriculum outcomes

The Further Education Unit (FEU 1989) has identified curriculum outcomes as an important part of the learner's entitlement. The outcomes answer the question "for whom is the curriculum intended ?" (Gunn 1994). Gunn suggests that it is appropriate to:

- Categorise employment into occupations and determine the different levels of employment ; and
- Anticipate the different training needs of each level of personnel within each category before development of curricula.

There are two ways in which the boundaries of the tourism workforce could be defined namely by occupation or by the nature of the relevant job (Riley 1991, 1993, Industry Commission 1996). Of these two methods, defining the tourism workforce by occupation was considered to be most appropriate for the purposes of the present research.

It is crucial to consider the desired outcome in course content decisions.

Tourism course content

Content is an important element of the curriculum. Content consists of: skills (including product and process skills); knowledge (including theoretical and practical knowledge); experience (gained both before and after a particular learning programme); and learning support (comprising of the infrastructure surrounding the learning programme including guidance) (Maclure 1989). Content is a particularly an important element in tourism, given its youth as an area of study.

Jafari's (1990) review of the historical development of tourism as an area of study offers a comprehensive examination of the different philosophical foundations of the various contributions to what constitutes most tourism courses. There are two predominant sources for the body of knowledge in tourism courses, namely business disciplines (particularly marketing, economics and management) and social sciences such as geography and sociology.

The education literature can help to shed some light on the optimal ways of approaching the issue of what should be taught in tourism. Rowntree's description of different types of courses is perhaps one of the most elaborate (1985). He makes a distinction between what he calls: knowledge oriented courses, methodology courses and mixed courses (1985). His model is a useful starting point in determining the kind of courses that can be both practicable and acceptable in any given setting.

In knowledge-oriented courses, efforts are directed at getting the student to master the subject-matter with the aim of applying it and for its own sake, not as a vehicle for learning something else (Rowntree 1985). Most science courses fall into this category, with the subject matter making up the core of the discipline. By contrast, methodology oriented courses emphasise the acquisition of procedures or skills – intellectual, physical or social. The student learns to be a performer. Rowntree further divides methodology oriented courses into: task-oriented courses and discipline-oriented courses.

Task–oriented courses normally comprise clearly defined tasks or activities which can be performed in fairly predictable situations and are mostly confined to technical/crafts areas of education such as plumbing, bricklaying. A task oriented course or section of a course emphasises 'how to do it' knowledge. In a discipline-oriented course students learn methods and procedures that can be adapted to various situations. Thus, a student of history might learn: how to gather and assess evidence, how do draw valid conclusions and how to present an argument.

In most cases the distinctions between different types of courses are not as clear-cut as suggested in the foregoing discussion. Most are mixed, which adds weight to the argument against the treatment of training and education as separate sectors. Two

types of mixed courses can be identified in many fields. Issue-based courses focus on an issue and provide the student with the tools to solve a specific problem. The Ultimately a student may be required to work on a self-selected project.

The second type of mixed courses are inter-disciplinary, where two or more disciplines are brought to bear on one topic, period or issue in such a way as to 'learn' from one another in a manner that produces some form of synergy. Thus, an issue-based course can also be inter-disciplinary. The interdisciplinary approach is a prevailing feature of tourism in its evolution as a new integrated discipline. Tourism education however, continues to undertake multi-disciplinary studies which do not in any way attempt to interrelate the contributing disciplines.

Educators who shunned the traditional knowledge based learning such as Taba (1962) found the construct of disciplinarity or learning by inquiry quite appealing. However this approach has been criticised on the basis that personal-social problem solving requires an integrative treatment of knowledge. Moreover a disciplinary approach has the weakness of producing scholar-specialists. Disciplinary knowledge takes pre-eminence over the interests of the learner and the problems of society (Tanner and Tanner 1980, WTO 1997a). According to Bodewes (1981), it also takes time before mono-disciplinary teachers learn to adjust from their mother discipline approaches to interdisciplinary ways of thinking in such integrative subjects as tourism. A united interdisciplinary perspective is necessary.

There have been various approaches and contributions to the subject of tourism course content, either by way of empirical inquiry or as commentary (Airey and Nightingale 1981; Bodewes 1981, Stear 1981, Murphy 1981, Collins, Sweeeney and Geen 1994 and Koh 1995). Airey and Nightingale's study (1981) was pioneering in having attempted to examine the links between tourism occupations, career profiles, tourism employment by sectors and the knowledge required by individuals engaged in these careers and occupations. It was possibly the earliest attempt to look at the broad scope of tourism education in terms of its component sectors. The study found a distinct difference between those engaged in general functions in tourist organisations such as tourism boards and tourism enterprises. This points out the importance of the desired outcome in curriculum decisions.

The more narrowly focused "disciplinary" approaches to the corpus of knowledge include Murphy's (1981) description of what should be taught in tourism as a "social science" and Stear's (1981) "destination studies" content. Koh's study is a departure from this apparently narrow perspective in focusing is on a general content of degree courses regardless of the disciplinary origin or inclination (1995). However, even Koh's study seemed to ignore other tourism sectors outside hospitality.

The study by Collins, Sweeeney and Geen, on the other hand, seems to take the narrow vocational tourism training approach (1994). All these studies and comments may, thus, be criticised as either: restrictive (by paying greater attention to diciplinarity), limited in scope, or perpetuating a not useful divide between 'tourism training' and 'tourism education' as distinct sectors.

Given that these earlier examples of tourism education (with the exception of the Airey and Nightingale study (1981) tended to be deficient in recognising the breath of tourism as an area of study, there has remained a need for a more issue-oriented integrated approach. Such a comprehensive and integrated approach was undertake in the TEDQUAL (acronym for Tourism Education and Quality) pilot study commissioned by the World Tourism Organisation at the George Washington University (WTO 1997a). The study considered three dimensions: the geographical, professional or occupational level and industry sectors in mapping the repertoire of skills and knowledge required by tourism professionals.

The strength of the TEDQUAL pilot study approach could be based on the fact that the skills items used were a result of an iterative polling process involving 100 experts representing 12 tourism sectors and 6 tourism regions worldwide. The study sought to "determine the skills and knowledge considered *most necessary* for tourism industry employees" (WTO 1997a: 57). If the above assumption is valid, then results on the "importance" of the TEDQUAL skills model should be amenable to replication. It is within such a context that the present study seeks the views of education providers and employers on the relevance of these skills items.

However, even the TEDQUAL pilot study omitted the inbound tour operations sector. As Airey and Nightingale (1981) noted, in such general studies, there is also a danger of not including a representative sample from each individual sector or occupation. In this respect, the present study may be regarded as a contribution towards filling this apparent gap.

2.6 Tourism training and education quality

The notion of quality of training and education is a problematic one due, largely, to the number of stakeholders and, hence, the variety of relevant perspectives as. This factor creates difficulties in measuring the outcomes of training and education, particularly in a service environment.

The interface between tourism education and employment could be considered as being made up of four key players: employers, employees, students, education providers, the government department responsible for tourism training policy and service consumers. Each of these groups has different perspectives on what constitutes quality of training and education. The interaction of the first four stakeholders has been considered in the literature (Maki and Haywood 1991, WTO 1997a, Westlake 1997).

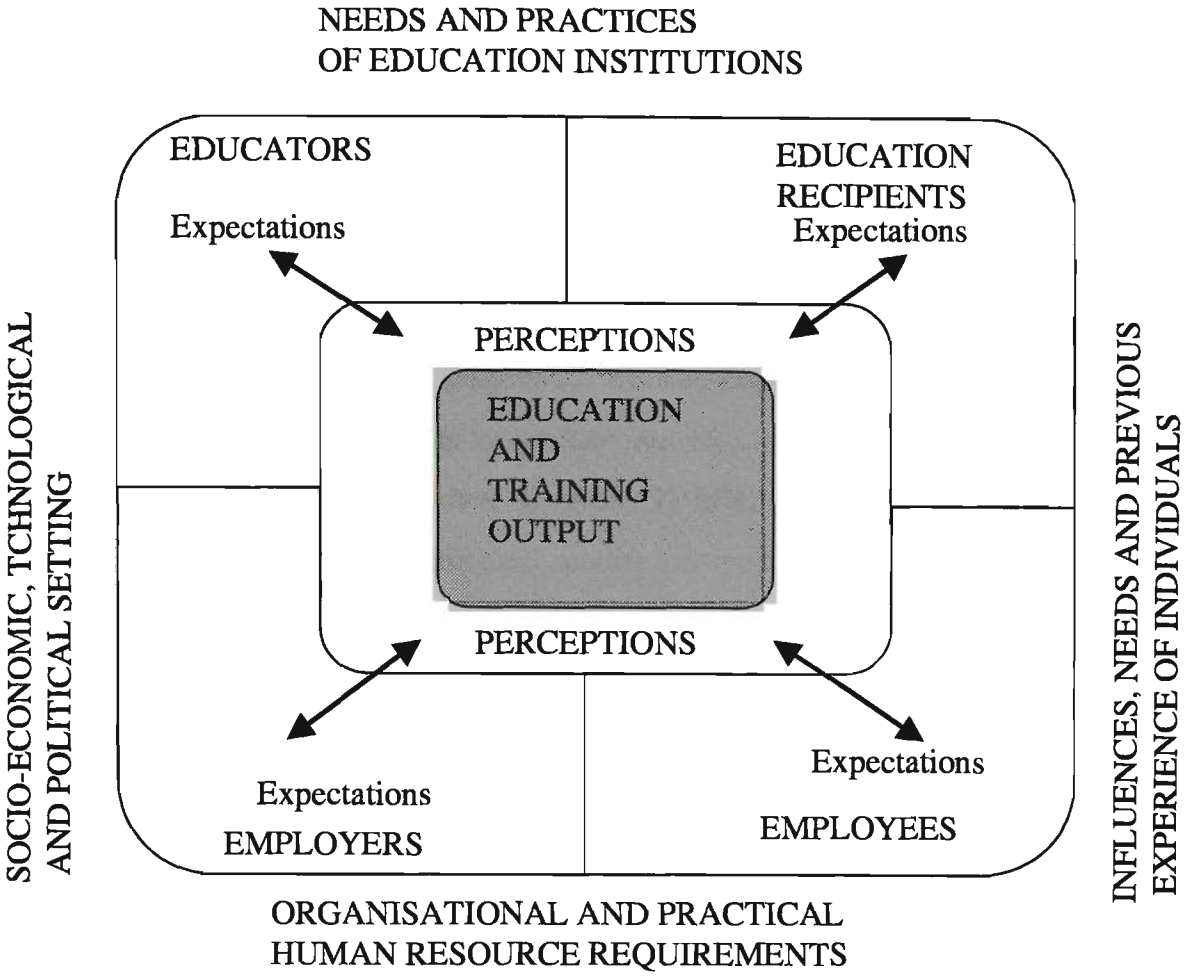

Figure 2.1 Interface between training and education and employment
Source: adapted from Haywood and Maki 1991 p. 106

The above model (Figure 2.1) supposes that the behaviour of a person in any of the four groups depends on the expectations that the group or individual holds about the outcome (Haywood and Maki 1991). This behaviour is depicted by actions such as: developing a curriculum, job selection, recruitment and the decision to undertake training. These actions have a significant impact on the need for, and the quality of training and education. The expectations of each individual on the other hand, are determined by experiences of the person, how people in the industry or education institutions behave and operate and the socio-economic, technological and political environments in which people and organisations live and operate.

As Haywood and Maki (1991) further note, "gaps" exist between the expectations of the four key players and the perceptions of the quality of training and education. Using the ideas of service quality developed by Gronroos (1990) and Parasuraman et al (1985, 1991), they argue that quality exists when the expectations match the

perceptions. From this basic concept of quality, the concept of using *total quality* methodology to determine tourism training and education needs is derived (WTO 1997a).

In the total quality approach all the parties are conceptualised as being consumers in tourism training and education (WTO 1997a). A distinction is then made between *external* and *internal* customers (Figure 2.2 b). The system consists of a continuum of consumers in which the internal consumer receives work from someone else and passes it on to the end consumer (employer) after adding his input, akin to a production line. Further, from this total quality perspective, those who are consumers of training and education are also suppliers. Thus, for education providers, students are consumers as they look for knowledge and skills, while to the employers they (students) are suppliers of the skills acquired.

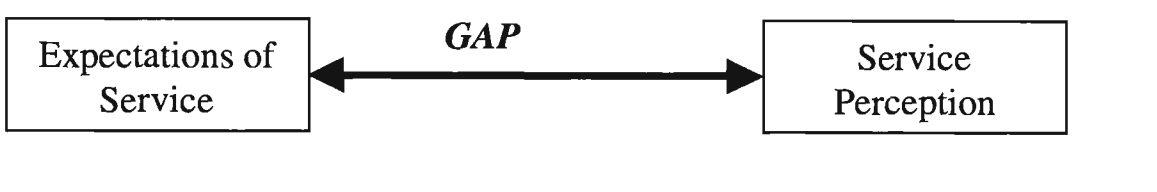

Figure 2.2 (a) The gap model
Source: WTO 1997 p. 31

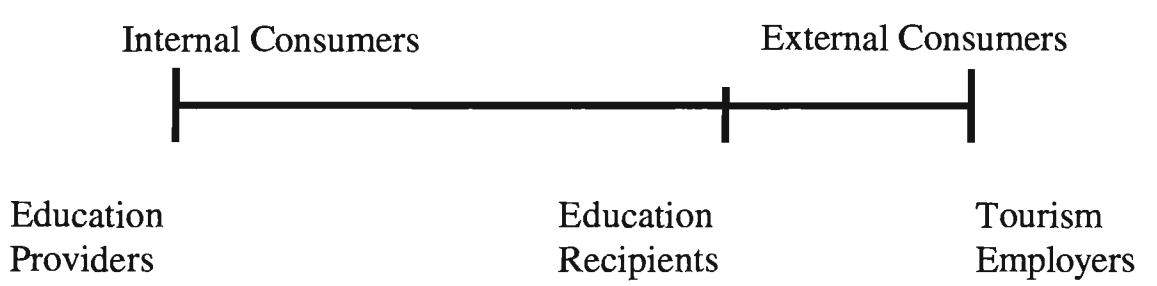

Figure 2.2 (b) The continuum of customers of the tourism training and education system
Source: adapted from WTO 1997 p. 31

The above model (Figure 2.2) is the application of the TEDQUAL (Tourism Education and Quality) methodology (WTO 1997a). According to the model, a quality chain is created from the element located closest to the internal consumer end of the continuum--tourism education provider to the external end of the continuum—the employee (Figure 2.2 (b)). The chain may be broken at any point if there is an

inability to meet the expectations and needs of the next consumer. The tourism employer is the one who actually discovers the "gaps". It is argued that the perceptions of the end consumer that will provide critical information about training needs in any tourism labour market and point to any systemic shortcomings.

Thus, according to the TEDQUAL methodology, the degree to which employers are satisfied with the skills and knowledge of their employees is, almost invariably, a measure of the extent to which the education and training system is responding correctly to the prior expectations of the employers. It may be expected that their opinions about the skills of their employees are a good estimate of quality.

There is obviously a need to detect the tourism and training gaps from the perspective of the student and education provider. The major limitation of this research approach relates to restrictions in time and cost. In the methodology employed for the present study, no primary investigation of student attitudes is undertaken. However, since the study sets out to guide future development, an approach is taken that incorporates the views of both education providers and policy makers and the employers or industry experts, as they will now be called. The methodology is dealt with in more detail in Chapter 7.

Standardisation of curricula

One of the issue that has raised considerable amount of debate in tourism education and training is that of standardisation of curricula and, in particular, content. Arguments in favour of standardisation recognise it as a means of minimising confusion about what qualifications involve for both students and employers. Such arguments have some validity since tourism is a new and growing field of specialisation. Furthermore, in many countries including Kenya there are several providers of tourism training and education, which may lead to proliferation of type of content and presentation. The introduction of a minimum core curriculum may be a means of ensuring quality education in such circumstances. Moreover, standardisation at a national level can possibly help in the industry/education interface as industry can have a better understanding of what constitutes tourism education and training.

The critics of standardisation see it as a way of stifling creativity and innovation in the teaching of tourism. However, it has to be remembered that creativity and innovation are only useful if employers demand the skills and, hence, graduates secure employment. It is also interesting to note that a survey carried out in the UK achieved 82% educator support for a core curriculum approach to tourism education (WTO/Surrey 1997).

In a discussion on alternative patterns of curriculum organisation, Tanner and Tanner (1980) explain the term core curriculum as being used in education literature to denote those studies that are required for all students (see Maclure 1988). In this sense it is equated with general education. However, they note that this term has long been associated with the organisation of general education in such a way as to address prevailing social problems or concerns.

A core curriculum could also be viewed as a "common framework which provides coherence" (Further Education Unit 1989: 32). Thus, it can be treated as a distinct mode of organising curriculum. It may be worthwhile to note that, although the term core curriculum seems to spark some amount of controversy in tourism education circles, it has been identified as one of the curriculum principles that "have managed to survive years of experimentation ...and have now achieved respectability" (Shackleton 1989: 95).

A combination of these ideas can help organise curriculum that is widely applicable yet contextually relevant to a given area of study or region. This does not necessarily imply that the content ought to be static or that innovation and creativity ought to necessarily be inhibited.

Here again the issue of context is relevant. Co-operation between industry and education providers in curriculum development and related issues is crucial but remains elusive. Bernthall holds the view that there ought to be co-operation between industry and educators and warns against institutions developing courses according to their own interests (1988). Bernthall asserts that it is the employers who are the end consumers of the skills supplied by the training and education system. Furthermore, without co-operation, duplication of certain provision may arise, though Bernthall

correctly observes the need for balance and compromise in developing collaborative relationships.

In resolving these issues, an understanding of the local structures and institutions is necessary, probably based on some form of consensus between industry and education providers concerning appropriate solutions. Before such solutions can be aimed at, the respective concerns of industry players and education providers need to be gathered.

The case of developing countries

Inskeep (1994) and Howell and Uysal (1987: 63) raise the following issues that apply to tourism education and training curricula in developing countries:

- The need for professionalism in industry practices in order to minimise the negative effects of tourism in light of rapid tourism development;
- The need for such education to pay particular attention to host community sensitivities; and
- Indigenisation of the industry as rapidly as possible to bring maximum employment benefits to the local economy, and make tourism sustainable.

Inskeep (1994) and Theuns and Rasheed (1983) have noted that tourism is commonly developed in job-deficient areas. In such settings, the gross number of persons available for employment is not a constraining factor. The capability to provide adequate training and education to the right number of qualified people required is of more immediate relevance.

One other issue worth considering in tourism training and education in developing countries is the lack of literature and other material adapted specifically to local conditions. This makes it very difficult for the educators. Often they are unable to prescribe textbooks for students, because the latter would find it very difficult to apply the exotic examples based, to a large extent, on Euro-American systems. The lack of context creates a difficult task for the learner. Initiatives taken to address this issue by way of developing local case studies, student manuals and other materials have proved to be successful (Blanton 1981).

2.7 Training and education modes

Early educationists such as Dewey (1901) and Yocum (1913) recognised the need for complementarity between formal education and experiential learning (in Tanner and Tanner 1980). Speaking on the subject of separation between specialised and general education, Dewey (1902) emphasised the need to view "what appear to be opposing elements as complementary and essential elements of a whole" (in Tanner and Tanner 1980: 274). Yocum, on the other hand, saw the danger of academic specialisation which failed to relate itself to life. These views have a bearing on the choices and compromises to be made between formal and informal education; and general training and specialisation in practical fields such as tourism.

A detailed study undertaken by the Department of Labour, Victoria (1986) on the training needs of the state's tourism industry, for example, noted that skills may be acquired in the first instance through on-the-job learning (imitation and experience). Learning may also occur through off-the-job (formal) education. These approaches may be regarded as complementary to each other.

Between the extremes of on-the-job learning and off-the-job education there are intermediate modes, such as apprenticeship, which involves systematic formalised on-the-job training, and in-house training. Further, on-the-job training may be categorised into two polar types: general and specific training (McConnell and Brue 1989). Specific training can only be used in the firm that provides the training while general training can be applied in many firms in the related field or sector. Most on-the-job training has elements of both.

Employers and potential trainees will only invest in training if they believe that they will receive a return on their investment. Furthermore, tourism organisations regard training as disruptive to operations (Thomas 1998). These characteristics impose a limitation on the ability of in-house training and education to provide general skills which can be used by several firms as it leads to varying standards. This problem can be alleviated, in part, through a core curriculum approach reinforced by a system of certification and accreditation (Collins et al 1994,WTO/Surrey 1996).

Since general skills are more useful in competitor firms than firm-specific skills, employees acquiring general skills will be more mobile and the employer will be dissuaded from investing many resources in this form of training. For this reason, it is rarely desirable for the economy to rely on in-house programs for the provision of general education and training.

According to Gamble, "output assessment ... brings together a combination of formal and informal methodologies, on-the-job and off-the-job, company based and institutionally based, professional development and personal development" (1992 p.10). This means that no one provision mode is sufficient to meet the training and education needs of the industry. However, Gamble notes that formal education and training still has to be relied on heavily in a bid to improve the quality of skills of the tourism industry workforce.

A multi-modal approach requires concerted effort from all participants in the provision of tourism training and education, particularly education providers and employers. Thus, an integrated tourism training and education model that brings together all concerned parties (and all relevant training and education activities) is an essential part of a national tourism human resource development strategy.

The approach used in the present study is based on the TEDQUAL methodology. In the TEDQUAL methodology, twenty-six skill items (gathered as described in previous section) are classified according to Riegel and Powers (1993) model. The classification breaks down skills into three main groups:

- *Basic Training (knowing).* This group consists of general skills which are transferable between different business environments (e.g. marketing, legal knowledge, strategic planning).
- *Technical Training (knowing how to do).* These are more specific skills required for each job (e.g. foreign languages, computing).
- *Personal skills (knowing how to behave).* This group includes attitudes and personal characteristics which facilitate quality interpersonal relationships on the job (e.g. courteous and friendly behaviour, ability to solve problems and flexibility) (WTO 1997a: 57).

The aim in the present research is to find out which of these skills should be provided on the job and which should be acquired through formal off-the-job training and education. This finding is particularly important to education providers as a guide to designing and redesigning their curricula.

Chapter 3

Importance of training and education in tourism, a global context

3.1 Introduction

The systems approach to tourism, both as a study area and an economic activity suggests a holistic treatment that sees tourism as a series of complex interrelationships, both functional and spatial, connecting a local destination, for example, to the universe. Therefore it would be inappropriate to treat the subject of tourism training and education without looking at global business, economic and social trends. This chapter relates tourism training and education to the context of global economic and business trends in the 1980s and 1990s. The chapter begins with a discussion on the global context within which tourism organisations and destinations have to compete.

3.2 Global trends

As Lim (1993) has observed, global economic and business trends of the 1980s and 1990s and increased global competition have heightened customer demand for quality. This subject of global economic trends has been covered quite extensively (Zeithmal et al 1990; Taylor 1992; Johns 1995; WTO 1994; Holland 1995; Nicholas 1996; Lim 1993; and Watson 1996).

A close examination of the literature on the impacts of global trends on tourism training and education (Holland 1995; Go 1991, 1993; Maki 1991; Jafari 1993), produces a consistent list:

a) Globalisation of trade and growth of global distribution systems and networks;
b) Growth in international competition in tourism and other sectors;
c) Technological changes;
d) Changing consumer profiles and consumption patterns;
e) Growth of service sector economies;
f) Growth of multiculturalism;
g) Sustainable development and environmental concerns; and
h) Emergence of new forms of tourism.

The list of global trends will obviously vary depending on the emphasis of the author or study. For the present study the above list is sufficient as a useful basis for predicting current and future tourism training and education needs.

In an article "Skills for the Future," Holland (1995) has discussed some of these global trends and how they will impact on the combination of skills that will be necessary in the 21st century workplace. A major consequence of these changes, as Go (1991) has observed, is a growing realisation by both industry and government that human resource and organisational development are crucial to realising the potential of tourism. The discussion that follows outlines the respective training and education implications of each of the above factors.

(a) Globalisation

According to Johnson (1991) globalisation, ideally, implies communication and exchange of goods without regard to national boundaries. The resulting interrelationships, partnerships and alliances that are emerging from the globalisation trend are creating a greater demand for employees who maintain a global outlook. A result of such a trend, as Edverdsson, Thomasson and Ovretveit (1994) have noted, is that conceptual knowledge and skills, not just technical skills, will play a greater role among supervisory staff and managers and across entire organisations. An optimal tourism training and education system, then, ought to be one that equips the worker with the necessary skills and has the ability to adapt to a rapidly changing global environment.

(b) Growth in international competition

One important outcome of globalisation is the intensity with which organisations and nations are competing to gain market share (see Go 1993). As Days (1990) observes, "when markets are globalising, then regional distinction becomes important" as a way of differentiating products (in Go 1993: p 285). This observation is particularly relevant to tourism in most less developed countries. In most of these countries the local culture and natural attractions provide the primary pull factor in attracting visitors to the destination region.

The ensuing competition for market share, better quality and more competitive products has the consequence of greater demand for a knowledgeable, innovative and creative workforce. As various commentators point out, this development impacts heavily on the role of training and education both at micro and macro level (Johns 1996; Maki & Haywood 1991; Edverdsson et al 1994; Taylor 1992; Heap 1996; and Vines (1995). Therefore, one cannot challenge Hayes' and Abernathy's position that: "the penalty for shortcomings in education and training is severe: a regression of a nation's international competitiveness" (in Go 1993: 284).

In relation to the relevance to *total quality* and productivity in the hotel industry, Stewart and Johns (1996) further argue that the learning, growth and development of people is a fundamental requirement for a flexible, efficient, innovative and creative workforce. They note that a conspicuous feature of most high-involvement organisations is the strong level of commitment to training. Thus, intellectual capital is critical. Holland (1995), commenting on the consequence of this at a macro level warns: "we are likely to have only information rich or information poor countries"(Holland 1995: 190). This suggests a shift away from traditional practices of treating human capital as a cost rather than an asset.

(c) Technological changes

One of the hallmarks of the 20th century has been the rapid advance of technology, a factor that has contributed greatly to the volume of international travel. On the supply side, technological advancement can be advantageous as technology is used to improve productivity and quality of service to the customer (see Zeithmal, Prasuraman & Perry 1990). However, from a training and education point of view, there is a challenge to constantly upgrade workplace skills to keep pace with the technological changes. This is not a simple task.

The need for continuous learning presupposes the need to adopt the Total Quality Management (TQM) principle of continuous improvement (Nankervis, Compton and McCarthy 1996). Well trained, flexible, and easily adaptable staff become a necessary asset that will enable an organisation to harness the advantages of modern technology in order to gain competitive advantage.

(d) The Changing consumer

The wide dissemination of leading-edge technology has wider implications. On the demand side, it means that the modern consumer is more informed about the range of available goods and services. This relatively more informed tourist, empowered with a vast amount of knowledge (e.g. from the internet), is more demanding and hence more difficult to satisfy (WTO 1994). Moreover, this more informed consumer with more information at his or her disposal has a wider variety of choices. Thus, destinations or organisations that cannot deliver services and products that meet the consumer's expectations can easily be eliminated from the consumer's choice set.

Changing consumer profiles are also the result of social changes such as an increase in the share of women in workforce, an increase in non-nuclear households, and an ageing population (Adelman et al 1994, Watson 1996, WTO 1994, Kotler *et al* 1997). Some of the of the consumer demands brought about by such trends have to be met during the service encounter. This calls for a need to adapt continuously the way products are designed, presented and delivered to the customer. This objective can only be achieved through a creative, innovative and responsive workforce. Producing such a workforce should then be the main objective of an effective and responsive tourism training and education system.

(e) Growth of the service sector economies

The service sector, of which tourism is part, has become more important than manufacturing as the world economy as been transformed (Taylor 1992; Zeithmal et al 1990, Watson 1996). For some countries this may imply a paradigm shift from an exclusive focus on manufacturing as a means of achieving economic growth. Tourism, as a service industry presents great opportunities for some developing countries, and particularly those with a weak industrial base. The tourism industry's most important resource is the human resource. It needs to be developed, as it will affect almost all other areas of tourism development and management.

(f) Growth of multiculturalism

Multiculturalism has become an increasingly important influence on human resource management. Employees have to deal with diversity at two levels: a culturally diverse clientele and a culturally diverse workplace. Such employees need to be trained in

handling diversity and culturally based conflict resolution. Employees have to learn to handle clients from other cultures, and thus challenge and modify their own stereotypes. Cross-cultural communication is necessary in international negotiations and customer handling.

Go (1993) has observed that in the light of growth of multiculturalism, tourism occupies a unique position of being one of "society's cultural brokers" (Go 1993: 288). He argues that at the *in situ* interface with a culturally diverse guest, the employee has the opportunity to bring the world together. This emphasises the need for tourism professionals to acquire effective intercultural communication skills in. Jafari (1993) has described this as "cosmopolitanism" (an ability to understand diverse cultures). Furthermore, Jafari argues that cosmopolitanism goes beyond just learning a foreign language. As Jafari concludes, human resource development is one of the biggest challenges being faced by the industry today.

Theuns and Rasheed (1983) warn against a purely demand-oriented approach. They note that such an approach to tourism education in developing countries that focuses on the needs and demands of incoming tourists without regard to the local community needs is not very relevant to destinations and is unsustainable.

(g) Sustainable development and environmental concerns

According to the World Commission on Environment and Development (1987) the issues of sustainable development and environmental concerns will impact on the tourism workplace as management and employees require to be continually proactive in assessing the needs of the tourists as well as the host communities. As Hjalager (1996) observes, however, increased environmental awareness can be a driving force for innovation.

Hjalager (1996) argues that tourism industry organisations can use innovations in environmental awareness on the *product, process* and *management* fronts to gain a competitive advantage. Such approaches include initiating products and service production processes that are environment-friendly, and by adopting management strategies that facilitate participation of both staff and local people in environmental conservation and preservation.

Go (1993) also highlights environmental issues as having major geopolitical influences on economic development, citing flexibility, focus and innovation as being qualities characteristic of successful tourism organisations. Both Hjalager's and Go's observations point to the need for a tourism education and training system aimed at developing the repertoire of skills and knowledge required to create and maintain a competitive and yet sustainable tourism industry.

(h) Emergence of new forms of tourism

As environmental concerns have become increasingly important, "other" "alternative" "ecotourism" and other "new forms" of tourism have emerged in the international tourism arena (Poon 1993, WTO 1994). According to Poon (1993) these new forms of tourism (referred to collectively as alternative tourism, or AT) are distinct from conventional mass tourism (CMT) and require more flexible training and education structures to cater for this variability in tourist demand. A term that is often used in relation to Kenya is "ecotourism" (see Olindo 1991, Gakahu and Goode 1992). According to Ceballos-Lascurian (1988) ecotourism is characterised as:

> tourism that involves travelling to relatively undisturbed or uncontaminated natural areas with specific object of studying, admiring and enjoying the scenery and its wild plants and animals, as well as existing cultural aspects (both past and present) found in these areas. (in Weaver 1993 : 457)

Kenya has been cited as an ecotourism destination (Olindo1991, Higgins 1996, Gakahu and Goode 1992). However, as argued by Weaver (1991), a distinction can be made between "circumstantial" and "deliberate" alternative tourism, with a lack of a supportive regulatory environment distinguishing the former from the latter. Circumstantial AT, accordingly, has a superficial appeal, but may merely represent the early or pre-stage of a conventional resort cycle of development. The literature has cited a lack of explicit tourism policy within Kenya (Dieke 1994, Footit 1995), therefore suggesting that the "ecotourism" practised in Kenya is mainly "circumstantial". Furthermore, characteristics of conventional mass tourism are also evident in certain areas (see SWOT analysis).

The overdependence of Kenya's tourism on wildlife as an attraction has been well documented (KWS 1994, JICA/ Kenya 1994, TTI 1996). Traditionally Kenya's tour operators have promoted the "big five" game viewing safaris (lion, elephant, rhino,

leopard and buffalo), a legacy of big game hunting in the colonial era (see Akama 1996). There is perhaps a need to change the current emphasis on wildlife-based tourism and to encompass greater variety in Kenya's tourism product offering. If this is the case, there will be consequences for education and training needs.

A product diversification strategy could enhance the likelihood that Kenya's tourism will shift from the current mixture of CMT and "circumstantial" AT to more "deliberate" AT based upon ecotourism. It is argued in the current study that such an objective can be facilitated, in part, through skills enhancement in the tour operations sector. As will be discussed further, this is the sector that is responsible for designing the inclusive tour products, or tour packages.

There is a growing necessity for tourism industry organisations and destinations to appraise regularly workplace skills and competences as part of their strategic planning efforts aimed at gaining competitive advantage. Training and retraining become critical remedial and development strategies. Universities and colleges that offer tourism courses may need to play a more proactive role by, for example, carrying out research and by providing the skills and knowledge required to compete globally.

Commenting on the roles of various parties in human resource development, Jafari (1993) notes that trade associations, industry, government and education institutions ought to be partners in human resources development. This is because, as the former Secretary General of the World Tourism Organisation (WTO) has reiterated there is no area more important than improving the professionalism of men and women working in tourism (Savignac 1992). Thus, success in tourism training and education as a means of enhancing professionalism is perhaps the key to success in other areas of tourism development.

One of the objectives of the present study was to evaluate the extent to which the industry and education providers realise the impacts of these global trends. This is necessary in an attempt to evaluate the most appropriate training and education output. However, it is noted that the TEDQUAL pilot study (from which such an approach is adopted) incorporated other items that may differ from the items previously discussed. Some of the trends in the former are not necessarily relevant to

the level of the industry and the tourism systems under study as they were meant to cover the entire range of tourism occupations and regions and so have been omitted from the survey instrument which is displayed.

In view of time constraint, current study has more emphasis on determining quality gaps in the training and education rather than in attempting to examine every issue. In addition, as this is the only opportunity to obtain primary data from employers, some new items that are destination specific have been included.

Chapter 4

Tourism and Tourism Education in Sub-Saharan Africa

4.1 Socio-economic state of Sub-Saharan Africa and scale of international tourism

Sub-Saharan Africa is defined for the purposes of this study as comprising the countries of Western, Eastern, Central and Southern Africa (Figure 4.1). According to De Blij and Muller (1992), though the Saharan boundary is not sharp; culture, language, religion change across a wide transition zone, but "the Africa of Algeria and Egypt stands worlds apart from Africa of Nigeria and [Democratic Republic of Congo]" (1992:391).

As both Ankomah (1991) and Dieke (1994) have stated, tourism in sub-Saharan Africa exhibits many features common to most developing countries. Some of the present economic problems, they observe, are a legacy of the region's colonial past. Lea (1988), for example, makes particular note of the existing trade arrangements, where these developing nations have maintained trade links established by their colonial rulers. This trade structure, according to English (1986), is such that the exports of these poor countries tend to be dominated by few primary commodities (often with no value added) with volatile price and supply conditions. The outcome of this scenario is a chronic trade imbalance favouring the northern industrialised countries of Europe and North America.

Similarly, the linkage to the colonial past has had the effect of determining tourism source markets. Inbound tourism traffic into the region continues to be dominated by tourists from European source markets such as Britain, Germany, France, and Italy (TTI 1996, Akama 1996). This, together with the effects of the cold war and its aftermath, poses an inherent danger of demand shifts whenever there are any economic changes in these countries. The current dependency situation has been likened to the "proverbial putting all one's eggs in one basket" (Dieke 1994: 54)

As Dieke (1994) has observed, however, some of the problems of sub-Saharan Africa, are due to mismanagement. As a result of this and the above noted structural

characteristics, poverty is ubiquitous in this part of the world. Consequently, sub-Saharan Africa has seen some of the worst civil violence and political unrest of recent times (TTI 1996). Furthermore, the region is characterised by high population growth, severe unemployment, shortages of convertible currencies and, in some cases, high levels of corruption (Dieke 1994).

As a result of the prevailing socio-economic conditions, pressure is being exerted upon most of the sub-Saharan countries by the donor community to implement major economic and political reforms. The reforms are carried out under the supervision of World Bank and International Monetary Fund--IMF (Dieke 1994, Unpublished; Waters 1996; Mowforth & Munt 1997: 293). Accordingly, Kenya is undertaking economic and political measures collectively known as the Structural Adjustment Programs (SAPs).

Under these SAPs, the government is supposed to effect, among other things: devaluation and liberalisation of the money markets, elimination of subsidies and liberalisation of trade (Dieke 1994, JICA/MOTW 1995). In essence, these measures are meant to lessen state involvement in business while allowing greater prominence of market forces.

Ideally, in such a liberalised economic environment, the market demand and supply forces have greater impact upon individual tourism enterprises. The current study proposes that such enterprises could, among other strategies, pursue improvement of skills and levels of competence of their workforces as a means to improve productivity and competitiveness.

4.2 Tourism, a viable alternative

Tourism has the capacity to make a major contribution to the beleaguered economies of sub-Saharan Africa. However, tourism, as evidenced in various countries of the region, has considerable disadvantages, particularly with respect to economic overdependence and the social-cultural and environmental impacts (Mathieson and Wall 1982, English 1986, Lea 1988, Harrison 1992). In this respect, however, the problems associated with tourism, as with other industries, could be mitigated through sound policy and appropriate management practices (see McKercher 1993).

The problems of sub-Saharan Africa mask its vast economic potential. Although the region is relatively underdeveloped, in an economic sense, it has great tourism potential, including many pristine natural scenic areas, tropical climatic conditions and cultural diversity (TTI 1996). In addition, tourism may be regarded as a high priority economic sector compared to manufacturing and agriculture, which are the two main alternatives, for the following reasons:

- Stiffer competition and protectionism in international trade in manufactured goods;
- Lack of infrastructure and skilled labour suitable for the establishment of sophisticated large-scale industrial areas;
- Inability of local demand for manufactured goods to support indigenous industries in the import substitution endeavours pursued by many of these nations;
- Volatile demand for agricultural products (e.g. coffee and tea;)
- Lack of stable markets for agricultural products (e.g. cotton, sisal, coffee;)
- Susceptibility of the latter to fluctuations in weather; and
- Tourism's ability to create much needed jobs and incomes relatively faster than the alternative sectors (Jafari & Fayos-Sola 1997; Ankomah 1991, Hudman et al 1989).

It is in light of the above background that tourism is seen by many of the sub-Saharan countries as a viable option or even panacea. Indeed, as Ankomah reiterates, "there is an urgent need for the sub-Saharan African countries to broaden the foreign exchange resource base in order to alleviate the prevailing harsh human conditions and lessen the balance of payment problems that have stifled economic growth" (1991 p. 434). To put the foregoing arguments in perspective, a discussion of the flow of tourism to the region follows.

4.3 Inequitable distribution

Despite its wealth of tourism resources, and the fact that there is a viable argument for reliance on tourism for rapid economic growth, the sub-Saharan region still lies at the periphery of the major tourist receiving regions. The inequitable distribution of international tourism flow is evident when one examines recent world arrival figures.

Table 4.1 International Tourist Arrival Trends in Regional Market Share 1980 and 1998

REGION	1980 %	1998 %	CHANGE
EUROPE	65.80	60.0	-8.8 ↓
AMERICAS	21.43	19.2	-1.0 ↓
MIDDLE EAST & SOUTH ASIA*	2.89	3.2	0.3 ↑
EAST ASIA & PACIFIC	7.31	13.7	6.39 ↑
AFRICA	2.56	3.9	1.34 ↑

* Egypt is included the Middle East region
Source: WTO 1997b p.8, WTO www.world-tourism.org/pressrel/Tab01

Table 4.2 International Tourist Arrivals and Receipts

REGION	1998 Arrivals (000)	% Change 97/98	1998 Receipts (US $ million)	CHANGE % Change 97/98
WORLD	636, 676	3.2	439,938	0.3
EUROPE	381,9390	3.1	229,649	3.5
AMERICAS	122,027	3.1	120,697	1.2
MIDDLE EAST	15,314	7.4	8,716	5.1
SOUTH ASIA	5,190	7.4	4,382	2.5
EAST ASIA/PACIFIC	87,183	-1.2	87,183	-10.5
AFRICA	25,023	6.8	10,011	5.7

Source: WTO www.world-tourism.org/pressrel/Tab01 & Tab02

Tables 4.1 and 4.2 show the comparative tourism performance in the six WTO regions. Table 4.1 shows that Africa received only 3.9% of the total world figure of 636 million international tourist arrivals in 1998. Similarly, out of a total of about US $440 billion in international tourism receipts, the continent received just $10 billion or 2.2%. These figures illustrate quite an inequitable distribution of international tourism. Furthermore, the sub-Saharan region alone accounts for over 9% of world population and yet barely receives 1% of international arrivals (Weaver and Elliot 1996).

Ankomah and Crompton (1990) and Teye (1988) have outlined possible reasons for the poor relative performance of sub-Saharan African region. These can be grouped into five major sets of factors:

- Negative public image within major tourist markets;
- Foreign image constraints which impede provision of tourism-related infrastructure;
- **Skilled labour shortages**, which foster reliance on foreign workers in crucial managerial and technical positions;
- Weak institutional frameworks for tourism planning; and
- Chronic political instability although this is not, as has often been generalised, a trait of the entire region.

It is also worth noting that, whereas other world regions such as South East Asia have a high amount of intraregional tourism, much of international tourism in sub-Saharan Africa is interregional and so is more vulnerable to exogenous factors. Thus, there is, as Dieke (Unpublished) has suggested, a need to strengthen regional tourism in Africa. However, the problem of small internal markets remains one of the major constraints.

Given the expectations regarding the potential role of tourism in regional development, the Economic Commission for Africa has established, as one of its policy objectives, the improvement of *technical training* for African staff. According to Dieke (unpublished) such training should be able to develop staff who are able to create African tourist circuits and enhance regional cooperation to ensure efficient utilisation of the continent's vast tourism resources. However, the problem of lack of skills (both in a quantitative and qualitative sense) has to be overcome if the region is to realise its full international tourism potential.

4.4 Skilled labour problem

As has been mentioned in previous discussions, tourism's contribution to the economy depends on, among other factors, the available human resource. The skilled human resource shortage remains one of the major constraints for tourism development in the region. Many of the sub-Saharan countries have adopted various approaches in a bid to alleviate the skilled labour shortage:

- *Management contracts*: to gain access to the source markets and benefit from importation of skills. These, according to Ankomah, have failed because there is, for example, no schedule as to when trained locals should take up positions currently occupied by expatriates.
- *Training personnel abroad.* Those trained abroad have, in some cases, remained overseas after completion of their studies.
- *Local training of tourism personnel.* He lists Kenya Utalii College (in Kenya), African Wildlife Management in Mweka (in Tanzania) and Wildlife Specialist Training School (in Garou Cameroon) as some of the examples of such initiatives. A major limitation of this strategy, he observes, is a lack of proper industry/college corporation in setting up curricula. In addition, Ankomah (1991) notes that the training programs in place were originally set up by agencies of foreign governments which funded the colleges and wonders whether these institutions have evolved according to the changing needs of this dynamic industry). It is also possible that at inception of these institutions, the programs were less demand-oriented.

As Ankomah argues, any long-term tourism [human resource] development strategy requires the creation of *domestic capacity* by training nationals, both locally and abroad. This will eliminate dependence on external sources, a situation that leads to leakage of the much needed tourism revenue. In addition, Lock and Merrick (1992), referring to tourism training facilities and institutional framework in South Pacific, question the ability of tourism training initiatives dependent on "technical advice" and support from the donor community to develop independence and self-reliance (cited in King 1996). These arguments obviate the necessity for local need driven tourism training and education initiatives aimed at creating the optimal quantity and quality skilled workforce. Such a workforce in tourism's vital component sectors is arguably

a key to gaining competitive advantage. This is an important rationale underlying the current study. Having looked at the broad context of sub-Saharan Africa, attention is now focused on tourism in Kenya.

4.5 Tourism in Kenya

Tourism and the economy

As was outlined in the introductory chapter, tourism's contribution to GDP (11%) comes third after agriculture and manufacturing. However, agriculture still experiences many difficulties due to poor management and frequent droughts as was observed by De Blij and Muller (1992). Furthermore, as is the case in many countries of the region, much of the agriculture that is practised in Kenya is predominantly subsistence (De Blij & Muller 1992, Akama 1996).

Within the sub-Saharan region the 11% contribution that tourism makes to GDP in Kenya is only exceeded by Gambia. Tourism also accounts for 34% of foreign exchange earnings (Weaver 1998). Given the prevailing conditions in the agricultural sector, and a very low level of industrialisation (manufacturing sector is dominated by consumer goods for the domestic market), the case for tourism as a means for rapid economic growth is strengthened.

Over 170,000 people are believed to be employed directly in the tourism industry with another about 340,000 engaged in indirect employment (Sindiga 1996). This represents 11% of the modern wage earning population or 1.69% of the total labour force (ages 15-64 and working or searching for jobs) of about 10 million (Sindiga 1996). Rough estimates of unemployment indicate that in 1993 unemployment was somewhere between 17.8% and 23.6% (Kenya 1994). More recent estimates have put the figure at 35% (1997 est.) (CIA factbook 1998).

Over the period 1984-1993 modern wage sector employment grew at a compound rate of 3.12% (JICA/MOTW 1995). The corresponding growth rate in tourism sector employment was 4.05%, 0.93% above the overall modern sector job creation trend. This provides a strong argument in favour of tourism given its labour intensivity and its effectiveness in creating jobs.

According to de Kadt (1979) one direct job in Kenya generates three indirect jobs, revealing the possibility of impacts well in excess of those stated by Sindiga (1996). It is worth noting, however, that there is variability of tourism-related statistics. In particular, as Green (1979) pointed out, there is some amount of unreliability in the figures on creation of employment (in Sindiga 1994). The inaccuracies and discrepancies notwithstanding, tourism is perhaps the single most important sector in terms of job creation in the country.

Early beginnings

In some respect Kenya's tourism industry is one of the success stories within sub-Saharan Africa (Dieke 1991, 1993, Sinclair 1991, 1992). The history of tourism in Kenya dates back to the late 1940s and early 1950s, when a number of national parks were created partly to serve as aesthetic areas for the benefit of the ruling colonial elite (Ouma 1982, KWS 1993, Nyeki 1992 Akama 1996, Weaver 1997). This was followed a brief period of co-operation in the "near region" of East Africa fostered, through the East African Tourist Travel Association (EATTA), a largely promotional body formed in 1948 (Ouma 1982). This cooperation lasted until 1965 when the latter was wound up.

Having realised the importance of tourism, the government established a fully fledged ministry in charge of tourism, the Ministry of Tourism and Wildlife (MOTW) in 1966. Lasting until 1977, this ushered in a short period of yet another form of regional co-operation through the now defunct East African Community. A major development in late 60s and the 70s was the formation of various institutions charged with various responsibilities in the administration of tourism. However, a major landmark in the history of tourism in the 70s was the government's ban on hunting in May 1977 (Musili 1992: 5). This ensured the protection of wildlife, which is Kenya's most important tourism attraction.

The foregoing brief historical account lends credence to Olindo's (1991) reference to Kenya as the "old man of nature tourism." In this sense, Kenya's tourism industry could be classified as "developed," at least in a regional context (Dieke 1993, Weaver 1998). One of the features that characterises this development is a strong tradition of private sector initiative (Dieke 1991: 270). The interests of this private sector are represented by various trade organisations. Kenya Association of Tour Operators (KATO), for example, represents the interests of the local tour operators. A strong and united private sector, it is argued here, can be capitalised on in any tourism training and education initiative.

This "coming of age" of Kenya as a tourism destination, however, could be problematic if viewed in the light of Butler's tourism development cycle (1980). In Butler's classification, the recent downturn in Kenya's tourism, as indicated in the trends analysis could possibly be symptomatic of maturation of current beach and wildlife tourism product, a situation that might call for an alternative strategy such as repositioning.

Another important observation that emerges from the brief historical account is the fact that an opportunity exists for regional co-operation, at least in the "near region" of East Africa (Weaver 1998). Both these arguments rationalise the focus on skills development in the industry as a vital ingredient in Kenya's bid to position or reposition itself in the international tourism marketplace. Further, it is the position of this study that the inbound tour operations sector has a crucial role in achieving such goals.

Chapter 5

Tourism and Tourism Education in Kenya

5.1 Tourism trends

In terms of international tourist arrivals and international receipts there has generally been an upward trend since the early 1980s. Table 5.1 provides the arrivals and receipts over the period 1984-1996.

Table 5.1: International Tourist Arrivals and Receipts in Kenya 1984-1996

Year	Arrivals '000	% Change on previous year	Receipts US $ million
1984	453	36	192.6
1985	541	19.4	256.7
1986	604	11.6	304.3
1987	649	8	354.9
1988	682	5.1	393.3
1989	730	7	420.0
1990	761	4.2	465.2
1991	822	8	432.6
1992	798	-2.9	442.6
1993	675	-15.4	413.4
1994	870	28.9	506.8
1995	688	-20.9	381.0
1996	728	5.8	472.0

Sources: International Tourism Reports No. 4 1996 p.53, Gakahu and Goode 1992 p.75, KWS 1994, WTO 1997

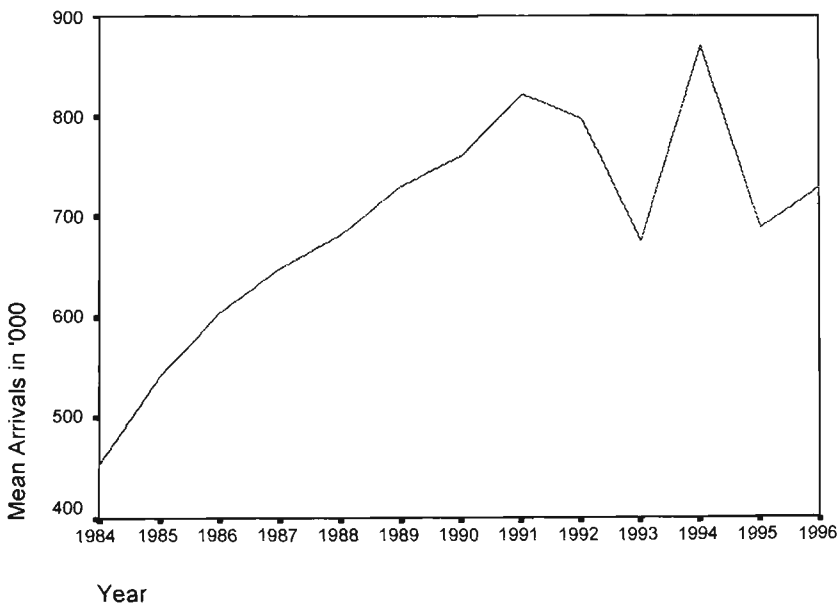

Figure 5.2 International tourist arrivals trend 1984-1996

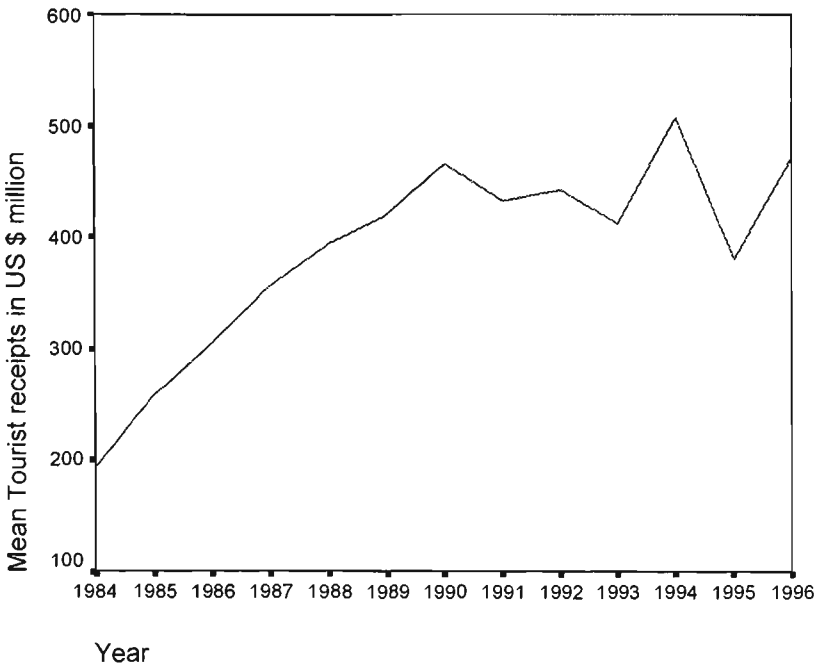

Figure 5.3: International tourist receipts trend 1984-1996

Tourist arrivals rose steadily from 1984 to 1991, a period that can be seen as the boom period for Kenya's tourism business (Figure 5.2). Then followed the downturn in international arrivals in 1992/93 that was caused by the effects of the Gulf War. Total industry revenues, on the other hand, increased from around US$250 million per annum during the mid-1980s to over US$500 million in 1994 (Figure 5.3). Other trends recorded elsewhere indicate that:

- Hotel occupancies have fallen from over 60% during the 1980s to less than 45% in 1996 and 1997;
- The average length of stay have declined from 16 days in the 1980s to 13 days in 1996; and
- Non-traditional markets such as India, Spain and Ireland have shown significant growth, but account for only a small proportion of total arrivals (IEA 1999).

More recent figures indicate some recovery, but these have been excluded from the trend analysis for lack of consistency. The Annual Reports, for example, record the 1million tourist arrivals mark as having been reached in 1994 (WTO 2000).

While highlighting Kenya's past success, the analysis of tourism performance shows some signs which could indicate systemic flaws within the sector. The "shocking plunge" in tourism performance between 1994 and 1995 and subsequent low performance of the industry is clear evidence of weaknesses that must be addressed if Kenya hopes maintain its lead in the region (E. A. Standard 4/6/96). Moreover, this decline has not been attributed to any exogenous factor. A low arrivals figure causes concern when seen in light of the government's tourism development objectives, which in the past 30 years or so have been geared towards an increase in tourist numbers as outlined in the next section. The decline has had a large ripple effect across the entire national economy, given tourism's substantial direct and indirect contribution. An assessment of tourism training and education and its relation with product quality is overdue.

Quality training and education can facilitate two things, namely to mould an industry run by professionals able to take contingency measures to avoid such huge downturns, and to create a resilient workforce that enables the industry to recover quickly in the event of a decline. Such modern tourism professionals will be equipped with, among other things: basic knowledge; abilities to communicate, to adapt, to reason and to make decisions (WTO 1995). Tourism training and education stands out as one of the most important tourism development policy issues.

5.2 Tourism development planning and policy

Since independence, tourism development planning and policy have been directed either by "sessional papers" (draft government documents that spell out policy guidelines) or within the broad scope of national development plans (NDP) as shown in Table 5.2. Although this approach has had its successes, the need for clearer and more explicit broad based tourism development policy objectives has been expressed (Dieke 1991 1994, Footit 1995).

The lack of definitive policy on the social impacts of tourism has also been raised as a possible deficiency (Akama 1996). As a result of this apparent lack of clear policy, tourism development has been somewhat unregulated and, to a great extent uncoordinated. It is only recently that the Ministry of Tourism and Wildlife (MOTW), jointly with Japan International Cooperation Agency, has produced a tourism master plan (MOTW/JICA 1995).

Table 5.2 Tourism development policies 1969-1996

Year	Performance targets	Target market
Sessional Paper No.8 1969	20% yearly increase	• Mass tourism • Conference tourism • Long-term and retirement tourists
Development Plan: 1979-1983	508,000 foreign visitors in 1983	• Established markets*** • Growing markets** • New markets*
Development Plan: 1984-1988 Sessional Paper No. 1 1986	Million bed-nights in 1988	• Low season visitors • American market
Development Plan: 1989-1993	1, 183, 000 foreign tourists in 1993	• Less package tours • Domestic tourism
Development Plan: 1994-1996	907,000 foreign tourists in 1996	• Ecotourism • Upmarket tourists

*** North America, UK
** Germany, France, Italy Holland
* Australia, Japan , Middle East, Spain
Source: Kenya/JICA 1994 p. 6

Another important observation is that in the past tourism policy has focused exclusively on marketing, akin to what Faulkner has described as "advertising fundamentalism" (1991: 2), or a preoccupation with short-term marketing objectives. Though government participation has been impressive, particularly in the conservation of the natural resource base of tourism, there is need for stronger intervention to ensure that industry practices are sustainable and in the long-term interests of society as a whole.

5.3 Role of government and public education providers

As argued in chapter two, and as Olesen and Schettini (1994) have noted, there are various constraints for industry supported education provision, particularly in the development of general skills. Publicly funded institutions have the capacity to bridge the skills gap and incorporate a broader perspective that can deliver the pool of skills required to meet the needs of a dynamic industry such as tourism. A national tourism training and education initiative would probably work best with the support of such institutions backed by the will and policy framework of the government. Such an initiative should, however, take into account various other stakeholders such as industry trade and professional bodies. Similar approaches have been reported in the literature (e.g. Westlake 1997, Collins *et al* 1994, Olesen and Schettini 1994, Brogan 1994, Walsh 1993). Caution has to be taken so that models are applied taking due account of the nature of the local tourism institutions.

Henry and Jenkins have argued that strong government involvement is vital in developing countries where there is a likelihood of the "absence of strong tourism-experienced private sector" (1982: 499). Although there is a strong private sector in Kenya's case, it is only the government that has the resources and the capacity to ensure appropriate human resource development in the industry as a long-term objective. This and other tourism planning and policy issues become more apparent when one undertakes the SWOT analysis for the tourism industry in Kenya.

5.4 SWOT analysis of Kenya's tourism

This modified SWOT analysis of Kenya's tourism has been adapted from various sources (Mathieson and Wall 1982, Nyeki 1991, Gakahu and Goode 1992, TTI 1996, Mowforth and Munt 1997, KWS unpublished, JICA/Kenya 1995, E. A Standard 12/9/95).

Table 5.3 SWOT analysis of Kenya's tourism

Strengths	*Weaknesses*
• Diversity of potential tourism resources • A long established image of safari • Price competitiveness • Relative political stability • Indistinct seasonality • Lower language barrier (English is the official language)	• **Overdependence on European markets** • Poor tourism infrastructure • Insufficient promotion • Security problems • Poor linkages of tourism • **Lack of new product innovation** • Environmental deterioration in parks • Negative social impacts of tourism • Lack clearly defined tourism policy • **Lack of skilled labour**
Opportunities	*Threats*
• **Increased environmental awareness in source markets** • **Changing market profile (ecotourists, cultural tourists, rural tourists etc)** • Emergence of new markets (Asia, E. Europe)	• International tourism investors and operators are investing elsewhere • **Increasing competition** • Instability in neighbouring countries

Bold= Have direct impact on training and education
Sources: adapted from various sources

Other than a lack of skilled labour (which is central to the current study) one of the other weaknesses that need particular mention is the problem of overdependence on few source markets.

Because of the historical ties with her old European rulers, Kenya has continued to enjoy high visitor numbers from Western Europe. In 1995, for example, the country received 401,000 tourist from Europe alone, which represents over 44.5 % of the total arrivals recorded in 1995 (see table 5.3), and out of this 92.3% came from eight countries only.

Table 5.4: European Arrivals in Kenya 1990 and 1994/95 ('000)

Country	1990	1994	1995	% 1995 Arrivals from Europe	All arrivals
UK	122.9	129.5	116.1	28.9	12.9
Germany	150.7	132.3	108.7	27.1	12.1
Italy	41.0	55.0	34.7	8.7	3.8
France	45.5	49.4	33.2	8.3	3.7
Switzerland	37.6	30.2	26.6	6.6	2.9
Sweden	na	Na	24.5	6.1	2.7
Austria	na	Na	13.9	3.5	1.5
Netherlands	na	Na	12.5	3.1	1.4
Total	397.7	396.4	370.2	92.3	41.0
Other Europe	79.1	79.1	30.9	7.7	3.5
Total Europe	476.8	475.5	401.1	100.0	44.5

Source: Travel & Tourism Intelligence (1996) p 60 (modified)

As seen in Section 3.2, overdependence brings with it the risk of vulnerability to any demand shifts in the few source markets. Moreover, there is a need to capture "new" or emerging markets. These new markets present the opportunity to diversify and increase the country's international tourism market share. Arguably, overdependence; a lack of new product innovation; a shortage of skilled labour; and an increase in competition, all point to the necessity of establishing a responsive tourism training an education system. The aim of such a system is to produce and maintain a creative and innovative workforce.

There are various propositions for improvement of tourism training and education in Kenya within the context of the Tourism Master Plan (MOTW/JICA 1995). The Master Plan proposes, among other things, the establishment of an organisation to set up standards for training, skill testing and certification; and the expansion of training capacity. These are certainly positive steps. However, care has to be taken so that there is some amount of balance between the demand and supply. In addition, a more qualitative approach that seeks to optimise output without unnecessarily increasing the numbers and physical sizes of institutions may be appropriate. Such an approach may include such measures as enhancing the teaching methods used in existing institutions. Exact forms of reform can more effectively be carried out within a framework of an integrated national tourism training and education strategy involving various stakeholders.

Chapter 6

The Inbound Tour Operations Sector and its Training Needs in Kenya

6.1 Tourism Distribution channels

Following the systems perspective referred to in the introductory chapter, and Sessa's (1987) analysis of systems, the distribution system (Figure 6.1) can be identified as a unit or component of the inbound tourism system. From a marketing standpoint, this system is made of linkages that exist between the destination, the suppliers and the intermediaries involved in the marketing and the distribution of the tourism product (Mill & Morrison 1985).

According to McIntosch and Goeldner (1990), the channels of distribution created within the distribution system serve two broad purposes. The first one is to present the message about the product to the customer. The intermediaries involved such as travel agents are outlets for information about, for example, hotels and specific attractions such as parks, which enable the potential tourist to make travel decisions.

The second purpose is booking, confirmation and co-ordination of services such as accommodation and transport once the tourist has decided to travel. Because of the long distances between the destination and the generating region, intermediaries play a critical role in linking the client or customer to the supply. The overseas travel agent (in the case of Kenya as a TDR) located, say in Melbourne may link up a tourist from Melbourne to the suppliers in Kenya and act as an agent for a tour operator in Kenya by selling the tour on his /her (tour operator's) behalf. This case suggests an indirect sale, as there is a middleman between the principle (tour operator in the case of a package) and the client.

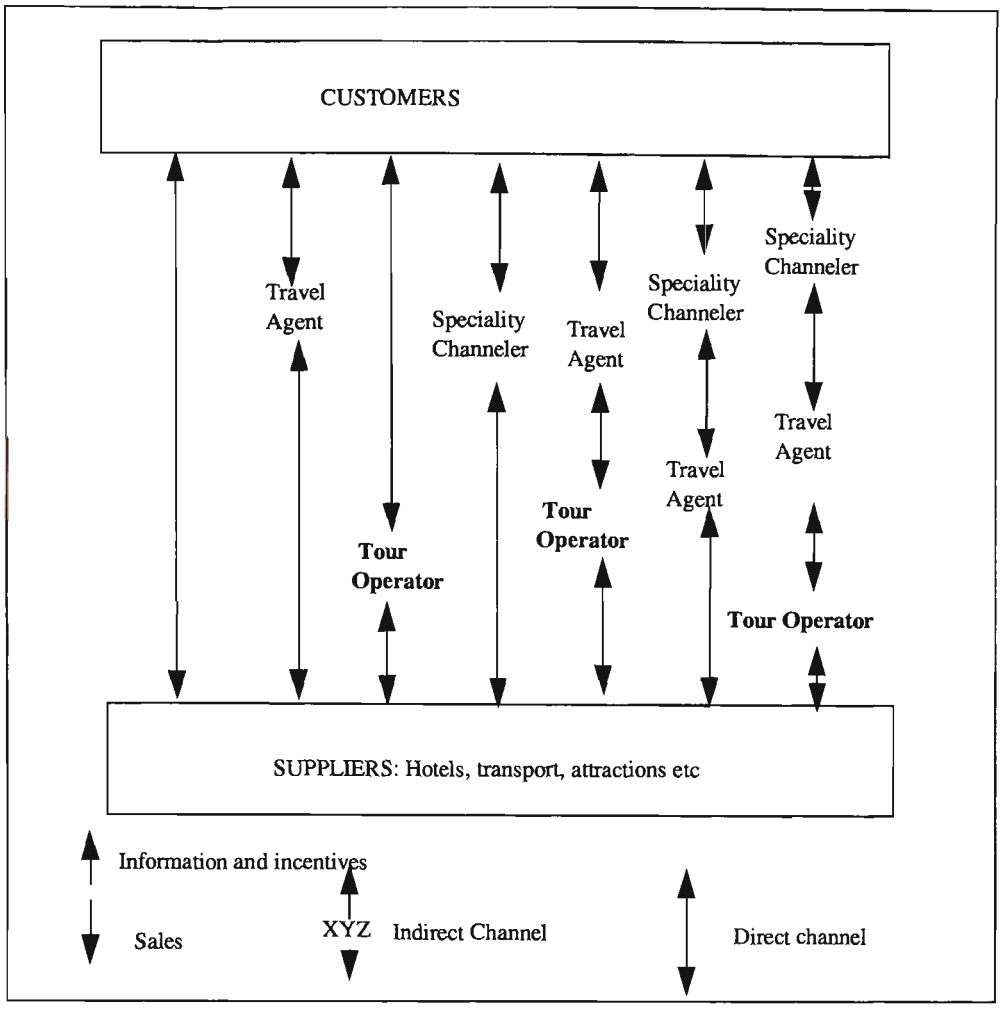

Figure 6.1 Tourism Distribution Channels
Source: McIntosh and Goeldner 1990 p. 40

Direct channels also exist where the prospective tourist decides to deal directly with hotels and other ground suppliers in Kenya and makes all her/his bookings. This is rare in long-haul tours and when this happens the client forgoes the technical expertise and destination knowledge of the tour operator. Looking at the Figure 6.1 one can see the prominence of the tour operator as an important component of the distribution system. The next section clarifies the roles of various intermediaries involved in the *inbound tourism systems*.

6.2 How Group tour business works

There are problems with definitions of terms in tourism associated with its being a relatively young industry and field of study. In a detailed discussion of this subject, Hunt and Layne (1991) note that the terms "tourism" and "travel" are often used synonymously, and yet they do not mean the same thing. There are both academic and technical implications of such a lack of understanding.

Fay illustrates this anecdotally:

> " When I chose to teach a course focusing on the Tour Industry (called Group Travel and Escorting) I sought a textbook which was on the cutting edge of the Tour Industry Education. Unfortunately I found no such a book. Having come directly to education from working with a tour operator, and before that serving as general manager for an individual and group attraction, I felt I had what it took to deliver up to date, challenging information about Tour Management. What I found was several books focusing on tour operations, Escorting and Marketing... I found the available texts to be written mostly by world travelling escorts and, therefore, they were more focused on how to escort a group through Europe than on how to actually operate a tour or how to manage a tour company. Still others were written as if the only tour operators out there were travel agents (1992 :xi).

Fay raises a number of issues concerning tour operations that need close attention:

- The body of knowledge in the tour operations sub-sector of the industry is limited;
- Certain components of tour operations (e.g. tour guiding) are often assumed to embrace the whole concept of tour operations, and;
- The roles of the tour operator and travel agent are often confused.

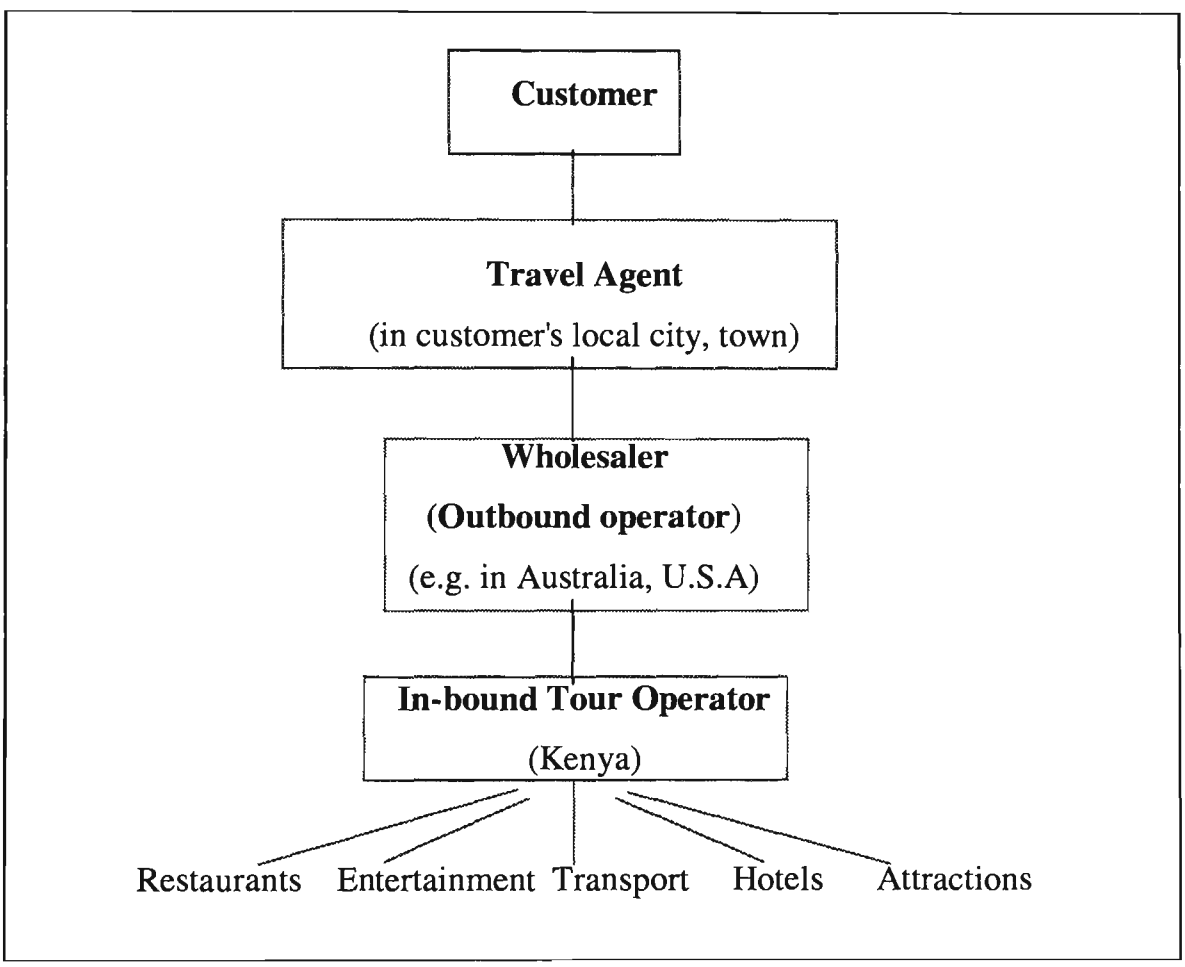

Figure 6.2: How group tour businesses works
Source: de Souto1993 p.17

Given this terminological confusion, it is necessary to explain the relevant concepts and the context in which they are used (Leiper 1995). This is best done by explaining how the tour business works with particular reference to inbound tourism systems.

From a technical perspective, de Souto (1993) uses a three scenario model to explain how [group] tour businesses work. In the first scenario (Figure 6.2) the potential tourist wanting to take a holiday goes to the local travel agent. The travel agent, acting as a broker, proposes one of the tours in a tour wholesaler's brochure (travel agents stock lots of them from different wholesalers). Such a wholesaler (outbound or outgoing operator), on the other hand, may specialise in various destinations (Yale 1995). The wholesaler will have contracts with various inbound tour operators who provide ground services at the destinations such as transfers, guide services and the vehicles for safari (in the case of Kenya). This is the most common scenario in the Kenyan case because of the marketing advantage that it presents to local operators and the fact that Kenya is a long-haul destination.

The wholesalers may have contracts with the hotels and other suppliers directly or they may simply book the entire tour (ground arrangements) with the inbound tour operators. The latter in this case has specific contractual agreements with the local suppliers with which he/she books the component services and to whom payments are made at scheduled times. The inbound tour operator (ITO) acts as the ground agent of the overseas tour operator. In this respect, the term receptive service operator (RSO) is often used interchangeablly with ITO (de Souto 1993). Such an arrangement is beneficial to the outbound tour operators (wholesalers) as it eliminates the burden of establishing offices in the various destinations.

The subject of contractual relationships that exist between Kenyan inbound tour operators and their outbound counterparts overseas has been covered in the literature (English 1987; Sinclair 1991, 1992; Sinclair & Dieke 1992). Sinclair (1991), for example, points to the high leakage of foreign exchange earnings associated with contracts that seemingly favour outbound operators overseas. It is however, important to recognise that there are marketing advantages (from the destination's perspective) of having overseas tour operators and agents to sell products as depicted in this scenario.

The second scenario occurs where there is no tour wholesaler or outbound tour operator overseas. The inbound tour operator accesses the market and sells tour products through travel agents.

In the third scenario there is no travel agent overseas and the customer books the tour directly with the ITO in Kenya. This could happen through a sales representative at the TGR or even through the internet. Such a scenario eliminates the possibility of restriction of flow of information to potential customers by travel agents and outbound tour operators. This is why it is important to have an appropriately skilled ITO workforce that is able to use direct channels effectively.

Importantly, in all three scenarios as outlined here the inbound tour operator component plays a critical role. It is the employees of the latter who will make contacts with host community, businesses, and the host government.

From the foregoing discussion it can be concluded that:

- In the tour business the tour operator is indispensable;
- The ITO plays a particularly significant role in longhaul tour business.

These observations underline the importance of this sector of the tourism industry. Therefore, contrary to Poon's (1993) observation, the likelihood that the role of the tour operators will become obsolete is remote. The upsurge of new technologies in the marketing and sales of tour products only presents opportunities for innovation and creativity in tour the business. As de Souto observes: "this is the segment of the [tourism] industry responsible for designing and creating exciting [tour] products" (1993: 20). Thus, the rationale for the current focus on this industry sector is established. The particular significance of the inbound tour operator is examined further.

6.3 The inbound tour operations sector

Although the importance of the tour operator in the tourism distribution system has been outlined, it is important to see this significance within the context of tourism in Kenya and, thus, the sub-Saharan region.

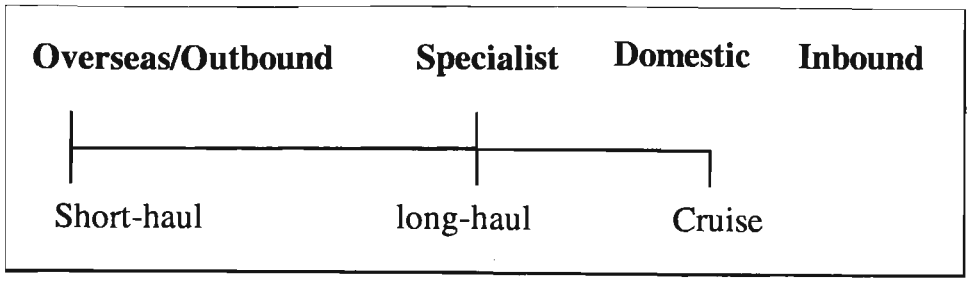

Figure 6.3 Types of tour operators
Source: Adapted from Yale 1995 p. 9

As indicated in Figure 6.3, there are four main types of tour operators. Outbound tour operators are based in the tourist generating countries and offer residents short-haul and long-haul tours and cruises to overseas destinations. The term specialist tour describes tour operators that only specialise in certain niches in the market (e.g. pilgrims, birdwatchers). According to Figure 6.3, both domestic and inbound tour operators offer services within the country of residence. Inbound tour operators are distinguished from domestic tour operators in that they handle tours within the country for international tourists. Almost all Kenyan tour operators fall into this category.

Discussing the role of the tour operator, Sheldon (1986), Leiper (1995) and Higgins (1996) make reference to the fact that there is little research dealing with the inbound operator level of the nature-based tourism industry. Higgins, for example, states that "these tourism enterprises are legally incorporated within the non-industrialised countries and based in key urban areas ... Almost no research has explicitly dealt with this level of the nature tourism industry" (1996: 13). This observation highlights the need for research into the structure and practices within these organisations. This may help create greater understanding of the nature and character of tourism in the non-industrialised countries.

It may be argued that the tour operator business is one of the "purely" tourism industry sectors. Just as there is no tourism without the tourist, there is no tour operations without tourism.

As stated in the introduction the present research focuses on inbound tour operation systems. It is, therefore, important to look at the inbound tour operator in the Kenyan context. First the customers and general functions are outlined and then the specific role that they occupy within the inbound tourism system is examined. Issues of location, size and distribution within the country are also covered. The education and training needs of the sector are then reviewed.

6.4 Customers and functions of an inbound tour operator, a Kenyan context

A survey carried out by JICA and the Ministry of Tourism and Wildlife (Kenya/JICA 1994) showed that 79% of visitors to Kenya in 1994 viewed wildlife as the primary strength of Kenya's tourism. One indication of this importance of wildlife is the allocation of 7.8% of Kenya as protected area (KWS 1994).

As discussed in Chapter 4, Kenya has a long history of nature tourism. In fact, the term "safari," which is now synonymous with a wildlife viewing tour, is the Kiswahili (*lingua franca* in both Kenya and Tanzania) word for "journey". According to Sinclair and Onungo (1992) such tours take on average anywhere from seven to fourteen days. The safari normally includes visits by road to a number of wildlife establishments (parks, reserves and sanctuaries). Accommodation is provided in lodges and tented camps located both within and outside them.

Most of Kenya's tourism may be characterised as nature-based. Other than wildlife, the other major attractions are: climatic conditions, beaches, ocean and a beautiful landscape. The majority of tourists to Kenya travel in all-inclusive tour packages (Sinclair 1991, 1992). The tour is designed, planned and operated on the ground (in Kenya) by a tour operator. The following list outlines the customers and functions of the inbound tour operator:

A. *Customers*

- Tour wholesalers overseas or in other locations (outbound tour operators);
- Retail travel agents;
- Incentive houses;
- Meetings and convention planners; and

- Direct booking clients

B. Specific functions

- Designing the tour and planning itineraries;
- Costing and formulation of quotes;
- Marketing the tour package;
- Documentation;
- Liaison and co-ordination (e.g. booking the components of the tour with suppliers) –this is why the term destination management companies (DMC) is used in the incentive travel literature; and
- Provision of specialised ground services (transfers, safari transportation, "meet and greet" services and guides) (Leiper 1995, Higgins 1996)

Where an outbound tour operator is involved (as is the case with most Kenyan tours: see Akama 1996), the last two functions, at least, are carried out by the inbound tour operator. The greater the number of functions located higher up carried out by the ITO, the greater the control and, in most cases, value added to the local economy. Ultimately this will depend on the capability of the latter, which in turn depends on the competence of the human resource. This is where the level of training and education in this sector plays a critical role. Given the significant role of ITOs, their decisions and actions can greatly impact the tourist destination both economically and socially.

Functionally, there are four fundamental reasons for the existence of inbound tour operators as a vital tourism industry sector in Kenya and equivalent destinations. First, their expert knowledge of the destination and personal contacts and networks (e.g. with hotels, local farms and other attractions) are valuable in the design, construction and operation of package tours. This is the case irrespective of which scenario is applicable as previously discussed. The outbound tour operators draw from these resources, which further suggests that any deficiency within this component will affect relationships within the entire inbound tourism distribution system.

The second reason for their existence is that without ITOs, the wholesalers would have to establish operations offices in the various countries and destinations where they send their clients. High costs are involved in setting up operations abroad. Third, in the co-ordination and liaison role, the ITOs take care of and provide personal attention to the tourists away from home. Finally, they generate volume of sales for the suppliers of the tour components by way of consolidating volume of sales, say from several travel agents and tour operators abroad e.g. in the foreign independent tours (FIT) business. This last point is important, given the government policy objectives of increasing the number of tourists as was outlined in the previous chapter (Section 5.3).

6.5 Inbound tour operators size and distribution Kenya

Table 6.1 Distribution of tour operators in Kenya May 1994

Tourism Region	*District*	*No. of Tour Operators*	*Share %*
CENTRAL	Nakuru	27	1.2
	Laikipia	25	1.1
	Samburu	3	0.1
	Nyeri	10	0.4
	Murang'a	1	0.0
	Kiambu	9	0.4
	Machakos	2	0.1
	Meru	5	0.2
	Isiolo	2	0.1
NAIROBI	Nairobi	1113	49.7
WESTERN	Baringo	3	0.1
	Uasin Gishu	6	0.3
	Trans-Nzoia	7	0.3
	Kericho	1	0.0
	Kisumu	16	0.7
	Kakamega	2	0.1
EASTERN	Taita Taveta	321	14.3
MAASAILAND	Kajiado	10	0.4
	Narok	21	0.9
COAST	Mombasa	489	21.8
	Kwale	66	2.9
	Kilifi	90	4.0
	Lamu	7	0.3
TURKANA	Turkana	2	0.1
TOTALS		2238	100

Source: JICA/Kenya 1995 p.100

Kenyan inbound tour operators are based primarily in Nairobi and Mombasa, the key entry points to Kenya. According to the Tourism Master Plan, as of May 1994 there were over 2238 tour operators in Kenya (JICA/Kenya 1995). It is doubtful whether such a high figure is accurate, particularly as a number of operations are seasonal, only operating in the high season. The Tourism Master Plan estimates that tour operator sizes range from some with 6 staff to others with up to about 500 staff. Table 6.1 shows the spatial distribution of the tour operators among the different tourism regions in Kenya.

A few points should be noted:

- Over 70% of the tour operation businesses are located in Nairobi and Mombasa. This parallels the spatial distribution of tourist accommodation with 25.6% and 50% in the two locations respectively (JICA/Kenya 1995). These are the ones that really have an impact at the moment, given the strategic and advantageous positions of the two cities have as the entry points to Kenya and the major metropolitan centres in Kenya's urban hierarchy.
- Outside of the major urban centres, the rest are distributed in rural areas. This has the desirable effect of diversifying Kenya's tourism product offering, and in macro economic terms, the distribution of wealth. There is an opportunity for such rural operators in the light of the "alternative" tourism options.
- Although the number of tour operators (2238) is rather high, not many of those registered as tour operators actually operate as tour operating businesses. Failure rates are high (author's estimate). A number of visits during the field trip (see Chapter 7), revealed that a few of those listed as tour operators were either non-existent or doing other unrelated businesses.
- Kenya's previously good performance in tourism did attract entrepreneurs from other sectors of the economy. Some of these entrants lacked tourism or even business background of any kind. Tourism is seen as the "big" and "easy" money industry and, as Sheldon (1986) notes, entry into and exit from the tour operations sector is relatively easy. This has an impact on the level of skills and, therefore, the productivity of this particular sector. From a systems perspective, this affects the standard of Kenya's tourism product. Though this impact cannot be ascertained accurately since no relevant research has been done, comments have

been made about the proliferation of tour operators in recent years, a factor that has been linked, in part, to a lack of government regulatory policy (East African 19/9/95).

From the foregoing discussions, it is evident that the tour operator's position in the overall distribution system and, hence, the wider scope of inbound tourism systems is critical. Suffice to say that the tour operations sector is clearly pivotal in the development and marketing of Kenya's tourism product.

6.6 ITO Organisation structure

A sample organisation chart of a Kenyan tour operator is shown in Figure 6.4

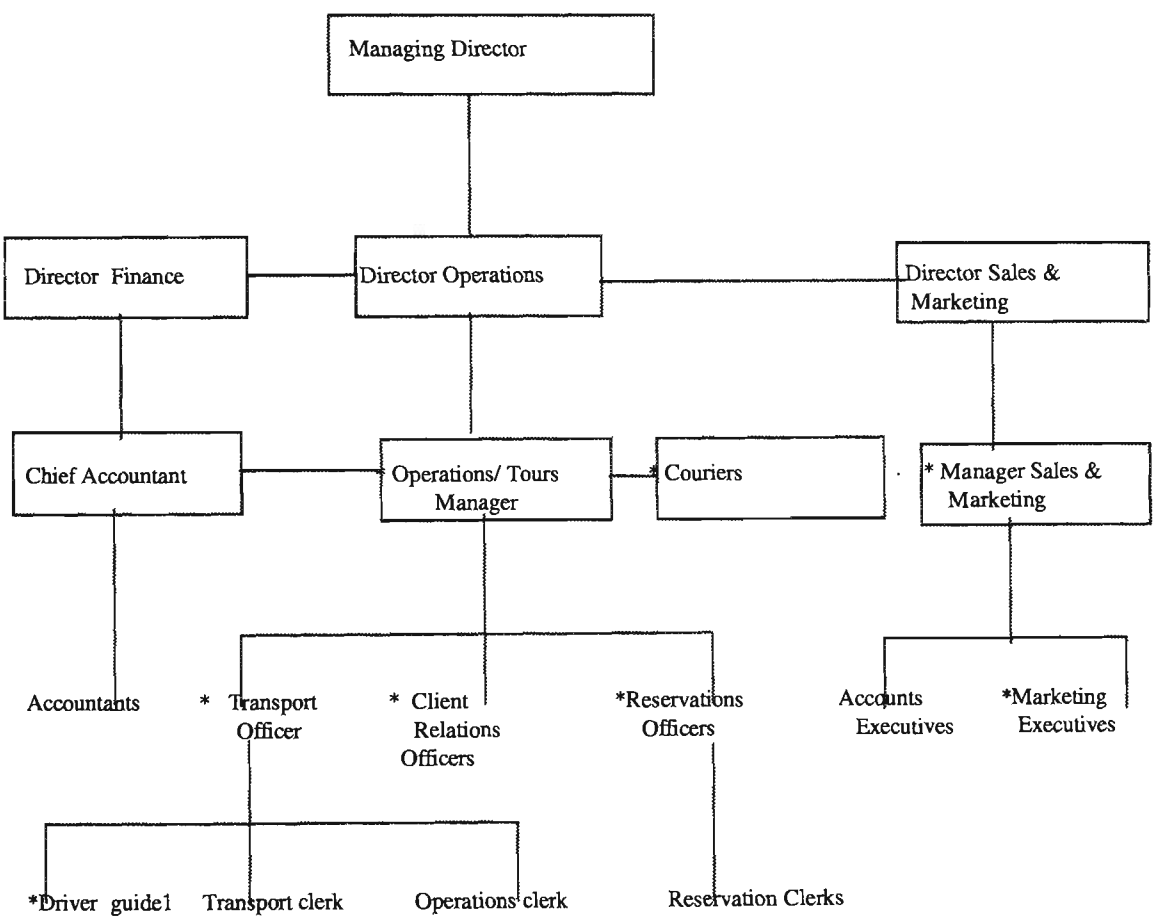

Figure 6.4 Sample Kenyan ITO organisation chart
* High client contact
Source: Author's own industry experience

According to the model of occupational levels introduced in Chapter 2, FLP level would include all those at bottom level of hierarchy as outlined in Figure 6.4. Most of those at the second level of the hierarchy would also play roles that are typically FLP roles. The second hierarchy from the bottom would also represent the SPV level. HLM and MLM occupational levels are represented by the top two hierarchies and by the third hierarchy respectively.

The tour operating sector is typified by a lack of standardisation, so there are likely to be as many variations to the above structure as there are different tour operators. However, tour operators are generally structured in one of two ways: vertically or horizontally (de Souto 1993).

A vertical structure is one in which an individual handles all aspects of the planning and execution of a tour program (plans the itinerary, costs the tour, makes reservations, meets and briefs the clients, and, sometimes, accompanies them on parts of the tour). This is prevalent in small flat organisations structured by market or product (see Stoner *et al* 1994:192). In such settings most jobs typically require a mastery of complexity rather than depth of skill (Baum 1993). Possession of a wide scope of knowledge and skills is vital under such structure. To gain a proper understanding of their role, driver guides would need specialised treatment. They were excluded from the present study due to resource constraints.

In a horizontal structure, the company is set up laterally by function (as in Figure 6.4) rather than by tour program. As would be expected, such a structure typifies hierarchical organisations. Although there is no "single, uniformly acceptable definition of a small firm," most ITOs can be classified as small tourism businesses, and are, therefore, vertically structured (Storey 1994 : 8).

The small size of tour operating businesses make the economics of running the firm incompatible with the development of skills (Riley 1991, 1993). As a result, Riley maintains that the responsibility for skills development falls heavily on [vocational] education and individual mobility. From the education providers' perspective, matching the supply with the demand is difficult given the diversity in structure and form (a fragmented market). This is made worse by the fact that many employers may

themselves not recognise the need for training and education because of their own educational background. As such information is not available for this sector, it was necessary to establish, among other things, the level of education of both employees and employers (this is discussed in the next chapter).

6.7 Lack of skills and inadequate tourism education

There have been various comments on the lack of skills and the sub-optimal state of tourism education and training in Kenya (KWS unpublished; Sindiga 1996; Dieke 1992; Sinclair 1992, Sio 1993; IEA 1999). Kimbwarata, for example, observes that despite the fact that tourism training and education in Kenya has existed for over two decades, 90% of the personnel in the hotel and tourism industry are still untrained (cited in Sindiga 1996). There could be doubts about the accuracy of this figure, nevertheless, as this statement suggests there is a deficiency in the skills formation structure in the industry.

The main source of trained manpower for the tourism and hospitality industries in the country is the Kenya Utalii College, which was established in 1975 through a bilateral agreement between the Kenyan and Swiss governments and funded through a Swiss government agency known as Tourist Consult. The latter has also hitherto funded the education and training of teaching staff abroad. The training and education of local students in the college is currently funded through a 2% Training Levy charged on meals and accommodation. The other source of funds is fees paid by full fee paying overseas students (Kenya/JICA 1994). The college has a stretched capacity of over seven hundred students, 20% of whom come from other countries in sub-Saharan Africa.

Kenya Utalii College offers courses in: hotel management (diploma level); food production, front office, housekeeping and laundry, food and beverage sales and services (all certificate courses); and tour guiding and travel operation (both two year associate diploma courses). The tour guiding course was introduced in 1984. The last two courses are the ones targeted toward the tour operations sector, although the travel operations course also has a focus on the travel component (airline ticketing and travel agency operations) as well.

Kenya Utalii College has gained international profile as a modern institution with excellent facilities (see Blanton 1981). Courses at the college were established based on the Swiss model, which as Westlake notes "is of craft excellence [aimed at] producing expert technicians" (1997: 271). Questions have been raised about the use of the 2% training levy (IEA 1999) and about the level and scope of current training and education at the Kenya Utalii College (Sindiga 1996). Sindiga, for example, notes that although the college was initially established to offer broad tourism education, only the hotel management course provides skills in management theory. Such criticisms may infer an inability to adapt to the changing needs of the industry.

A number of small private colleges have been established, some based on a similar model to the one used in Kenya Utalii College (KUC). Some of the proprietors of these institutions are themselves graduates of, or have some association with KUC. In a bid to standardise tourism training and education, given the apparent mushrooming of courses, the Kenya Institute of Education (KIE) introduced diploma and certificate courses in 1991 (Sindiga 1994). However, only one college, Coast Institute of Technology (CIT), uses the KIE programme. Thus, there is need to inquire into the possibility of a better means of standardisation. Such a move requires input from the key players, particularly the government, industry and education providers.

The Presidential Committee on Employment (Kenya 1991 p.158) noted that it was necessary to upgrade tourism education and training in Kenya. As a result, a Bachelor of Science (BSc) course was introduced at Moi University (one of five public universities) in 1991. This was obviously a big step in the bid to raise the level of skills in the industry. However, questions could be raised about the actual demand for the skills offered and, therefore the employability of the graduates.

As Koh asserts, in this time and age where there is a need for efficient utilisation of limited resources, it is imperative that those involved in the provision of education "constantly monitor the pulse of the industry and keep their programs responsive to the needs of the industry as well as the expectation of their students" (1995: 68). A marketing approach is not only necessary in the design of curricula, but the entire process of offering tourism education. This is particularly important in less developed countries where resources are very limited

Obviously, the task of matching training and education with industry needs is a difficult one, given the strictures of policy-making and administration of public institutions. However, the other side of the argument is that failure to do so results in wastage (through duplication and attrition) and undermines any long-term strategies to foster quality and competitiveness in the industry.

An evaluation of continuing education for those already working in the industry is necessary, given the dynamic nature of tourism. As was argued in chapter 2, a broad scope of training and education must incorporate both off-the-job and on-the-job modes.

Sindiga (1996) observes that state of specific training (offered in-company to meet specific company needs) is unsatisfactory. Although no empirical studies have been carried out on training and education, let alone this aspect, various reports have highlighted the poor state of in-house company initiatives. Munyori (1992), for example, reported that less than 25% of then 160 member companies of Kenya Association of Tour Operators (KATO) had a training budget and that only 3 had in-house training programs.

Kenya Utalii College realises the need for continuing education and offers refresher courses in the months of April and June (in the tourism low season). Those courses that are directed to the tour operations sector have had limited impact, perhaps because of a perceived lack of interest on the part of the employers or, probably, a lack of sensitivity to the changing needs of the industry. In addition, as was noted by King (1996) in reference to Oceania, limited disposable incomes are generally observed to be a constraint to the development of user-pays initiatives. Moreover, very few tour firms are large enough or willing to sponsor employees for any further training.

6.8 Key issues

The brief synopsis of the tourism training and education in Kenya raises certain key issues that need to be urgently addressed:

- The need for proper means of identifying the training needs of the various industry sectors;
- The need to develop a proper mechanism for industry/education and training liaison and co-operation in development of curricula and training initiatives;
- The need for harmonisation of tourism training and education of standards;
- The need for an appropriate tourism human resources development policy; and
- An integrated strategic tourism training and education plan.

These issues underpin any definitive tourism training and education agenda. The beginning point of any such initiative is an analysis of the *current situation* in each of tourism's component sectors.

There appears to be a lack of concerted effort aimed at resolving the issues in tourism training and education in Kenya. Instead there have been accusations and counter accusations in recent times because of what has been described by some as "decline of the quality" of tourism training and education, (see JICA/Kenya 1995: 4-6 www//nationaudio.com [accessed 4/7/99]). No work has been done to identify the exact nature and extent of this problem, nor have the criteria for measurement of "quality" been clearly defined.

The approach used this study is to first identify the gaps in the training and education from a quality perspective and then propose means of narrowing these gaps. The study further identifies the need for a concerted effort and a strategy that will incorporate the participation of all the stakeholders.

To examine the above issues, it is necessary to look at all key industry sectors, paying attention to the relative significance of each sector within the relevant tourism system. Accordingly, this study focuses on the tour operations sector as one of the key component sectors of the tourism industry in Kenya. Such an approach is necessary in order to match tourism training and education with the broad scope of industry needs. By such means the development of the tourism human resource can be both sustainable and responsive to the destination's long-term strategic aims.

Chapter 7

Methodology

7.1 Measurement issues

A key methodological concern in any analysis of tourism human resource management is the nature of the industry as a whole. Issues with particular relevance for the current research are:

1. The selection of appropriate measurement criteria;
2. The number of parties or units and agencies involved in the provision and administration of tourism training and education; and hence
3. The difficulty of finding representative samples and of collecting enough information from key individuals. These are related to the choice of research and data collection methods;
4. Lack of accuracy in the case of basic data;
5. Inaccuracies in the classification of tourism occupations (as some occupations may be omitted) (adapted from Baum 1993b: 67).

The issue of quality measurement, as it relates to the current study, has been dealt with in Chapter 2. However, measurement of "quality" is subjective as indicated in various discussions of "service quality" (Taylor 1992; Zeithmal et al 1990, Watson 1996). This suggests that the methodological implications of quality need further examination.

As has already been discussed, there are various stakeholders in tourism training and education, which include: employers, employees, students, education providers, the government department responsible for tourism training policy. One of the challenges of collecting field data is how to gather reliable data from an appropriate representative sample for a manageable goal. This approach precludes sole reliance on "objective" quantitative methods.

Hartmann (1988) questions the excessive reliance on quantitative survey techniques. He notes that such a tradition has its roots in [previous] trends in social science and argues

that it may be out of pace with the multitude of relevant issues in tourism today. Hartmann advocates combining different field methods to complement each other, given that most common methods have shortcomings.

It is evident that training and education issues are both complex and multifaceted. An appropriate methodology is one that acknowledges the dynamic nature of tourism by being predictive. It is important to assess the relative importance of issues. In light of this challenge, a combination of qualitative and quantitative techniques is adopted

Qualitative versus quantitative research methods

Petersen describes the goal of quantitative research as being to "to develop important, -- but limited—information from each individual and to talk with a sizeable number of individuals to draw inferences about the population" (1994:487). He states that qualitative research focuses on smaller samples and seeks information that is extensive in nature, searches for meaning and raises issues which can subsequently be quantified.

Qualitative research is suitable for studying subjects, topics or problems which require in-depth inquiry, such as tourism training and education. One of the criticisms of the qualitative approach, however, is that the results are "not amenable to projection to the population under study" (Rogers 1991: 43). While this may be true, and while the corollary is often assumed to be true about quantitative research, qualitative methods provide opportunity to examine a broad range of issues in depth while at the same time allowing room for consultation (see Faulkner and Valerio 1995: 30, Uysal and Crompton 1985, Rogers 1991).

Since the development of a research instrument capable of covering all groups involved in the provision of training and education is not practical, the use of quantitative methods alone is insufficient. Moreover, as observed by Uysal and Crompton (1985), the use of qualitative methods is appropriate where there is insufficient available data. This is the case with the tour operations sector in Kenya.

As Rogers notes, current practice frequently involves use of a combination of qualitative and quantitative data (1994: 43). Discussing what they call an "integrative approach",

albeit from a tourism demand forecasting perspective, Faulkner and Valerio (1995) observed that qualitative methods such as the Delphi technique allow a broad range of variables to be examined. Such techniques, they argue, allow for the integration of a range of approaches. In the current study, an integrative approach is used, which attempts to capture the advantages of qualitative techniques without ignoring the versatility of quantitative methods.

Delphi technique

The Delphi technique has evolved from what was first a defence research method applied in a US Air Force sponsored "Project Delphi" starting in the early 1950s (Linstone and Turoff 1975). The technique is used to gather expert knowledge and opinion; it has been particularly useful as a forecasting method. The method aims at arriving at an informed group consensus on future events and is used to forecast future occurrences. This said, nothing in the literature seems to prohibit its use to assess a current situation. Moreover, as Turoff (1975) has stated, in some types of Delphi studies, e.g. Policy Delphi, reaching consensus is not a prime objective. In general the steps can be summarised as:

- Select a panel of experts;
- Identify relevant issues (may be sought from a selected panel of experts or from another source);
- Round one questionnaire: mail out questionnaire and ask panel of experts to evaluate the likelihood of the events taking place;
- Round two questionnaire: re-evaluation of responses from round one by same experts (there can be as many subsequent rounds as deemed necessary) (Moeller Shafer 1994: 476)

A number of tourism studies have employed the Delphi methodology (Moeller and Shaefer 1987, Liu 1988, Kaynak and Macaulay 1984, Taylor 1989, Moutnho and Witt 1995). Specific references to this method have been made in relation to subjects such as: impacts of technology on the industry (English and Kearman 1976), tourism planning (Shafer and Moeller 1988), environmental impact assessment (Green, Hunter and Bruno 1990) and tourism demand forecasting (see Calantone, Benedetto and Bojanic 1987,

Uysal and Crompton 1985). More recently, the technique has found its way into the area of tourism training and education (Koh 1995).

In its pure form, the Delphi Technique does not allow the experts to meet. This provides the advantage of anonymity and prevents results from being affected by social and other pressures (see Kaynak and Macaulay 1984, Calantone et al 1987; Moeller Shafer 1994) 476). It also allows different points of view to be brought together and can be particularly useful where basic data is lacking. Criticisms of the technique include the long time that it takes and the difficulty of securing a panel of experts who are willing to commit themselves until the end of the exercise.

In light of these weaknesses of the Delphi technique, Moutinho and Witt (1995), in a tourism environment forecasting study used what they called a "non-Delphi consensus forecasting." In this study the expert opinion was gathered from 25 experts attending a seminar. This shows that there can be different approaches and modifications to the Delphi technique.

A special form of "Delphi" the Gearing-Stewart-Var (GSV) has also been used (Kaynak Macaulay 1984). This method differs from the traditional Delphi technique in that the experts do not receive feedback and no attempt is made to reach consensus, thereby saving time. As demonstrated in the Kynak and Macaulay study, the issues or criteria to be investigated can be raised from sources other than the panel of experts. GSV has also an added advantage in that it can be used for present and future analysis (Kaynak Macaulay 1984). Var (1984) reported a high degree of validity for the GSV technique in real-life application (Calantone, Benedetto and Bojanic 1987). Therefore, under conditions of limited resources (as is the case with the current study), it is possible to have a "scaled down" version of the Delphi method without compromising its validity and hence its reliability.

The most extensive use of the Delphi technique in tourism training and education research was in the TEDQUAL pilot study carried out by the George Washington

University (WTO 1997a). It is from this previous study that the skills model and the four professional levels model applied in the current study have been adapted.

ii) Survey method

Self-administered questionnaires provide not only the advantage of geographic flexibility (Zikmund 1997), but also allow for a wide range of descriptive information to be collected (see Baum 1993b p 68). This is particularly important where there is deficiency of quality secondary data, as is the case with tourism employment in Kenya.

Insufficient information is currently available concerning such elements as the qualifications of employees within the different professional levels. Hinting at this and other related problems, Green (1979) observed that there is a general shortage of tourism employment figures in Kenya (in Sindiga 1994). For this reason, a survey is necessary in order to obtain information such as the proportion of employees with some form of formal qualification, their age and gender.

Validity and reliability issues

A critical issue in any research is that of reliability and validity. Baker, Hozier and Rogers (1994), however, lament that despite the importance of validity and reliability to research outcomes, they are not well understood and, hence, often flouted. Both reliability and validity are related to the measurement of a characteristic in the relationship:

$$M = C + E,$$

where M is the measurement of the observation in the sample and C is the true value of the characteristic in the population and E is the error. Two things are possible that can affect the outcome: the error can be so large that M is a poor predictor of C or M can be such a biased measurement that the error increases. The first type of error is called the variable error–*reliability* is associated with this type of error. Reliability is a measure of whether the same methodology can consistently yield the same results under the same conditions. *Validity* is related to the systematic error (the second type of error) and is simply the degree to which the research method measures what was actually intended.

According to Baker, the problem of reliability is a difficult one to solve, although it can be minimised by proper sampling and correct research instrument design. Often the bigger problem, however, is that of a lack of validity, which Rogers (1991: 46) suggests can be reduced by the technique of using multiple data collection methods. This is the argument used in the current approach.

Studies that combine different data collection methods are uncommon (Linstone and Turoff 1975, Kelly 1982 and Koh 1995). In the study carried out to assess the tourism management courses in the US, Koh, for example, used the Delphi technique to get the elements (skills) that were deemed necessary by the industry. These elements were then used in a mail survey to determine the importance attached to them As Koh's study shows, the qualitative method can be used to raise the issues. These issues can then be validated through quantitative methods such as the survey method.

For the purpose of the current study, it is assumed that the skills and knowledge areas identified in the TEDQUAL methodology (WTO 1997a) represent the skills generally required in the contemporary tourism industry. Eliminating the first phase of Delphi technique is deemed prudent for two reasons. Firstly, the industry sector experts (primarily employers) may themselves not have formal qualifications, hence they may not necessarily be able to articulate the skills that they require. Secondly, respondents may not understand what is being asked or may have different perspectives, a factor that is often overlooked in surveys (Clark et al 1998). A lot of time is needed to refine the responses that have been obtained.

Sampling

The task of determining the appropriate sample is not easy. Baker, Hozier and Rogers (1994) argue that appropriate sampling is perhaps the key to ensuring validity. Two considerations lead to correct sample determination: the type of sample to be used and the sample size that will be needed.

A broad categorisation of sampling methods divides sampling into probability and non-probability sampling. Probability sampling is where each element in the population has a non-zero chance of being selected and where the elements that make up the sample are

randomly selected (Clark et al 1998). Non-probability sampling, on the other hand, is where the chance of selection for each element is unknown. A review of each sampling types is unnecessary here. However, it is important to state that the less random the sample the greater the chance of bias.

A critical consideration in any study is the sample size. Although a lot of literature exists on the subject of sample size determination, it still remains a problematic area (Cannon 1994). According to Baker et al (1994), sample size determination is both an efficiency and effectiveness argument. Thus, an appropriate sample size is one that will cover the population characteristic under study well and yet remain economical.

Hawkins and Tull (1991: 493) describe two basic approaches to determining the correct sample size. The first approach is called the required size per cell, which simply requires that there be approximately 30 respondents for each demographic cell of data. Thus, as an example, two genders and two religious groups would require a sample size of 2 x 2 x 30 = 120. The second approach is called the traditional statistical model and is based on the predetermined error that will be accepted by those that commission the research. From this allowable error, the sample size can be calculated.

An important factor to consider in determining the sample size is that sample size is a function of variability rather than the size of the population (see Zikmund 1997). Thus, the more expected differences there are in the population the larger the sample size.

7.2 Research Objectives restated

The main objectives of this study were:

- To identify the training and education quality gaps in inbound tour operations;
- To assess the level of training required;
- Identify relevant employee training schemes;
- To assess the views of industry experts about the most appropriate modes to deliver the skills required by tour operators; and
- To determine the global trends likely to impact on future tourism training and education;

As has been previously stated, the ultimate aim of the study is to suggest ways of improving tourism training and education in Kenya.

7.3 Data Collection

All data was collected during a field trip made to Kenya by the researcher between 11th April and 11th May 1999. To meet the stated objectives three sets of data were obtained.

A. Expert opinion

The first set of data was collected from the employers based on the principles of the Delphi technique. It will be recalled that, from a total quality perspective, employers are well-placed to evaluate the skills of their employees as a measure of what tourism training and education may be effective.

This part of the study was particularly aimed at evaluating expert opinion on:

- The quality of current training and education provision;
- Future training and education needs;
- Global trends likely to affect tourism training and education in Kenya with particular reference to the tour operations sector; and
- To predict the impacts of these global trends on tourism training and education.

To meet these objectives, a detailed questionnaire was administered to a panel of experts (Table 6.1) selected based on the following criteria:

- Positions in their organisations;
- Their experience in tour operations in Kenya; and
- Their interest in relation to tourism training and education.

It is argued here that in the question of appropriateness of this sample, the "quality" of the panellists rather than the actual number is more crucial. The validity of the research findings is based on the careful choice of panellists rather than the number thereof.

Table 7.1 Panellist profiles

Highest education Qualification	Title	Years in tourism industry
1. University	MD	25
2. University	MD	50
3. College diploma/certificate	MD	30
4. College Diploma certificate	MD	16
5. University	GM	11
6. Secondary qualification	GM	29
7. University	MD	15
8. College diploma/certificate	GM	15
9. College diploma/certificate	MD	27
10. Post graduate	GM	19
11. College diploma/certificate	GM	8

MD = Managing Director, GM = General Manager

Information on the employers (potential panellists) with the most suitable profile for the study was obtained from Kenya Association of Tour Operators (KATO), a trade organisation that brings together the interests of 200 leading tour operators. Following the scheduling of appointments, the questionnaire (Appendix III) together with a letter of introduction was handed to each panellist by the researcher, who explained the purpose of the research. On average, two visits were made to each panellist, the first one to explain the purpose of the study and to deliver the survey instrument and the other for collecting the completed questionnaire. A reminder telephone call or visit was necessary in all the cases. Most of the panellists indicated that they needed sufficient time to consider the issues very critically. For some it took about three weeks to complete the questionnaire. Initially twenty panellists were contacted. The researcher went round to personally collect the completed questionnaires, thanking each panellist for agreeing to participate in the research. Each of the respondents expressed a desire to see the final outcome of the study. The nine who had not completed the questionnaires by the end of the researcher's field trip promised to send them by post but these were never received.

Departing from normal Delphi methodology, the questionnaire administration was confined to only one round. This approach has been described as Gearing, Stewart and Var (GSV) method. In this case the approach was adopted for the following reasons:

1. The protracted period of time required to carry out additional rounds could not be accommodated, since the time allocated for the research could not exceed one semester;

2. The issues for consideration were drawn up from secondary sources rather than from the panel itself. In other circumstances this information would have been obtained during a preliminary round of questionnaires.
3. Some of the panellists made it clear they were not willing to participate in any subsequent round.

In one environmental impacts assessment study, Green, Hunter and Moore (1990) actually found that a comprehensive list of issues gathered from literature superseded the list raised from the panel of experts. Indeed, Wheeller, Hart and Whysall (1990) see a literature search as a far better means of initially identifying issues than the panel of experts. This is possible in the current case because the panellists are industry experts and not education experts. They are, therefore, not necessarily well versed with all areas of skills development. The questionnaire allowed for insertion of other relevant skills by the panellists but there was no substantial additional input from them. This is the rationale for adapting the three level skills model in TEDQUAL.

B. Employee Survey

The purpose of this part of the research was to get data directly from employees in order to obtain the type of descriptive information unobtainable in Part A. In addition, the findings are used to countercheck or validate some findings from the panellists, albeit in a more or less qualitative manner. Koh (1995) used such an approach to determine the elements necessary in four-year Tourism Management Curriculum in the US. In Koh's work, the Delphi study comprising of an 18-member panel identified the pool of elements deemed necessary. To validate this list, he carried out survey of industry executives which reduced the elements to only 15.

Since obtaining a prior knowledge of the number of employees in each company would be impractical, a systematic random sample of 20 (10%) companies was selected. Using the systematic random sample, a list of all the units of the universe is drawn up (in this case the list of KATO membership). From this list a sample is drawn by selecting one out of so many on the list in a pre-determined, systematic fashion (Cannon 1994). In this case one company was drawn out of every ten.

A number of questionnaires (appendix IV), ranging from 5 to 10 per company, were distributed to the sample of 20 companies, with instructions to include employees representative of all the 4 occupational levels. Such was the approach used by Barnet and Ryan (1994), where a sample was drawn from a listing of hotels to which employee survey questionnaires were then sent.

The self-administered questionnaire was hand-delivered and collected at a later date. A total of 120 copies were distributed. In total 57 were returned, but only 54 were usable. This may seem too small a sample, but as Parasuraman (1991) has explained, non-response error is not a function of the response rate but the composition of the final sample vis-à-vis the planned sample and the characteristics under study. Moreover, there is no reason to suppose that the results that could have been obtained from those that did not respond would greatly differ from those recorded.

C. Semi-structured interviews

Interviews can be used as a major means of data collection or as a supplement to other methods (Pizam 1994). In addition, interviews can be used as exploratory devices intended to raise issues, identify variables and generate hypotheses. Interviews could be unstructured, where the interviewer has the discretion about the content of the questions, their sequence and their wording. Structured interviews are uniform and rigid forms of interviews where questions are fixed in terms of content, sequence and wording.

Interviews permit greater depth and probing, are more appropriate in revealing feelings and emotions about the subject, enable control over the environment and allow spontaneity of response, among other advantages. On the other hand, they are more costly, time consuming, lacking in anonymity and are prone to interviewer bias. However, the issues of multiplicity of views and stakeholders and complexity in tourism subjects, make interviewing a versatile data collection technique, especially when combined with other techniques (see Peterson 1994, Rogers 1991, Hartmann 1987). However, its application has been limited in the field of tourism research.

In the present study, semi-structured interviews were conducted with representatives of the tourism departments of five institutions (see appendix V). The original target was 8 institutions, but three were not available for interviewing. On the representativeness of the sample, Rogers (1991) argues that provided a sample is suited to projection, results can be generalised to the surveyed population.

The objectives of this part of the research was:

- To evaluate the relevance of TEDQUAL skills model from the providers' point of view;
- To identify provider limitations in offering quality tourism training and education; and
- To get education providers' opinion on industry/provider interface and standardisation of tourism training and education.

Initial contacts were made on phone, during which the researcher explained the purpose and nature of the research and asked for willingness to participate. Both these telephone contacts and the actual interviews were carried out during the researcher's field trip to Kenya.

Chapter 8

Analysis and Discussion

8.1 Introduction

A rationale for the use of multiple data sources was established in Section 7.2. As was argued, and as Anderson (1990) has noted, this approach is one way of enhancing reliability. Anderson also argues that internal validity (truthfulness of responses and accuracy of recording) can be inferred when there is convergence of data from independent sources. Accordingly, data was analysed in three parts. The first part is a qualitative analysis of the data derived from the panel of experts (expert opinion), the second is a qualitative and quantitative examination of the outcome of the employee survey. The third part involves an analysis of the results of in-depth interviews carried out with education providers.

8.2 Expert Opinion

(i) Degree of employer satisfaction with employee performance

The panellists (11 tour operator executives) were asked to evaluate the skills of their employees at the four occupational levels: Front Line Personnel (FLP), Supervisory Staff (SPV), Middle Level Management (MLM) and High Level Management (HLM). The appropriateness of this model of occupational levels is discussed in Chapter 2. A five point Lickert scale was used. The mean responses are shown in Table 8.1.

To provide an interpretation of the mean scores for the various tests, the following scale was used for assessment purposes:

4.0 – 5.0 = Very satisfied/Important/Significant

3.0 – 3.9 = Moderately satisfied/Important/Significant

1.0 – 2.9 = Dissatisfied/Important/Significant (adapted from Koh 1995, WTO 1997a).

This interpretation is appropriate, given that measurements such as satisfaction are continuous rather than discrete and so it is useful to interpret a range of scores rather than a single score.

Table 8.1 Employer satisfaction with the skills of their employees (mean scores)

Training Area	FLP	SPV	MLM	HLM
BASIC TRAINING				
Communication skills	3.6	3.3	3.3	4.3
Business knowledge	3.0	2.6	2.8	4.4
Marketing	3.0	2.4	2.8	4.1
Administrative procedures	3.1	3.0	2.8	3.9
Market forecasting	2.3	1.8	2.6	4.0
Knowledge of tourism industry and its trends	3.3	2.6	2.8	4.3
Strategic planning	2.5	2.2	2.4	4.0
Communication and promotion	3.0	2.5	2.9	4.3
Legal knowledge	2.0	2.0	2.3	4.0
Group Mean	2.7	2.7	2.7	3.1
TECHNICAL TRAINING				
Computing	2.8	2.5	3.0	3.6
Languages	3.4	3.0	3.1	4.0
Group mean	3.1	2.8	3.0	3.8
PERSONAL SKILLS				
Work in a multi-cultural Environment	3.4	2.8	2.9	4.4
Motivation and initiative	3.6	2.9	2.9	4.0
Supervision	2.8	2.8	2.9	4.0
Training other employees	3.0	3.1	3.0	4.3
Team work	3.3	3.2	2.7	4.4
Company loyalty	3.5	2.9	3.0	4.3
Courteous and friendly behaviour	3.8	3.3	3.2	4.4
Ability to resolve conflicts within organisations	2.8	2.7	3.0	4.3
Ability to solve problems	3.2	2.7	2.9	4.1
Deal effectively with people	3.3	2.9	2.6	4.4
Personal ethics	3.9	3.6	3.2	4.1
Efficient use of time	3.0	3.1	3.0	4.0
Ability to work in a systematic way	3.4	3.4	3.1	4.3
Flexibility	3.5	2.9	3.1	4.3
Decision-making capacity	2.9	2.6	3.0	4.0
Group Mean	3.3	2.9	3.0	4.2
Aggregate mean by occupational level	**3.1**	**2.8**	**2.9**	**4.2**

For the purposes of the research, it is assumed that expert evaluations are based on what the experts expect from their employees at each of the occupational levels. In other words, for certain skills, they may expect a lower standard of performance at the FLP level than at the SPV level. Using this approach, strategic planning might be expected to be less relevant in the case of FLP than in the case of SPV. In apparent contradiction with this expectation , a relatively higher score was recorded for this skill in the case of FLP level personnel (2.3) than in the case of SPV level personnel(1.8).

Viewed as a whole, the results indicate expert dissatisfaction with employee skills at the SPV and MLM levels (aggregate means 2.8 and 2.9 respectively) and a moderate level of satisfaction with skills at the FLP level (aggregate mean 3.1). As was the case with the TEDQUAL pilot study (WTO 1997a), some element of bias may be evident in the high score recorded for the HLM category (4.2) because all of the panellists are in a sense part of this group themselves. Having taken this possible bias into account, it might be concluded that the existing system is deficient in meeting the skill requirements of higher occupational levels. Such were the findings of the Presidential Committee on Employment (Kenya 1991:158), which saw the need for upgrading tourism education. These findings led to the introduction of a tourism (BSc) degree course at Moi University in 1991.

The investigation then attempted to identify what group of skills were most deficient: Basic training, Technical Training or Personal Skills. This information is summarised in Table 8.2

Table 8.2 Mean score by skills group

Skills Grouping	FLP	SPV	MLM	HLM
Basic Training	2.7	2.7	2.7	3.1
Technical Training	3.1	2.8	3.0	3.8
Personal Skills	3.3	2.9	3.0	4.2

As these results indicate, the lowest level of satisfaction was recorded at the Basic Training area. This is evident in the low score of 2.7 for all the occupational levels except HLM (3.1).

Further analysis of individual scores at each of the four occupational levels produced some useful insights. Generally, the level of satisfaction is low for most of the skills in the FLP, SPV and MLM levels, as all of the scores fall either within the medium range of 3.0 to 3.9 or within the low range of 1.0 to 2.9. In the SPV level, only 9 out of the 26 skills received a score of 3 and above. In the MLM level only 12 out of the 26 skills receive a score of 3 or above. This may be reflective of a lack of enthusiasm towards the skills being brought by employees to the workplace.

The greatest expert dissatisfaction was targeted at: legal knowledge (2.5), market forecasting (2.7) and strategic planning (2.8) (the scores are obtained by averaging mean scores for the skills across the four occupational levels). These areas may be worthy of particular attention across the training and education curriculum. They are the only skills with scores below the moderate satisfaction threshold of 3.0. Theoretically, these skills are also of great significance for tour business in Kenya. It is important, for example, that the tour operations professional is knowledgeable about the legal aspects transactions with clients, suppliers and agents abroad. Errors often result in costly legal liability. Strategic planning and market forecasting are important in tour operations in view of the long lead time between the planning and operation of the tour program.

(ii)The ability of the current education and training system to provide the necessary skills into the future (next 10 years).

In Part B of the questionnaire, panellists were asked to predict the ability of the education system to meet the skills requirements of the tour operating sector over the next 10 years (Table 8.3).

The results (summarised in Table 8.4) show a drop in the mean scores in all except the MLM level. This could be indicative of a growing lack of confidence in the tourism training and education system. Only in the case of MLM level is the future score of 2.9 consistent with the current situation (2.9). Even in this case the score is below the moderate satisfaction threshold of 3.0. The large difference between the present (4.2) and the future (3.1) in the case of the HLM level is worthy of attention. What this result indicates is that, according to the experts, the education system will be less likely to meet the skill requirements of the industry's key decision makers. This has strategic implications for the future of Kenya's tourism industry.

Table 8.3 Perceived ability of the training and education system to meet the skill needs industry in the next 10 years

Training Area	FLP	SPV	MLM	HLM
BASIC TRAINING				
Communication skills	2.9	3.3	3.1	3.3
Business knowledge	2.7	3.0	3.0	3.3
Marketing	2.8	2.9	3.0	3.3
Administrative procedures	2.8	2.6	2.7	3.5
Market forecasting	2.7	2.4	3.1	2.8
Knowledge of tourism industry and it trends	2.9	2.8	3.1	3.7
Strategic planning	2.7	2.6	2.1	2.3
Communication and promotion	2.8	2.5	2.1	3.0
Legal knowledge	2.4	2.3	2.0	2.7
TECHNICAL TRAINING				
Computing	2.9	3.0	2.9	2.8
Languages	3.3	3.4	3.0	3.2
PERSONAL SKILLS				
Work in a multi-cultural environment	2.9	2.9	2.6	2.5
Motivation and initiative	2.9	2.8	3.1	3.0
Supervision	3.0	3.0	3.0	3.2
Training other employees	2.6	2.8	3.4	3.5
Team work	3.3	2.8	3.4	3.5
Company loyalty	2.1	2.3	2.4	2.8
Courteous and friendly behaviour	3.0	2.9	3.0	2.8
Ability to resolve conflicts within organisations	2.3	2.4	2.7	3.2
Ability to solve problems	2.3	2.4	2.7	3.0
Deal effectively with people	2.9	2.9	3.4	3.3
Personal ethics	3.0	2.9	3.1	3.0
Efficient use of time	2.8	2.9	3.0	3.0
Ability to work in a systematic way	2.8	2.7	2.8	3.2
Flexibility	2.9	2.7	2.8	3.2
Decision-making capacity	2.5	2.3	2.3	3.2
Aggregate mean by occupational level	**2.8**	**2.7**	**2.9**	**3.1**

Table 8.4 Ability of education system to provide required skills: the present and future—summary

	FLP	SPV	MLM	HLM
Present	3.1	2.8	2.9	4.2
Future (next 10 years)	2.8	2.7	2.9	3.1

(iii)Preferred training and education modes

The objective of this component of the investigation was to determine the best place to provide the required skills and knowledge. This could occur on or off-the-job or through

a combination of both. In the following table, "off-the-job" is referred to as "school" and on-the-job as "work".

Table 8.5 Preferred training and education modes as indicated by percentage of panellists

Training Area	School	Work	Both
BASIC TRAINING	%	%	%
Communication skills	30	0	70
Business knowledge	10	20	70
Marketing	30	0	70
Administrative procedures	30	20	50
Market forecasting	20	10	70
Knowledge of tourism industry and it trends	20	0	80
Strategic planning	20	0	80
Communication and promotion	20	10	70
Legal knowledge	60	10	30
TECHNICAL TRAINING			
Computing	20	0	80
Languages	50	0	50
PERSONAL SKILLS			
Work in a multi-cultural environment	0	20	80
Motivation and initiative	0	40	60
Supervision	0	20	80
Training other employees	0	40	60
Team work	0	40	60
Company loyalty	0	40	60
Courteous and friendly behaviour	30	70	0
Ability to resolve conflicts within organisations	0	30	70
Ability to solve problems	0	20	80
Deal effectively with people	20	10	70
Personal ethics	40	0	60
Efficient use of time	10	0	90
Ability to work in a systematic way	10	10	80
Flexibility	0	50	50
Decision-making capacity	10	20	70

A combination of both on-the-job and off-the-job training and education is considered to be necessary in most cases. The exceptions are languages, legal knowledge and courteous and friendly behaviour. This finding suggests that educational providers would be well advised to incorporate a substantial practical component into the curriculum in the form of co-operative education (workplace attachments). In addition, there is a perceived need for continuing education in the case of those already employed in the industry. The findings further suggest that cooperation is needed between the education providers and industry. Such co-operation offers the potential to avoid duplication in designing the tourism education and training curriculum. There is no need

for the education providers to offer skills that could be learnt better at work. On the other hand, there may be little point in developing employer-based in-house courses covering general areas if this leads to the underutilisation of government funded formal short courses in public institutions.

According to Table 8.5, 60% of the panellists indicated that legal knowledge should be disseminated at school compared to 10% and 30% who felt that this knowledge should be covered at either work or at both work and school. As indicated in Table 8.1, the mean responses for legal knowledge are 2.0 for both FLP and SPV and 2.3 and 4.0 for MLM and HLM, respectively. These results suggest that according to the expert opinion this component receives inadequate coverage in the tourism training and education curriculum in terms of presentation and/or content. A DACUM study would be the best method to obtain this information, but is beyond the scope of this study.

(iv)Preferred employee profile

Table 8.6 Preferred employee profile by occupational level

	FLP	SPV	MLM	HLM
1 = College (vocational education)	80	60	10	0
2 = University	20	30	60	30
3 = Postgraduates	0	10	30	70

80% of the panellists expressed a preference for college education at the FLP level, while 60% would prefer college level education for those at the SPV level. 90% indicated a preference for at least an undergraduate degree for both MLM and HLM. A surprisingly high percentage of panellists (70%) would prefer postgraduate education for HLM. This is surprising because of the 11 panellists themselves, only 1 possesses a postgraduate qualification. A big issue is whether institutions should offer training and education at all four levels to potential industry entrants or whether they should offer (particularly for MLM and HLM levels) continuing education and career advancement for those already employed in the industry.

(v) *Importance of formal vs. previous experience and preferred employee profile*

Table 8.7 Employee recruiting preferences (percentage of panellists)

	FLP	SPV	MLM	HLM
	%	%	%	%
1 = Previous experience	0	0	0	0
2 = Formal education	20	10	20	10
3 = Both	80	90	80	90

This result indicates that 20% of the panellists favour formal education when recruiting for FLP and MLM positions. Similarly, 10% indicated a preference for formal education when recruiting for SPV and HLM positions. The majority (at least 80%) prefer a mixture of previous experience and formal education in recruiting for all occupational levels. None expressed an exclusive preference for previous experience when recruiting. Whereas a combination of previous experience and formal education is favoured by most of the panellists when recruiting for all occupational levels, previous experience alone is not sufficient to provide the skills necessary for the tour operations workplace. This strengthens the argument in favour of providing continuing education and distance learning, possibly in modular form for industry employees who lack formalised qualifications. This calls for more flexibility on the part of the providers and a shift toward the process approach to curriculum design.

(vi) Impacts of global trends on training and education in tour operations

Next the panellists were asked to evaluate the significance of different global trends with reference to Kenya's inbound tourism systems and, therefore, tourism training and education. With the exception of those in Table 8.8, most statements mirrored the wording used in the TEDQUAL pilot study (WTO 1997b: 114).

Table 8.8 Global business trends

Global business trends	Mean response (1= not significant 5= very significant)
Globalisation of business	4.5
Environmental awareness and sustainability	4.1
Changing consumer profiles and consumption patterns	4.4
Growth of multiculturalism	4.1
Technological changes	4.5
Increasing competition in international tourism	4.8

In Table 8.8, panellists indicated the perceived importance of a range of global business trends. All the trends received a score of 4.0 and above, meaning that, according to the

panellists, all of the listed global trends are predicted to have significant effect on tourism training and education in Kenya. These findings have potentially significant strategic implications for national policy development. Given the importance attached to remaining competitive as a destination in light of these global trends, a number of strategic choices will be necessary. The trends also need consideration at the institutional level when making curriculum design decisions. The high score (4.8) attached to increasing competition in international tourism is worth noting. As well as meeting the needs of this industry sector, the education system should produce competent and innovative graduates to enable the industry to compete in the global marketplace.

Table 8.9 Trends in development of specific employee skills

	Trends in development of specific employee skills	**Mean Response** (1 = Strongly disagree 5= Strongly agree)
1	Managers will need to develop more skills in human resource Management	4.6
2	Management levels will need more training in international environments and multi-cultural skills	4.5
3	Environmental awareness and conservation techniques will become an essential part of tourism education in all professional levels	4.2
4	Public health issues, such as AIDS will become an essential of tourism education at all levels	3.9
5	Supervisors will need to learn more high-level management skills, such as market forecasting and strategic planning	4.2
6	There will be increased need for international standards in quality of service and ultimately in employee skills and knowledge	4.3

Given that all scores reported were above 4.0, all panellists agree with the statements describing predicted trends in the development of specific employee skills (Table 8.9). The sole exception is the statement about public health becoming an essential part of tourism education (mean score 3.9). Human resource management and multi-culturalism are considered by the panellists to be the two priority areas for the purposes of skills development.

Table 8.10 Trends in the Tourism Education system

	Trends in Tourism Education system	Mean Response (1 = Strongly disagree 5= Strongly agree
1	Tourism training institutions will need to strengthen the part of their curriculum content dealing with business skills	4.4
2	Constant technological change will affect traditional teaching methods, with the introduction of alternatives such as distance learning, interactive training, etc	4.6
3	The industry will take on increasing responsibility for training their employees at all levels	4.1
4	Companies will increasingly facilitate continuing training to ensure employee commitment and retention	4.0
5	International exchange programs will become commonplace	3.4
6	There will be need for standardisation of tourism training and education as is the case with professions such as accountancy	4.1
7	There will be need for a national tourism training and education Strategy	4.6
8	The government will need to play a greater role in the bid to attain high standards of professionalism in tour operations in Kenya	3.8

One may argue here that the findings are limited in a sense since the experts did not have an opportunity to propose their own issues and were confined to closed answer responses. This is a valid argument, but as was argued in the previous chapter, in a study of this kind, a literature search may be the most effective means of identifying key issues with a view to future analysis.

Statements 6, 7 and 8 in Table 8.10 are not normally part of the TEDQUAL methodology and are the researcher's own insertion, included because of their special relevance to the Kenyan context in light of issues dealt with in Section 6.8. The results indicate that there is comparatively little enthusiasm for international exchange programs (3.4) or for the government's role in tourism training and education (3.8), although both elements fall within the medium score range (3.0-3.9). Alternative arrangements may be needed for the "internationalisation" of the curriculum. It is worth noting that "international exchange programs" received the lowest score (2.92) in the TEDQUAL pilot study. The government may also need to reassess its role in tourism training and education in Kenya. The panellists considered as very important the need for a national tourism training and education strategy (4.6). This is an important finding, which suggests a key strategic opportunity.

8.3 Employee Survey results

As stated in the previous chapter (section 6.3), the purpose of this part of the research was to obtain descriptive information that is not obtainable through the Delphi technique and to countercheck or validate some of findings from the panellists. The results are shown in the tables that follow.

(i) Employee profiles

Table 8.11 Occupational level of respondents

		Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	FLP	23	42.6	42.6
	SPV	12	22.2	64.8
	MLM	12	22.2	88.0
	HLM	7	13.0	100.0
	Total	54	100.0	

Table 8.12 Ages of respondents

	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
15-20	2	3.6	3.6
21-30	27	49.1	52.7
31-40	21	38.2	90.9
41-50	5	9.1	100.0
Total	55	100.0	

Over 90% of the respondents are below the age of forty and over half (52%) are below the age of 30 (Table 8.12).

Table 8.13 Highest education qualification of respondents

Education Qualification	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
No formal qualification (only high school cert.)	10	18.2	18.2
Professional qualification e.g. CPA	2	3.6	21.8
College e.g. KUC	40	72.7	94.5
University	3	5.5	100.0
Total	55	100.0	

Of the 55 respondents only 3 (5.5%) had university degree, and none of these were at MLM or HLM level (Table 8.13). In the "Delphi" findings panellists expressed a preference for university level education at the MLM and HLM levels and a college certificate is for the FLP and SPV levels. Based on the findings of the "Delphi" study (expert opinion), it can be concluded that a high number of unqualified persons occupy positions (particularly MLM and HLM levels) that require qualified people. This confirms the non-empirical report by Kimbwarata (cited in Sindiga 1996) that there are many unqualified persons in the tourism industry despite the fact that the tourism education system in Kenya is long established. Such a scenario, as seen in Section 1.2, is a symptom of a shortage of trained personnel. High attrition rates may also be a contributing factor.

It is interesting to note the convergence between the expert opinion and the employee survey. The experts, for example, noted a skills deficiency in at the SPV and MLM occupational levels (or generally management skills excepting for bias at the HLM level). This seems to be confirmed by the findings in Table 8.13). In this table the employee survey results show that at least 72.7% of the employees surveyed had a college qualification as a minimum. A high of college graduates was evident. However, the experts did not see their skills as adequate to undertake supervision and management positions. There is even greater convergence shown in the next analysis.

(ii) Important elements in tourism training and education curriculum

In question 19 of the questionnaire, the respondents were asked to evaluate the relevance of the TEDQUAL skills model to their jobs on a 5-point Likert scale. The results are displayed on Table 8.14. They were further asked to rate their own proficiency or "own ability" in these skills (Table 8.14).

Table 8.14 Relevance of skills vs own ability to perform

	Skill Relevance		**Own Ability**	
Skills	**Mean**	**Std. Deviation**	**Mean**	**Std. Deviation**
Relevance of Communication skills	4.75	.813	4.40	.743
Business knowledge	4.43	1.005	3.81	.953
Marketing	4.44	.993	3.57	1.029
Administrative procedures	4.56	.712	3.86	.917
Market forecasting	4.39	1.077	3.68	.978
Knowledge of tourism industry and trends	4.88	.439	4.23	.921
Strategic planning	4.35	1.032	3.74	1.103
Communication and promotion	4.61	.827	3.94	.988
Legal knowledge	3.87	1.408	3.18	1.244
Computing	4.48	1.019	3.47	1.302
Languages	4.15	1.109	3.65	1.632
Work in multicultural environment	4.33	1.260	4.24	.971
Motivation and initiative	4.80	.707	4.31	.940
Supervision	3.28	1.499	3.88	1.089
Training other employees	4.12	1.231	4.19	.841
Team work	4.81	.595	4.56	.752
Company loyalty	4.79	.717	4.70	.696
Courteous and friendly behaviour	4.94	.235	4.66	.586
Ability to solve conflicts within organisations	4.71	.642	4.13	1.030
Ability to solve problems	4.87	.345	4.38	.882
Ability to deal with people	4.91	.295	4.58	.602
Personal ethics	4.79	.793	4.64	.682
Efficient use of time	4.88	.379	4.53	.749
Ability to work in a systematic way	4.87	.486	4.52	.700
Flexibility	4.77	.724	4.54	.665
Decision-making capacity	4.77	.614	4.21	.885

A reliability test was carried out on SPSS to determine whether the skill items (Table 8.14) are correlated and therefore refer to the same thing. If they were found to be strongly correlated, they would be inappropriate as test items. Cronbach's Alpha is used to measure reliability on SPSS and takes values from 0 to 1, although negative scores are possible (Norusis 1993). Influencing factors include correlation of the items and the length of the test (in the table noted above there are 26 items). The closer the value is to 1 the more reliable the measurement. The "relevance" scores showed a moderately high

reliability (Cronbach's Alpha = .748), while a high reliability (Cronbach's Alpha = .903) was recorded for the items under "ability".

Overall, the results report lower mean scores for "ability" relative to "relevance". It appears that whilst the respondents perceived the various skills as being important in their day-to-day job performance, they were less confident on their own ability to perform. This suggests the presence of a quality gap. Using the arguments raised in Section 2.5, the employees may be regarded as the consumers of skills provided by the education system made up of all the providers and employers (in the case of on-the-job training and education). Quality gaps can be detected by the employees, who may be regarded as end "consumers" of skills they acquire from the system.

In order to identify the training and education quality gaps from the employees' perspective, a repeated measure or paired sample t-test was carried out (N = 54). The "employee self-rating" or "ability" scores (treated as pre-test scores) were matched with "relevance" scores (as post-test). Results are tabulated in Table 8.15. The difference score (D) was obtained for each pair in the following manner:

$D = X_{i2} - X_{i1}.$

X_{i1} represents the pre-test score and X_{i2} the post-test figure.

Table 8.15 Paired Sample Test Results: Relevance of skills vs Employee's self-rating

Skills	**Mean difference X_2-X_1**	**Std. Dev.**	**t**	**df**	**Sig. (2-tailed) p-value**
1 Communication skills	353	.868	2.905	52	.005
2 Business knowledge	.608	1.150	3.774	52	.000
3 Marketing ability	.796	1.060	5.255	52	.000
4 Administrative procedures	.674	.990	4.617	52	.000
5 Market forecasting	.717	1.047	4.647	52	.000
6 Knowledge of tourism industry and its trends	.625	1.004	4.319	52	.000
7 Strategic planning	.587	1.203	3.308	52	.002
8 Communication and promotion	.633	1.055	4.199	52	.000
9 Legal knowledge	.636	1.313	3.214	52	.002
10 Computing	.898	1.403	4.480	52	.000
11 Languages	.510	1.953	1.864	52	.068
12 Work in multicultural environment	.040	1.666	.170	52	.866
13 Motivation and initiative	.438	1.165	2.601	52	.012
14 Supervision	-.750	1.564	3.322	52	.002
15 Training other employees	-.020	1.049	-.134	52	.894
16 Team work	.255	.845	2.155	52	.036
17 Company loyalty	.096	.603	1.151	52	.255
18 Courteous and friendly behaviour	.294	.610	3.445	52	.001
19 Ability to solve conflicts within organisations	.620	.945	4.638	52	.000
20 Ability to solve problems	.481	.828	4.186	52	.000
21 Ability to deal with people	.308	.701	3.164	52	.003
22 Personal ethics	.154	.826	1.344	52	.185
23 Efficient use of time	.327	.900	2.911	52	.005
24 Ability to work in a systematic way	.333	.841	2.832	52	.007
25 Flexibility	.250	.860	2.095	52	.041
26 Decision-making capacity	.558	.895	4.495	52	.000

X_2 = Relevance score, X_1 = Ability score

Assuming there is no difference between the "pre-test" and the "post-test", the null hypothesis would be $H_0 : \mu_D = 0$. and the alternative hypothesis $H_1 : \mu_D \neq 0$. Such a test would be a non-directional one aimed at identifying any significant difference between employee perception of the relevance of the skills and their own abilities with reference to these skills. According to Tables 8.8 and 8.9 the "relevance" scores are obviously higher than the "ability" scores. Therefore a directional test aimed at testing whether the "relevance" scores (post-test) were significantly higher than the "ability" scores (pre-test) was performed for each item. The null hypothesis could still remain as above or be modified to $H_0 : \mu_D \leq 0$, but the alternative hypothesis changes to $H_1 : \mu_D > 0$, i.e. that the population difference is higher than 0. The null hypothesis is rejected if the p-value obtained from the SPSS output is <.05. (Table 8.15).

According to the results in reported in Table 8.15, quality gaps are evident in the case of all skills except languages (p = 0.68), ability to work in a multi-cultural environment (p = .866), company loyalty (p = .255), training other employees (p = .894) and personal ethics (p = .185). Although a significant difference is also evident in the case of supervision (p = .002), the ability score is higher than the relevance score as depicted by the negative mean difference value (-.750). In other words, although respondents are confident with this particular skill, they may not regard it as very important. This finding could be attributed to a design error with the instrument. Allowing for some amount of error, there is convergence between the findings here and the expert opinion as discussed in the previous section.

(iii) Formal work related training

Table 8.16 Formal work related course(s) attended in the last one year

	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Yes	15	28.8	28.8
No	39	72.2	100.0
Total	54	100.0	

Asked if they had any formal work related course in the previous one year (a similar study Barnet and Ryan (1994) asked about a period of 18 months), only 28.8% or less than one third of respondents answered in the affirmative. Moreover, of the 15 respondents who had attended courses, ten had attended a refresher course at Kenya Utalii college, three a Know Kenya Course conducted by the National Museum and two short computer courses. This may suggest a shortage of employee training schemes made available by employers. As was seen in Section 8.2, the ideal provision is likely to involve a combination of both school-based training or formal education and work-based training and education. Moreover, any deficiency in formal education should be made up for by on-the-job learning or through in-house training programs. A lack of employee training schemes was also identified in a report by Munyori (1992) though it was not empirically based (in Sindiga 1996).

(iv) Question 18: Reasons for not attending any training

This set out to identify restrictions to training and education from the perspective of the employees. It was not feasible to undertake such an investigation concerning perceived restrictions from the student point of view.

Table 8.17 Reasons for not attending any training

	Mean	Std. Deviation
Reasons for not attending any course		
Courses not held near enough	2.8	1.689
Courses unavailable	1.8	1.399
I'm not aware of the variety of courses available	1.8	1.521
I cannot be released from work for any training	2.3	1.631
I don't have any interest	1.5	1.222
The time the courses are available is not appropriate	2.5	1.592
Courses are too expensive	3.2	1.713
Difficult to gain entry into colleges	2.4	1.670

As indicated by the low mean scores the respondents did not identify any significant education and training restrictions (Table 8.17). The most notable were the cost of training and education and location. Perhaps costs featured prominently because respondents would prefer courses offered by private providers (such as training consultancies) in preference to the type of free refresher courses offered by Kenya Utalii College funded trough the Training Levy. This conclusion is arrived at because the respondents did not seem to be ignorant of the variety of courses available (mean score 1.8). The low score reported for lack of interest might suggest that employees are generally enthusiastic about furthering their training and education. The response to "courses not held near enough" may suggest the need to deploy learning methods such as distance learning supported, where appropriate, by contemporary technology.

8.4 The outcomes from the unstructured and semi-structured interviews

The purpose of this part of the study was to:

- Evaluate the education providers' perceptions of the role of the tour operations sector;
- Evaluate the skills model used above with reference to tour operations in Kenya; and
- Identify critical issues for Kenya's tourism training and education system.

The interviews involved representatives/heads of tourism departments of five training institutions, KATO, and the Ministry of Tourism and Wildlife. Attempts to obtain interview with the Kenya Institute of Education (KIE) and the Department of Industrial Training (within the Ministry of Labour and Manpower Development) were unsuccessful.

(i) Kenya Association of Tour Operators KATO

A discussion with the Chief Executive of the tour operator association centred on various proposals previously made by the association to a Ministry of Tourism and Wildlife/EU joint committee aimed at improving, among other, things tourism training and education.

One of the key issues identified is that there are now various institutions offering tourism training and education. As such there is a concern that without proper regulation and co-ordination, quality may be compromised. Recommendations had been made for the establishment of common standards of examination and certification for both private and public institutions offering tourism courses. Such a long and arduous process would involve cataloguing and appraising of the establishments presently offering courses within the sector with details of curricula offered. Such information is currently not available.

There are two key issues in such a process of standardisation. Firstly there is a need to define common standards for examination and certification—a core curriculum for all levels of training and education. Secondly there is a need for identification of funding mechanisms for the certification process along with establishment of a competent

examination body. There was a suggestion that the Kenya National Examination Council be used to establish the process.

In this context there is a need to provide training opportunities for trainers, which should include continuing education through overseas scholarship programmes. The association noted too the inadequacy of in-house training, particularly in smaller establishments, due to a lack of training facilities and limited financial resources.

(ii) Outcome of interviews with Tourism departments

Question 1: How would you evaluate the role of tour operations within Kenya's industry tourism industry?

Respondents were asked to evaluate the role of the tour operator role within Kenya's tourism industry. Three rated the role of the tour operator 5 on a scale of 1 to five where 5 is "extremely important". The other two respondents gave a rating of 4.

Question 2: To what extent have your training and education efforts been able to meet the needs of this industry sector?

One respondent institution rated its performance 4, while the rest rated themselves 2 on a Likert-type scale of 1 for poor to five 5 for excellent. On further reflection and discussion it was clear that the low self-rating was not attributable to a lack of confidence in their programs, but a perception of gaps in their provision in the absence of adequate provider/industry interface.

Question 4: The extent of industry/institution liaison and co-operation

A number of common themes were evident in the discussions with all respondents on the extent of industry/education provider liaison and co-operation in curriculum design and development,:

- Although providers saw the need for greater cooperation and involvement of industry, especially in course design and development, very limited formal industry/education provider liaison and co-operation existed. Proper feedback mechanisms were also lacking.
- A need-driven approach to tourism training and education was regarded as necessary.

- Every training and education institution needed an industry advisory committee.
- Coordination/liaison with industry becomes critical in in-training (attachment) of students because only the industry is capable of providing the appropriate atmosphere for experiential learning.

Question 6 Impediments to the development of necessary skills

According to Haywood and Maki (1991), training and education output is influenced by, among other factors, the needs and limitations of the educators. Accordingly, it was necessary to focus on the limitations the providers face in imparting the required skills:

- *Cultural limitations*

  2 out of the 5 respondents cited two cultural limitations that have an impact on the learning of the students and, therefore, the training and education output. The first limitation is the difference in appreciation of tourist activities due to differences in cultural frame of reference (e.g. hiking may not strike the local student as an important tourist activity). The other limitation arose from the traditional role of women in most local societies. Culturally, it was unimaginable, for example, that a woman would be a tour guide, since such a job would involve the employee being out on tour for several days (an abdication from domestic responsibilities) and, sometimes, in the company of male tourists (which has moral overtones).

  These observations imply a need for new approaches in teaching tourism and, in particular, the need for a more multi-cultural component (see Section 3.3 (f)). Jafari's (1993) argument about the need for "cosmopolitanism" becomes valid here. As he observes, just learning a foreign language is not enough. The student needs to understand certain important elements of the culture of potential clients. The students will also need an orientation to overcome their own stereotypes. It is interesting to note that the experts regard the relevance of multicultural skills as a top priority trend in the development of specific employee skills (Section 8.2).

- *Teaching materials and facilities*

  All the three private providers cited a lack of training for trainers as a major limitation in providing required skills. As no proper train the trainer programs were available locally, it was suggested that scholarships be provided for study abroad. Such opportunities should be availed both to public and private institutions. They argued that currently scholarships are only channelled to the public institutions.

  Other limitations identified included a lack of appropriate textbooks. The textbooks currently available for subjects in the area of tour operations were based, to a large extent, on Euro-American tourism systems. This has come about as a result of the lack of local research effort in the area due to a lack of funds. A research orientation was also generally lacking in the teaching approaches used in the institutions. In addition, it was expensive to develop manuals locally. Financial constraints also imposed limitations on the practical aspects of courses such as field trips.

- *Financial limitations*

  Financial limitations were cited by all three private providers. They argued that because of the present state of the economy, they were forced to charge low fees or else they would not attract potential students (most of whom are funded by their parents in the absence any welfare system). Consequently, profit margins were low and so it was necessary to enrol higher numbers of students to meet the costs. This led to lack of facilities and well-trained trainers.

- *Barriers to placing students on practical attachment*

  All respondents identified placing students on practical attachment as a major problem. Asked why this was so, one respondent observed that tour companies are generally small with limited office space and are very wary of people making mistakes. However, problems in the education provider/industry interface are implied.

- *The curriculum*

  One respondent observed that a research orientation was generally lacking in teaching methods. This is due to the way in which the courses of the particular institution were set, as they were intended to produce graduates who would meet specific industry needs at the time (over 20 years ago). One of the respondents also

observed that tourism education and training programmes (industry continuing education programs) were narrowly focused on the hospitality sector and were not reflective of the wider scope of the tourism industry.

Question 8. Areas they perceive to be important in the tour operations today

Having explained the three skills model, the researcher asked respondents to evaluate its relevance to the tour operations sector in Kenya. In each case scores for all the skills were within the range of 4 and 5 on the scale of 1=not important and 5=Extremely important. This seems to validate the findings of the expert opinion and the employee survey.

Question 8. The standardisation of tourism education.

One respondent observed that private tourism training and education had become "highly commercialised". Another noted that while the harmonisation of standards is necessary, different levels should be clearly established. Standards for degree level of education should be separate from certificate and diploma standards. One other respondent added that continuous learning in flexible modular form should be provided for those already employed in industry. Another respondent expressed the need for an equivalent of the "Certified Public Accountant" (CPA) designation for tourism since many employers were unaware what certain tourism qualifications involved. Unlike the industry experts, education providers unanimously stated that the MOTW was best placed to initiate the process of harmonisation of standards in tourism training and education.

Question 9. The formation of an industry training and education body

One respondent argued that the formation of a tourism industry training and education body was critical in view of the importance of tourism to Kenya's economy and the significance of tourism training and education. All respondents regarded the involvement of all stakeholders as vital. Stakeholders mentioned included: Ministry of Tourism and Wildlife, Ministry of Education and Human Resources, public and private institutions, KIE, DIT, industry and industry associations. Respondents stated that the proposed body should be independent of MOTW. One respondent justified this approach on the basis that tourism education as a dynamic area is not compatible with the

bureaucratic strictures and mechanisms of a government ministry. This observation concurs with the "expert opinion".

Question 10. Key issues in enhancing professionalism in the industry sector

One respondent expressed the need for greater support from the Ministry of Tourism and Wildlife in terms of policy initiative. A more proactive approach would be achieved through research and this would require the establishment of a research centre. The absence of a common forum where providers could share ideas was noted as a missing ingredient in the tourism training and education system.

Question 11. The government role in the development of tourism training and education in Kenya?

One of the respondents argued for a clear policy on tourism training and education with the government playing a stronger coordination and regulation role. Another respondent preferred diminution of the government role in operation of institutions. This desire to see a decline in the government's role corresponds with one of the "expert opinion" findings.

Another respondent sought a fairer distribution of scholarships for teacher education to include private institutions—most scholarships are channelled through the government (Directorate of Personnel Management in the Office of the President or individual ministries). One option would be for the determination of who should get what scholarship being left to a national tourism training and education body once formed.

The previous section may assist in the processes of curriculum design and improvement for the industry, policy-makers and other interested parties.

Chapter 9

Conclusions and Opportunities for Further Research

9.1 Review of the study

As is the case in most developing countries, the nations of sub-Saharan Africa face severe socio-economic hardships. Given the difficulties encountered in other economic sectors, tourism seems to be a viable alternative as a vehicle for economic development. Whilst the current performance of international tourism to the region is disappointing in view of the region's rich natural and cultural heritage, adopting a functional approach to development based on good policy and sound management can optimise the benefits of tourism.

One of the reasons for the slow development of tourism in the region is the lack of skilled labour. Many approaches have been used in a bid to alleviate the skills shortage, and have met with little success. The position taken in the current research is that domestic capacity building is the best among many alternative approaches to ameliorate the skills deficiency. This will be achieved, mainly, through improved of tourism training and education provision.

The early chapters of this thesis have highlighted the country's past success as a nature-based international tourist destination within sub-Saharan Africa. However, increasing competition and forces occurring in the macroenvironment necessitate changes of strategy, both at the micro and macro levels. Moreover, Kenya's poor recent international tourism performance reveals systemic shortcomings that need to be overcome.

Human resources are central to effective tourism operations sector and staff development should be a priority issue for tourism development. Improving the skills and knowledge of the workforce can assist a destination to maintain and develop its competitive advantage and to establish and maintain a sustainable industry. As has been argued, skill deficiencies are the cause of a number of problems facing Kenya's inbound tourism. This explains the importance of the sector-by-sector approach to education and

training outlined in the present research. Such an approach has been regarded as a prerequisite for the formulation of a national tourism training and education strategy.

The present study has focused on skills development for the tour operating sector as a critical component of Kenya's inbound tourism system. Since Kenya's tourism is primarily nature-based and reliant on the package tour market, the tour operations sector plays a critical role. As has been argued, the development of skills within this sector is important for both economic and social reasons. However, an apparent lack of proper co-ordination and cooperation among the key stakeholders in tourism training and education has acted as constraint to such skill development.

An overview of tourism training and education in Kenya has identified the key issues that need to be addressed:

- The need to identify clearly the training needs of the various industry sectors;
- The need to develop a proper mechanism for industry/education and training liaison and co-operation in the development of curricula and other training initiatives;
- The need for harmonisation of tourism training and education standards;
- The need for an appropriate human resources development policy for tourism; and
- The need for an integrated strategic tourism training and education plan.

To enable the present study to address some of these issues, a number of objectives were identified. These included: identify the training and education quality gaps in inbound tour operations; assess the level of training required; assess the views of industry experts about the most appropriate modes of delivery; identify relevant employee training schemes; and determine the global trends likely to impact on future tourism training and education in Kenya.

Various methodological concerns were taken into account in arriving at the appropriate research design. Methodological considerations, as they relate to tourism training and education, concern the diversity of perspectives resulting from the fragmented nature of the tourism industry and its sheer complexity. Methodological concerns were explored and justifications made for the multiple approaches taken in the present study.

(a) Training and education quality gaps in inbound tour operations

The present study has combined a modified version of the Delphi technique, qualitative in-depth interviews and a survey. All of these approaches make complementing contribution to the overall findings.

From all three data sets, we may conclude that the skills model used in the TEDQUAL pilot study as applied in the present research is relevant to the inbound tour operating sector in Kenya. Whilst alternative models have been applied in other tourism training and education studies (see Olesen and Schettini 1994; Barnet and Ryan 1994; Collins *et al* 1994; Koh 1995), they are similar and the only differences are largely semantic. Whilst acknowledging that exceptions exist, the three skill groups appear to lend themselves to a core curriculum for tour operations courses namely: Basic Training, Technical Training and Personal skills.

Experts were invited to add other skills that they perceived to be relevant to the sector. Only two respondents chose to take up the opportunity. These two experts each suggested an addition, but these fitted within the existing model.

At this stage we may assume then that the quality gaps identified by the experts and through the employee survey are genuine training and education provision gaps within the sector. Basing our findings on all three data sets, gaps were found to exist at all four occupational levels: FLP, SPV, MLM and HLM. The results suggest that the greatest deficiency is focussed on the three management levels (SPV, MLM and HLM), although some expert opinion bias may be concealing the widely acknowledged need for improvement at the HLM level.

(b) Relevant delivery modes

Expert opinion has indicated that employers do not wish to rely exclusively on on–the-job or other employer provided training and education to meet their skills needs. Instead the need for both formal and informal training was acknowledged. The ideal employee needs to draw upon both approaches. Such findings have served to strengthen the argument in favour of continuous learning in the case of those already employed and in favour of emphasising the practical component during formal education.

(c) Employee training schemes, employer/education provider collaboration and education standards

Confirming the findings of Munyori (1992), the present study has also confirmed a lack of employee training schemes within the tour operations sector (in Sindiga 1996). Employees seeking to acquire education to assist their advancement typically look to external providers and particularly those in the private sector. This source of skills for self-advancement is however restricted by two major factors: expense and inconvenience of location. A lack of employer sponsored employee training schemes is largely a consequence of the small size of firms while the advent of user-pays initiatives by individual employees is hindered by low incomes. As has been argued by Thomas (1998) such a situation can only be ameliorated by government intervention in the form of subsidised training.

It is interesting to note that of the 26 skills listed, only three cases: languages, legal knowledge and courteous and friendly behaviour did a majority of experts not favour a combination of on-the-job and off-the-job training and education. This challenges the view that training and education are independent and exclusive. Commenting on the issue of standardisation, one education provider observed the need to have standards that pertain to multiple levels and not the currently crude distinction between the vocational and academic sectors.

The need for harmonisation of standards has been identified by both expert opinion and in the interviews with training and education providers. Education providers regard the government as being best placed to steer the process by allowing for the formation of a national tourism education and training strategy and an examination body that is free from direct government influence. This would suggest that the government may need to limit its role to policy formulation and regulation and to withdraw from the operational side.

The harmonisation of tourism training and education standards could be a means of ensuring quality education and training and not a means of muzzling creativity and innovation in educational provision. This was seen to be necessary in Kenya in light of

the increasing number of providers. Standardisation could enhance the awareness of qualifications on the part of employers and students, thereby improving employer/education interface and enhancing communication between the sectors. Harmonisation of standards may be justified in the tourism industry on the basis that the far reaching economic and social impacts currently being experienced extend beyond the "industry" itself. In the absence of regulation the effects may be unanticipated and unfortunate.

The results suggest that education providers are not indifferent to employer skill requirements as is commonly thought. Providers want their graduates to meet industry requirements and be readily employable. Such an industry–focussed orientation for the curriculum would be, as Koh has termed it, a "win-win" strategy for all parties (1995: 68). The providers have identified a need for closer co-operation in curriculum design—or what Bernthall (1988) has called a collaborative relationship. Clearly, providers have limitations and face resource constraints. A common forum would provide the opportunity to address such issues by bringing together various parties involved in the provision of training and education.

(d) Global tourism training and education trends

One of the study objectives was to determine those global trends likely to impact on the future of tourism training and education. The prediction that tourism training institutions will need to focus more of their attention on business skills in the curriculum deserves attention. This component may be deficient with particular reference to the needs of the tour operations sector in Kenya as indicated by the low scores attributed to business related skills (Section 8.2).

Technological change will continue to impact upon teaching methods, with the introduction of alternatives such as distance learning and interactive training. In Kenya, more efficient methods of teaching and presentation could enable greater student numbers to be accommodated than is currently the case. This may be a more cost effective approach than the physical expansion of facilities, especially in hard economic times, though a thorough feasibility analysis would be needed before a definitive view could be justified.

One important global trend is the development of multi-culturalism. Tourism involves handling visitors from different cultural and ethnic backgrounds. This study has verified, both from the expert opinion and education provider interviews that multi-cultural skills are a vital component of the tourism training and education curriculum as it applies to the tour operations sector.

Traditionally there has been an emphasis on the teaching of foreign languages to prepare students to communicate effectively with clients. Language, however, is only a single component of communication since communication involves both verbal and non-verbal aspects. A wider and deeper understanding of other cultures is needed if more meaningful and memorable service encounters are to be encouraged. A knowledge of other cultures is crucial in cross-cultural negotiations and will be increasingly important as tour operators expand globally.

9.2 Quality of tourism training and education in Kenya's tour operating sector

An assessment of the quality of education provision is timely in view of the high level of unemployment. The quality of workforce skills is more relevant than the volume of graduates emerging from the training and education system each year.

As discussed in Chapter 2, training and education can be conceptualised as a continuum consisting of internal consumers at one end and external consumers at the other. From a quality perspective, the consumers are also producers. This was the argument used in the assessment of tourism training and education quality.

In this research employers have been viewed conceptually as being located at the external end of the training and education system. This enables an evaluation of the quality of the output from the entire tourism training and education system, which includes both formal education and on-the-job training. A measure of employers' satisfaction with employee skills is an indication of the quality of training and education received. However, as the evidence in this study has shown, a number of quality gaps are evident across the system.

This study is unusual in having used three different data collection methods to arrive at a consensus. This approach is different from the TEDQUAL methodology which was the starting point for the study. The chosen approach alleviates doubts about the applicability of the skills model and the validity and reliability of the total quality approach to tourism training and education. In view of the fact that TEDQUAL methodology is itself relatively new, the current approach could be criticised for being relatively untested. However the methods used in the present study do appear to measure the quality of training and education through a process of cross-checking.

It is clear quality gaps do exist in the delivery of specific skills. The gaps do not necessarily indicate a failure on the part of the education providers because the efficient provision of education requires an involvement by both education providers and employers. Moreover, as was alluded to in the face-to-face interviews with education providers, quality gaps may exist because of unique socio-cultural and other factors that surround either the learner or the learning process. Such problems could be addressed in the context of a national tourism training and education strategy.

9.3 Recommendations

The formulation of recommendations is appropriate for the present study in light of the broad concern about tour operator training and education and the critical importance of responding to industry needs and expectations. Figure 9.1 outlines the possible shape of a national tourism training and education strategy. Part of the objectives of the strategy would be the formation of a national tourism training and education body reflecting the following characteristics:

- Representing the views and interests of the relevant stakeholders. In particular, this body could bring together government, the private sector and education providers.
- Free from the control of any single group.
- Should be capable of initiating strategies for (i) improvement in the quality of training and education; (ii) improvement in communication and collaboration between the different stakeholders; (iii) creation of a training and education culture; and a (iv) framework for the establishment of national qualification standards.

Similar initiatives have been undertaken in other countries. Models adopted elsewhere may not be directly relevant to Kenya, given systemic differences, but they do provide relevant examples from which ideas can be generated. Specific examples of such models include Ireland (Walsh 1993); Scotland (Brogan 1994); and Britain (Collins et al 1994, Westlake 1997).

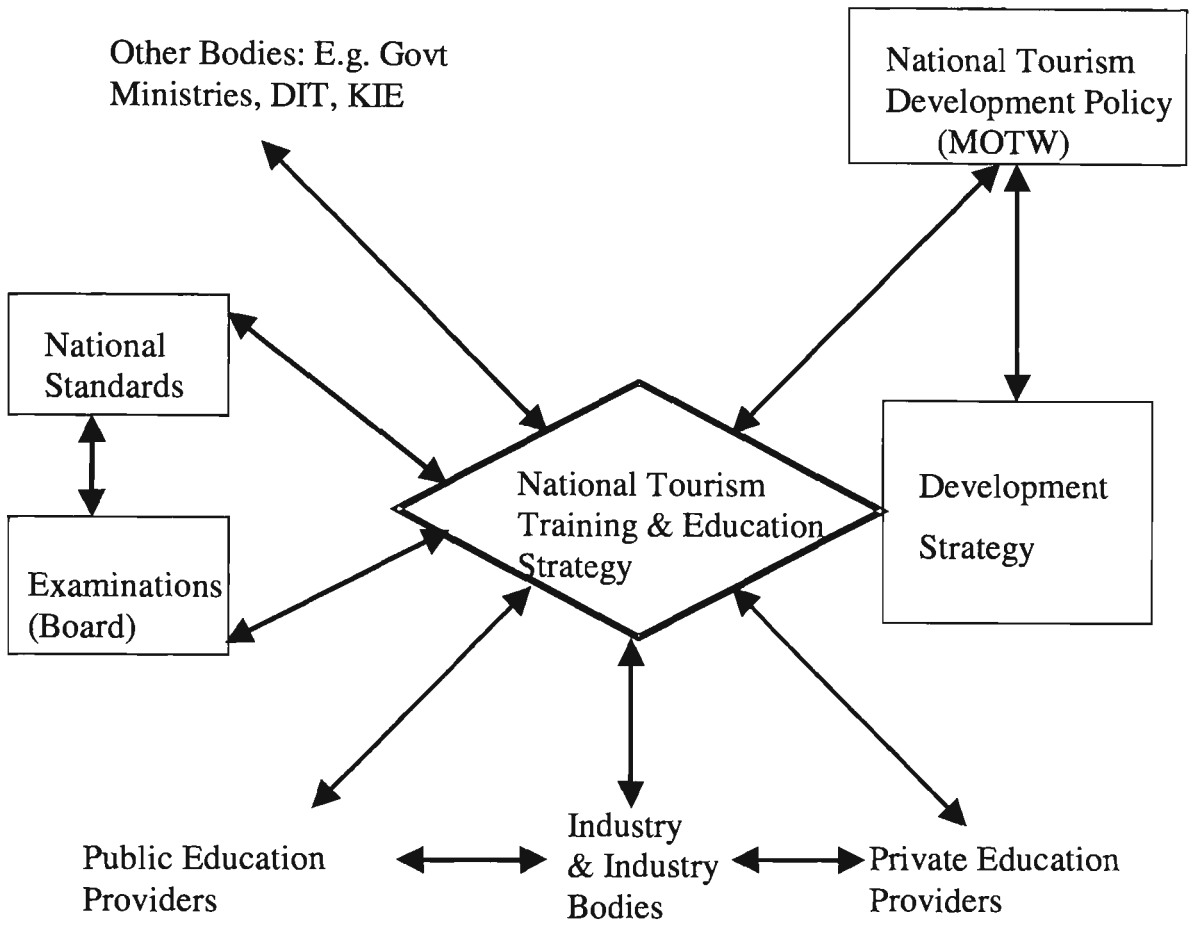

Figure 9.1 Model National Tourism Training and Education Strategy

DIT= Department of Industrial Training, KIE = Kenya Institute of Education

Figure 9.1 assumes that a national tourism training and education strategy should incorporate the views and contributions of key stakeholders. The strategy could be closely connected with, and directed by the national tourism development strategy, which at the moment is represented by the Tourism Master Plan (MOTW/JICA 1995). Part of the training and education strategy is to establish national qualification standards. Within such a framework, the work of actual examination can be left to various examining bodies (which will need to be accredited). It could also be carried out by a

single examination board. The educational institutions may be represented as shown, but they will also need to maintain a relationships with the industry through industry advisory bodies. The arrows point in both directions indicative of two-way relationships and communications.

The present study has proposed the means of identifying the specific skill requirements of the key industry sectors in terms of quality. As was discussed in the second chapter, it is maintained that tourism training and education should reflect the full breadth of the industry. There is a need to undertake a supply-side analysis of current provision in terms of course content and duration, facilities and number of students.

To be able to meet the quality training and education needs of the tourism industry, there is need for locally initiated research. Such research needs to focus on business, socio-economic and cultural dynamics that impact upon training and education. Research effort should also focus on adding to the existing literature and on extending the current research to other sectors of the tourism industry such as hotel and restaurant management. This approach could result in the development of materials such as monographs and manuals suited to local needs and based on the needs expressed by industry leaders. Stimulation of local research efforts, development of local tourism education materials such as monographs and manuals and local train the trainer courses could, perhaps, be considered for donor community funding to enhance the domestic capacity building agenda.

9.4 Limitations of the study

The approach adapted in the present research to the quality assessment of tourism training and education is very new. As far as the researcher is aware, this is the first fully documented example of the TEDQUAL method applied to a single sector and it is thus experimental.

The time limitation was a key constraint. This means that no pilot study was carried out to test the suitability of the instruments. In addition, the "expert opinion" part of the study did not meet some of the normal criteria expected in Delphi study. For example several rounds of questionnaires would normally be expected. Moreover, because of this

time constraint, it was not possible to interview certain key persons, though various attempts were made. The sample sizes were also fairly small.

9.5 Further research

A number of aspects of the present research could be further developed:

- There is need for a DACUM study, which will involve actual curriculum content analysis of the courses offered by various institutions. This will establish further the strengths and weaknesses in content and presentation of the various subjects offered.
- A study of the specific needs of driver guides.
- Quantitative studies of the current state of education and training and employment, establishing, facts such as the: relationships between sizes of firms and in-house programs, remuneration and years of education and attrition rates.
- Future studies need to include the student perspective in line with the process approach to curriculum design.
- Similar studies or a more extensive study that will incorporate most of the key component tourism sectors.
- The employee survey chose to exclude tour drivers on the basis that they are out in the field most of the time and some may have limited literacy skills. For future research it is recommended that face-to-face interviews be conducted on a more extensive scale and over a longer period of time.

The present exploratory study has raised a range of key issues that can benefit from further investigation. Many of the issues could be quantified and analysed in subsequent regional and national studies. There is also a need to determine actual links between the quality of education and training and functions such as marketing and economic planning. Such investigations could be useful to policy-makers, education providers and industry.

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Appendix I

Map of sub-Saharan Africa

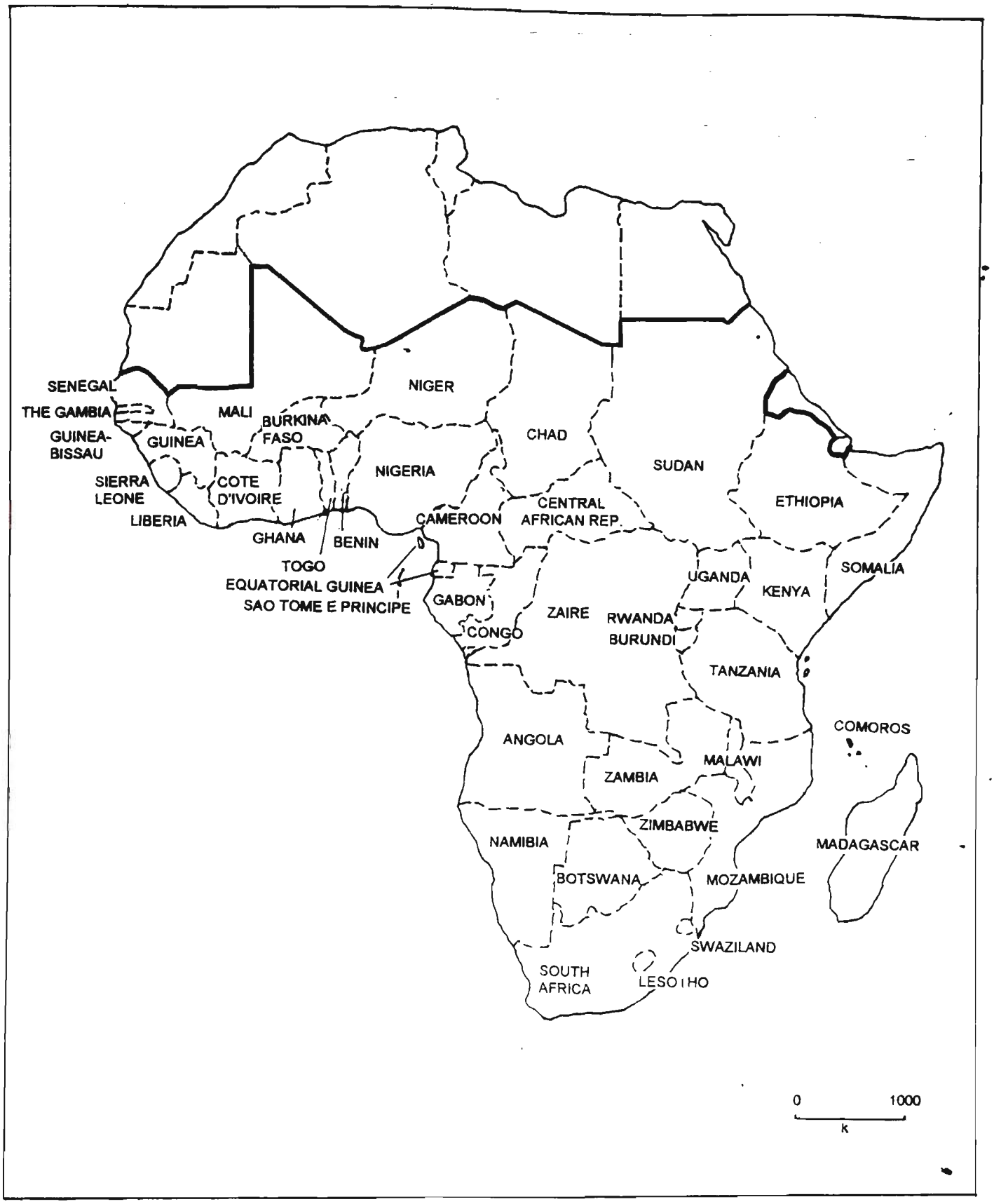
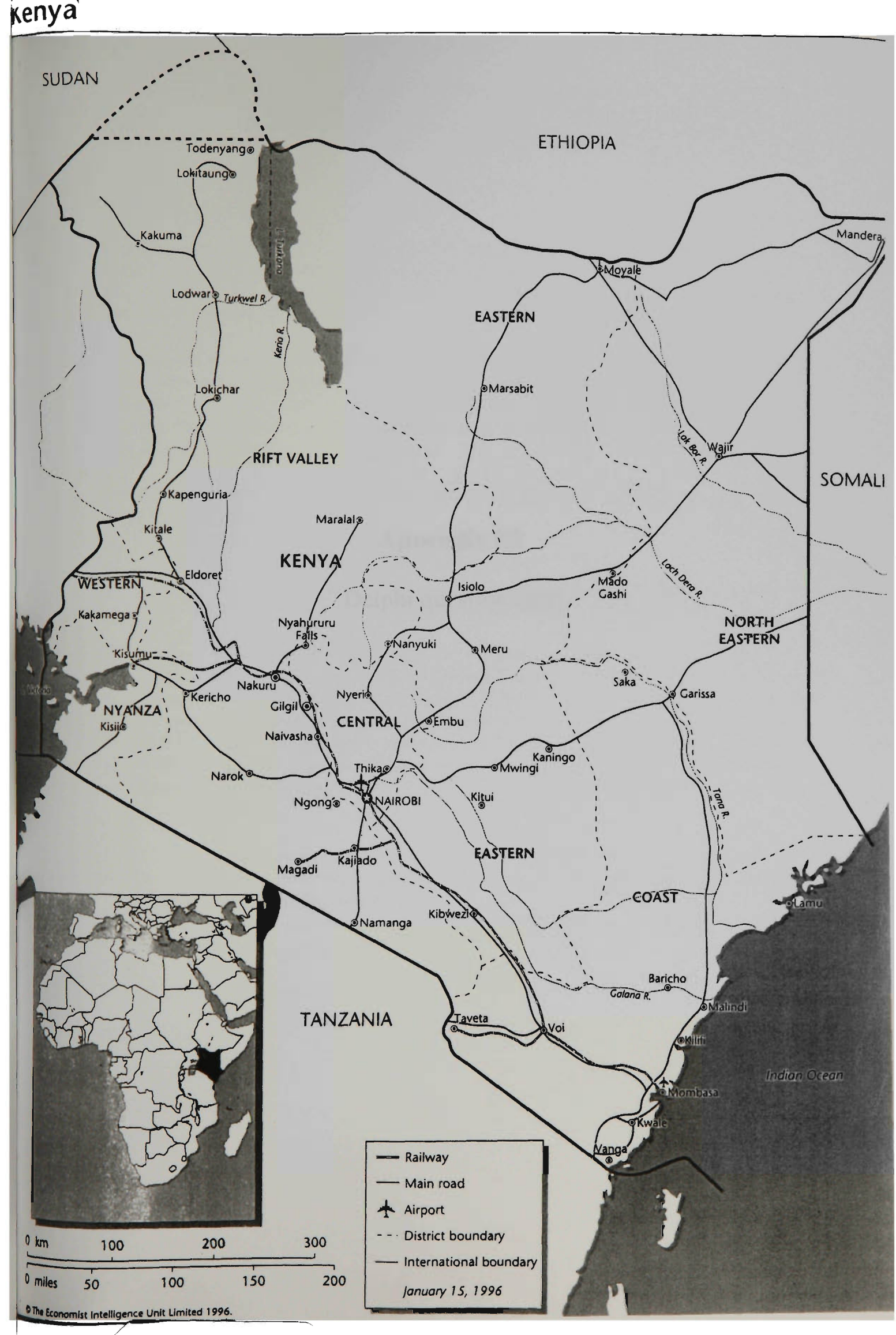


Figure 5.1 Sub-Saharan Africa


kenya
SUDAN
ETHIOPIA
SOMALI
TANZANIA
Todenyang
Lokitaung
Kakuma
Lodwar
Turkwel R.
Kerio R.
Lokichar
Kapenguria
Kitale
Eldoret
WESTERN
Kakamega
Kisumu
NYANZA
Kisii
Maralal
KENYA
RIFT VALLEY
Nyahururu Falls
Nakuru
Kericho
Gilgil
Naivasha
Narok
Nyeri
Nanyuki
Meru
CENTRAL
Embu
Thika
NAIROBI
Ngong
Kajiado
Magadi
Namanga
Isiolo
Marsabit
Moyale
Mandera
EASTERN
Lak Bor R.
Wajir
Mado Gashi
Loch Dera R.
NORTH EASTERN
Saka
Garissa
Kaningo
Mwingi
Kitui
Tana R.
EASTERN
COAST
Kibwezi
Taveta
Voi
Lamu
Baricho
Galana R.
Malindi
Kilifi
Mombasa
Kwale
Vanga
Indian Ocean
Railway
Main road
Airport
District boundary
International boundary
January 15, 1996
0 km 100 200 300
0 miles 50 100 150 200
© The Economist Intelligence Unit Limited 1996.

Appendix III

Delphi questionnaire

Assessment of Tourism Training and Education: The Case of Kenyan Tour Operators

Dear Mr. .....

I kindly request you to be part of a panel of industry experts assessing the training and education in the tour operations sector of the tourism industry in Kenya. I'm carrying out this project as part of a Master of Business and in Tourism Management in Victoria University of Technology in Melbourne, Australia.

The purpose of the project is to assess the quality of training and education, specifically in the tour operations sector. The aim is to find out if there are any deficiencies in the provision of skills, and if so suggest remedial strategies. Such suggestions, if implemented, it is hoped, will go a long way in enhancing professionalism in the industry and, hence, efficiency and competitiveness.

The specific **objective** of this part of the project is to get expert opinion on specific issues in training and education:

- Quality of current training and education;
- The future training and education needs; and
- The impacts of global trends on tourism training and education, with specific reference to the to the tour operations sector of the tourism industry in Kenya.

The method being applied in this exercise is called the Delphi Technique. This may involve two rounds of questionnaires being presented to you. The first round will gather your initial responses to the questions (**see attachment**). Your responses and the overall result or group opinion, after responses from all panellists have been considered, will then be availed to you for revaluation. You will be required to reconsider your responses, given the group result, and then fill out a similar questionnaire. It is the result of this second round questionnaire that will be considered as the final group opinion on the key issues listed above.

Given your expertise and knowledge, your input will be very valuable in guiding future tourism training and education initiatives in Kenya. In order to facilitate this project, therefore, you are kindly requested to:

- Thoroughly and carefully consider the issues; and
- Keep to the requested schedule.

I thank you in anticipation and remain,

Yours truly

MELPHON MAYAKA

DELPHI QUESTIONNAIRE

Assessment of Tourism Training and Education: The Case of Kenyan Tour Operators

To respond directly on E-mail, simply copy this file and use "copy" and "paste" to insert the tick "✓"it in the relevant box.

Part A Employer satisfaction with employee skills

Please kindly indicate the level of satisfaction with the skills of your employees in the four occupational levels as shown below (1= Unsatisfactory and 5 = Excellent) **FLP** = Frontline personnel, staff with high degree of interaction with customers; **SPV**= Supervisors, staff in charge of others but not whole departments ; **MLM** = Mid-level management, staff responsible for whole departments; **HLM** = High-level management, staff with authority to make strategic decisions e.g. general manager.

(i) Satisfaction with the overall performance of employees

In this part you are requested to indicate your satisfaction with the overall performance of your employees at all the four occupational levels.

FLP				
1	2	3	4	5

SPV				
1	2	3	4	5

MLM				
1	2	3	4	5

HLM				
1	2	3	4	5

(ii) Satisfaction with specific skills

Now indicate the level of satisfaction with the specific skills and knowledge of the employees.

	FLP					SPV					MLM					HLM				
	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
Training Area																				
BASIC TRAINING																				
Communication skills																				
Business knowledge																				
Marketing																				
Administrative procedures																				
Market forecasting																				
Knowledge of tourism industry																				
and it trends																				
Strategic planning																				
Communication and promotion																				
Legal knowledge																				
TECHNICAL TRAINING																				
Computing																				
Languages																				
PERSONAL SKILLS																				
Work in a multi-cultural																				
environment																				
Motivation and initiative																				
Supervision																				
Training other employees																				
Team work																				
Company loyalty																				
Courteous and friendly behaviour																				
Ability to resolve conflicts within organisations																				
Ability to solve problems																				
Deal effectively with people																				
Personal ethics																				
Efficient use of time																				
Ability to work in a systematic way																				
Flexibility																				
Decision-making capacity																				

OTHER SKILLS (SPECIFY)	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5

Part B

In this part you are requested to further evaluate the ability of the current training and education system to provide the required skills in the next 10 years (1= Unsatisfactory and 5 = Excellent).

	FLP 1 2 3 4 5	SPV 1 2 3 4 5	MLM 1 2 3 4 5	HLM 1 2 3 4 5
Training Area				
BASIC TRAINING				
Communication skills				
Business knowledge				
Marketing				
Administrative procedures				
Market forecasting				
Knowledge of tourism industry and its trends				
Strategic planning				
Communication and promotion				
Legal knowledge				
TECHNICAL TRAINING				
Computing				
Languages				
PERSONAL SKILLS				
Work in a multi-cultural				
environment				
Motivation and initiative				
Supervision				
Training other employees				
Team work				
Company loyalty				
Courteous and friendly behaviour				
Ability to resolve conflicts				
within organisations				
Ability to solve problems				
Deal effectively with people				
Personal ethics				
Efficient use of time				

Personal skills (contd.)
Ability to work in a systematic way
Flexibility
Decision-making capacity
OTHER SKILLS (SPECIFY)

Part C

Preferred training and education modes

Learning in tourism can occur at school or college, at work or both. In this part your are, therefore, requested to indicate the best setting for the acquisition of the skills and knowledge by ticking "✓" the appropriate box.

	School (College)	**Work**	**Both**
Training Area			
BASIC TRAINING			
Communication skills			
Business knowledge			
Marketing			
Administrative procedures			
Market forecasting			
Knowledge of tourism industry and it trends			
Strategic planning			
Communication and promotion			
Legal knowledge			
TECHNICAL TRAINING			
Computing			
Languages			
PERSONAL SKILLS			
Work in a multi-cultural			
environment			
Motivation and initiative			
Supervision			
Training other employees			
Team work			
Company loyalty			
Courteous and friendly behaviour			
Ability to resolve conflicts			
within organisations			
Ability to solve problems			

Personal skills (contd.)	**School**	**Work**	**Both**
Deal effectively with people			
Personal ethics			
Efficient use of time			
Ability to work in a systematic way			
Flexibility			
Decision-making capacity			
OTHER SKILLS (SPECIFY)			

Part D Importance of formal education vs. previous experience and preferred employee profile

(i) *Formal education vs. previous experience*
Kindly indicate the relative importance of formal education and previous experience when employing new staff.

	FLP	**SPV**	**MLM**	**HLM**
Importance				
Previous experience				
Formal education				
Both				

(ii) Preferred employee profile

	FLP	**SPV**	**MLM**	**HLM**
Preferred level of education				
College (Vocational education)				
University				
Postgraduates				

DELPHI QUESTIONNAIRE

Assessment of Tourism Training and Education: The Case of Kenyan Tour Operators

Part E Impacts of global trends on training and education in tour operation

(i) Global business trends

To what extent will the following global trends impact the need for tourism training and education in tour operations in Kenya? Please check the appropriate box where 1= little or no effect and 5 = very significant effect

	Not Significant				Very Significant
	1	2	3	4	5
Global trends					
Globalisation or internationalisation of business					
Environmental awareness and sustainability					
Changing consumer profiles and consumption patterns					
Growth of multiculturalism					
Technological changes					
Increasing competition in international tourism					

(ii) Trends in development of specific employee skills

The following statements describe some generic trends in tourism training and education. Tick "✓" the appropriate box, where 1= strongly disagree and 5= strongly agree

	Strongly disagree				Strongly agree
	1	2	3	4	5
Managers will need to develop more skills in human resource management, especially in knowing how to motivate the workforce					
With the continued internationalisation of business, all managerial levels will need more training in international environments and Multi-cultural skills					
Environmental awareness and conservation techniques will become an essential part of tourism education in all professional levels					
Public health issues, such as AIDS will become an essential part of tourism education at all levels					
Supervisors will need to learn more high-level management skills, such as market forecasting and strategic planning					
There will be increased need for international standards in quality of service and ultimately in employee skills and knowledge					

DELPHI QUESTIONNAIRE

Assessment of Tourism Training and Education: The Case of Kenyan Tour Operators

(iii) Trends in Tourism Education system

These statements represent likely trends in the tourism training and education system. Please tick as appropriate

	Strongly disagree 1	2	3	4	Strongly agree 5
Tourism training institutions will need to strengthen the part of their curriculum content dealing with business skills					
Constant technological change will affect traditional teaching methods, with the introduction of alternatives such as distance learning, interactive training, etc.					
The industry will take on increasing responsibility for training their employees at all levels					
Companies will increasingly facilitate continuing training to ensure employee commitment and retention					
International exchange programs will become commonplace					
There will be need for standardisation of tourism training and education as is the case with professions such as accountancy					
There will be need for a national tourism training and education strategy					
The government will need to play a greater role in the bid to attain high standards of professionalism in tour operations in Kenya					

Part F Personal details

Please give your personal details by ticking "✓" the appropriate box

Level of education	
No post-secondary qualification	
College diploma/certificate	
University	
Postgraduates	

Gender		**Number of years working in tourism industry**
Male		
Female		

Your comments:

Thank you for the precious time taken to carefully consider the issues to complete the questionnaire.

Appendix IV

Employee questionnaire

Victoria University of Technology

PO Box 14428
Melbourne City
MC 8001 Australia

Telephone:
(03) 9688 4430
Facsimile:
(03) 9688 4931

Footscray Park Campus
Department of Hospitality,
Tourism and Marketing
Ballarat Road
Footscray

VICTORIA UNIVERSITY OF TECHNOLOGY

Securing your Future

Thursday, April 01, 1999

To whom it may concern

Melphon Mayaka is currently undertaking the Master of Business Degree in Tourism Management programme at Victoria University. As part of his research work, he will be visiting Kenya in the next few weeks to gather data and to interview key informants for his research. This letter is by way of introduction to Melphon and to urge your assistance. Melphon's work assessing tourism training and education will be of great value to tourism researchers, educators, the industry and policy-makers. To undertake this work, he will however be dependent on the goodwill and assistance of key people such as yourself.

Thank you, in anticipation for your assistance.

Professor Brian King
Head
Hospitality, Tourism and Marketing

EMPLOYEE QUESTIONNAIRE

Assessment of Tourism Training and Education: The Case of Kenyan Tour Operators

Dear Sir or Madam:

The purpose of this survey is to assess the training and education need in tour operations, with the aim of making a contribution to development of the human resource in the tourism industry in Kenya. I'm carrying out the research as part fulfilment of a Master of Business in Tourism Management at Victoria University of Technology in Melbourne, Australia. Thank you for taking time to complete the questionnaire.

For all questions please tick "✔" against the correct response or fill in the blank space as appropriate.

1.How long have you been in this industry

Less than 2 years ☐
2-5 ☐
6-10 ☐
11-15 ☐
15+ ☐ (please specify number here_____)

2. Did you work in another industry prior to joining the tourism industry?

Yes ☐
No ☐ Go to question 4

3. If your answer to question 2 above was "yes", in what other industry did you work before coming to this industry?

_____

4. How long have you worked in this company (number of years)?

Less than 2 ☐
2-5 ☐
6-10 ☐
11-15 ☐
15+ ☐ (please specify number here_____

5. What is your current position?

_____

6. How long have you been in your current position?

Less than 1 year	☐
1-3 years	☐
4-6 years	☐
7-10 years	☐
Over 10 years	☐

(please specify _____.)

7. What post did you hold immediately prior to this position?

_____

8. How long were you in the previous position?

Less than 1 year	☐
1-3 years	☐
4-6 years	☐
7-10 years	☐
More than 10 years	☐

(please specify _____.)

9. Have you worked in other companies before this one ?

Yes	☐
No	☐

Go to question 11

10. If your answer was "yes" in question 9 please give details

_____

_____

11. Approximately how long is it since you last attended a formal a training session?

0-1 year	☐
1.1- 2 years	☐
2.1-3 years	☐
3.1 -4years	☐
Over 4 years	☐

12. Have you taken any formal work related course or study in the last one year?

Yes	☐
No	☐

Go to 18

13. If you answered "Yes" in question 12, then fill the table below

Course name	Commercial training firm	Company provided course	College short course	**Duration**
1.				
2.				
3.				

14. From your understanding of the job(s) for which the course was designed, how would you describe the relevance of the course content.

Extremely relevant ☐
Partly relevant ☐
Little relevance ☐
Uncertain ☐

16. Did the course lead to any formal qualification?

Yes ☐
No ☐ Go to 18

17. If your answer to 16 was yes, please state the qualification

_____

18. The following statements represent possible hindrances to gaining access to training or furthering one's education. Please indicate those that best apply to you by ticking he appropriate box. (1= strongly disagree 5= strongly agree)

	1	2	3	4	5
Courses are not held near enough	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Courses are not available at all	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I'm not aware of the variety of courses available	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I cannot be released from work for any training	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

	1	2	3	4	5
I don't have any interest					
	1	2	3	4	5
The time the courses are available is not appropriate					
Courses are too expensive					
It is difficult to gain entry into college(s)					

19. How important or relevant are the following skills in enabling you to carry out your duties? (1= not important and 5 = Very important)

	1	2	3	4	5
Training Area					
Basic Training					
Communication skills					
Business knowledge					
Marketing					
Administrative procedures					
Market forecasting					
Knowledge of tourism industry and it trends					
Strategic planning					
Communication and promotion					
Legal knowledge					
TECHNICAL TRAINING					
Computing					
Languages					
PERSONAL SKILLS					
Work in a multi-cultural environment					
Motivation and initiative					
Supervision					
Training other employees					
Team work					

Personal skills (contd.)	1	2	3	4	5
Company loyalty					
Courteous and friendly behaviour					
Ability to resolve conflicts within organisations					
Ability to solve problems					
Deal effectively with people					
Personal ethics					
Efficient use of time					
Ability to work in a systematic way					
Flexibility					
Decision-making capacity					

19. How would you rate your ability to apply these skills and knowledge in your work? (1= poor and 5 = Excellent)

	Poor 1	2	3	4	Excellent 5
Training Area					
BASIC TRAINING					
Communication skills					
Business knowledge					
Marketing					
Administrative procedures					
Market forecasting					
Knowledge of tourism industry and its trends					
Strategic planning					
Communication and promotion					
Legal knowledge					
TECHNICAL TRAINING					
Computing					
Languages					
PERSONAL SKILLS					
Work in a multi-cultural environment					
Motivation and initiative					
Supervision					
Training other employees					
Team work					
Company loyalty					
Courteous and friendly behaviour					
Ability to resolve conflicts within organisations					

Ability to solve problems						

PERSONAL SKILLS (Contd.)	1	2	3	4	5
Deal effectively with people					
Personal ethics					
Efficient use of time					
Ability to work in a systematic way					
Flexibility					
Decision-making capacity					

Company/personal details

The following request for rather personal information which, however, is important in this survey. Kindly tick the boxes which apply to you or your situation .

1. Age
   - 15-20 ☐
   - 21-30 ☐
   - 31-40 ☐
   - 41-50 ☐
   - 51-60 ☐
   - 61 and above ☐

2. Gender:
   - Male ☐
   - Female ☐

3. What is the total number of employees in your company?
   - 1-19 ☐
   - 20-49 ☐
   - 50-99 ☐
   - 100-500 ☐
   - Over 500 ☐

4. How would you describe the company (you can tick more than one box) .
   - Locally owned ☐
   - Part of an international organisation ☐
   - Family business ☐
   - Other ☐ (Please specify_____)

5. The table below describes four possible occupational levels in the industry. Please indicate where your current position fits within this structure by ticking ("✔") the appropriate box in the last column.

Level		
FLP	**Frontline Personnel;** staff with high degree of interaction with customers	
SPV	**Supervisors,** staff in charge of others but not whole departments	
MLM	**Mid-level Management,** staff responsible for whole departments	
HLM	**High-level Management,** staff with authority to make strategic decisions e.g. general manager etc.	

6. Kindly give an approximation of your monthly income

1000- 19999	
20000-29999	
30000-39999	
40000-49999	
50000-59999	
over 60000	

7. What is the highest formal education qualification you have attained?

No formal qualification		
Completed class7/8		
Completed form 4/6		
Professional qualifications e.g. CPA		(please specify)_____
College e.g. Utalii College		(please give details)_____
University education		(specify degree e.g. BS)_____
Postgraduate		

Other educational/training details _____

You have completed the questionnaire!

Thank you for your co-operation.

MELPHON MAYAKA

Appendix V

Summary of Responses from Education Providers

Tourism departments

1. How would you evaluate the role of tour operations within tourism industry in Kenya industry?

   Three rated the role of the tour operator 5 on a scale of 1 to five where 5 is "extremely important", while the other two gave a rating of 4.

2. To what extent do you think you have been able to meet the needs of this industry sector in their training and education efforts? and the difficulties (give a scale).

   On a similar scale as above the rates were 4 for one institution and 2 for each of the others

3. The measures they have to gauge the quality of tourism training and education

   (a) Rate of employment

   (b) Industry feedback

   (c)Visits during student attachment period

   (d) Student reports during attachments

   (e) References

4. The extent industry/institution liaison and co-operation and their inputs in this contentious issue

   -No formal industry liaison method

   -Need for greater cooperation and involvement of industry especially in course design and modification

   -Feedback lacking

   -Invite industry operatives for lectures

   -Need for industry advisory committee important

   -The need for need-driven approaches to training
   -Coordination/liaison with industry becomes critical in in-training (attachment) of students

5. Student tracking mechanism to measure success of their programs.

   -None

6. *The limitations in imparting the required skills*

   - Cultural limitations

   -Difference in appreciation of tourist activities due to difference in cultural frame of reference (eg. Hiking may not strike the student as an important tourist activity)

   -Gender issues (especially the role of women)

   - Teaching materials and facilities

   -Lack of train the trainer programmes, more retraining

-Practical component becoming more and more limited due to financial limitation

-Unavailability of local textbooks

-Textbooks based on European and American tourism systems

-Expensive to develop manuals locally?

- Financial limitations

- *Low fees hence low profit margins and so need to enrol higher numbers of student (Private institutions)*
- *Low enrolments*

- Any difficulties in placing students on practical attachment

-A major problem

-Tour companies are generally small and have limited space and are very wary of people making mistakes

- Curriculum in general

  -Research orientation lacking

  -Management development programmes limited to hospitality (KUC)

7. Areas they perceive to be important in the tour operations today (explain the three skills model and let there be some polling).

   -scores for all the skills are within 4 and 5 on the scale of 1=not important and 5=Extremely important

8. Opinions about standardisation of tourism education.

   -Private tourism training and education has become highly commercialised (Alsea)

   -Harmonisation of standards is necessary, but there should be different levels (Moi)

   -Continuous learning availed to those already in Industry, but in modular form (Moi University)

   -Equivalent of CPA for tourism

   -MOTW to initiate this

9. Formation of an industry training and education body and suggestions on this proposition

   -Crucial to success of tourism training and education in Kenya

   -Involvement of all stakeholders: Ministry of Tourism and Wildlife, Ministry of Education and Human Resources, public and private institutions, KIE, DIT ,Industry and industry associations

   -Independent of MOTW

10. *What are in your views the key issues in enhancing professionalism in the industry sector*

    -Greater support from the Ministry of Tourism and Wildlife in terms policy and initiative(Moi)

    -A more proactive approach by all parties

    -More research (need research centre)

    -Forum needed for providers to share ideas(Alsea)

11. *What do you see as the government's role in future development of tourism training and education in this country* (policy, regulation, funding etc).

    -Policy formulation (clear policy needed)

    -Needs to play a greater coordination and regulation role(Moi)

    -Role in actual running of institutions should diminish.

    -Ensure fair distribution of Scholarships for teacher education(private institutions).

Appendix VI

Hierarchy of Tasks in Tour Operations

Hierarchy of tasks in tour operations

Hierarchy of tasks	Senior Management	Middle Management	Supervisors	Staff
1.Administer business plans	•			
1.Carry out financial procedures	•			
1.Establish business relationships with suppliers and customers	•			
1.Establishing business networks	•			
1.Marketing planning	•			
1.Negotiating	•			
1.Strategic planning	•			
2.Innovation	•	•		
2.Human resource planning	•	•		
2.Interpersonal communication		•	•	
2.Supervise staff		•	•	
2.Training		•	•	
3.Coordinate field operations		•	•	
3.Schedule operations			•	
3.Itinerary planning			•	•
4.Carry out sales activities			•	•
4.Communication and presentation			•	•
4.Conduct transfers			•	•
4.Give general information on Kenya			•	•
4.Give information on specific attractions			•	•
4.Manage tour group members			•	•
4.Prepare costs			•	•
4.Research and prepare commentary			•	•
4.Use computer skills			•	•

• Task critical to the job

Sources: Adapted from Tourism Training Australia 1992