

Human Resources Development and Sustainability – The Case of Indian Tourism

K. J. Jithendran* and Tom Baum

The Scottish Hotel School, University of Strathclyde, 94 Cathedral Street, Glasgow G4 OLG, UK

ABSTRACT

The goal of sustainability oriented tourism development requires a number of human resources development (HRD) strategies aimed at the tourism industry personnel, host community and the tourists, and underpinned by concepts and practices of sustainability. Sustainability based 'work culture', 'professional ethics' and operational practices are basic to sustainability in tourism. Indian tourism, despite its immense potential, has seen tardy development, and shortcomings in the HRD domain have been one of the reasons for this below par performance. This paper suggests a comprehensive and strategic approach to HRD, catering to the training and education needs of Indian tourism at various levels for the major target groups. The paper also identifies the pressing issues confronting HRD in Indian tourism and potential strategies to address them within the context of sustainability. Copyright © 2000 John Wiley & Sons, Ltd.

Received 22 February 1999; Revised 20 September 1999; Accepted 25 September 1999

Keywords: sustainability; human resources development; education; training; community; tourism industry.

* Correspondence to: K. J. Jithendran, The Scottish Hotel School, University of Strathclyde, 94 Cathedral Street, Glasgow G4 OLG.
E-mail: jithu@strath.ac.uk

ISSUES IN HUMAN RESOURCES DEVELOPMENT FOR TOURISM

Although human resources are very important in a people industry such as tourism (Baum, 1993), the area is characterised by unconstructive attitudes to investment in human capital, inflexible employment practices and an educational and training support system of doubtful relevance (Parsons, 1996). Human resources are looked at as operational considerations in the tourism industry and this operationally oriented approach and the superficial and peripheral reference to human resources at the policy and planning level have resulted in a frivolous and *ad hoc* approach to key issues in its development (Baum and Conlin, 1994).

There are several inherent features of the tourism industry behind this relative apathy towards human resources development (HRD), such as the 'magnitude and diversity of the tourism industry', 'the number and variety of institutional players' (Pollock and Ritchie, 1990), the 'wide range of jobs and employment categories' (Baum, 1993), the diversity of products and markets, the relative recent origin of tourism both as a profession as well as an academic subject, 'a multiplicity of approaches to tourism as an academic area' (Jafari and Ritchie, 1981; Tribe, 1997), 'the varying level of skills required and the tradition of limited or no stress on formal training and education, (Messenger, 1992), the 'presence of large number of small, independent and family owned units' (Parsons, 1996), and the relative lack of planned development of tourism. Added to these are other interrelated concerns, such as the impact of changing

demographics, skills shortages, labour turnover, failure to attract quality school and college leavers, the poor image of the tourism industry as an employer, uncompetitive rewards and poor working conditions, religious and cultural taboos to employment in tourism, failure of education-providers to meet industry's needs and failure to recognise long-term human resource benefits in the face of short-term priorities (Baum, 1994).

The dynamic nature of the tourism industry further complicates the situation. Human resources development in the tourism industry also suffers from a divergence of views held by the key players, such as employers, training providers and employees. Quoting from 'PA Consulting Group's study on tourism training in Scotland', Brogan (1994, p. 554) lists these divergences in views, '... that employers did not see the business benefit of investing in their employees who were often part-time, temporary and viewed as low-calibre. Employers and entrants perceived tourism jobs as having little status, low pay, and poor conditions. Training providers perceived tourism businesses as being apathetic about training and provided what they could rather than what really was actually required.'

The indifference or lack of concern is felt mostly in the context of the institutional framework for HRD in tourism. The question of what should be the training inputs can be best described as chaotic. As Brogan (1994, p. 553) states, '[training] providers tended to deliver courses in areas where they had skills, rather than in what the market required'. Added to this is the lack of co-operation and communication between tourism education and industry, which has led to the prevalence of 'student-centred' courses rather than 'industrially-centred' courses, with obvious consequences on industry acceptance of personnel thus educated (Baum, 1993; Goodenough and Page, 1993).

Lack of properly trained instructors has always been a major issue at all levels of tourism education and training. As Pollock and Ritchie (1990; p. 576) argue, 'it is not adequate to assume that faculties teaching generic business skills, for example, are competent to deliver tourism programmes without taking the time to understand and master the

complexities of this industry'.

HUMAN RESOURCES DEVELOPMENT AND SUSTAINABILITY

The increasing incidence of environmental problems and the resultant discussions and concerns regarding environmental conservation in the 1980s gave birth to the concept of sustainability, sustainable development and sustainable tourism development (Bramwell and Lane, 1993; Baum and Conlin, 1994; MacLellan, 1997; Wall, 1997). As in the general environmental discourse, there is an abundance of principles, codes and guidelines for sustainability in the tourism industry (e.g.; WTO, 1992; 1993; WTTC, 1996; WWF/Tourism Concern, 1996; Griffin and Boele, 1997).

However, the concepts and practices of sustainability are mired in contradictions and controversies. To begin with, sustainable development contains 'two seemingly paradoxical aspects, namely, preservation and development' (Aronsson, 1994, p. 83). Another major issue that makes the entire concept suspect is its exploitation by the tourism industry by resorting to what is known as 'eco-labelling and eco-selling' (Wight, 1993; MacLellan, 1997). Wall (1997, p. 46) wonders 'if the average eco-tourist is more demanding environmentally than the mass tourist who may not need to visit endangered species in remote locations, and whose needs and wastes can be more readily planned for and managed in large numbers incorporating economies of scale'. As MacLellan (1997, p. 105) argues 'in many cases sustainable tourism policies give the appearance of significant change in attitude while in reality they make little impact on underlying trends and institutional structures. Governments have become adept at devising tactics which produce changes at the 'margins' or 'fine tuning', rather than making fundamental policy shifts'. However, as Wall argues (1997, p. 47): 'to the extent that the concepts engender a long-term perspective, foster notions of equity, encourage the search for and evaluation of types of tourism, promote an appreciation of the importance of intersectoral linkages, and facilitate dialogue between individuals and groups whose perspectives might at first sight appear to be at odds, they

[sustainable development approaches] are useful catalysts in the search for more benign types of tourism which are likely to contribute to long-term development, broadly conceived'.

Given the importance of human resources in the tourism industry, sustainability has a definite HRD dimension (Baum, 1995). According to Lane (1992), 'imported employees' and 'lack of career structure' are among the features of non-sustainable tourism. In addition the tourism industry is notorious for its poor image as an employer, with its seasonality, low wages, poor working conditions, lack of any properly laid down career ladder or planning, *ad hoc* recruitment practices and indifference to training and development. Baum's (1995, p. 13) comparison of traditional and sustainable human resources practices in tourism would provide an insight into its relevance to sustainability. One of the major reasons for the non-sustainable development of tourism is the local community's inability to participate and benefit from tourism. This is especially so in the context of economic and social sustainability (De Kadt, 1979; Murphy, 1985). Lack of HRD initiatives at the local level would mean expatriate labour and economic leakage, threatening the economic sustainability of the tourism industry, especially for the local community. Presence of imported workers would also mean local resentment and a lack of awareness and sensitivity to the local social, cultural and environmental aspects, which would threaten the sustainability of the industry. Local community involvement would mean increased responsibility and ownership of the local tourism and its sustainable development.

Considering the 'people dimension' of the tourism industry (Baum, 1995), the key to sustainability is the people who are involved in the tourism industry as guests, service providers and the hosts. It is their awareness of the sustainability issues, attitudes, perceptions, value system and expectations that would make a real impact on how the tourism industry is run and its environmental impacts. Even if there are well thought-out plans and policies aiming at sustainability they will be of no value if they cannot be translated into reality and this would require the commitment and involvement of people at all levels. Human

resources development has an important role in promoting sustainability, as education can lead to more clarity regarding sustainability issues, develop a realistic image of tourism and, more importantly, help develop sustainability oriented professional 'ethics' and 'sub-culture' within the tourism industry (Hultsman, 1995). It would not be inaccurate to surmise that the exclusion of human resources as the centre of such strategies has been one of the causes of rendering these efforts ineffective.

Both from the development and preservation angle, HRD holds the key to sustainability. Development requires a higher level of quality, and preservation requires attitudes, sensitivities and practices that are responsible towards and appropriate for the environment, local society, culture and economy. Both development and preservation fall strictly within the HRD domain. The sustainability oriented HRD programmes will have the concepts and practices of sustainability as the major focus.

This paper seeks to provide an overview of human resources development (HRD) for tourism in India within the framework of sustainability. Establishing the link between sustainability and HRD in tourism, it identifies various target groups for the sustainability oriented HRD programmes and the various levels at which such programmes are to be carried out. Although highlighting the potential of HRD to bring about a sustainability based subculture and professional ethics within the tourism industry and the general community, the paper considers some of the strategies for HRD for tourism in general and the sustainability oriented HRD in particular within the Indian context.

As HRD's relation to sustainability issues cannot be easily quantified, the study is largely exploratory in nature. The primary method of research has been the analysis of data from secondary sources, which included various reports on Indian tourism in general and HRD initiatives in particular as well as case studies and research reports on HRD and sustainable tourism development in other countries. Limited primary research was also conducted by interviewing key informants. Moreover, the experience of the authors as tourism HRD professionals and their involvement in tourism

Table 1. Average earning per tourist in the region (1995) (Source: WTO/PATA/Department of Tourism reported in *The Economic Times* (1996))

	Average earnings ^a	Average daily spending ^a
Indonesia	1209	118 (10.2)
Malaysia	1160	242 (4.8)
Thailand	1040	96 (7.4)
Taiwan	1055	214 (7.4)
Philippines	1520	150 (10.1)
Hong Kong	917	237 (3.9)
South Korea	1491	208 (5.3)
Singapore	1176	336 (3.5)
India	1300	45 (28.9)

^a In US \$, figures in parentheses indicate the number of days/nights stayed.

HRD in India for almost a decade, has been of assistance in addressing specific issues pertaining to HRD and Indian tourism.

INDIAN TOURISM—AN OVERVIEW

Even though global tourism developed at a very rapid pace during the post-war period, Indian tourism has not only been unable to keep pace with this growth rate but has underperformed in its development, especially in comparison with other countries in the region such as Malaysia, Indonesia, Singapore and Thailand, which started developing tourism simultaneously with India (Raguraman, 1998). Whereas world tourist arrivals grew from 25 million in 1950 to 613 million in 1997, in India international tourist arrivals increased from 17000 in 1951 to only 2.37 million in 1997 (WTO, 1998), which means a share of less than 0.4% of the world international tourist arrivals. As far as the earnings are concerned, India received just US\$ 3.1 billion out of a world total of US\$444 billion (WTO, 1998). Considering the geographical area and diversity, cultural heritage, tourist attractions and resources, and the reasonably developed infrastructure that it possesses the performance of Indian tourism has been very sluggish.

Even the arrival statistics do not seem to portray the real picture. It is estimated that 40% of the international tourists visiting the country are ethnic Indians, who stay with their

relatives and hardly contribute anything to the economy; 20% come through organised packages; and the rest are backpackers (Ghosh, 1999). Moreover, of the 2.374 million international arrivals, 22% are from the neighbouring countries of Bangladesh (355 371, 14.9%), Sri Lanka (122 080, 5.1%), and Pakistan (45 076, 1.89%) (WTO, 1998). The fact that Bangladesh is the second biggest generator of international tourists to India, with 355 371 (14.9%), after the UK (370 567, i.e. 15.6%), belies the chimerical nature of these figures. Considering the problem of illegal migration within South Asia, and the economic backwardness of South Asian countries, whether these are bona fide 'tourists' is always questionable.

Another indication of the dismal performance of Indian tourism is the very low spending per day by tourists, a mere US\$45, one of the lowest in the region (Table 1). This low spend per head by the visitors would also suggest an image of a cheap destination and, probably, an inferior tourism product. The very long duration of stay, one of the highest in the world, indicates the presence of a large number of visitors in tourism destinations, leading to overcrowding, increased pressure on infrastructure and the resultant environmental problems. It also could be assumed that the spend per day may be considerably lower than the average and the average duration of stay higher, in the case of a good proportion of the visitors. This would imply that the low-spending visitors subject the subsidised infrastructure and resources offered to the local community to more pressure. Sustainability is a major issue in Indian tourism, especially with a number of established tourist destinations already experiencing negative impacts.

Despite this, tourism is the highest net foreign exchange earner for the country and one of the major generators of employment outside the agriculture sector. In 1994–95, 7.8 million people were employed directly in the tourism industry and the employment multiplier is estimated to be 2.36 (Raveendran, 1995). Domestic tourism has seen a faster growth, in 1995 recording 110 million domestic tourist travellers (Department of Tourism; quoted in *Outlook*, 1996). With economic liberalisation, social changes—especially those related to the family system—and a growing

middle class, which is already in excess of 250 million, more and more Indians now take annual holidays, which augurs well for domestic tourism.

The estimated high growth rate of tourism in the coming decades and a potential saturation in hitherto well established tourism destinations in Western Europe (Zimmerman, 1997) offer a very good opportunity for Indian tourism to tap its potential for development. Further, the emergence of 'the new tourism' – which is: characterised by new technology, new tourists, segmented markets, diagonal integration and sustainable development: driven by consumers, who are more experienced, spontaneous and flexible, with changed values, life styles and demographics, and more interested in adventure, environment, and culture; and driven by technologies that are integrated, flexible, value oriented, friendly, rapidly diffused, system oriented and easily accessible (Poon, 1993) – would point to a way forward for countries such as India, having substantial resources for environmental and cultural tourism. In addition, the predicted decline of traditional mass packaged tourism and the increased power of information technology (Poon, 1993), also could be beneficial to Indian tourism, especially considering the structural changes (Poon, 1993; Holloway, 1994) that it would entail in the international tourism industry and the consequent likelihood of trade intermediaries becoming redundant or at least the potential loss of their control (Britton, 1982) over tourist flows.

Taking note of these trends and opportunities, the National Committee of Tourism (NCT), have recommended certain thrust areas for tourism development in India (NCT, 1988, p. 35), which include the development of selected tourist circuits/centres popular with the tourists; diversification of tourism from the sightseeing and cultural tourism to the rapidly growing holiday tourism market; development of non-traditional areas such as trekking, winter sports, wildlife tourism and beach tourism; balanced development of cultural and historical tourism products; exploration of new markets in the Middle East, South East Asia, and the ethnic market; and targeting high spenders and women tourists. Even though these recommendations were incorporated in

the National Action Plan for Tourism (NAPT) as development strategies, the less than ambitious target of 6 million international tourists (1% of international tourist arrivals) by the year 2000 (NAPT, 1992) appears to be very distant.

Analysis of the reasons behind the problems in the development of Indian tourism is beyond the scope of this paper. However, there is a clear human resources dimension to this gap between the potential and performance. One of the most serious problems that has been retarding the growth and development of Indian tourism is the paucity of a trained work force, both in terms of quality and quantity. The increasing popularity of cultural tourism and eco-tourism, which involves not only visits to natural areas but economic assistance to local communities in the form of gainful employment, thus easing pressure on the environmental from them (and the emergence of 'the new tourist', who is more environmentally and culturally sensitive and aware), although providing a good opportunity, would mean a major challenge as well, especially in the HRD context. Apart from developing human resources in remote local communities, disseminating sustainability concepts and practices to all levels of workers will be a pre-requisite for Indian tourism in its preparation to receive the new tourists and for its sustainable future.

To sum up, shortcomings in the human resources domain could be disastrous for the Indian tourism industry, not only in the context of development but also with regard to its sustainability.

HUMAN RESOURCES DEVELOPMENT FOR TOURISM IN INDIA

Practical concerns for HRD in tourism has a relatively recent origin in India, beginning with the opening of the College of Catering and Institutional Management in Bombay in 1954, with the United Nations funding. This was followed by three more regional institutions, in Calcutta, Delhi and Madras, in 1962, and 12 food craft centres in different parts of the country. The main focus of these institutions, however, was food and nutrition rather than hospitality and, until 1970, they were

under the Ministry of Agriculture; the reason being that the then priority of overcoming the problems of starvation and nutrition that confronted the country during its post-independence days. These institutions were only transferred to the Ministry of Tourism in 1982, and in 1984 a national umbrella organisation, the National Council for Hotel Management (NCHM) was created as the apex body for hospitality education. Currently there are 16 Institutes of Hotel Management (IHM), training personnel for middle management and craft levels and 15 Food Craft Institutes (FCI), providing training in specific areas such as cookery, house keeping, restaurant and counter service, bakery, reception, etc.

In addition to these, major hotel companies such as Taj, Oberoi and Welcomegroup in the private sector and the Indian Tourism Development Corporation (ITDC) in the public sector have set up their own training institutions. Recent years have also seen a number of training institutions developing in the private sector, some of them with adequate infrastructure but a good number with commercial motives and hence questionable credentials and inadequate facilities. There are also apprenticeship schemes focusing on craft training, mainly in major hotel companies and tourism development corporations, ranging from 6 month to 2 years duration, but with no external recognition through certification (Andrews, 1993).

The total number of personnel trained by the existing institutions falls far short of the industry requirements, however, which was estimated by the NCT in 1987 to be 28 000 annually, against an out-turn of 8500 (NCT, 1988). Although the number of institutions has increased since 1988, so have tourist arrivals and the number of hotel rooms.

Human resources development for the tourism sector (non-hospitality) had a much later beginning. The first tourism course in the country was started in 1972 at the undergraduate level by the College of Vocational Studies, University of Delhi. Specific skill requirements of the sector, such as airline ticketing and tour guiding were catered for by the training programmes organised by airlines and the Government tourism departments from time to time. More serious initiatives in

tourism education, however, have their origin in the setting up of the Indian Institute of Tourism and Travel Management (IITTM) in 1983, by the Central Ministry of Tourism, as the apex body for tourism education in the country. The initial years saw IITTM providing training to in-service personnel and workers at the grass roots level, and also courses in foreign languages. By 1989, IITTM started expanding its activities by setting up regional chapters at Bombay and Trivandrum and offering its Management Development Programmes in tourism, leading to a Diploma in Tourism Management. The IITTM now has regional chapters in Bhubaneswar, Calcutta, Goa and Lucknow as well as Trivandrum. It now offers two Diploma courses and a variety of training programmes at Gwalior and through its regional chapters. The IITTM has also organised several trainer development programmes and workshops in association with the World Tourism Organization (WTO).

The most important achievement of IITTM was its catalytic role in the launch of tourism courses in the universities by offering assistance in curriculum design, especially for the Master level programme in Tourism Administration (MTA), which was started in 1991 in Kurukshetra University, and lobbying with the Universities Grant Commission (UGC), which resulted in the UGC financing introduction/inclusion of tourism courses in 25 institutions all over the country (Rao, 1995). Currently there are 24 universities offering a postgraduate degree or diploma courses, 21 universities having affiliated colleges offering tourism as a subject in undergraduate courses, 37 colleges offering tourism as a vocational subject at undergraduate level, and 11 polytechnics and other institutions offering tourism courses in the country, in addition to IITTM and its chapters (IITTM, 1995). Further, in states such as Kerala, tourism is now offered as a vocational subject at the higher secondary levels. In 1993, the Indira Gandhi National Open University (IGNOU) started a variety of distance learning programmes in tourism.

Two leading travel organisations, namely, SITA and Trade Wings also have set up tourism training institutions. The rapid increase in tourism in the last decade has also led to the mushrooming of tourism training

institutions in the private sector, a majority of them without proper infrastructure and qualified instructors, and hence of doubtful value.

An important channel of HRD for tourism, especially with the shortcomings in the formal sector, has been the on-the-job training provided by the hospitality and travel sector. In the absence of any established training infrastructure in the early decades, recruitment of general graduates with communication skills and aptitude as trainees used to be the normal practice in the travel and tours sector. Most of the senior personnel in the tours and travel sector are the products of this channel. This practice is still prevalent in many firms, which are sceptical about the quality and utility of personnel trained by the formal training institutions. In the hospitality sector, there has been well-established apprenticeship schemes, ranging from 6 months to 2 years, which address the inadequacies in supply to a limited extent. However, there is no recognition, through certification or link up to college based programmes, given to these channels (Andrews, 1993).

As the above discussion indicates, HRD for tourism is still in its infancy and appears to require a more comprehensive and strategic approach (Pollock and Ritchie, 1990), not only to make the industry more professional but to address issues such as the quantitative and qualitative shortages of trained personnel and the mismatch between demand and supply. Even though the report of the National Committee on Tourism (NCT, 1988), which is one of the most comprehensive reports on Indian tourism, made a number of sound recommendations, especially pertaining to the areas of training in the sector, institutional set up and for the creation of a separate tourism service—Indian Tourism Service—on the lines of the Civil Service, they are yet to be implemented.

HUMAN RESOURCES DEVELOPMENT AND SUSTAINABILITY IN INDIAN TOURISM

Pearce (1995, p. 147), discussing HRD implications for sustainable socio-cultural tourism lists empowering visitors, training tourism professionals, and educating host communities as

strategies for 'ecologically sustainable socio-cultural tourism development'. These strategies are relevant not just in relation to socio-cultural issues but have important implications for the issues of overall sustainability in tourism. The attitudes, value systems, expectations, experiences and sensitivity of these groups are important variables in ensuring sustainability oriented tourism development. Therefore HRD activities aiming at sustainability have to adopt a three-dimensional approach focusing on tourism industry personnel, the host community and the tourists.

Tourism industry personnel

The tourism industry is characterised by a wide variety and different patterns of employment and defining tourism industry personnel is often a very challenging proposition. As Burns (1993, p. 81) points out, 'these range from the clear cut divisions of labour and heavily unionized airline sector, the clearly defined contracts and conditions of service by international corporations such as Ramada Renaissance and Sheraton, the minimum wage, short contract, insecure conditions that characterize much of catering work to the prostitutes working [in] bars in any one of a number of tourist traps around the world'. The hundreds of self-employed individual small time vendors also could be added to this list.

The competence, efficiency and the value system of human resources is very vital for the total quality of a country's tourism. Quality is important in the sustainability context too. Quality of tourist experiences is related directly to the physical, social and cultural environments of tourist destinations. Ensuring this vital aspect of tourism development would result in the sustainability of tourism destinations, from both the development and preservation angle.

From both the development and preservation angle, tourism industry personnel can contribute to sustainability. The importance of service quality in enhancing the quality of visitor experience and for competitive advantage is widely recognised (Lockwood and Jones, 1984; Parasuraman *et al.* 1985; Mansfield, 1990; Quinn, 1990; D'Egidio, 1990; Martin and Lundberg, 1991; Mahesh, 1993; Poon, 1993;

WTO, 1997). According to the 'Cycle of Quality Service' concept of Schleisinger and Herkett (1991), as reported in Baum (1995, p. 72), 'capable workers who are well trained and fairly compensated, provide better service, require less supervision and [are] more likely to remain on the job. For individual companies, this means enhanced competitiveness'. In addition, 'the key to quality service is the human being who deliver them' (Poon, 1993, p. 258). Service quality and organisational efficiency, two important variables of tourism competitiveness (Fayos, 1994, reported in WTO, 1997) and higher profitability (Porter, 1985), can be achieved only through effective HRD policies and programmes. As WTO (1997, p. 11) point out, 'reaching such competitive levels is the only way to guarantee that receipts, employment and the environment are preserved and to protect the best interests of those involved in the tourism sector'. Pursuit of quality is important in the sustainability context too. It would mean conscious efforts to keep destinations and their environments free from littering and other forms of pollution, important for the sustainability of the physical environment. The Tourism Education and Quality (TEDQUAL) methodology introduced by WTO (1997) recognises the importance of service quality for sustainability and competitive advantage.

Human resources development can also contribute to sustainability oriented practices, especially within the 'internal environment' of any tourism operation, which will contribute to conservation (Wight, 1994, p. 665). At all levels HRD can play an important role in bringing such practices to the realm of daily operations and a part of the work culture. Within the hospitality sector the 3 R's (reduce, reuse, recycle) are increasingly becoming a common practice. Besides promoting and supporting good environmentally responsible practices, these measures would also result in more profitability for the firm (Wight, 1994). The TEDQUAL methodology (WTO, 1997), which strives to instill a 'culture of service quality' could play an important role in the sustainability context also. The model could be used to disseminate concepts and practices of sustainability and to develop a 'culture of sustainability' in the tourism industry.

The role of tour operators, as 'coordinators and interpreters of [tourism] demand' (Dobbie, 1976, quoted in Jenkins, 1982, p. 233), in making tourism an agent of sustainability cannot be overemphasised. Parallels can be drawn to all levels of the tourism industry and considering the influence of tourism as a leisure activity over the lives of the relatively well-to-do masses, who are the major consumers, it can be one of the most effective catalysts of sustainable development, especially considering the possibility of post-tour changes in the value systems and life styles of these individuals. Moreover, such practices will add to the social benefits, as evidenced by examples from the hospitality industry.

Human resources development for tourism industry personnel takes two forms: pre-employment training and in-service training. Both are very important for sustainability driven tourism development.

Pre-employment training

A sustainability oriented approach to pre-employment training involves the forecasting of skills requirement, both in qualitative and quantitative terms, and provision of a relevant infrastructure in locations where these personnel would be required. The training inputs and methods would need to have a strong underpinning of sustainability values and practices.

Blanton (1981, p. 117) has stressed the need for tourism education and training to relate to 'the existing social and cultural framework of the host country' and the importance of preparing personnel to be 'culture broker(s)'. 'Mapato', a training programme using ethnic legends and folk culture developed by Utali College, Kenya would be a good model for such training initiatives (Blanton, 1981). *Mapato* is a Swahili word which roughly translates as 'gains' or 'harvest' (Blanton, 1981, p. 126). In a country such as India, with her own distinct culture and traditions, socio-cultural problems of tourism seem to be imminent if appropriate HRD initiatives in this direction are lacking. India has a rich repertoire of folk arts, which could help in developing 'Mapato-like' initiatives.

Likewise is the case of the soft skills, which occur spontaneously in the developed world

and hence are often not included in HRD, leading to the perception of tourism jobs as unskilled and semi-skilled (Baum, 1996). As Indian tourism has its major markets in the western world, provision of soft competencies, which include language skills, hospitality etiquette, communication and time management skills and the familiarity with the 'low context culture' (Hall, 1976, quoted in Blanton, 1981) come under the skills category to be included in tourism training.

Pollock and Ritchie (1990) present a model of tourism occupations at four levels, namely, front-line, supervisory, management and senior executive, which are to be found in all the major sectors of the tourism industry. Sio (1993) has suggested a model of training and development infrastructure, which includes different layers in the education system, such as universities, colleges, institutions of higher learning, technical institutions, junior colleges, secondary schools, primary schools and adult literacy programmes, etc., to carry out various types of training. These models do have implications for pre-employment HRD activities in Indian tourism, and the infrastructure proposed by Sio is already in place in India and could easily be utilized for tourism training.

Some of the major issues in the pre-employment training domain include the 'coverage of tourism within the school curriculum', 'structure of vocational and professional courses and qualifications', 'academic qualification in tourism and hospitality' and 'links between education and tourism industry' (STRU, 1998). These issues are important in the context of sustainable HRD practices and hence merit analysis in the Indian situation.

Coverage of tourism within the school curriculum

Tourism can readily be included in the school curriculum at all levels, especially as it can be delivered as part of many established subject areas, such as geography, economics or history. It would not only help create tourism awareness but also attract students at an early stage to a career in tourism by creating a better image of the industry and thus drawing better talent.

As far as the situation in India is concerned tourism is yet to be included in the school

curriculum at the national level, with the exception of the State of Kerala, where tourism finds a place in the recently introduced 'Vocational Higher Secondary Education'. Tourism is available in four such Vocational Higher Secondary Schools and more schools are in the process of introducing tourism courses at this level. However, tourism at this level attracts only those who do not get admission to other vocational streams, such as civil engineering and laboratory technician courses, with obvious implications on the quality of students and their interest in the subject. The curriculum offered at this level is also too theoretical and general. Moreover, this may just be a passing phase in the educational process of the students, as a good number of them may not pursue further education in tourism and end up in traditional undergraduate programmes. As the quality of intake is poor and there are limitations in curriculum and infrastructure, employability of those coming out from this stream is severely limited.

However, as a beginning this has the potential to be developed into a more standardised programme and to be introduced as one of the strands in higher secondary education throughout the country. The international best practices in the area are those that were established under the auspices of American Express and styled the 'Global Travel and Tourism Programme' (GTTP), which is present in Brazil, Canada, Hong Kong, Hungary, Ireland, Mexico, Russia, South Africa and the UK. Programmes under GTTP are designed to satisfy student educational needs, industry workforce needs and educational system resource needs (STRU, 1998).

Some of the models of international practices, offering tourism education at the school level, can be adapted to suit the Indian situation, especially the systems in Ireland and the UK. As the necessary infrastructure is already in place, including an awarding body, namely, Board of Technical Education, widespread introduction of tourism in the school curriculum is both pragmatic and relevant.

Vocational and professional courses and qualifications

It is widely held that the provision of voca-

tional and professional courses in tourism and hospitality has to be carried out by sector-dedicated institutions and programmes, as these have the most prominent role in meeting the industry's human resource needs. As the STRU (1998, 23) report points out, however, 'the major issue confronting the provision of education and training in tourism and, in particular, the structure of such provision, is one of appropriate matching between the current and projected needs of the tourism sector and the duration, level and focus of the education and training which is available'. A multitude of stakeholders with conflicting and diverse views (Brogan, 1994) make the situation more difficult. Human resources development strategies with manpower planning as the starting point would help in streamlining the system and avoiding conflicts. However, there are a number of examples of vocational and professional streams of tourism training organised and managed by dedicated institutional systems in many countries in an effective manner.

In India this stream is looked after by two national level bodies, namely, the National Council of Hotel Management (NCHM) and the Indian Institute of Tourism and Travel Management (IITTM). The 16 Institutes of Hotel Management (IHM) and 15 Food Craft Institutes (FCI) cater to the human resources requirement of the hospitality sector, with the IHMs training personnel for the skilled, supervisory, middle management and training positions and FCIs offering training in specific crafts. However, the out-turn is far short of the industry requirements, in spite of the supplementary efforts by private sector institutions. The IITTM offers Diploma programmes at its headquarters and through its regional chapters for careers in the tourism and travel sector. Regional institutions, such as the Kerala Institute of Tourism and Travel Studies (KITTS), in South India, offer their own Diploma and Certificate courses to cater to the human resources requirements of the tourism industry in the region. The KITTS has been successful in developing a variety of courses dealing with specific operational and management areas of the tourism industry in the region, including entrepreneurship development programmes. There is no national

planning and training model in place in India to compare with that in Ireland through the Council for Education, Recruitment and Training (CERT) (Walsh, 1993).

Education and training programmes that match the present and future priorities of Indian tourism, rather than with a general focus, would make the human resources and the tourism industry more responsive to the challenges ahead. Some of the specific areas of importance for Indian tourism include activity holidays, cultural tourism, heritage tourism, conference and convention tourism, wildlife tourism, health tourism, rural tourism and event management. Moreover, indigenisation of the curriculum and training methodology to suit the national and regional situation and priorities also may be necessary, especially as there has been a great deal of borrowing from the developed western countries, which could undermine the relevance of the provision.

Some international best practice models (STRU, 1998) offer useful strategies for the vocational strand of HRD for tourism in India. Birmingham College of Food, Tourism and Creative Studies (BCFTCS) offers a model for a full-fledged multilevel training institution, which could be established in different regions in the country, beginning with the upgrading of IITTM's own training centres to this level. The CERT in Ireland offers a model for an effective central agency for an efficient HRD with a holistic perspective.

The NCHM and IITTM have been able to make inroads into the national vocational and professional education, but a single agency combining the two might be more effective, as it would have more resources at its disposal and, most importantly, can utilise the few decades of expertise and experience of NCHM in hospitality education for the tourism sector. The NCHM has excellent infrastructure throughout the country and it would have been more pragmatic to introduce tourism courses through its training centres, which also would have ensured the much needed regional distribution. The examples of the Oberoi Centre for Learning and Development (OCDL), the training centre of Oberoi Hotels in India, and the major tourism training centres in the UK, such as the University of Strathclyde and the University of Surrey which

train personnel both for the hotel and travel sector, underline the feasibility of such systems. Moreover, the prevailing trial and error method of tourism education also could have been avoided by such an approach. Measures to merge NCHM and IITTM, probably in the form of an apex organisation such as CERT, can still be considered in order to avoid duplication and waste of resources.

As the above discussion suggests, consolidation and expansion of vocational and professional training is of paramount importance to meet the qualitative and quantitative human resources requirements of Indian tourism.

Academic qualifications in tourism and hospitality

There are a large number of academic qualifications offered by universities all over the world, representing different approaches to tourism education (Tribe, 1997). This reflects the confusion and diversity prevailing in the area and could be counterproductive, despite the recent numerical increase in the courses offered, especially as it would project a disjointed picture to the potential students. The potential employers also would be in the dark regarding the utility, quality and competence of the products of this multitude of courses (Ryan, 1995). The problem of lack of industry orientation and too much theory is more evident in this stream of tourism education and can be an example of offering what the teachers are interested in rather than on the basis of what the industry requirements are (Brogan, 1994), and this could result in major labour market problems (Goodenough and Page, 1993). Mismatch between industry requirements and what is provided by tourism education has been and continues to be a major issue in tourism, especially considering the rapid changes taking place in the tourism industry (Cooper *et al.*, 1994). Streamlining of the curricula and orientation to the local situation seems to be a prerequisite for this stream of tourism education for it to be of any real benefit. Initiatives by the WTO, especially programmes such as 'educating the educators' (WTO, 1995), may provide an answer to this problem.

As far as India is concerned, tourism became

part of higher education only in the 1990s. The relevance of the curriculum, the lack of uniformity of the courses and acceptance by the industry, however, are major issues here. Another major issue confronting tourism education in the universities is the lack of qualified and trained teachers, which leads to inadequate training of the students and their unacceptance by the industry. It could be argued that the students thus trained would have doubtful competence in the practical aspects and hence would have to be trained all over again by the employers, which would be better done by recruiting fresh graduates with soft competencies from the general stream. However, a more streamlined and situation-specific approach to curricula design along with a concerted effort to train the trainers would enable the existing university education system to be effective. Initiatives by IITTM and NCHM could be helpful.

Link between education and industry

The major beneficiary of all HRD initiatives is the tourism industry, as well-trained personnel, would contribute to its competence, productivity, profitability and sustainability. However, industry's support of HRD, especially at the pre-employment level, has not been very encouraging. There is also the issue of the poor image of the industry as an employer, characterised by poor pay, status and working conditions, which has been a deterrent in attracting good talent. Juxtaposed to this is the often heard grievance of a lack of industry orientation in tourism training programmes. Industry and education partnership alone will be able to redress these problems.

Collaboration between education and industry would involve the working together of professional and trade associations, national, regional and area tourist boards, and awarding bodies, and would take many forms, such as: awards, scholarships, and sponsorship, formulation of professional standards, joint research projects, training delivery, curriculum development, and sitting on steering committees (STRU, 1998). The UK examples of 'Education Business Partnerships' (EBP) and 'Understanding Industry' are organisations working closely with the education sector, facilitating colla-

boration in a wide range of areas. In addition, public sector agencies and organisations commissioning the educational institutions to undertake research is very common in the UK. The German 'dual system of apprenticeship and training', which has been proven to be very efficient and effective is another very good example of industry-education partnership. Other instances include private sector corporations setting up training and educational institutions, e.g. Taj, Welcome-group and Oberoi in India, Accor Academie in France, and the Aviation MBA offered by Montreal University in collaboration with IATA.

Any formal initiatives to facilitate collaboration between industry and education appears to be absent in India and change would necessitate concerted efforts by IITM and NCHM, and would involve a wide range of stakeholders, including the Government Department of Tourism, tourism development corporations, trade organizations such as the Indian Association of Tour Operators (IATO), Travel Agents Association of India (TAAI), Federation of Hotel and Restaurants Association of India (FHRAI), Air India, Indian Convention Promotion Bureau (ICPB), Archaeological Survey of India (ASI), and the Department of Forests. However, industry collaboration in education and training, especially in the form of industry attachment training, is on the increase in India too. There are also instances of institutions sourcing the tourism and hospitality industry for instructors and resource personnel to design and deliver training programmes, as done by the IITM and the Kerala Institute of Tourism and Travel Studies (KITTS), which, with a small group of core faculty members, runs all its training programmes with the help of visiting faculty members from the tourism industry.

Human resources development at the local level

A very important strategy for sustainability oriented HRD is the training, development, and employment of the local people by the tourism industry. As this would help localise the benefits of tourism, the problems of neo-colonialism could be reduced to a great extent, especially if the training initiative could be

started sufficiently early to equip the locals to occupy senior positions too. An example of such an initiative is the 'Back of beyond—micro model for human resources planning and development programme' of the Taj Group of Hotels in India (Mahesh, 1993, p. 31). The strategy involves assessment of manpower requirements long before opening of the hotel and then targeting the local people for recruitment and training for most of the jobs in the hotel. A series of training programmes is carried out equipping the locally selected employees in all necessary skills, both hard and soft. This results in negligible or no attrition, savings on expensive advertisement and recruitment campaigns and moreover in having a more disciplined, loyal and responsible local work force. This is a strategy worthy of emulation by all the sectors of tourism industry, as it would localise benefits and employment, and create more favourable and responsible attitudes and practices in the industry.

The Seasonal Hospitality Employment Programme (SHEP) offered in the rural areas of the UK and Ireland is an example of HRD at the local level, which could be adapted as a continuous activity to prepare personnel in locations where it is difficult and unviable to have permanent training facilities. As these programmes could be offered during vacation, the training infrastructure already available in the local areas could be easily made use of. An added advantage of such endeavours would be the localisation of employment and the involvement of indigenous people in the tourism industry.

IN-SERVICE TRAINING

The importance of in-service training in a dynamic industry such as tourism, especially with its emphasis on service quality, which is an essential ingredient for competitiveness and sustainability, cannot be overemphasised. In addition to the updating and fine-tuning of skills and attitudes, in-service training would also help motivate personnel. The major advantages of in-service training are the promotion of teamwork, development of a uniform vision and organisational culture, the possibility of customising training inputs for

individual businesses and lower cost (STRU, 1998). In-service training initiatives also would provide the best opportunity to inculcate values of sustainability, sensitise the personnel with sustainability issues, and help introduce sustainability oriented industry practices.

Most of the big business corporations in the tourism, travel and hospitality sector do have their own in-house facilities for staff training. However, the predominance of small and medium enterprises (SMEs), especially the family owned or self-employment ventures, affects this process in the industry, as: (i) such training activities would be too expensive to the SMEs; (ii) they may not be able to spare personnel to be sent or kept away from job for training; and (iii) their location in remote regions limit access to such training facilities. In addition, the SMEs need to be assisted by public sector, private sector and university tourism education systems, as done by the CERT in Ireland, Tourism Training NSW in Australia, Hospitality Training Foundation (HtF) and Tourism Training Scotland (TTS) in the UK, all of which help the industry in staff training. In the travel sector, airlines provide such training programmes on a frequent basis all over the world.

As far as SMEs in Indian tourism are concerned, facilities for in-service training are very limited. Institutions such as IITTM and KITTS do organize courses for the officials of government tourism organisations on a frequent basis. However, with regard to SMEs in the private sector such facilities are non-existent. Initiatives by IITTM and NCHM in collaboration with the trade associations, such as the Indian Association of Tour Operators (IATO), Travel Agents Association of India (TAAI) and Federation of Hotel and Restaurants Association of India, will offer a solution to this vital issue.

The European Union funded 'South Asia Integrated Tourism Human Resources Development Programme' (SAITHRDP) to help develop in-house training capacity in tourism and hospitality sector through the 'trainer development programmes' to the supervisor level personnel, have been operational in India for the past 3 years and now cover the entire country. The programme is expected to develop an in-house training culture and expertise

within the Indian tourism industry. The SAITHRDP has also developed sector-specific instruction manuals, which would help standardize the training. This is a very good example of international co-operation and assistance in this form of HRD in tourism.

Systems for accreditation of work experience leading to vocational and academic qualifications are rare to find, except in America, where the flexible American progression system allows students and those in mid-career maximum opportunity for career development. Organisations such as the American Hotel and Motel Association (AHMA) offer such learning and accreditation opportunities to personnel in their mid-career. In India, as in many countries, such facilities are non-existent, and this could dampen the professional and career aspirations of the industry personnel, further damaging the image of the tourism profession. The distance education programmes offered by Indira Gandhi National Open University (IGNOU) and a few other universities in India, and by the Open University and other tourism training institutions in the UK and elsewhere address this problem to a certain extent. However, these programmes have some limitations not only in terms of accreditation of specific skills but also in their effectiveness.

The Host Community

Sustainability oriented HRD focuses on preparing the host community to accept, adjust to, and benefit from tourism. As Pearce (1995, p. 150) argues, 'the incentive to conduct such training programmes or broad community education issues resides in the need to maintain community support for tourism and to minimize the negative impact of tourism's social contact on the local community'. An aware host community can also participate meaningfully in and contribute to tourism planning and development, which contributes towards sustainable development as they have intimate knowledge about the local issues requiring attention. Further, HRD for the host community has the additional benefit of attracting potential employees and removing any traditional cultural resistance to careers in the tourism industry.

However, those segments of society that

come in direct contact with the visitors have to be a major target, especially considering the dynamics of guest–host encounters. Common methods include extension programmes aimed at people who are likely to interact with the tourists, effective use of media for creating tourism awareness, adult education, and tourism awareness through the general stream of education.

One reason why tourism education through the universities and schools should be continued and expanded, despite their shortcomings, is their potential to create tourism awareness and in preparing the host community to accept and adjust to tourism. As far as the extension programmes are concerned, initiatives may have to be made by the dedicated vocational and professional training institutions. The target groups here would include customs and immigration officials, tourist taxi drivers, police and any other category of people who are likely to encounter tourists in their day-to-day life. There are many good examples for this at the international level. ‘Welcome Host’, a short training programme in basic customer care in the UK aimed at creating hospitality-oriented attitudes is one such model, worth emulating.

As far as India is concerned, the Indian Institute of Tourism and Travel Management (IITTM) and the Kerala Institute of Tourism and Travel Studies (KITTS) organise such extension programmes on a regular basis for the customs and immigration personnel, tourist taxi drivers, tourist police, tourism information personnel, etc. However, these programmes need wider geographical spread to be more effective. Adult education programmes, which offer an effective forum for tourism education, would help in creating tourism awareness in India, where adult literacy programmes are still going on. The important role of the voluntary sector here cannot be overemphasised, as the literacy campaign in Kerala, where 100 per cent literacy was achieved in the late 1980s through an intensive literacy campaign carried out mainly by the voluntary organisations, has proved.

Media, both print and electronic, do play a prominent role in spreading information and knowledge about tourism, sometimes even

bordering on activism. Media coverage often takes place without any deliberate efforts from the tourism sector, but the industry could take an active interest in this form of awareness creation by resorting to various forms of public relations exercises involving the media.

Another major issue in the Indian context is the cultural and traditional barriers to employment in tourism, which has serious implications for HRD in general and host community oriented HRD programmes in particular. As Andrews (1993, p. 187) points out there ‘is traditional family antipathy to work within the hospitality sector, which to some religious and cultural groups, had and still retains images of servitude and menial, demeaning employment’. These cultural reservations and prejudices are more acute when it comes to women taking up employment in the hospitality and tourism sector, especially in jobs involving customer contact. Changing this negative attitude towards employment in tourism is a major challenge for HRD in Indian tourism. Host community education can have a very significant role in this and it is an area where all sectors of tourism—public, private and voluntary—need to come together.

Tourists

As the most important players of tourism industry, tourists are frequently blamed for most of the negative consequences of tourism. Tourists generally are strangers to the tourism destinations, its environment and culture. Most of their behaviour that offends the host culture or harms the local environment could be due to their ignorance. Even the well-meaning and innocuous activities of tourists sometimes result in undesirable consequences. At the same time, there are also tourists who tend to take the destination communities, especially in the developing world and peripheral areas, for granted.

It is important to educate tourist about the destination, its environment, society, local customs to be observed, and regarding acceptable and responsible behaviour at the destination (Inskip, 1994, p. 569). Such knowledge can avert or minimise a large number of negative socio-cultural and environmental impacts and contribute to sustainability.

Pearce (1995, p. 47) describes the process as 'empower(ing) the visitor by improving their socio-cultural contact skills . . .' and considers it as 'the chief human resource development issue'.

However, it is nearly impossible to subject visitors to this educational process as they spend only a short amount of time in a destination and, more importantly, they are on holiday (Butler, 1991). As Butler (1991, p. 207) argues, 'interpretation and explanations of regulations may be all that can be done at the local destination'. Probably, the most insurmountable task will be de-educating the so-called alternative tourist, who, as Krippendorf (1997, p. 45) states 'differs from other tourists, explores the last untouched corners of the earth, thus paving the way for mass tourism' and its negative impacts.

The most potent strategy seems to be the initiatives from the tourism industry, which has maximum access to the tourists. As Cater and Goodall (1997, p. 88) suggest, 'tourism enterprises can encourage their customers to behave respectfully towards the environment.' Tourism enterprises, tour operators, the hospitality sector and airlines could help in these forms of awareness development in an effective manner. Tour brochures and other promotional tools would be an efficient medium in the process. For example, 'Thomsons provide environmental guidelines for guests; Touristik Union International (TUI) have produced an environment ranking for products featured in all their mainstream Euro-brochures' (Clarke, 1997, p. 230); and Consort Hotels do niche marketing with packages such as 'Go Green' weekends (Cater and Goodall, 1997). The interactions between the tourism industry personnel and the visitors also could be an educating process, especially if there is a sustainability based professional ethics and work culture. In addition, the interpretation services, as used in wildlife tourism, would be very effective in sensitising the tourists about the local sustainability issues and ensuring their responsible behaviour, as evidenced by the examples of good practices in Kruger National Park, South Africa and Quicksilver Connections Ltd, Great Barrier Reef, Australia (Middleton and Hawkins, 1998).

As far as Indian tourism is concerned,

interpretation services have already been set up in most of the important wildlife tourism destinations in the country and they do contribute to this form of tourism education. However, the utilisation of tour brochures and publicity materials for this purpose seems to be very rare. Except for the special interest tours with expert tour-guides and the routine behavioural tips included in the tour brochures, there is a lack of any realistic and comprehensive effort in this direction. Even in the promotional materials on the so-called 'eco-tourism' products, the emphasis is often on the attractiveness of the 'eco-paradises'. The recent increase in the 'eco-tourism operators' in India, who, though, indulge in 'eco-sell' (Wight, 1993; MacLellan, 1997), would offer opportunities to introduce measures to educate the so-called eco-tourists, to begin with. But basic to any such efforts will be the development of sustainability values in the tourism industry personnel at all levels.

CONCLUSIONS

As tourism is basically a people industry, HRD could occupy the centre of sustainability oriented tourism development initiatives. As Pearce (1995, p. 152) argues, 'if the goal is sustainable tourism, then attention to the human resource development needs of tourists, tourism professionals and communities needs a sustained approach with enhanced resources and educational diversity for future generations'.

Despite the myriad of issues, HRD is now gaining more importance and attention in global tourism, especially with a discernible growth in tourism and tourism education initiatives world-wide. With the gaining of more experience and better understanding of tourism and its development and management, HRD is bound to be the centre of future tourism planning and development programmes, in both the developed and developing world.

Indian tourism, despite the immense potential, has seen a tardy growth, especially compared with other countries in the region (Raguraman, 1998). The situation is further exacerbated by the absence of properly conceived and executed HRD programmes. Hu-

man resources development for tourism in India has a very recent origin and suffers from lack of a strategic approach. The sustainability oriented development of Indian tourism would require HRD strategies focusing on sustainability based industry practices, tourism development, value systems and behavioural patterns among all the stakeholders. The important target groups in such an approach would be the tourism industry personnel, the host community and the tourists.

Introduction of tourism at the school level on a more extensive basis throughout the country, provision of vocational and profes-

sional courses based on the assessment of actual skill requirements of the industry, streamlining of the tourism education at the university level, especially in terms of course contents, delivery and industry responsiveness are some of the strategies to be adopted by the Indian tourism for HRD at the pre-employment level. Co-operation and communication between the education and industry in development and delivery of education and training, and establishment of systems to provide education and training available at the local level to equip people in remote and marginal areas are also equally important. Involvement of various trade associations, such as TAAI,

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS/ACRONYMS

AHMA	American Hotel and Motel Association
ASI	Archaeological Survey of India
BCFTCS	Birmingham College of Food, Tourism and Creative Studies
CERT	Council for Education, Recruitment and Training (Ireland)
EBP	Education Business Partnerships (UK)
FCI	Food Craft Institute
FHRAI	Federation of Hotels and Restaurants Association of India
GTTP	Global Travel and Tourism Programme
HtF	Hospitality Training Foundation (UK)
IATA	International Air Transport Association
IATO	Indian Association of Tour Operators
ICPB	Indian Convention Promotion Bureau
IGNOU	Indira Gandhi National Open University
IHM	Institute of Hotel Management
IITTM	Indian Institute of Tourism and Travel Management
ITDC	Indian Tourism Development Corporation
KITTS	Kerala Institute of Tourism and Travel Studies
MTA	Master of Tourism Administration
NAPT	National Action Plan for Tourism (Ministry of Civil Aviation and Tourism, Government of India)
NCHM	National Council for Hotel Management (Ministry of Tourism, Government of India)
NCT	National Committee on Tourism (Planning Commission, Government of India)
OCDL	Oberoi Centre for Learning and Development
PATA	Pacific Asia Travel Association
SAITHRDP	South Asia Integrated Tourism Human Resources Development Programme
SHEP	Seasonal Hospitality Employment Programme (UK and Ireland)
SME	Small and Medium Enterprises
STRU	Scottish Tourism Research Unit
TAAI	Travel Agents Association of India
TEDQUAL	Tourism Education and Quality
TTS	Tourism Training Scotland
TUI	Touristik Union International
UGC	Universities Grant Commission (Ministry of Human Resources Development, Government of India)
WTO	World Tourism Organization
WTTC	World Travel and Tourism Council
WWF	Worldwide Fund for Nature

IATO and FHRAI, and governmental agencies, such as IITTM and NCHM, is very vital for these measures to be successful. Creation of an apex body on the lines of CERT, by merging IITTM and NCHM, will help make the HRD efforts more comprehensive, in addition to facilitating the efficient deployment of the resources of these two organisations.

As far as the in-service training is concerned, the SMEs have to be provided with assistance, as they lack the resources for staff training. Initiatives such as SAITHRDP have to be continued and followed up, in order to update the programme contents and increase its geographical coverage. The IITTM, NCHM and the universities involved in tourism education could take the initiatives in this regard in collaboration with the trade associations. The training system prevalent in the airline sector could be a very good model to follow in this context.

The recent spread of tourism education in India would help a lot in educating the host community. Common methods used for host community education in tourism include extension programmes for personnel interacting with tourists, media campaigns and an adult education programme, in addition to the inclusion of tourism in the general stream of education. The public, private and voluntary sectors have to come forward to prepare the local community for tourism and the onus for this lies with IITTM and NCHM.

The challenging task of education and empowerment of tourists would require deliberate and purposeful initiatives from the tourism industry and the government agencies. The promotional materials and tour brochures of the tour operators offer a good medium for this. The airlines and hospitality sectors also could contribute a lot here. However, the most important players in this process will be the tourism industry personnel, who through their interaction with the tourists can be a major influence on their behaviour and holiday experiences. Interpretation services also have a major role in educating the tourists.

Comprehensive and sustainability driven HRD programmes would lead to sustainability oriented tourism development. The cumulative effect of the sustainability driven HRD has

the potential to bring about a new sustainability based subculture and professional ethics within the tourism industry, as well as in the general community – a form of sustainability multiplier, enabling and empowering tourism to be an agent of sustainable development. In addition, the Indian tourism industry needs to adopt such an approach to realise its real potential and to ensure sustainability.

REFERENCES

- Andrews S. 1993. India. In *Human Resources Issues in International Tourism*, Baum T (ed.). Butterworth-Heinemann: Oxford; 177–191.
- Aronsson L. 1994. Sustainable tourism systems: the example of sustainable rural tourism in Sweden. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism* 2(1 & 2): 77–92.
- Baum T. 1993. Human resources in tourism: an introduction. In *Human Resource Issues in International Tourism*, Baum T (ed.). Butterworth-Heinemann: Oxford; 3–21.
- Baum T. 1994. National tourism policies: implementing the human resource dimension. *Tourism Management* 15(4): 259–266.
- Baum T. 1995. *Managing Human Resources for the European Tourism and Hospitality Industry: a Strategic Approach*. Chapman & Hall: London.
- Baum T. 1996. Unskilled work and hospitality industry: myth or reality?. *International Journal of Hospitality Management* 15(3): 207–209.
- Baum T, Conlin MV. 1994. Comprehensive human resource planning: an essential key to sustainable tourism in island settings. In *Progress in Tourism, Recreation and Hospitality Management*, Vol. 6, Cooper CP, Lockwood A (eds). Wiley: Chichester; 259–270.
- Blanton D. 1981. Tourism training in developing countries. *Annals of Tourism Research* 8(1): 116–133.
- Bramwell B, Lane B. 1993. Sustainable tourism: an evolving global approach. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism* 1(1): 1–5.
- Britton SG. 1982. The political economy of tourism in Third World. *Annals of Tourism Research* 9(3): 331–358.
- Brogan E. 1994. Human resource development in tourism: the Scottish perspective. In *Tourism: The State of the Art*, Seaton AV, Jenkins CL, Wood R, Dieke PUC, Bennet M, MacLellan LR, Smith R (eds). Wiley: Chichester; 552–562.
- Burns PM. 1993. Sustaining tourism employment. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism* 1(2): 81–96.
- Butler RW. 1991. Tourism, environment, and sustainable development. *Environmental Conservation* 18(3): 201–209.

- Cater E, Goodall B. 1997. Must tourism destroy its resource base. In *Sustainable Tourism*, France L (ed.). Earthscan: London; 85–89.
- Clarke J. 1997. A framework of approaches to sustainable tourism. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism* 5(3): 224–233.
- Cooper C, Shepherd R, Westlake J. 1994. *Tourism Hospitality Education*. University of Surrey: Guildford.
- D'Egidio F. 1990. *The Service Era: Leadership in a Global Environment*. Productivity Press: Cambridge, MA.
- De Kadt E. 1979. Social planning for tourism in developing countries. *Annals of Tourism Research* 6(1): 36–48.
- Dobbie L. 1976. Interpreters and co-ordinators of tourism demand. I.T.A. Bulletin No. 3.
- Ghosh P. 1999. Name it, India has got it, except Tourists. <http://www.Rediff.com>
- Goodenough RA, Page SJ. 1993. Planning for tourism education and training in the 1990s: bridging the gap between industry and education. *Journal of Geography in Higher Education* 17(1): 57–72.
- Griffin T, Boele N. 1997. Alternative paths to sustainable tourism: problems, prospects, panaceas and pipe dreams. In *Tourism and Economic Development in Asia and Australasia*, Go FM, Jenkins CL (eds). Cassell: London; 321–337.
- Hall E. 1976. *Beyond Culture*. Anchor Books: New York.
- Holloway JC. 1994. *The Business of Tourism*. Longman: Essex.
- Hultsman J. 1995. Just tourism—an ethical framework. *Annals of Tourism Research* 22(3): 553–567.
- IITTM. 1995. Report of the Workshop on Tourism Education in India, Gwalior, Indian Institute of Tourism and Travel Management; 58–68.
- Inskeep E. 1994. Training for tourism in developing countries. In *Tourism: The State of the Art*, Seaton AV, Jenkins CL, Wood R, Dieke PUC, Bennet M, MacLellan LR, Smith R. (eds). Wiley: Chichester; 563–570.
- Jafari J, Ritchie JRB. 1981. Toward a framework for tourism education—problems and prospects. *Annals of Tourism Research* 8(1): 13–34.
- Jenkins CL. 1982. The effects of scale in tourism projects in developing countries. *Annals of Tourism Research* 9(2): 229–249.
- Krippendorf J. 1997. Behaviour and experiences while travelling. In *Sustainable Tourism*, France L (ed.). Earthscan: London; 45–46.
- Lane B. 1992. *Sustainable Tourism: A Philosophy*. The Rural Tourism Unit, Department of Continuing Education, University of Bristol: Bristol.
- Lockwood A, Jones P. 1984. *People and the Hotel and Catering Industry*. Cassell: London.
- MacLellan LR. 1997. The tourism and the environment debate: from idealism to cynicism. In *Hospitality, Tourism and Leisure Management*, Foley M, Lennon J, Maxwell G (eds). Cassell: London; 177–194.
- Mahesh VS. 1993. Human resource planning and development: micro and macro models for effective growth in tourism. In *Human Resource Issues in International Tourism*, Baum T (ed.). Butterworth-Heinemann: Oxford; 30–46.
- Mansfield S. 1990. *Customer Care in Tourism and Leisure: Insights*. The English Tourist Board: London.
- Martin R, Lundberg D. 1991. *Human Relations for the Hospitality Industry*. Van Nostrand Reinhold: New York.
- Messenger S. 1992. The implications of competence based education and training programs for the hospitality industry in the 1990s. *Tourism Management March*: 134–136.
- Middleton VTC, Hawkins R. 1998. *Sustainable Tourism – A Marketing Perspective*. Butterworth-Heinemann: Oxford.
- Murphy P. 1985. *Tourism: a Community Approach*. Methuen: London.
- NAPT. 1992. National Action Plan for Tourism Government of India, Ministry of Civil Aviation and Tourism: New Delhi.
- NCT. 1988. Report of the National Committee on Tourism. National Committee on Tourism, Planning Commission: New Delhi.
- Outlook (India). 1996. Going Places 3 July: 56–64.
- Parasuraman A, Zeithaml VA, Berry LL. 1985. A conceptual model of service quality and its implication for future research. *Journal of Marketing* 49: 41–50.
- Parsons D. 1996. Education and training policy. In *The Hospitality Industry, Tourism and Europe – Perspectives on Policies*, Thomas R (ed.). Capsules: London; 153–166.
- Pearce PL. 1995. From culture shock and culture arrogance to culture exchange. Ideas towards sustainable socio-cultural tourism. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism* 3(3): 143–153.
- Pollock A, Ritchie JBR. 1990. Integrated strategy for Tourism Education/Training. *Annals of Tourism Research* 17: 568–585.
- Poon A. 1993. *Tourism, Technology and Competitive Strategies*. CAB International: Wallingford.
- Porter M. 1985. *Competitive Advantage: Creating and Sustaining Superior Performance*. The Free Press: New York.
- Quinn F. 1990. *Crowning the Customer*. O'Brien Press: Dublin.

- Raguraman K. 1998. Troubled passage to India. *Tourism Management* 19(6): 533-543.
- Rao GKR. 1995. Tourism education and training with reference to IITTM, Gwalior. In Indian Institute of Tourism and Travel Management, Report of the workshop on Tourism Education in India, Gwalior; 12-16.
- Raveendran G. 1995. Tourism and employment generation. In Indian Institute of Tourism and Travel Management, Report of the workshop on Tourism Education in India, Gwalior; 32-33.
- Ryan C. 1995. Tourism courses: a new concern for new times? *Tourism Management* 16(2): 97-100.
- STRU. 1998. International Benchmarking and Best Practice Study of Training and Education for Tourism. Scottish Tourism Research Unit Report, The Scottish Hotel School: Glasgow.
- Sio M. 1993. Kenya. In *Human Resource Issues in International Tourism*, Baum T. (ed.). Butterworth-Heinemann: Oxford; 192-200.
- The Economic Times (India). 1996. Destination Greenback, **13 July**.
- Tribe J. 1997. The indiscipline of Tourism. *Annals of Tourism Research* 24(3): 638-657.
- Wall G. 1997. Sustainable tourism – unsustainable development. In *Tourism Development and Growth: the Challenge of Sustainability*. Pigram J, Wahab S (eds). Routledge: London; 33-49.
- Walsh ME. 1993. Republic of Ireland. In *Human Resource Issues in International Tourism*. Baum T (ed.). Butterworth-Heinemann: Oxford; 201-216.
- Wight P. 1993. Ecotourism: ethics or eco-sell?. *Journal of Travel Research Winter*: 3-9.
- Wight P. 1994. The greening of the hospitality industry: economic and environmental good sense. In *Tourism: the State of the Art*, Seaton AV, Jenkins CL, Wood R, Dieke PUC, Bennet M, MacLellan LR, Smith R (eds). Wiley: Chichester; 665-674.
- WTO. 1992. Guidelines for the Development of National Parks and Protected Areas for Tourism. World Tourism Organization (with UNEP and IUCN): Madrid.
- WTO. 1993. Sustainable Tourism Development: Guide for Local Planners. World Tourism Organization: Madrid.
- WTO. 1995. Educating the Educators in Tourism. World Tourism Organization: Madrid.
- WTO. 1997. An Introduction to TEDQUAL: a Methodology for Quality in Tourism Education and Training. World Tourism Organization: Madrid.
- WTO. 1998. Tourism Trends: South Asia. World Tourism Organization. Madrid.
- WTTC. 1996. Agenda 21 for the Travel and Tourism Industry: Towards Environmentally Sustainable Development. World Travel and Tourism Council (with WTO and The Earth Council): London.
- WWF/Tourism Concern. 1996. Sustainable Tourism: Moving from Theory to Practice. World Wildlife Trust: Godalming.
- Zimmerman F. 1997. Future perspectives of tourism – traditional versus new destinations. In *Pacific Rim Tourism*, Opperman M (ed.). CAB International: Wallingford; 231-239.