A sustainable hospitality and tourism workforce research agenda – exploring the past to create a vision for the future

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<a>Introduction

This chapter addresses the need for a research agenda to achieve the goal of a sustainable hospitality and tourism workforce, globally. Inhospitable working conditions, as well as the exploitation of vulnerable workers, is widespread in the sector across different locations and contexts (McIntosh and Harris 2012). Yet attention paid to these issues is marginal, not only in the sustainable tourism debate (Baum 2018; Baum et al. 2016a) but in other arenas of tourism development. The neglect may be attributable to the tourism academy's tendency to avoid contentious or unpalatable topics (Mooney et al. 2017; Ram et al. 2016, p. 201). However, it may also result from the 'disconnect' between separate avenues of research in tourism and hospitality institutions, namely studies which focus on the tourist experience; tourism and hospitality management; and critical management research, which explores the employment of individuals in the sector, frequently taking a 'problematizing' view. In the tourism management literature, the extant literature has focused on the ways individuals negotiate their working lives or how particular organizations engage with their workers

(Baum 2013; Baum et al. 2016b), and the interactions between levels have been neglected. Consequently, there have been few attempts to link the plethora of employment issues in tourism and hospitality. These troubling issues include, *inter alia*, low pay, precarious security, poor working conditions, high labour turnover, intersectional disadvantage, occupational ghettoization and employee sexual and physical abuse that can represent modern slavery. They need to be set in a wider social, cultural and economic context as the basis for coherent policy formulation.

This chapter seeks to fulfil an ambitious aim by suggesting a new research agenda to bridge such research gaps by adopting a selective, thematized approach. Firstly, the current state of hospitality and tourism workforce research will be outlined. The areas examined in turn will be critical hospitality studies, human resources management, strategic human resources approaches, peripheral tourism workforce studies, labour geographies, and diversity management in tourism and indigenous tourism. In this examination, research into practices that foster a sustainable workforce will be highlighted. Neglected research areas will be identified, drawing attention to the needs of specific groups in the workforce, such as women, younger and older workers, migrants and people with disabilities. Finally, an agenda for change will draw these strands together, indicating future directions for advancing the creation of a sustainable hospitality and tourism workforce (Baum 2018).

<a>The current state of 'mainstream' hospitality and tourism workforce research

The approach taken in this review is discursive (Paludi et al. 2014). The literature overview is not a linear progressive account; our somewhat eclectic focus is on the areas that we consider important when thinking about encouraging a more sustainable attitude to the tourism and hospitality workforce. The orientation of many studies appears to be to promote tourism as a

benefactor for local communities and tourists alike. 'Truth barriers' (Tribe 2010) are erected against challenging critical counter-discourses; for example, many tourism and hospitality industry conferences fail to offer tracks examining human resource management in the sector.

A disconnect exists between the 'grassroots' tourism activists, who deal with specific community problems, and the tourism academy, which appears to be frequently driven by commercial interests (Higgins-Desbiolles and Powys Whyte 2014). For example, the tourism sector has contributed to a massive growth in sex tourism, in particular, child sex tourism (Hawke and Raphael 2016). While this disturbing aspect of tourism is beyond the remit of our chapter, we must acknowledge that the provision of tourism services in developing countries is driven by the move from local demand to tourist demand (Burke 2018). Economic marginalization puts women and children in developing countries at risk from sexual exploitation in their home countries. Not only sexual exploitation but also the wider exploitation of the tourism and hospitality workforce is problematic in very many counties and locations, locating aspects of tourism work, particularly hospitality, within the ambit of modern slavery (Armstrong 2017; Robinson 2013). A myriad of studies reveal the prevalence of poor working conditions and the exploitation of vulnerable workers in the sector (Baum 2007, 2015; Berg and Farbenblum 2017; McIntosh and Harris 2012, Stringer 2016), yet such voices are largely ignored in the sustainable tourism debate (Baum et al. 2016a). In general, hospitality and tourism management research remains undeveloped, both in terms of scope and paradigms used.

<a>Critical hospitality workforce research

In 2008, Morrison and O'Gorman described hospitality research, in particular, as descriptive and uncritical, a perception reiterated by Laws and Scott (2015, p. 48) in their critique of

existing tourism research and what they describe as 'the proliferation of descriptive case studies and the lack of generalizable or testable hypotheses in much tourism research contrasts poorly with established disciplinary fields'. More optimistic perspectives have claimed that tourism research has undergone what was described as a 'hopeful tourism' reinvention (Pritchard et al. 2011). Given Figueroa-Domecq et al.'s (2015) scathing indictment of the tourism academy's narrow vision, including its exclusion of women in the academia and its privileging of western research paradigms, the assessment of tourism as a brave new space was potentially over-optimistic. In the field of hospitality, to counter the narrow management discourse that had come to define hospitality studies, a new journal, *Hospitality & Society*, was launched in 2011. Hospitality research was focused on hospitality management; therefore, its view was dominated by managerial-led and commercially focused interests. This, in itself, may not be a fatal flaw in terms of adding value to research, but it kept the foci narrow an at organizational level. As Baum et al. (2016b, p. 18) trenchantly observed when suggesting a new typology for hospitality and tourism workforce research: there was a need to move beyond 'a "problem solving" managerial perspective on workforce research and seek to engage with explanation'.

Tourism research does not fully engage with studying the workforce accommodating tourists' needs. Veijola et al. (2014) posit that this may be because attending to the corporeal needs of guests is somehow disorderly, where tourism wishes to create a semblance of control and order. If a tourism encounter is to be 'untamed', it should be exotically or adventurously wild, not 'mundane' or domestic (Lynch 2017). Studies may address aspects of the workforce such as tour guiding or entrepreneurial approaches to business and, most recently, attention has passed to the sharing or gig economy. However, this is generally examined from a consumer or marketing perspective, so a systematic review of what effects companies such as Uber and

Airbnb have on labour projections are lacking. Examples of narratives that explore this phenomenon include Dredge and Gyimóthy (2015) and Moragra (2017).

Human resources management

Given the significance of customer satisfaction to a service sector such as tourism, it is understandable that a wide range of studies have been devoted to the dimensions surrounding excellent service delivery (for example, Dedeoğlu and Demirer 2015). All testify to the crucial role played by front-line employees in delivering consistent service. Human resources management (HRM), therefore, should be a rewarding field for hospitality and tourism researchers and businesses. In reality, its key principles do not appear to be applied in the tourism sector. Taken from this perspective, an analysis of the application of HRM principles in the sector does not make for optimistic reading (see Baum 2007, 2015). Kuslavan and Kuslavan (2010) soberly observe the absence of enlightened HRM practices across the sector. This neglect is set to intensify in the hospitality industry given what Solnet et al. (2016) consider the abandonment of HRM professionalism. In their view, HRM appears to transitioning to an outsourced function, focused on the administration and legal compliance requirements. Likewise, Baum et al. (2016a) decry the absence of any consideration of workforce interests in the sustainable tourism debate.

One might see encouraging signs of a recognition of the importance of all stakeholders, including employees and local communities, when considering the social dimensions in the sustainable approach in the hospitality industry (for example, Legrand et al. 2016). However, very few studies explicitly provide an analysis of the financial costs and financial benefits associated with the implementation of individual sustainable practices. The pronounced lack of robust studies that would support the empirical cost/benefit measurement of specific

initiatives could potentially explain the woeful absence of enlightened strategic human resource practices in the tourism sector. Such studies would simultaneously enhance the financial performance of tourism and hospitality enterprises and justify sustainable HRM practices (such as stability of employment and employee development and training).

Strategic management approaches

Turning then to strategic management, Davidson and Wang (2011), when discussing sustainable human resource management in Australian hotels, argued that hotels need to move beyond a cost reduction focus and a reliance on casualized labour by adopting a more strategic approach to human resource management. This short-term contingent labour model is not confined to the Asia Pacific region; it is prevalent across many jurisdictions including the United Kingdom, America, New Zealand and Canada (Baum et al. 2016b; Bernhardt et al. 2003; Davidson et al. 2006; McDowell et al. 2009; Williamson 2017). It appears that changing hotel ownership and management models have profoundly affected how hotels 'manage' their human resources. In the nineties, global hotel chains began the process of divesting themselves of their 'bricks and mortar' investments. They achieved growth in their brand portfolios across a variety of geographical locations through franchising and management contracts, selling their reservation networks, operational and marketing expertise to investment corporations and private owning companies. Therefore, wide discrepancies may exist between the pay, benefits and conditions for employees working in different hotels of the same brand in terms of pay and conditions, depending on the ownership of the property (Goodsir, in press). This lack of consistency suggests that the traditional talent management and development policies practiced by global brands are now

at risk (Gannon et al. 2010) and have been eroded. This has significant implications for the training, talent development and working conditions of individual employees.

To an increasing extent in some destinations (although these appear to be global brands), properties are owned by offshore interests, divorced from local conditions and interests and only delivering value or loyalty to family interests or shareholders. Mooney's (2016) study into New Zealand hotel HR practices gave insight into the frustrations of executives over the unwillingness of overseas investment companies to increase wages for casual workers, even by a very small proportion (Mooney 2016). Supervisors were paid only marginally more than inexperienced workers who were on minimum wage arrangements. In the hospitality contingent or precarious labour appears to be regarded as the most cost effective way to respond to scholastic demand (Williamson, 2017) and there are obviously short-term advantages for organizations who are no longer responsible for what were once regarded as 'welfare' benefits, for example, medical care for workers. Although some researchers, for example, Kusluvan and Kuslavan, (2010), may regret the lack of value placed on strategic HRM in the sector, it appears that hospitality and tourism research deficiencies may have contributed to the neglect of the more positive HRM strategies implemented in other business sectors.

It seems counter-intuitive that the hospitality sector does not practice a strategic HRM approach, when the benefits are so clear. In their overview of strategic HRM management research in the tourism and hospitality sector, Madera et al. (2017) postulate that studies show a positive correlation between strategic HRM practices and superior firm performance. Effective selection, training &development and reward systems affect employees at the individual level and enhance firm performance. However, Madera et al. (2017) identify similar gaps as have been observed in other areas of hospitality research –for example, in sustainable tourism enterprises and diversity management – such as the failure to isolate the

costs associated with specific initiatives or to measure causal outcomes. Their summary of strategic HRM research in hospitality highlights 'glaring' gaps and 'room for improvement' (p. 60). In their view, the first gap is that few studies measure firm performance using direct financial measures, such as assets, return on equity, market return and sale growth; rather, they focus on individual-level or organizational-level indirect performance outcomes. The second gap is that the majority of strategic HRM studies focus on the individual, not organization level, measuring managers' perceptions of HRM, rather than measuring the effects of HRM strategies at organization level at the pinnacles of firm hierarchies. They identify a third gap as the failure to implement conceptual models that are commonly found in the general management literature. The final gap, they posit, is the absence of multi-level studies - a blind spot also observed by Baum et al. (2016b) – and the failure to examine how organizational-level processes modify behaviour and attitudes at the individual level, which feeds through into productivity levels and ultimately moderates firm performance.

In another critical review, which empirically mapped the 'intellectual structure' of research into human resources in hospitality and tourism management, García-Lillo et al. (2018, p. 11) decry the neglect of 'the human aspect [including] (…) human capital [and] (…) complex social behaviours and interactions'. Madera et al. (2017, p. 49) also remarked on this deficiency, referring to the 'black box' of factors that mediate the effect of HIWS on performance, such as human and social capital and motivation. García-Lillo et al. (2018, p. 11) argue that human resources are a critically important element in a hospitality or tourism firm's competitive advantage. Therefore, they believe that without effective HRM strategies, hospitality and tourism businesses are unable to change quickly enough in response to threats and opportunities.

Digital disruption

In her prediction of future challenges facing dynamic tourism and hospitality sector, Christensen Hughes (2018) reiterates the importance of organisations' rapid responsiveness to change. Market share growth is being considerably 'disrupted' by digital technologies. She observes that the focus on value, convenience, ethical consumption and authentic encounters is being driven by millennial tastes and demand. In her view, there are significant implications for HRM including what kind of employees are required and how they can best be trained, engaged and retained. She argues that competition from digital platforms may finally drive the industry to change its cost-based approach. Recent research shows, however, that digital disruption may just reproduce current precarious employment models. Sigala (in press) draws intriguing conclusions from her study of Airbnb operations in Australia in noting the transition of collaborative economy entrepreneurs into the mainstream commercial world, thus losing many of the social dimensions of networked hospitality.

While there are undoubtedly positive aspects, many of the employment arrangements in peripheral businesses that support larger-scale commercial applications of Airbnb appear to provide 'gig economy' insecure work. Capital is also required for individuals to avail of opportunities to rent accommodation 'for hire', hardly a positive antidote to the precarious employment arrangements of globalised hospitality and tourism businesses.

Peripheral tourism studies

In considering how we may better understand the array of complex factors at macro and meso-organizational levels, and how they may affect the individual in a specific national context, it is necessary to study the local and regional economic factors. Studies that fall outside the mainstream 'hospitality or tourism management' studies add helpful details in two

ways. Firstly, economic geographers such as McDowell et al. (2007, 2009) looked at how wider labour market and economic forces are replicated in miniature by hotel HR managers. Secondly, researchers have taken a specific issue, such as labour demand and supply or migrant employment (for example, Riley and Szivas 2009), to examine the effects on local hospitality pay rates. Such studies are not easily classifiable and is equally likely to appear in the geographical, social science or business journals. Another rich vein of information to be mined is industrial relations research; for example, Williamson's (2017) meticulously examines how changing relationships between hotel owners, trade unionists and state legislators profoundly influenced conditions for hospitality workers in New Zealand over a long period of time. When the 'benign collusion' between the three ceased, protection for workers reduced dramatically, resulting in a measurable decline in wage rates and working conditions during the period.

<a>Labour geography

In an overview of labour geography's contribution to tourism work research, Ioannides and Zampoukos (2018, p. 1) criticize the approach as 'piecemeal and case based, demonstrating unawareness of broader theoretical discussions and debates within the sub-field of labour geography'. In particular, they decry the attitude of mainly western researchers who focus on the bad jobs in tourism, but discount the myriad of advantages provided by jobs in tourism and hospitality in middle latitude countries. They suggest that the binary 'good' versus 'bad' job debate skates over the deeper complexities, including geographical issues surrounding hospitality and tourism employment. In their view, discussions in human geography concerning tourism work and workers centre excessively on migration and worker mobility.

Duncan et al.'s (2013) research into labour mobility in New Zealand would be an exception to this rule as it clearly identified local factors including seasonality and employment conditions, linking macro factors to individual outcomes. However, such case-based studies have seriously limited the development of theory, and Ioannides and Zampoukos (2018) believe that labour geographers have not really investigated the labour dimensions of tourism and associated services such as hospitality. In their view, Herod's (1994, 1997) innovative conceptualization of 'labour geography' offered 'an alternative viewpoint of work and worker's agency within economic geography [and] recognises that workers are in themselves important agents in producing, shaping and reshaping their everyday geographies'. Similarly, Mooney et al. (2017, p. 362) in their study on the intersections of age, gender and ethnicity in hotel work, suggest that workers, even those in the lowest positions of the organisational hierarchy, asserted their own agency by choosing to work in supportive environments that responded in different ways to the same meso and macro factors as their competitors.

In a somewhat depressing conclusion, Ioannides and Zampoukos (2018) ultimately attribute the contentious 'low status' of hospitality employment to the growing casualization perspectives. For instance, critical hospitality researcher, Guerrier (2008), observes that the fact that so many migrants are employed in very poor quality jobs in hospitality lessens the appeal of such jobs for local workers. Nonetheless, Ioannides and Zampoukos consider the notion of mobility is important and should include inter-sectoral and intra-sectoral mobilities, not just the geographical dimensions of migration. Tourism work has always concerned mobility and, in particular, class and gendered aspects of mobility are especially significant. While the international hotel managers are the elite, the invisible workers toiling at the lowest levels of hospitality work are the 'vagabonds and gypsies', to paraphrase Bauman (2007).

Diversity management research in tourism and hospitality

As the hospitality and tourism in many locations is multicultural and otherwise diverse, one would expect hospitality diversity studies to investigate systems and practices that allow employees from different backgrounds, genders and ethnic origins to reach their full potential, and thus positively influence organizational performance. While many studies highlight the critical importance of supporting all front-line employees to deliver high customer satisfaction in service organizations (for example, Michel et al. 2013; Shani et al. 2014), critiques of hospitality diversity research paint a disturbing picture. A systematic literature review by Manoharan and Singal (2017) concluded that most studies were descriptive, United States-centric and did not reproduce the sophisticated theoretical framings common in the general management literature. They found the majority of diversity studies were related to gender, a classification they observe appears to relate solely to women in hospitality research – although in wider organizational and diversity studies, 'gender' encompasses men and women, masculinity and feminist studies. A further critical review of diversity management research in hospitality and tourism by Kalargyrou and Costen (2017, p. 108) presents similar bleak conclusions, soberly concluding that many studies lack theoretical grounding or the incorporation of a contemporary interpretative paradigm – as is found in the general management literature. They believe that research on employees with disabilities and on LGTBQ employees is seriously lacking, and that new paradigms are required to study the increasing age diversity in the workforce.

When considering the first area – employees with disabilities – perspectives based on a medical definition of disability, have largely been replaced by a social model. The social model of persons with disabilities suggests that the effects of disability are compounded by negative societal attitudes and barriers, which prevent, or limit, the full participation of people with disabilities in society. The Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities

(United Nations 2016) enshrines the rights of people with disabilities. Its website sets forth the enshrined vision of the United Nations, which has been adopted by 160 countries. The convention

> takes to a new height the movement from viewing persons with disabilities as 'objects' of charity, medical treatment and social protection towards viewing persons with disabilities as 'subjects' with rights, who are capable of claiming those rights and making decisions for their lives based on their free and informed consent as well as being active members of society (United Nations 2016, para. 2).

When investigating how tourism enterprises integrate people with disabilities into the workforce, McIntosh and Harris's (in print) study analysed societal and workplace attitudes displayed in a BBC television series, which followed a group of young people with various disabilities – including visual impairment and Downs Syndrome – gaining work experience in different types of hospitality establishments. They found that, although theoretically the sector can offer many employment possibilities, in reality, this does not occur.

In another study addressing managerial attitudes to hiring people with disabilities, Paez and Arendt (2014, p. 21) established that most managers did not have 'strong favourable attitudes' towards working with people with disabilities. They suggest a twofold focus would pay dividends, firstly to educate and train managers so that they have realistic expectations of their employees' capabilities. Secondly, managers should be aware of their importance as role models and should be educated in projecting affirming attitudes towards employees with disabilities. Supporting this stance, a study on the disability initiatives in 10 hospitality companies identified in *DiversityInc.* magazine's 2012 top-10-ranked employers for persons with disabilities (Kalargyrou and Volis 2014, p. 450) found that employing people with disabilities enhanced creativity, but included a range of caveats. The success of such

initiatives 'requires strong commitment from top leadership; an inclusive corporate culture; the creation of alliances with states and vocational rehabilitation agencies; proper accommodation and training of people with disabilities; holding all workers to the same standards; and establishing performance appraisal metrics and incentives to meet disability inclusion goals' (ibid, p. 450).

The second area, 'generational research', identified by Kalargyrou and Costen (2017), remains fragmented, although talent management has been a topic of considerable interest to the tourism sector. Many reports, for example, Deery and Jago (2015), conclude there is a widespread shortage of skilled labour in the hospitality and tourism sector. One can say it has ever been thus, and the response of the sector has been to bring in migrant workers at the lower levels. However, this does not solve the problem of the talent shortfall at managerial levels. A plethora of studies (for example, Kim et al. 2016; Lugosi and Jameson 2017; Richardson and Butler 2012) have explained that a high percentage of hospitality and tourism graduates do not intend to make a career in the sector. Weaver's (2009) research shows that while tourism graduates were satisfied by careers in the sector, hospitality graduates were less so. Reasons students proffered for their wish to seek alternative careers were the unsocial hours and the low rates of pay (Richardson and Butler 2012).

Goh and Lee (2018) indicate that Gen Z (people born from the mid-1990s to the early 2000s) have more positive than negative attitudes about working in the sector. In comparison to previous studies – for example, Richardson (2009), which suggested low pay rates was a negative factor – low pay was not proffered as a disincentive; rather, Gen Z respondents were more motivated by job satisfaction and career prospects. The authors recommend that recruiters emphasize the travel opportunities and career paths. They also suggest preparing students for the difficulties of dealing with customers, a major source of anxiety for this generation. While stating that low pay is not a major disincentive, they recommend that

hospitality organizations be clearer about pay scales and career paths. Over time, retention

studies have gradually moved from a focus on turnover to a focus on managing talent. Two

definitive studies are Deery and Jago's (2009, 2015) meta analyses of talent management,

work-life balance and retention strategies in the sector, which conclude that more humanistic

practices, for example, flexible work practices, will increase retention and employee

satisfaction. In some respects, such studies appear redundant in a sector characterized by

casualized work arrangements and obscure or non-existent career paths.

<a>Indigenous tourism destinations and community workforces

It would appear logical that any discussion on sustainable tourism development should

consider the inclusion and development of local employees, especially where regional culture

is a major attraction for tourists. As part of this dialogue, Higgins-Desbiolles and Powys

Whyte (2014, p. 94) suggest that a primary function of tourism research should be to serve

the local community, rather than 'being subservient to narrow academic interests'. They

suggest that one way to achieve this is by adhering to human and special rights codes, and

critical theorization such as feminist or Indigenous can further such aims. Therefore, we will

now consider what useful future directions can be of interest in this space. Amoamo (2017)

suggests that due to the frantic pace of tourism studies, increased understandings about

Indigenous tourism have finally come to the fore, and descriptions of cultural tourism

experiences have become more complex and fractured. Initiatives that have been developed

in response to factors specific to particular locations can offer useful insights. For example,

we have much to learn from Māori perspectives on sustainable tourism development. Māori

are the indigenous people of New Zealand and their cultural knowledge is underpinned by a

holistic worldview 'with a relational epistemology that link[s] the natural and cultural worlds,

through past, present and future' (Amoamo, 2017, p. 165). Therefore, Māori visions of how a

tourism or hospitality enterprise should run are grounded in a sustainable development philosophy, what Amoamo terms a strong iwi (tribal) identity with intrinsic connection to the natural landscape and intergenerational wellbeing. In her study on a tourism destination in the South Island of New Zealand (Amoamo, 2017), she stresses that local communities need greater involvement in the marketing of their culture and, by definition, the incorporation of Māori values into how organizations are run.

When discussing how sustainable objectives are embedded in community tourism enterprises, Wikitera and Bremner (2017) explain that Māori business models do not necessarily follow a model that focusses on profit maximization. A Māori tourism business follows a model that allows them 'to share their culture, while at the same time promoting economic social and cultural sustainability' (Wikitera and Bremner 2017, p. 204). Wikitera and Bremner suggest that there can be challenges in adhering to the sustainable development model identified by Spiller and Erakovic (2005) with its four goals – economic, environmental, social and cultural wealth creation. According to this model, tribal members are able to give input from different aspects and generations. However, in Wikitera and Bremner's example of a thermal village, there is limited capacity for career development due to government control of the guide qualification system, which causes 'tribal experts' to leave the region. Thus, they observe with dismay that this reinforces the New Zealand perception that tourism jobs are not 'real jobs', a point communicated by other studies on the hospitality and tourism workforce (Harris et al. 2011; Williamson 2017).

<a>Summary of contemporary hospitality and tourism workforce management challenges

In this section, we seek to draw together the disparate stands in the preceding rich tapestry of hospitality and tourism workplace research. As a 'starting point', Burke's (2018) analysis of current and future issues in HRM in the tourism and hospitality industries usefully identifies the following challenges:

1. being selective in staffing and hiring;

2. offering competitive and fair pay;

3. providing more supportive, friendly and humane supervision;

4. using job characteristics and job design to offer more variety and job enlargement;

5. empowering staff by increasing job and engagement and involvement;

6. reducing levels of some job stressors;

7. creating a customer service culture;

8. developing stronger and visionary leadership at senior and executive levels.

Our preceding, admittedly limited, review of authoritative research on the current state of tourism and hospitality workplaces delivers the following key conclusions, which indicate the ideals of a sustainable approach to tourism employment:

1. In western society, critical hospitality studies reveal there has been a measurable and marked decline in the working conditions and remuneration of hospitality and tourism workers.

2. In developing tourism destinations, tourist demand has led to the sexual exploitation of women and, in some locations, men, and the trafficking of children for sex.

3. Indigenous peoples, ethnic minorities and local communities have been excluded from discussions about the sharing of their environmental resources in tourism destinations and from full participation in the associated financial rewards. Tourism demand has displaced local residents and local workers.

4. Research into human resource management practices has been ineffective in highlighting the necessity of strategic HRM practices, as it has neglected to design effective studies that focus on measurable tangible outcomes of HIWP.

5. Hospitality and tourism strategic HRM research has failed to take human capital, social capital and human behaviour into account.

6. Hospitality and tourism workforce research has ignored the effect of macro and societal factors that influence HRM practices in different tourism contexts.

7. Hospitality and tourism diversity research has ignored theoretical models usual in the management literature and failed to test the empirical effect of specific diversity policies and initiatives.

8. Hospitality diversity research has failed to recognize inter-group differences when looking at the effect of diversity practices and failed to investigate the influence of age, disability and sexual orientation in hospitality and tourism management.

9. The pace of digital disruption in the hospitality and tourism sector indicates that elements of the sharing economy have replicated intensive precarious labour practices across different types in the sector.

<a>A vison for the future

Building on the evident gaps within existing research across the range of our identified themes, we now address the development of a forward-looking research agenda that operates

at two levels: defining a macro, policy-informing plan of action; as well as incorporating the meso or organizational-level considerations that research could usefully address.

<b>Research agenda at the macro level

At a macro level, tourism and hospitality research that focuses on workforce themes should have an ethical focus that includes concerns such as job quality, precarious employment, inclusivity, indigenous tourism, exploitative tourism and the inculcation of a sustainable HRM approach. Policy at a local, national and trans-national level should give consideration to these areas in formulating policy for tourism, as a considered counter-weight to a predominant focus in tourism development on marketing, increased visitation, infrastructure and services (Baum 2018). Research increasingly shows that diversity targets are only achieved through affirmative actions and quotas (Kalargyrou and Costen 2017). Research should be policy-informing in this regard and provide the tools for governments to require organizations to report the gender, sexuality and ethnicity of employees, as well as how many have disabilities, including those on casualized work arrangements. It is only through measures such as this that real change can be effected.

<b>Research agenda at the meso level

There seems little appetite among governments to call into account industry sectors, such as hospitality and tourism, that widely exploit migrant labour. Recent reports in many locations have detailed practices tantamount to modern slavery, and similar evidence has been reported in Australia with respect to foreign backpackers (Berg and Farbenblum 2017). When we look at the practices of successful organizations, there are lessons to be learned. However, it is unrealistic to imagine that organizations will move from the cost cutting models that have

appeared to serve them well over the last 30 years. Research outcomes should promote organizations with ambitious, measurable targets for employee equality and inclusion, as well as robust policies on sexual harassment that protect employees who work for them. They should foster and support consumer organizations that rate and reward businesses that use sustainable labour practices. Much research (Maxwell et al. 2010) details the importance of positive socialization models for new employees in ridding the sector of its temporary work approach. Engaging with industry to see how this can happen could become a priority for researchers.

Sustainable HRM is a model that can provide real and tangible benefits to communities and also enshrine tangible benefits for tourists, hosts and local communities; for example, Zaugg et al. (2001, p. 1) define sustainable HRM as 'long term socially and economically efficient recruitment, development, retainment and disemployment of employees'. Similarly, Ehnert et al. (2016, p. 90) see sustainable HRM as 'the adoption of HRM strategies and practices that enable the achievement of financial, social and ecological goals, with an impact inside and outside of the organization and over a long-term time horizon while controlling for unintended side effects and negative feedback'. Consideration of employment in sustainability terms has emerged as part of a movement to redress what Parkin Hughes et al. (2017) call 'the sustainability skew', by which the primary focus of debate in this area was dominated by considerations of environmental rather than social sustainability. This application of sustainability principles to employment is an emergent field that has only recently seen adoption within tourism (Baum 2018; Baum et al. 2016a) with the somewhat depressing conclusion that 'in general, hospitality and tourism HRM operates contrary to the principles of sustainable HRM' (Baum et al. 2016a, p. 15).

Such an approach can ensure that the benefits of tourism are shared within the community, rather than accruing to external organizations. A sustainable approach to HRM can also ensure that different generations can contribute – and have their contribution valued – to the creation of wealth that tourism can bring to rural region and developing countries. It can also provide some of the multi-generational dialogues that are missing in tourism employment discourses (Manoharan and Singal 2017). As with many other cases of minority group exploitation, there is an intersectional dimension to reports of abuse. It appears that refugees and migrants are more vulnerable to the imposition of conditions of slavery by fellow migrant business owners in environments where residency visas are eagerly sought. Recent high-profile cases before the courts in New Zealand detail modern-day slavery conditions (Dalley 2017 NZHerald 2018). Again, researchers can play a stronger role by working more closely with culturally affiliated organizations to ensure that new arrivals are educated about their rights and entitlements. In similar fashion, there are intersections of ethnicity and gender visible in the disproportionally large number of ethnic minority and indigenous women working at the lowest levels of insecure work in hospitality. Holvino (2010) suggests that we cannot disentangle race from gender and class when looking at workers marginalized in low-quality jobs. This observation of context and nuance must be embedded in future hospitality studies if we sincerely wish to support a realistic and viable debate on sustainable tourism.

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